



Frontispiece

PALACE OF THE ESCURIAL.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

J. Bass sc.

ENCYCLOPÆDIA LONDINENSIS;

OR,

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

OF

ARTS, SCIENCES, AND LITERATURE:

COMPREHENDING,

UNDER ONE GENERAL ALPHABETICAL ARRANGEMENT,

ALL THE WORDS AND SUBSTANCE OF

EVERY KIND OF DICTIONARY EXTANT IN THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE:

IN WHICH THE IMPROVED DEPARTMENTS OF

THE MECHANICAL ARTS, THE LIBERAL SCIENCES, THE HIGHER MATHEMATICS, AND THE SEVERAL
BRANCHES OF POLITE LITERATURE,

ARE SELECTED FROM THE

ACTS, MEMOIRS, AND TRANSACTIONS, OF THE MOST EMINENT LITERARY SOCIETIES
IN EUROPE, ASIA, AND AMERICA,

FORMING A COMPREHENSIVE VIEW OF THE RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE, OF HUMAN
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AND ENRICHED WITH

PORTRAITS OF EMINENT AND LEARNED PERSONAGES, IN ALL AGES OF THE WORLD.

PROJECTED AND ARRANGED

BY JOHN WILKES, OF MILLAND HOUSE, IN THE COUNTY OF SUSSEX, ESQUIRE;

ASSISTED BY EMINENT SCHOLARS OF THE ENGLISH, SCOTCH, AND IRISH, UNIVERSITIES.

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S E E

SEE, *s.* [*sedes*, Lat.] The seat of episcopal power; the diocese of a bishop: formerly, the seat of power in a general sense.—Jove laugh'd on Venus from his sov'rainyne *see*. *Spenser*.

You, my lord archbishop,
Whose *see* is by a civil peace maintain'd. *Shakspeare*.

To **SEE**, *v. a.* preter. *I saw*; part. pass. *seen*. [*reon*, Saxon; *sien*, Dutch.] To perceive by the eye.—It was a right answer of the physician to his patient, that had sore eyes: if you have more pleasure in the taste of wine than in the use of your sight, wine is good for you; but if the pleasure of *seeing* be greater to you than that of drinking, wine is naught. *Locke*.—*I see* her sober over a sampler. *Pope*.—To observe; to find.

Such command we had,
To *see* that none thence issu'd forth a spy. *Milton*.

To discover; to descry.

Who is so gross
As cannot *see* this palpable device?
Yet who so bold but says he *sees* it not?
When such ill dealings must be *seen* in thought. *Shakspeare*.

To converse with.—The main of them may be reduced to language, and to an improvement in wisdom and prudence by *seeing* men, and conversing with people of different tempers and customs. *Locke*.

To **SEE**, *v. n.* To have the power of sight; to have by the eye perception of things distant.—Air hath some secret degree of light; otherwise cats and owls could not *see* in the night. *Bacon*.—To discern without deception; with *through*.—Many sagacious persons will find us out, will look under our mask, and *see through* all our fine pretensions, and discern the absurdity of telling the world that we believe one thing when we do the contrary. *Tillotson*.—To inquire; to distinguish.—*See* whether fear doth make thee wrong her. *Shakspeare*.—To be attentive.

Mark and perform it, *see'st* thou; for the fail
Of any point in't shall be death. *Shakspeare*.

Let me *see*, is synonymous with let me consider.

To **SEE** *to*. To behold; to look at.

A certain shepherd lad,
Of small regard to *see to*. *Milton*.

SEE, *interj.* [Originally the imperative of the verb *see*.]
Lo; look; observe; behold.

See, see! upon the banks of Boyne he stands,
By his own view adjusting his commands. *Halifax*.

See! the sole bliss Heav'n could on all bestow,
Which who but feels can taste, but thinks can know? *Pope*.

See what it is to have a poet in your house. *Pope*.

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S E E

SEE AMOL, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 5. 27. N. long. 118. 48. E.

SEEASSEE, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. It is a high island, well wooded, but cleared in many places, and inhabited, and supplied with water. It yields many cowries and small baat, named Seeassee. Lat. 5. 25. N. long. 120. 50. E.

SEEBAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore, and capital of a small district of the same name, belonging to the Seiks. It is fortified, and situated on the bank of a small river. Lat. 31. 39. N. long. 75. 34. E.

SEE BANGOG, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 4. 18. N. long. 118. 24. E.

SEE BEEROO, or **SI BIRU ISLE**, an island on the west coast of Sumatra, about 70 miles in length by 10 in average breadth. It lies between the 1st and 2d degrees of south lat., and the 98th and 99th of east long. This island has been commonly omitted in our charts, or denoted to be uncertain. It is inhabited by the Mantaway race, and the inhabitants both of Si Pora and the Pogy isles, consider it as their parent country; but they are, notwithstanding, generally in a state of hostility; and in 1783, no intercourse existed between them. The inhabitants are distinguished only by some variety of the patterns in which their skins are tattooed. This island is rendered conspicuous from a distance, by a volcano mountain.

SEEBERG, a hill of Upper Saxony, to the west and south-west of Gotha, with a celebrated astronomical observatory, in long. 10. 44. 0. E. lat. 50. 56. 8. N.

SEEBGUNGE. There are several towns of this name in the provinces of Bahar and Bengal, &c., but none of any importance.

SEEBURG, a village of Prussian Saxony, situated between the Mansfeld lakes, the one of which has fresh, the other salt water, produced by brine springs; 11 miles west of Halle.

SEEBURG, a small town of East Prussia; 50 miles south of Königsberg. Population 1300. Lat. 53. 57. 54. N. long. 20. 45. 30. E.

SEED, *s.* [ræb, Saxon; *seed*, Danish; *sæd*, Dutch.] The organized particle produced by plants and animals, from which new plants and animals are generated.

If you can look into the *seeds* of time,
And say which grain will grow and which will not,
Speak them to me. *Shakspeare*.

Did they ever see any herbs, except those of the grass-leaved tribe, come up without two *seed* leaves; which to me is an argument that they came all of *seed*, there being no reason else why they should produce two *seed* leaves different from the subsequent. *Ray*.—First principle; original.—The *seed* of whatsoever perfect virtue groweth from us, is a right opinion

opinion touching things divine. *Hooker*.—Progeny; offspring; descendants.

Next him king Lear in happy peace long reign'd;
But had no issue male him to succeed,
But three fair daughters which were well uptrain'd
In all that seemed fit for kingly *seed*.

Spenser.

Race; generation; birth.

Of mortal *seed* they were not held,
Which other mortals so excell'd;
And beauty too in such excess,
As your's, Zelinda! claims no less.

Waller.

To SEED, *v. n.* To grow to perfect maturity so as to shed the seed.

Whate'er I plant, like corn on barren earth,
By an equivocal birth,
Seeds and runs up to poetry.

Swift.

To shed the seed.—It hath already floured, so that I feare it will shortly *seede*. *Lyte's Herbal*.

SEE'D-CAKE, *s.* A sweet cake.

Remember, wife,

The *seed-cake*, the pasties, and furmenty pot. *Tusser*.

SEE'DED, *adj.* Bearing seed; covered thick with seeds. Some hollow tree, or bed Of *seeded* nettles. *Fletcher*.

Interspersed as with seeds.—A blue mantle *seeded* with stars. *B. Jonson*.

SEE'DER, *s.* [*æbepe*, Sax. *seminator*.] One who sows.

SEEDGHUR, a celebrated fortress of Hindostan, province of Bejapore. This place was taken from the Mahrattas by the British in the month of March 1818, with scarcely any loss.

SEE'DLING, *s.* A young plant just risen from the seed.—Carry into the shade such *seedlings* or plants as are for their choiceness reserved in pots. *Evelyn*.

SEE'DLIP, or SEE'DLOP, *s.* [*æð-læp*, Saxon.] A vessel in which the sower carries his seed.

SEE'DNESS, *s.* Seedtime; the time of sowing.

Blossoming time

From the *seedness* the bare fallow brings
To teeming foison. *Shakspeare*.

SEE'DPEARL, *s.* Small grains of pearl.—In the dissolution of *seedpearl* in some acid menstruum, if a good quantity of the little pearls be cast in whole, they will be carried in swarms from the bottom to the top. *Boyle*.

SEE'DPLOT, *s.* The ground on which plants are sowed to be afterwards transplanted.—To counsel others, a man must be furnished with an universal store in himself to the knowledge of all nature: that is, the matter and *seedplot*; there are the seats of all argument and invention. *B. Jonson*.

SEE'DSMAN, *s.* The sower; he that scatters the seed.

The higher Nilus swells

The more it promises: as it ebbs, the *seedsman*

Upon the slime and ooze scatters his grain,

And shortly comes to harvest. *Shakspeare*.

One that sells seeds.

SEE'DTIME, *s.* [*Sax. æð-tima*.] The season of sowing.—If he would have two tributes in one year, he must give them two *seedtimes*, and two harvests. *Bacon*.

Day and night,

Seedtime and harvest, heat and hoary frost,
Shall hold their course, till fire purge all things. *Milton*.

SEE'DY, *adj.* Abounding with seed.

SEEDY ABDEL ABBUS, a village of Tunis, anciently called *Musti*, and where there are still the remains of a beautiful triumphal arch; 16 miles north-east of Keft.

SEEDY ABDELMOUMEN, a small sea-port of Tlemsan, in Algiers, on the coast of the Mediterranean, with a small but good road for vessels. It takes its name from a celebrated prophet, whose tomb the inhabitants hold in great veneration.

SEEDY ABDULLAH, a small sea-port of Morocco, on the coast of the Atlantic; 30 miles north of Mogodor.

SEEDY ABID, a noted sanctuary of Tlemsan, in Algiers, at the conflux of the Arhew and the Shelliff; 30 miles east of Mustygannim.

SEEDY BOSGANNIM, a village of Tunis; 40 miles south-west of Keft.

SEEDY BUSOROCTON, a small sea-port of Morocco, on the coast of the Atlantic; 10 miles north of Mogodor.

SEEDY DOUDE, a sanctuary of Tunis, in Africa, situated at the northern extremity of the peninsula of Dakkul, surrounded with the ruins of the ancient Misua. It received its present name in honour of Doude, or David, a Moorish saint. The people shew a cavity, five yards long, which they pretend to be his sepulchre, though Dr. Shaw is convinced that it is nothing more than a fragment of some Roman *prætorium*. He founds this belief on three tessellated or Mosaic pavements, bearing marks of being the workmanship of that people. They are wrought with the greatest symmetry and exactness; for besides the general design, executed in a great variety of shapes and colours, the many figures of horses, birds, fishes and trees, are so judiciously intermixed and curiously inlaid, that they appear superior to tolerable paintings; 150 miles north-east of Tunis.

SEEDY EESAII, a village of Algiers, anciently called Sava; 25 miles south of Boujeiah.

SEEDY MEDDUB, a village of Tunis, in Africa; 20 miles north of Gabs.

SEEDY NEDJA, a village of Algiers; 26 miles east of Burg Hamza.

SEEDY OCCUBA, a village of the Bled-el-Jereede, to the south of Algiers, on which it is dependent. It is famous for the tomb of an Arabian general of that name, and for that of Seedy Lascar, its tutelary saint; 15 miles south east of Biscara.

SEEDY TERJE, a cape of Algiers, on which is situated a sanctuary, with some Roman ruins.

SEEFELD, a small town of Lower Austria; 39 miles north-by-west of Vienna. Population 1200.

SEEHAUSEN, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the duchy of Magdeburg, with 1700 inhabitants; 15 miles west of Brandenburg.

SEEHAUSEN, another small town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Magdeburg, completely surrounded by the river Aland. Population 2100; 70 miles west-north-west of Berlin.

SEEHEIM, a village in the west of Germany, in the grand duchy of Hesse; 7 miles south of Darmstadt, with 800 inhabitants.

SEE'ING, *s.* Sight; vision.—Love adds a precious *seeing* to the eye. *Shakspeare*.

SEE'ING, or SEE'ING *that, adv.* Since; sith; it being so that.—*Seeing* every nation affords not experience and tradition enough for all kind of learning, therefore we are taught the languages of those people who have been most industrious after wisdom. *Milton*.

To SEEK, *v. a.* pret. *I sought*; part. pass. *sought*. [*recan*, Sax.; *soecken*, Dutch; *soekia*, Icel.; *sokja*, M. Goth.] To look for; to search for: often with *out*.—He did range the town to *seek* me out. *Shakspeare*.

I have a venturous fairy, that shall *seek*

The squirrel's hoard, and fetch thee thence new nuts.

Shakspeare.

To solicit; to endeavour to gain.—The young lions roar after their prey, and *seek* their meat from God. *Ps.*—To go to find.

Let us *seek* death, or, he not found, supply
His office. *Milton*.

Since great Ulysses *sought* the Phrygian plains,
Within these walls inglorious silence reigns. *Pope*.

To pursue by machinations.

I had a son,

Now outlaw'd from my blood; he *sought* my life.

Shakspeare.

To SEEK, *v. u.* To make search; to make inquiry.—*Seek* ye out of the book of the Lord, and read. *Isa.*—To endeavour.

Ask not what pains, nor further *seek* to know
Their process, or the forms of law below. *Dryden.*

To make pursuit.—If thy brother's ox or sheep go astray, it shall be with thee until thy brother *seek* after it. *Deut.*—To apply to; to use solicitation.—All the earth *sought* to Solomon to hear his wisdom. *1 Kings.*—To endeavour after.—Being a man of experience, he wished by wisdom to order that which the young prince *sought* for by war. *Knolles.*

To SEEK. [An adverbial mode of speech.] At a loss; without measures, knowledge, or experience.—Being brought and transferred from other services abroad, though they be of good experience in those, yet in these they will be new to *seek*; and before they have gathered experience, they shall buy it with great loss to his majesty. *Spenser.*—Unpractis'd, unprepar'd, and still to *seek.* *Milton.*

But they misplace them all;
And are as much to *seek* in other things,
As he that only can design a tree,
Would be to draw a shipwreck. *Roseomon.*

SEEKER, *s.* One that seeks; an inquirer.—A language of a very witty volatile people, *seekers* after novelty, and abounding with variety of notions. *Locke.*—The name of a sect which professed no determinate religion.—Sir Henry Vane—set up a form of religion in a way of his own; yet it consisted rather in a withdrawing from all other forms, than in any new or particular opinions or forms; from which he and his party were called *seekers.* *Burnet.*

SEEKHONK, a name applied to Pawtucket river, in the United States, below Pawtucket bridge and falls, to its junction with Providence river, a distance of 4 or 5 miles.

SEEKHONK, a post township of the United States, in Bristol county, Massachusetts, on the east side of Pawtucket or Seekhonk river, opposite North Providence; 38 miles south-south-west of Boston.

SEEK-SORROW, *s.* One who contrives to give himself vexation. *Unused.*

Afield they go, where many lookers be,
And thou *seek-sorrow*, Klaius, them among:
Indeed thou saidst it was thy friend to see,
Strephon, whose absence seem'd unto thee long. *Sidney.*

To SEEL, *v. a.* [*siller les yeux*, “to seel or sew up the eyelids; and hence, also, to hoodwink, blind, keep in darkness, &c.” *Cotgrave.*] To close the eyes. A term of falconry; the eyes of a wild or haggard hawk being for a time seeled or closed.—Now she brought them to see a seeled dove, who the blinder she was, the higher she strave. *Sidney.*

Come, *seeling* night,
Scarf up the tender eye of pitiful day. *Shakespeare.*

Some ambitious men seem as screens to princes in matters of danger and envy; for no man will take such parts, unless he be like the seeled dove, that mounts and mounts, because he cannot see about him. *Bacon.*

To SEEL, *v. n.* [*gyllan*, Sax.] To lean on one side.—When a ship *seels* or rolls in foul weather, the breaking loose of ordnance is a thing very dangerous. *Ralegh.*

SEEL, or SEELING, *s.* The agitation of a ship in foul weather. *Ainsworth.*

At His command black tempests rise;
Then mount they to the troubled skies:
Thence sinking to the depths below,
The ship hulls as the billows flow:
And all aboard, at every *seel*,
Like drunkards on the hatches reele. *Sandys.*

SEEL, *s.* [*zæl*, Sax. *opportunitas.*] Season; time.—It is a fair *seel* for you to come at, i. e. a fair season or time: spoken ironically to them that come late. What *seel* of

day? i. e. what time of day? *Essex. Ray, and Grose.*—*Hay-seel*, hay-time; *barley-seel*, wheat-seel, bark-seel. *Norfolk. Grose.*

SEELAND, or ZEELAND, a village of the Netherlands, in North Brabant; 15 miles east of Bois le Duc. Population 900.

SEELAU, a large village of the interior of Bohemia, circle of Czaslau, remarkable for a large monastery, and for the topazes, agates and rock crystals occasionally excavated in the environs.

SEELBURG, or SCHASPELS, a small town in the north-west of European Russia, in the government of Courland, on the left bank of the Dwina, formerly the residence of the bishops of Semigalia; 58 miles south-east of Riga.

SEELINGAN, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 6. 4. N. long. 118. 15. E.

SEELOW, a small town of Prussia, in the Middle Mark of Brandenburg; 11 miles west of Kustrin, and 40 east of Berlin, containing 1300 inhabitants, part of whom are linen weavers.

SEELOWITZ, or ZIDLCHOWICE, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, on the Schwarza; 12 miles south of Brunn. Population 1000.

SEELY, *adj.* [*zæly*, Sax. *happy, prosperous*; from *zæl*, *lucky time.*] Lucky; happy.

My *seely* sheep like well below,
For they been hale enough, I trow,
And liken their abode. *Spenser.*

Silly; foolish; simple; inoffensive.

If thee lust to holden chat
With *seely* shepheard's swayne,
Come downe, and learne the little what,
That Thomalin can sayne. *Spenser.*

Peacock and turkie, that nibbles off top,
Are very ill neighbours to *seely* poor hop. *Tusser.*

To SEEM, *v. n.* [Possibly from the Icel. *sacman*, to become; *zeimen*, Germ. the same. *Todd.*] To appear; to make a show; to have semblance.

My lord, you've lost a friend, indeed;
And I dare swear, you borrow not that face
Of *seeming* sorrow; it is sure your own. *Shakespeare.*

So spake the Omnipotent; and with his words
All *seem'd* well pleas'd; all *seem'd*, but were not all. *Milton.*

To have the appearance of truth.—It *seems* to me, that the true reason why we have so few versions which are tolerable, is because there are so few who have all the talents requisite for translation. *Dryden.*—In *Shakespeare*, to *seem*, perhaps, signifies to be beautiful. *Dr. Johnson.*—Rather, *specious.* *Steevens.*

Sir, there she stands:
If aught within that little *seeming* substance
May fitly like your grace,
She's there, and she is your's. *Shakespeare.*

Pluck the borrowed veil of modesty from the so *seeming* mistress Page. *Shakespeare.*

It SEEMS: it appears; or it is used ironically to condemn the thing mentioned, like the Latin *scilicet*, or the old English *forsooth*. *Id mihi datur negotii scilicet.*

The raven, urg'd by such impertinence,
Grew passionate, it *seems*, and took offence. *Addison.*

Here's another discontented paper,
Found in his pocket too; and this, it *seems*,
Rodorigo meant to have sent. *Shakespeare.*

SEE-MA-KOANG, a Chinese mandarin and philosopher of the eleventh century, who enjoyed the favour of the emperor, and had several important places, which he resigned, and retired to a solitary place, where he wrote a history of China, commencing at the 403d year before the Christian era. He was author likewise of some moral treatises.

SEE/MER, *s.* One that carries an appearance. *Angelo*

Angelo scarce confesses
That his blood flows, or that his appetite
Is more to bread than stone: hence shall we see,
If pow'r change purpose, what our *seemers* be. *Shakspeare.*

SEE'MING, *s.* Appearance; show; semblance.

All good *seeming*,
By thy revolt, oh husband, shall be thought
Put on for villainy. *Shakspeare.*

Fair appearance.

For you there's rosemary and rue; these keep
Seeming and savour all the Winter long. *Shakspeare.*

Opinion.

His persuasive words impregn'd
With reason to her *seeming*. *Milton.*

SEE'MINGLY, *adv.* In appearance; in show; in semblance.

To this her mother's plot,
She *seemingly* obedient, likewise hath
Made promise to the doctor. *Shakspeare.*

They to their viands fell, not *seemingly*
The angels, nor in mist. *Milton.*

SEE'MINGNESS, *s.* Semblance; appearance.—Hypocrisy will obstruct, and put in a prejudice against all things, under the *seemingness* or appearance of evil, which are not only allowed of God, but necessary. *Bp. Taylor.*

SEE'MLESS, *adj.* Unseemly; indecorous.

Thence he her drew
By the faire lockes, and fowly did array
Withouten pity of her goodly hew,
That Artegall himselfe her *seemlesse* plight did rew. *Spenser.*

SEE'MLILY, *adv.* Decently; comelily. *Unused. Hulot, and Sherwood.*

SEE'MLINESS, *s.* Decency; handsomeness; comeliness; grace; beauty.—When substantialness combineth with delightfulness, *seemliness* with portliness, and currentness with stayedness, how can the language sound other than full of sweetness? *Camden.*

SEE'MLY, *adj.* [*soommelig*, Danish; from *soome*, Icelandic, honour or decency.] Decent; becoming; proper; fit.

I am a woman, lacking wit
To make a *seemly* answer to such person. *Shakspeare.*

SEE'MLY, *adv.* In a decent manner; in a proper manner.

There, *seemly* rang'd in peaceful order, stood
Ulysses' arms, now long disus'd to blood. *Pope.*

SEE'MLYHED, *s.* Decent, comely appearance.

Damoselles two
Right yong, and ful of *semelyhede*. *Chaucer.*

SEEMO, a village of Kasson, in Central Africa.

SEEN, *adj.* Skilled; versed.

Petruchio shall offer me, disguis'd in sober robes,
To old Baptista as a schoolmaster
Well *seen* in musick. *Shakspeare.*

SEEND, or SEEN, a pleasantly situated village and parish of England, in Wiltshire, through which the high road to Bath passed till recently, when it was altered to avoid a steep hill. Population 876; 4 miles south-east of Melksham.

SEENGHOO, a town of the Birman empire. It is situated on the banks of the Irrawaddy river; 10 miles south of the city of Paghham.

SEEOB, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. It is pleasantly situated on the bank of a small river, and is surrounded by mangoe groves. Lat. 23. 12. N. long. 77. 10. E.

SEEPARRAN, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 4. 8. N. long. 118. 23. E.

SE'ER, *s.* [Sax. *sepepe*.] One who sees.—We are in hopes that you may prove a dreamer of dreams, and a *seer* of visions. *Addison.*—A prophet; one who foresees future events.

How soon hath thy prediction, *seer* blest!
Measur'd this transient world the race of time,
Till time stand fix'd? *Milton.*

SEER, *adj.* [*saer*, Su. Goth., an adverb signifying separation. *Ihre.*] Several. *Obsolete.*—They are gone *seer* ways.

SEER, a principality of Arabia, in the province of Ommun, extending from Cape Mussendoon, along the coast of the Persian gulf. It is called by the Persians, the country of Dsjulfar; and Europeans frequenting these seas have given this name to the Arabs who inhabit it. The Arabs, however, call it Seer, from the town of the same name, which has a good harbour, and is the seat of the Schiech. The country not long since acknowledged the sovereign authority of the Iman; but the Schiech has shaken off this dependance, and is often at war with his former masters. He makes some figure among the maritime powers in those parts, and his navy is one of the most considerable in the Persian gulf. His subjects are much employed in navigation, and carry on a pretty extensive trade.

SEERD, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 55 miles east of Diarbekir.

SEERDHUNA, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Merat. This place was assigned as a jagier to the infamous Somroo, a German, who, by command of the nabob Cossim Aly Khan, massacred the English prisoners at Patna, in the year 1763, by the Afghan chief named Nujif Khan. The territory, which is 20 miles long by 12 in breadth, is very fertile, and produces all kinds of grain, sugar, cotton, &c. After the death of Somroo, his wife succeeded him, not only in his possessions, but in the command of his army, and distinguished herself on various occasions. She now resides under the British protection at Delhi, having invested her property, which is considerable, in the government funds. Lat. 29. 11. N. long. 77. 28. E.

SEERPORE. There are a number of towns of this name in Hindostan, particularly in the provinces of Bahar and Bengal. It should probably be Sheerpore, which may either signify, "abounding with milk or tigers."

SEE'RWOOD, *s.* Dry decayed wood.

SEE'SAW, *s.* A reciprocating motion.

His wit all *seesaw*, between that and this;
Now high, now low, now master up, now miss,
And he himself one vile antithesis. *Pope.*

To SEE'SAW, *v. n.* To move with a reciprocating motion.—Sometimes they were like to pull John over, then it went all of a sudden again on John's side; so they went *seesawing* up and down, from one end of the room to the other. *Arbuthnot.*

SEESEN, a small town of Lower Saxony, in the duchy of Brunswick; 14 miles west of Goslar. It contains 2000 inhabitants, and has a brisk transit trade, carried on by the roads which pass through the town from different parts of the country.

SEESUCUNDA, a village of Woolly, in Central Africa, on the frontier towards Tenda.

SEETACCOOND, a town of Bengal, district of Chittagong. There is here a warm spring, from which there frequently issues a flame, which the Hindoos consider as an emanation of the deity, and make offerings thereto. The water is very fine, and will keep without smelling for any length of time. Lat. 22. 37. N. long. 91. 36. E.—There is just such another place in the vicinity of Moughir, province of Bahar, and several others in different parts of Hindostan. They are all dedicated to Seeta, the wife of the demigod Ram.

To SEETHE, *v. a.* preterite *I sod* or *sethed*; part. pass. *sodden*. [*seōðan*, Saxon; *zieden*, Dutch; *seiden*, German; *σζειν* and *ζειν*, Gr. *Wachter.*] To boil; to decoct in hot liquor.—He coude roste, and *sethe*. *Chaucer.*—The Scythians used to *sethe* the flesh in the hide, and so do the northern Irish. *Spenser.*

To SEETHE, *v. n.* To be in a state of ebullition; to be hot.

The boiling baths at Cairbadon,
Which *see* the with secret fire eternally,
And in their entrails, full of quick brimstone,
Nourish the flames, which they are warm'd upon. *Spenser.*

SEETHER, *s.* A boiler; a pot.

The fire thus form'd, she sets the kettle on;
Like burnish'd gold the little *see*ther shone. *Dryden.*

SEETHING, or SENGES, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 10½ miles south-east of Norwich.

SEEWEE BAY, or BULL'S HARBOUR, on the coast of South Carolina, lies nearly at an equal distance south-west of Cape Roman, and north-east of Charleston, having several isles which form the bay.

SEEZ, an old town in the north of France, in Normandy, situated on the Orne, in the middle of an extensive and fertile plain. It is tolerably built, and has 5500 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop, and has a good cathedral. Here are manufactures of woollens, cottons, fustians and stockings; also a traffic in country produce. Veins of manganese have been lately discovered in the neighbourhood; 14 miles north of Alençon, and 126 west of Paris. Lat. 48. 36. 23. N. long. 0. 10. 59. E.

SEEZ, a small river in the west of Normandy, which falls into the sea, to the west of Avranches.

SEFAIRY, a village of Greece, in Attica, near Marathon, at the foot of the mountain called Croton.

SEFAKIN, a small town of Yemen, in Arabia; 60 miles south-east of Loheia.

SEFATIANS, a sect of Mahometans, who held the opposite opinion to the Moatazalites, with respect to the eternal attributes of God.

SEFROI, a village of Fez, in Africa; 20 miles south-east of Fez.

SEFURA, a town of Foota, in Western Africa. Lat. 10. 30. N. long. 10. 25. W.

SEG, *s.* [*see*g, Saxon.] Sedge. Still a Gloucestershire word. It is also in the old Prompt. Parvulorum.—A place where *segges* do grow. *Barret.*

SEGAL, a small island on the north-west coast of France.

SEGA'R, *s.* [*cigarro*, Span.] A little roll of tobacco, smoked without a pipe. *Swinburne.*—Our hostess supplied us with plenty of fruit, and then obligingly smoked a *segar* with me. *Twiss.*

SEGARY, a village of England, in Wiltshire, situated on the Avon, south-east of Malmesbury.

SEGEBERG, a small town of Denmark, in Holstein, on the river Trave. It is built round the base of a high chalk or limestone hill, from the top of which there is a very extensive prospect. The lime obtained from this hill forms an important article of trade. Population 1400; 28 miles north-east of Hamburg. Lat. 53. 53. N. long. 10. 19. E.

SEGED, a village of Sennaar; 30 miles south of Sennaar.

SEGEDIN. See SZEGEDIN.

SEGERA, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 5 miles south of Medina.

SEGERS, or SEGHERS (Gerard), an eminent painter, born at Antwerp, in 1589. He was first a pupil of Henry van Balen, but afterwards entered the school of Abraham Janssens, and had made considerable progress in the art when he went to Italy. On his arrival at Rome, he attached himself as a disciple to Bartolommeo Manfredi; and from him adopted a taste for the vigorous style of Michael Angelo Caravaggio. To the strength of contrast, which he thus adopted, he added somewhat of the tone and colour he had brought with him from his native country; producing the powerful effect of candle-light, though often falsely applied in subjects which appertain to the milder illumination of the day. By skilful productions of this nature, he acquired very considerable fame, and was at length invited by the cardinal Zapara, the Spanish ambassador at Rome, to accompany him to Madrid. He accepted the invitation, and was pre-

sented by the cardinal to the king, who received him in the most gracious manner, and engaged him in his service, with a considerable pension. He employed himself at Madrid in painting several historical subjects, and some musical conversation pieces, which were greatly admired; but after remaining there some years, the desire of revisiting his native country induced him to request permission to retire. His renown had reached Flanders, and his fellow-citizens were impatient to possess some of his productions; yet, when he had arrived there, and executed some paintings in his strong manner, they, whose eyes had been accustomed to the pure brilliant hues, and clear contrasts of Rubens and Vandyke, were unable to yield him that harvest of praise to which he had been accustomed, and he was obliged to change his manner, and adopt a more tender and agreeable style. The facility with which he effected this change, proves his power over the materials of the art, and his judgment in its principles; and many of his latter pictures bear evident testimony in support of his general ability. His most esteemed production is or was the principal altar-piece in the church of the Carmelites at Antwerp, the subject of which is the Marriage of the Virgin. Vandyke painted his portrait among the eminent artists of his country, which is engraved by Pontius. He died in 1651, aged 62.

SEGERS (Daniel), was the youngest brother of Gerard, and born at Antwerp in 1590. His taste leading him to design fruit and flowers, he was placed as a disciple with J. Brughel. At the age of 16 he entered the society of the Jesuits, and abandoned painting during his novitiate, but when that term expired, he obtained permission of his superior to visit Rome, where his brother was then flourishing with distinction; and he also acquired considerable celebrity, by the fidelity and skill with which he imitated the beauty and variety of those objects of creation, as flowers, plants and insects, which he chose for his models.

His productions were sought with avidity, and his talents were not unproductive even to his convent, which received valuable tributes in return for those ingenious and entertaining treasures of art. He appears, indeed, to have painted more for the benefit of the wily society to which he had attached himself, than for his private advantage; and when he had produced his most celebrated picture, at the command of the Prince of Orange, it was presented to that monarch in the name of the society, which was munificently recompensed in return. He frequently painted garlands of flowers, as borders for pictures, which were filled up with historical subjects by the first painters. He died at Antwerp in 1660, aged 70.

SEGESTA, the ancient EGESTA, a once celebrated city of Sicily, of which hardly a vestige now remains, except the ruins of a theatre, and a beautiful temple of Grecian structure; 6 miles from the town of Alcamo.

SEGESTAN. See SEISTAN.

SEGARS, in the manufacture of porcelain and pottery, are cases formed of coarser clays, but which are capable of sustaining the required heat without fusion; in which different kinds of earthenware are baked.

SEGHETTO, a large village of Austrian Dalmatia, on the Adriatic, between the towns of Spalatro and Trau.

SE/GMENT, *s.* [*segment*, Fr., *segmentum*, Lat.] A figure contained between a chord and an arc of the circle, or so much of the circle as is cut off by that chord.—Unto a parallel sphere, and such as live under the poles for half a year, some *segments* may appear at any time, and under any quarter, the sun not setting, but walking round. *Brown.*

SEGMENT of a Circle, in Geometry, a part of a circle, comprehended between an arc and its chord; or, it is a part of a circle comprehended between a right line less than a semi-diameter, and part of the circumference.

SEGMENT-LEAVES, a denomination given by botanists to those leaves that are cut and divided into many shreds, or slices, as fennel, &c.

SEGMENTUM, among the Romans, an ornament of lace used by the women on their shoulders, which, according to some, resembled our shoulder-knots.

Segmenta were likewise a kind of tessellated or Mosaic pavements, made up of pieces of various shapes and colours, but which had an uniform and regular arrangement.

SEGMOIDAL VALVES, are the little valves of the pulmonary artery.

SEGNI (Bernardo), an early Italian historian and man of letters, was born at Florence, about the close of the 15th century. He was educated at Padua, where he pursued with great assiduity the study of the Latin and Greek languages. He then engaged in legal pursuits, which were interrupted by a commission from his father to manage some commercial business at Aquila. Returning to Florence, he was employed in public affairs by the republic, and by duke Cosmo, who in 1541 sent him on an embassy to Ferdinand, king of the Romans. He was, in 1542, appointed consul of the university of Florence, then in very high reputation. He wrote a history of Florence from the year 1527 to 1555, which in every respect is considered as one of the best productions of the age. It was seen by no one during his life, and was not printed till the year 1713, when it appeared, together with a life of Niccolo Capponi, gonfalonier of Florence, Segni's uncle. This writer likewise translated into the Italian language several treatises of Aristotle, which were printed at Florence in 1549-50. He died in 1559.

SEGNI, a town of the Ecclesiastical States, in the Campagna di Roma, situated on a hill of the same name. It is the see of a bishop, and has a handsome cathedral. It is said that organs were first invented in this town; 25 miles south-east of Rome.

SE'GNITY, or **SE'GNITUDE**, *s.* [*segnitas*, Latin.] Sluggishness; inactivity.

SEGNONE, a lofty mountain of the Alps, in the north of Austrian Italy, near the lake of Como; 9200 feet above the level of the sea.

SEGO, a large city, capital of the kingdom of Bambarra, in Central Africa. For our knowledge of its existence, and for the description of it, we are chiefly indebted to Mr. Park, the celebrated traveller. It was here that he first came in view of the Niger, the object of his most anxious inquiry, and which flows through the middle of the city, dividing it into two parts. He found it flowing majestically to the eastward, as broad as the Thames at Westminster. This city is divided into four distinct towns, two of which are on the northern, and two on the southern bank. The former are called Sego Korro and Sego Boo, the latter Sego Soo Korro, and Sego See Korro. The last of these contains the residence of the sovereign. These towns are surrounded with high mud walls; the houses are built of clay, of a square form, with flat roofs; some of them have two stories, and many of them are white-washed. Moorish mosques also are seen in every quarter; and the streets, though narrow, are as broad as can serve any useful purpose in a country where wheel carriages are entirely unknown. According to the best information Mr. Park was able to collect, Sego may contain altogether about 30,000 inhabitants. There is a constant thoroughfare of boats upon the river, the boatmen employed upon which are slaves to the king, who exacts a share of their profits, and derives thence a considerable revenue, though the charge of passage is only ten cowries to each individual. The canoes are singularly constructed, being each formed of the trunks of two large trees, rendered concave, and joined together, not side by side, but endways, the junction being exactly across the middle of the canoe; they are therefore very long, and disproportionably narrow, and have neither decks nor masts; they are, however very roomy; and Mr. Park observed in one of them four horses and several people crossing the river. The view of this extensive city, the numerous canoes upon the Niger, and the cultivated state of the country, formed altogether a splendid prospect of civilization and magnificence. Though the sovereign be a negro, the Moors are numerous and powerful, and very hostile to Europeans. It was supposed to be through their influence, that the king, on learning the arrival of Mr. Park in Sego, sent him 5000 cowries, desiring him to leave the city and its vicinity. On Mr. Park's second

journey, he was not allowed to enter Sego at all, but was permitted to equip his vessel at Sansanding. Lat. 14. 10. N. long. 2. 30. W.

SEGNONET, a large town of the province of Samen, in Abyssinia.

SEGONZAC, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Charente; 6 miles south-east of Cognac, and 15 west of Angouleme. Population 2500.

SEGORBE, a town in the east of Spain, in Valencia, on the river Murviedro, which takes here the name of Segorbe. It stands in a very pleasant spot, in a fertile valley, is surrounded by gardens, and a number of squares, churches and fountains. It is a bishop's see, founded in the sixth century. Its cathedral has some good paintings; but the best are to be found in the church of the nunnery, which is also the most elegant building in the town. The population, about 15,000, are partly employed in the manufacture of paper, starch and pottery. The chief natural curiosity in this quarter is a fountain near the town, so copious as to turn two mill wheels at its source. Segorbe does not appear to be the same with the ancient Segobria, or Saltibera; it lies 34 miles north-west of Valencia.

SEGOVIA, an inland province of Spain, in Old Castile, lying between the provinces of Madrid and Valladolid. Its territorial extent is 3650 square miles; its population 171,000. Being intersected by the mountain ranges of the Sierra de Guadarama and de Ayllon, it lies in general high. The soil is in many parts sandy or stony, though in some places there are rich tracks well watered, and of considerable fertility. The rivers are the Ebro, the Eresma, the Xarama, and the Duraton. The climate in the plains is mild; in the hills it is less so, but even there the sky is generally clear, and the air healthy. The principal products are corn, wine, hemp and flax. In the mountains are found copper, iron, antimony, also marble and porcelain earth. Sheep, however, form the staple commodity, and wool is the principal article of export. The manufactures are of little account, the chief being that of wool in the town of Segovia.

SEGOVIA, a considerable town in the interior of Spain, in Old Castile, situated on a rocky eminence, between two deep valleys. Its form is commonly compared to that of a ship with the stern towards the east. One of the valleys is watered by the river Eresma, the other by a brook. Segovia being a place of antiquity, is surrounded with a wall in the Moorish style, crowned at intervals with turrets; its circumference, owing to its oblong form, is between 3 and 4 miles, but the inhabitants do not at present exceed 10,000. The streets are narrow, crooked, and in several parts steep: the suburbs are built on more even ground.

Segovia is the chief place of a province, and the see of a bishop. It contains a number of convents and churches, of which the most remarkable is the cathedral, a large pile, partly Grecian, partly Gothic, erected in the 16th century. Among the other ecclesiastical buildings are the convent of the Carmelites, and that of the Capuchins, with a subterranean chapel. The Alcazar or ancient palace is a Moorish building; the apartments are incrustured with mosaic and other ornaments, which are still in the best preservation. It contains the statues of the princes who reigned in Asturias, Leon, and Castile, from the 8th to the 16th century, and serves occasionally for the confinement of state prisoners. But the most remarkable monument of Segovia is the aqueduct, a Roman work of great boldness and grandeur. It is built of freestone without cement; begins about 50 paces from the town, and after extending in a direction at first from north to south, afterwards from east to west, and distributing a copious supply of water to every part of the town, it terminates at the Alcazar. It contains in all 159 arches, supported on pillars, some of which are 80 feet in height.

Segovia, situated in the midst of the finest sheep pastures, has long been noted for its woollen manufactures. The quantity of cloth made at present is about 4000 pieces, coarse and fine, and it probably never was greater. The farther branches of industry are dyeing and the making of pottery, paper and lead. The town contains several hospitals

pitals and an artillery school; 47 miles north-north-west of Madrid.

SEGOVIA NUEVA, a town of the island of Lucon, founded in the year 1598, the see of a bishop, defended by a fort and garrison. It is situated near the north coast of the island, 250 miles north of Manila.

SEGOVIA NUEVA, a small city of Nicaragua, in Guatemala, on the shore of the Yare or Segovia, on the confines of the province of Honduras. It is a small town, and of scanty population; 90 miles north of Leon, and 400 from Mexico. Lat. 13. 45. N. long. 86. 30. W.

SEGOVIA NUEVA. See BARQUISIMETO.

SEGRAVE, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 3 miles north-east of Mount Sorrel.

SEGRE, a petty town in the north-west of France, department of the Maine and Loire, situated at the angle formed by the junction of the small rivers Oudon and Verzee; 22 miles north-west of Angers.

SEGRE, a large river in the north-east of Spain, which rises among the Pyrenees, flows through Catalonia, and joins the Ebro near Mequinzenza. The Catalans call it Agnavaval.

SEGREANT, a term used in Heraldry for a griffin, when drawn in a leaping posture, and displaying his wings, as if ready to fly.

SEGREGATA, POLYGAMIA, in Botany, the last order of the class syngenesia, in which the flowers are doubly compound, each floret, or assemblage of florets, having a partial calyx.

To SE'GREGATE, *v. a.* [*segrego*, Lat., *segreger*, Fr.] To set apart; to separate from others. *Sherwood*.—*Segregating* heterogeneous bodies, and congregating those that are homogeneous. *Bp. Berkeley*.

SE'GREGATE, *part. adj.* Select.—A kind of *segregate* or cabinet senate. *Wotton*.

SEGREGATION, *s.* [*segregation*, Fr.] Separation from others.—To decline offences, to be careful and conscionable in our several actions, is a purity that every man ought to labour for; which we may well do, without a sullen *segregation*, from all society. *Feltham*.

SEGTON, a village of England, in Lancashire, situated on the Alt, near Crosby.

SEGUATANEIO, or CHEQUETAN, a harbour on the west coast of Mexico, which lies seven leagues west of the rocks of Seguataneio. Between this and Acapulco, to the east, is a beach of sand, of 18 leagues extent, against which the sea breaks so violently, that it is impossible for boats to land on any part of it; but there is a good anchorage for shipping at a mile or two from the shore during the fair season. The harbour of Chequetan is very hard to be traced, and of great importance to such vessels as cruise in these seas, being the most secure harbour to be met with in a vast extent of coast, yielding plenty of wood and water; and the ground near it is able to be defended by a few men. When Lord Anson touched here, the place was uninhabited.

SEGUIN, an island of the United States, on the coast of Maine. There is a light-house on this island, which has a repeating light so constructed as to disappear every minute and a half, which distinguishes it from Portland light. The island rises boldly from the sea into a high hill, about 3 miles from the mouth of Kennebeck river, and 4 east of Cape Small point. Lat. 43. 41. N. long. 69. 42. W.

SEGUENZA [Ital.] is a kind of hymn sung in the Roman church, generally in prose.

SEGUIERIA [so named in honour of Jean François Seguer, secretary to the academy of sciences at Nismes in Languedoc], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved, spreading; leaflets oblong, concave, coloured, permanent. Corolla none, unless the calyx be taken for it. Stamina: filaments very many, capillary, spreading, longer than the calyx. Anthers oblong, flattish. Pistil: germ oblong, compressed, at top membranaceous with one side thicker. Style very short, at the thicker side of the germ. Stigma simple. Pericarp capsule oblong, augmented

by a very large wing, on the straighter side thicker, with three little wings on each side at the base, one-celled, not opening. Seed one, oblong, smooth.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-leaved. Corolla none. Capsule one-seeded, terminated by a large wing, and having small lateral ones.

1. *Seguieria Americana*.—This is a shrub about twelve feet in height, with very long, round, green, shining branches, by which it supports itself. Prickles recurved, single on each side of the petiole; but sometimes wanting. Leaves lanceolate ovate, emarginate with a point, shining, petioled, alternate, two or three inches long. Racemes terminating, branched, leafy. Flowers numerous, whitish, ill-scented. The calyx with the increasing germ becomes green. The unripe fruit is like that of *Securidaca*.—Native of South America, about Carthagena in woods and coppices, especially by way-sides: flowering in September.

2. *Seguieria Asiatica*.—Stems shrubby, climbing but without tendrils, branched, round, long, not thick, very tough and fit for binding. Leaves alternate, rough, on short petioles. Flowers greenish-white, void of scent. Calyx of five roundish concave spreading leaflets. Filaments shorter than the calyx. Style still shorter, with a thickish stigma. Capsule ovate, red, two-valved. Seed roundish, pedicelled, connected by a large many cleft wing, the segments of which are linear; but it has not any lateral little wings at the base. Native of Cochinchina, in woods.

SEGULAM, one of the Fox Islands, in the North Pacific Ocean. Lat. 53. 35. N. long. 187. 50. E.

SEGUNDO, a river of the province of Tucuman, which rises in the mountains to the west of Cordova, and running east, enters a lake.

SEGUR, a small town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron, near the river Viour, containing 1600 inhabitants; 12 miles east-south-east of Rhodéz.

SEGURA, a large river in the south-east of Spain, which rises in the borders of Granada, traverses the province of Murcia, and falls into the Mediterranean; 16 miles south-south-west of Alicant.

SEGURA, a small town and castle in the east of Portugal, in the province of Beira, situated on a hill, near the Spanish frontier; 9 miles north of Rosmarinhal, and 24 east-south-east of Castel Branco.

SEGURA, a small town in the north-east of Spain, in the province of Guipuscoa; 21 miles south-south-west of St. Sebastian.

SEGURA, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Arragon; 50 miles south of Saragossa.

SEGURA DE LA FRONTERA, a city of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, built by Cortes in 1520. It is of a mild climate, and situated in a fertile territory. It has upwards of 1000 inhabitants, consisting of Spaniards, Mestizoes, Mulattoes, and Indians; 70 miles from Xalappa.

SEGURA DE LEON, a town in the west of Spain, in Estremadura; 29 miles south-east of Xeres de los Cabelleros.

SEGURA DE LA SIERRA, a walled town in the south-east of Spain, in Murcia; 33 miles north-east of Baeza.

SEGUSIANI, the inhabitants of Segusio.

SEGUSIANI, or SECUSIANI, a people of Gallia Celtica, or Lyonnensis. To the north were the Cœdii and Sequani, to the east and north the Allobroges, and to the west the Averni. Pliny says, that these people were dependent on the Cœdii, in the time of Cæsar; but that they rendered themselves independent under the empire of Augustus.

SEGUSIO, or SUZE, a town formerly not inconsiderable, in Transpadane Gaul, among the mountains, on Duria Minor. Under the Romans it obtained the title of municipal. In later times, its rulers were designated by the title of Marquis. At present it is comprehended in Piedmont. Among other things found in this place is the triumphal arch on which were inscribed the appellations of the people who were subject to Cottius in the time of Augustus.

SEGWIN, a district of Northern Hindostan, province of Nepaul, situated on the banks of the river Teesta, about the 28th degree of north lat. When the Chinese invaded Nenaal in 1792, the chief of this place sought their protection,

tection, and admitted a Chinese garrison into his capital. They were afterwards withdrawn; and during the late war between the Nepaulese and British, the Segwin rajah was taken under the protection of the British, and his independence secured by the last treaty of peace. This territory has not been recently surveyed by any European, but is known to be mountainous and unproductive.

SEHIMA, in Botany, so called by Forskal, from its Arabic name; a genus of that author's, separated from *Ischæmum*, but apparently without sufficient reason.

SEJANT, *adj.* Sitting.

SEJANUS (*Ælius*), celebrated in the history of Rome for the tyranny of his administration, was a native of Vulturnus, in Etruria. Under Tiberius, he rose to great favour, and was appointed governor to young Drusus. When the theatre of Pompey was destroyed by fire, the emperor, at the time that he declared his intention of rebuilding it, pronounced an eulogy on Sejanus before the senate, on which that servile body decreed him a statue, to be placed in the new edifice. Having by his artifices and dissimulation obtained a complete ascendancy over the mind of Tiberius, he applied himself to strengthen the fabric of his power, and pave the way to higher honours. With this view he ingratiated himself as much as possible with the prætorian guards, and he created a great personal interest in the senate, by means of his recommendations to lucrative places, and he is said to have secured the wives of many men of high rank by secret promises of marriage. The imperial family being, as he thought, a considerable obstacle to his projects of ambition, he determined upon their destruction: and, beginning with Drusus, the son of the emperor, who had manifested a jealousy of his influence, he entered into a criminal intrigue with his wife Livia, the sister of Germanicus, by means of whom he was supposed to have caused a slow poison to be administered to that prince, which occasioned his death. He next endeavoured to persuade Tiberius to quit Rome, and retire to a life of repose, that the whole care of government might devolve upon himself, and that nothing should reach the emperor's ears but through a channel subject to his controul. This he effected in the twelfth year of Tiberius's reign, and from that moment Sejanus was master of Rome. The dislike manifested by the emperor to the widow and family of Germanicus was inflamed by the minister, till his persecution of them ended in the banishment and death of Agrippina and her two sons. Every kind of homage was now paid to the minister; Rome was crowded with his statues, and the senators all vied with each other in adulation of the favourite. At length Tiberius began to be suspicious of his designs, but for a time he concealed his suspicions, and even while under the fear of danger, he conferred upon his minister additional marks of his favour, making him his colleague in the consulship. He however gradually withdrew from him the tokens of his confidence, and finding that the symptoms of this change had greatly diminished the crowds that attended his levees, he proceeded, though with much caution, to the measures for his destruction. He now appointed another commander of his prætorians. Sejanus, knowing the extent of his own guilt, began to be alarmed: he called together his friends and followers, and held forth to them the most flattering promises, and having increased the number of his partisans, formed a conspiracy to seize the sovereign power. A powerful league was formed with astonishing rapidity, and great numbers of all descriptions, senators as well as military men, entered into the plot. But he was betrayed by his confidential friend and prime agent of the minister. He sent Macro to Rome with a special commission, and giving him ample powers that might be adapted to all emergencies. Early in the morning of the 15th, before the kalends of November, a report was spread, that letters had arrived at Rome, with the view of augmenting still farther the honours of Sejanus. The senate was summoned to meet in the temple of Apollo, near the imperial place. Sejanus attended without delay, and a party of prætorians followed him. Macro met him in the vestibule of the temple. He approached the minister with all demon-

strations of profound respect, and taking him aside, told him not to be surprised that he had not received a letter from the emperor himself, but, says he, I am this day to deliver the emperor's orders. Sejanus, elated with joy, expecting some unlooked-for dignity, entered into the senate-house, and Macro followed. He opened his commission by reading a long letter in the senate to the consuls from Tiberius, which concluded with an order to seize his person; instantly the whole assembly loaded with insults and reproaches the man at whose feet they lately bent, and the people began to throw down and treat with every indignity the statues before which they had been accustomed to offer sacrifices. His person was seized, and thrown into prison, and being accused of high treason, he was condemned without a single defender. On the same day he was executed, and his body thrown into the Tiber. A massacre of his relations took place, and even his infant children were inhumanly slaughtered. This took place in the year 31 of the Christian era.

SEIBO, a town of the island of Hispaniola, situated on the margin of a small river, and containing, with its jurisdiction, 5000 persons. The church is a handsome structure of stone. It was here the Spanish patriots first assembled to meet the French general Ferrand, who was coming against them; and about two leagues nearer the capital, on the main road, he met with that defeat, on the 7th of November, 1809, which cost him his life, and laid the foundation of their independence; 50 miles east-north-east of St. Domingo.

SEIBOÛSE, a river of Algiers, which falls into the Mediterranean, near Bona.

SEICHE, a small river in the north-east of France, which falls into the Vilaine, near Rennes.

SEICHES, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lot and Garonne. Population 1300; 6 miles north-east of Marmande.

SEICHES, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Maine and Loire, with 1400 inhabitants; 9 miles north-east of Angers.

SEIDA, or SEYDA, a small town of Prussian Saxony; 10 miles east of Wittenberg. Population 800.

SEIDAU, a small town of Saxony, in Lusatia, in the immediate vicinity of Bautzen. Population 1400.

SEIDENBERG, a small town of the Prussian states, in Upper Lusatia, on the borders of Bohemia, and 10 miles south-south-east of Gorlitz. Population 1000.

SEIDORF, a large village of Prussian Silesia, near Hirschberg. Population 1000.

SEIFERSDORF, LANGEN, a large village of Prussian Silesia, near Reichenbach. Population 1000.

SEIFERSHAU, a village of Prussian Silesia; 7 miles west of Hirschberg, and 64 west of Breslau. Population 1100.

SEIFINCOT, a village of England, in Gloucestershire; 4 miles from Stow, and 6 from Campden.

SEIGHFORD, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 3 miles west-north-west of Stafford. Population 866.

SEIGNE, COL DE LA. See COL.

SEIGNELAY, a small town in the interior of France, in the department of the Yonne, on the Senin. It contains 1300 inhabitants, and is 6 miles north of Auxerre.

SEIGNEURIAL, *adj.* Invested with large powers; independent.—Those lands were *seigneurial*. *Temple*.—They were the statesmen, they were the lawyers; from them were often taken the bailiffs of the *seigneurial* courts. *Burke*.

SEIGNIOR, *s.* [*senior*, Lat., *seigneur*, Fr., *signore*, Ital.] A lord. The title of honour given by Italians.

SEIGNORAGE, or SEIGNOURAGE, *s.* A right or due belonging to a seigneur, or lord.

SEIGNORAGE is particularly used for a duty belonging to the prince for the coming of money, called also coinage.

This duty is not always the same, but changes according to the pleasure of the prince, and the occasions of state.

SEIGNIORY, *s.* [*seigneurie*, Fr.] A lordship; a territory.

Were you not restor'd
To all the duke of Norfolk's *seignories*? *Shakspeare.*

To SEIGNORIZE, *v. a.* [*seigneurier*, Fr.] To lord
over. *Cotgrave, and Sherwood.*

As fair he was as Cytherea's make,
As proud as he that *seignoriseth* hell. *Fairfax.*

SEIL, one of the Hebrides, belonging to Argyleshire. It is about three miles long, and two broad, separated from the mainland by a narrow strait, over which a bridge is thrown. The island is in general flat, but possesses a few eminences, from the tops of which is a pleasant view of the many islands scattered over the ocean, and the distant mountains of Jura and Mull.

SEILHAC, a small town in the interior of France, department of the Correze, with 1300 inhabitants; 6 miles north of Tulle.

SEILLANS, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Var, containing 2300 inhabitants. The adjacent country is rich in olives, and the town contains a number of oil mills; 14 miles north-east of Dragnignan.

SEILLE, a small river in the east of France, which has its source near Lons le Saunier, and falls into the Saone, near Tournus.

SEILLE LA GRANDE, a small river in the north-east of France, which rises near Dieuze, and falls into the Moselle, not far from Metz.

SEIM, a term used by the farmers of Cornwall to express a certain determinate quantity of sea-sand, which they use as manure to their lands.

SEIMAN, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 48 miles north-north-east of Alah Shehr.

SEIMARIEH, a village of Irak Arabi, on the Euphrates; 42 miles west of Korna.

SEIN, an island of France, on the coast of Brittany, arrondissement of Quimper. It is inhabited by fishermen, who have retained the language and manners of ancient Brittany in all their purity. It lies in Long. 4. 42. W. Lat. 48. 2. N.

SEINE, *s.* [*jezne*, Saxon; *seine*, *senne*, *seme*, Fr.] A net used in fishing. See SEAN.—They have cock-boats for passengers, and *seine* boats for taking of pilchards. *Carew.*

SEINE, one of the four great rivers of France, and the only one of the four that flows into the English channel. It rises in the mountains of Burgundy, flows northwards through Champagne to Troyes, receives the Aube, and turning to the west, is joined by the Yonne, a river from the south, and before reaching Paris, by the Marne, a larger stream flowing from the west. At Paris, the Seine varies from 300 to 500 feet in width; and it soon after receives an addition to its stream by the influx of the Oise, when, pursuing a winding course to the north-west, it passes Rouen, and discharges itself into the sea, at Havre-de-Grace. Its volume of water is less than that of the Loire or Garonne, and far smaller than that of the Rhone; but its course being in general through a flat country, it is of easy navigation, and communicates by means of canals with several other rivers to the north and south, before reaching Paris. It admits vessels of considerable burden as far as Rouen, and boats as far as Troyes. Its mouth, however, is of difficult navigation, from the accumulation of sand. The length of its course exceeds 400 miles.

SEINE, a department in the north of France, of a circular form, and which, though the smallest in the kingdom, takes the first rank in wealth and population, as it contains Paris. It is in fact nothing more than the capital; and its district forms a track nearly square, of which the breadth is about sixteen miles. Its surface is in general level, its soil fertile, its products partly corn and vines, but more fruit and vegetables for the supply of the capital. It is divided into three arrondissements, viz., Paris, St. Denis to the north, and Sceaux to the south of the capital. It is subject in a judicial sense to the royal court of Paris; in an ecclesiastical, to the archbishop of that capital. The number of villas and
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country seats, though great, is far less considerable than in the district of London; the ground also is laid out more in pasture, and less in corn. The population is about 70,000, exclusive of Paris. For climate and municipal government, see PARIS.

SEINE, LOWER, a department in the north of France, comprising the north-east part of Normandy, and bounded on the north and west by the English channel. Its extent is about 2500 square miles; its population about 660,000, of whom about a twelfth part are Protestants. The surface is in general level, or undulating; the hills seldom attaining the height of mountains. The coast is for the most part bounded with sandy downs. The climate, like that of the south of England, is humid, and suitable to corn and pasture, but by no means to the culture of the vine. The principal fruits are pears and apples; the general drink cider; the exports are horses black cattle, cheese, and butter; the great market is Paris, and, for some articles, England. Hemp, flax, and cole-seed, are cultivated to a great extent. The only large river is the Seine. The fisheries at Dieppe and other parts of the coast supply large quantities of fish for Paris. The department is divided into five arrondissements, viz., Rouen (the capital), Havre-de-Grace, Dieppe, Yvetot, and Neufchatel. For manufactures, see ROUEN.

SEINE AND MARNE, a department in the north-east of France, occupying the western part of Champagne. Its extent is about 2320 square miles; its population about 310,000. Its surface consists of gently undulating plains; its climate is mild, and its soil fertile. The rivers that water the department are the Seine, the Marne, the Great and Little Morin, and a number of lesser streams; the canal of Briare, which connects the Seine with the Loire, likewise traverses the southern cantons. The products here, as in the north of France generally, are wheat, barley, oats, flax, hemp, and in small quantity, vines. Paris affords an ample market for produce, and has caused agriculture and gardening to occupy the inhabitants much more than manufactures. This department is subject, in a judicial sense, to the royal court of Paris; in an ecclesiastical, to the bishop Meaux. It is divided into the arrondissements of Melun (the chief town), Coulommiers, Meaux, Fontainebleau and Provins.

SEINE AND OISE, a department of the north-east of France, adjacent to that of the Oise, and to that of the Seine and Marne. It comprises in an interior circle, the district of Paris, under the name of department of the Seine, and has, exclusive of that district, an extent of 2200 square miles, with a population of 440,000. The surface of this department is level, or gently undulating, the climate temperate, and the soil in general good. Its chief rivers are the Seine, the Marne, and the Oise. Its products are wheat, barley, oats, hemp and flax; also fruit and vegetables, as in the south of England. Vines are reared, but in small quantity: the drink of the peasantry is cider. Paris is the great market for agricultural produce. The chief manufactures are those of printed calicoes at Jouy, of porcelain at Sevres, of arms and clocks at Versailles. In jurisdiction this department is subject to the royal court of Paris, and is divided into the six arrondissements of Versailles (the capital), Mantes, Pontoise, Corbeil, Etampes, and Rambouillet.

SEINE L'ABBAIE, *St.*, a small town in the east of France, department of the Cote d'Or, near the source of the Ouche. Population 800; 12 miles north-west of Dijon.

SEINER, *s.* A fisher with seine nets.—*Seiners* complain with open mouth, that these drovers work much prejudice to the commonwealth of fishermen, and reap small gain to themselves. *Carew.*

SEINSHEIM, or MARKET-SEINSHEIM, a petty town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia; 19 miles east-south-east of Wurzburg. Population 700.

SEISACHTHEIA, [*σεισάχθεια*, Gr.], a public sacrifice at Athens, in memory of Solon's ordinance, by which the debts of poor people were either entirely remitted, or at least the interest due upon them lessened, and the creditors pre-

vented from seizing upon the persons of their debtors, as had been customary before that time.

The word signifies the shaking off a burden.

SEISDON, a hamlet of England, in Staffordshire, in the neighbourhood of which, on a lofty round promontory, stand the remains of an ancient fortification, called Apewood castle; 6 miles from Wolverhampton.

SEISIN, SEISINA, in Law, signifies possession. In this sense we say, *primer seisin*, for the first possession; &c.

Seisin is two-fold: seisin in fact, and seisin in law. The former is when an actual and corporal possession is taken: and the latter, when something is done, which the law accounted a seisin, as an enrolment.

SEISINA *habendo, quia rex habuit annum, diem et vas-tum*, a writ that lies delivery of seisin to the lord of lands or tenements, after the king, in right of his prerogative, hath had the year, day and waste, on a felony committed.

SEISSENBERG, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Lower Carniola; 18 miles south-south-east of Laybach.

SEISSENSTETTEN, a small town of Lower Austria, on the river Urla, with 1400 inhabitants; 49 miles west-by-south of St. Polten.

SEISSEN, a town of Saxony, in the circle of Erzgebirg; 18 miles south-south-east of Freyberg. Lat. 50. 35. N. long. 13. 27. E.

SEISTAN, or SEGESTAN, an extensive province in the east of Persia, lying between Candahar and Korassan on the north, Mekran and Balouchistan on the south; about 300 miles in length, and 160 in breadth. It formed anciently part of Ariana, and the country of the Sarangeans, and even in modern times was once flourishing, and rivalled in prosperity the finest provinces of the empire. It was the country of Jumsheid and Rustom, the heroes of the Shah Nama, or great Persian epic, and of Jacob Ben Leth, the conqueror of the caliph of Bagdad. In course of time, however, the winds which blow from the great moving sands of Mekran and Balouchistan, have covered all its fertile plains, and reduced it almost to a state of entire desolation. Its remnant of fertility is alone derived from the river Heermund, which, rising in the mountains of Cabul, traverses a great part of it from east to west, and falls into the lake of Durrah or Zareng. The only recent account of this region is from Captain Christie, who in 1810 traversed it on his route from Balouchistan to Herat. Unless on the banks of the Heermund, the country was little better than a desert, intersected by sand hills; water, however, being never wanting for a greater space than 25 miles. In the way from Nooshky, he did not see a single town or even village; and the only inhabitants of this solitary wild were a few Balouche and Patan shepherds, who lived in tents pitched in the vicinity of the springs. The banks of the Heermund, however, consist of a valley, varying from one to two miles in breadth; while the desert on each side rises in perpendicular cliffs. This valley is irrigated by the waters of the river, and covered with verdure and brush-wood. Along this valley are found an astonishing number of ruined towns, villages and forts, and at one of these, Kulcaupt, a noble palace in a tolerable state of preservation. The remains of a city named Poolkee, are described as immense. The modern capital is Dooshah, forming a small and compact town, in the neighbourhood of which are immense ruins, situated in lat. 31. 8. N. long. 63. 10. E., about eight or nine miles from the river. The western part of Seistan, to which the waters of the Heermund do not reach, consists of a vast and arid plain, intersected with one or two ranges of mountains, in the midst of which is situated the city of Kubbees. There is a path through it, by which couriers can go from Kerman to Herat in eighteen days; but the risk of perishing is so great, that a person of that description demanded two hundred rupees to carry a letter from Mr. Pottinger. Although Seistan forms nominally a province of Persia, it is now entirely independent of that empire, and has no political relations with it. It is divided into a number of small independent states, governed by chiefs who live in fortified villages, situated

principally on the banks of the Heermund. Bahram Khan Kyanee assumes the title of chief of Seistan; but he cannot raise a revenue of above 80,000 rupees, nor bring more than 3000 men into the field.

SEITAN, a name given by Avicenna, and other of the Arabian writers, to a species of prickly tree, often recommended in their prescriptions: probably a species of *ACACIA*.

SEITENDORF, a village of Prussian Silesia, in the circle of Hirschberg, with 900 inhabitants.

SEITIL, in Commerce, a wine measure at Vienna; 168 seitils = 15 English gallons.

SEITSARI, a small island in the gulf of Finland, belonging to Russia. It is a barren spot, surrounded by sand-banks, and inhabited only by fishermen.

SEITZ, or ZAGICZI, a village of the Austrian states, in Moravia, and the circle of Brunn, situated on a hill, and containing 1200 inhabitants.

SEIVA, a small river of New Granada, in the province of Maracaibo, which enters the lake Maracaibo by the north side; 25 miles south-west of Maracaibo.

SEIX, a small town in the south of France, department of the Arriege. In the neighbourhood are quarries of marble, and some mines of silver and copper. Population 2300.

SEIZABLE, *adj.* That may be seized; liable to be seized.

To SEIZE, *v. a.* [*saisir*, Fr., *seisia*, Arm. the same. Serenius.] To take hold of; to gripe; to grasp.

Then as a tiger who by chance hath spy'd
In some purlieu two gentle fawns at play,
Strait couches close, then rising, changes oft
His couchant watch, as one who chose his ground,
Whence rushing he might surest *seize* them both. *Milton.*

To take possession of by force.

At last they *seize*
The sceptre, and regard not David's sons. *Milton.*

To take possession of; to lay hold on; to invade suddenly.

In her sad breast the prince's fortunes roll,
And hope and doubt alternate *seize* her soul. *Pope.*

To take forcible possession of by law.—An escheator of London had arrested a clothier that was outlawed, and *seized* his goods. *Camden.*—To make possessed; to put in possession of.

So th' one for wrong, the other strives for right:
As when a griffin, *seized* of his prey,
A dragon fierce encountereth in his flight,
Through wildest air making his idle way. *Spenser.*

So down he fell before the cruell beast,
Who on his neck his bloody claws did *seize*;
That life nigh crush'd out of his panting brest. *Spenser.*

SEIZE, in Sea Language, is to join two ropes, or the two ends of one rope, together, &c., by several close turns of small rope, line or spun-yarn, round them, with two or more cross-turns.

SEIZER, *s.* One who seizes.

SEIZURE, *s.* The act of seizing. The thing seized. Sufficient that thy prayers are heard, and death,
Then due by sentence when thou did'st transgress,
Defeated of his *seizure*, many days
Given thee of grace. *Milton.*

The act of taking forcible possession.

Thy lands, and all things that thou do'st call thine,
Worth *seizure*, do we seize into our hands. *Shakspeare.*

Gripe; possession.

And shall these hands, so lately purg'd of blood,
Unyoke this *seizure*, and this kind regret? *Shakspeare.*

Catch!—Let there be no sudden *seizure* of a lapsed syllable to play upon it. *Watts.*

SEJUNGIBLE, *adj.* [*sejungo*, Lat.] Capable of being separated. *Unused.*—The spawn and egg are *sejungible*

from the fish and fowl, and yet still retain the prolific power of generation. *Pearson.*

SEJUNCTION, *s.* [*sejunctio*, Lat.] The act of disjoining, or separating. *Unused.*—The constitution of that people was made by a *sejunction* and separation of them from all other nations on the earth. *Pearson.*

SEJUR, a small river of Syria, which rises a little to the north of Antakia, and, after a course of about 30 miles, loses itself in the ground.

SEJUR, a small town of Syria; 15 miles south of Antakia.

SEKE, *adj.* [Jæoc, Sax.] Sick. *Chaucer.*

SEKI, a town of Nippon, in Japan; 20 miles south-south-west of Ixo.

SEKIALE, a village of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 300 miles east of Madian.

SEKIN, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 30 miles south-west of Selifkeh.

SEKMARA, a town described by the Arabian geographers in the 12th century, as situated on the Niger, near the western frontier of Wangara, in Central Africa; but no recent accounts of it have been received.

SEKOOBOOM, a small island in the Sooloo Archipelago. Lat. 5. 5. N. long. 120. 20. E.

SEKUNDR, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, district of Merat, belonging to the British. Lat. 28. 38. N. long. 77. 34. E.

SEKUNDR, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra, where there is a magnificent tomb of the emperor Akbar. Lat. 27. 45. N. long. 78. 21. E.

SEKUNDR, a town of Hindostan, province of Aga, and district of Etawah. Lat. 26. 23. N. long. 79. 35. E.—All these places are called after Sekunder (Alexander), the Afghan emperor of Hindostan, who reigned in the beginning of the 16th century. There are several other places named after him.

SEL, a village in the north-west of France, département of the Ille and Vilaine; 16 miles south of Rennes.

SEL HADJAR, a village of Lower Egypt, on the site of the ancient Sais, several remarkable monuments of which may still be traced. The principal consists of a quadrangular inclosure, formed by very lofty earthen walls. Dr. Clarke found here a number of valuable antiquities, among which the most remarkable was a figure in the form of a mummy, composed entirely of porcelain, and bearing a sceptre, in the form of a plough, supposed to represent the ancient plough of Egypt. He found also a *torso*, the finest specimen of Egyptian sculpture he had seen, and now deposited in the university of Cambridge. A tablet, with numerous hieroglyphics, was also discovered; 18 miles south-south-east of Faoua.

SELAGINOIDES, the name of a genus of mosses in the arrangement of Dillenius, a species of lycopodium; the characters of which are these:—the capsules are produced in the alæ of the leaves, in the manner of those in the selago, but they are of a different form, being tricocous, and sometimes quadricocous, and opening, when mature, into so many valves.

Of this genus of moss, we have only one known species; which is the prickly selaginoides, commonly called *seedling mountain moss*. This is found in the mountainous parts of Yorkshire, and in Wales; and loves rocky and moist places.

SELAGO [of Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of aggregata, vitices (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, four-cleft (five-cleft), small, permanent: lower segment larger. Corolla one petalled: tube very small, filiform, scarcely perforated: border spreading, five-parted, almost equal; the two upper segments smaller; the lowest larger. Stamina: filaments four, capillary, length of the corolla into which they are inserted; the two upper ones longer. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish. Style simple, length of the stamens. Stigma simple, acute. Pericarp none. Corolla involving the seed. Seed one or two, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Co-

rolla, tube capillary; border almost equal. Seeds one or two.

1. Selago corymbosa, or fine leaved selago.—These plants are all natives of the Cape of Good Hope.—Stems slender, woody, rising seven or eight feet high, but so weak as to require support: they send out many slender branches. Leaves short, linear, hairy, coming out in clusters. Flowers small, and of a pure white: appearing in July and August, but not followed by seeds in England.

This plant is preserved in gardens more for the sake of variety than beauty.

2. Selago polystachya, or many-spiked selago.—Corymb with spikes, fascicled, leaves filiform, aggregate. Stem fruticose, erect, even, branched, half a foot high.

3. Selago rapunculoides, or rampion-like selago.—Spikes corymb, leaves toothed. Border of the corolla four-parted, with the two outer segments larger.

4. Selago spuria, or linear-leaved selago.—Spike corymb, leaves linear toothletted. Stem suffruticose.

5. Selago fasciculata, or cluster-flowered selago.—Corymb manifold, leaves obovate, smooth, serrate. Stem quite simple, erect, two feet high.

6. Selago coccinea, or scarlet selago.—Spikes corymbed lower leaves linear, quite entire, upper lanceolate subulate somewhat toothed. This much resembles the rapunculoides

7. Selago capitata, or headed selago.—Head terminating leaves fascicled, linear, fleshy, smooth. Stem suffruticose erect, pubescent.

8. Selago fruticosa, or shrubby selago.—Heads roundish, terminating, leaves scattered, linear, obtuse, quite entire, stem shrubby. This is a lofty shrub with unequal branches.

9. Selago divaricata, or spreading selago.—Heads terminating, leaves filiform-linear, fascicled, smooth.

10. Selago canescens, or hoary selago.—Spikes terminating, leaves filiform, fascicled, smooth.

11. Selago geniculata, or jointed selago.—Spikes terminating, leaves linear, fascicled, smooth, with the margin bent back. The branches in this are more spreading and divaricating.

12. Selago triquetra, or three-sided selago.—Spikes terminating, leaves three-sided, imbricate, recurve-reflex, smooth.

13. Selago hispida, or hispid selago.—Spikes terminating, leaves linear, scattered, reflex, hispid.

14. Selago polygaloides, or milkwort-like selago.—Spikes terminating, bracts and calyxes keeled, laminæ rugged, leaves linear, smooth, with a reflex margin.

15. Selago cinerea, or ash-coloured selago.—Corymb compound, leaves linear, fascicled, smooth, reflex at the edge.

16. Selago rotundifolia, or round-leaved selago.—Corymb compound, leaves ovate, smooth, obtuse.

17. Selago ciliata, or fringed selago.—Flowers in spikes, leaves ovate, ciliate, acute.

18. Selago verbenacea, or vervain selago.—Spikes fascicled, leaves oblong, smooth, stem four-cornered, right-angled.

19. Selago hirta, or rough-haired selago.—Rough-haired, spikes very long, leaves obovate.

20. Selago ovata, or ovate-headed selago.—Spikes strobiline, ovate, terminating, leaves scattered, linear, stem shrubby. Flowers white, with a yellow spot on the two uppermost segments, and sometimes on all of them, and an orange spot at the mouth of the tube. It is valuable, not so much on account of its beauty, as the curious structure of the spikes, and the fragrantcy of its flowers.

Propagation and Culture.—Plant cuttings, during any of the summer months, in a bed of fresh earth, covering them close with a bell or hand-glass, shading them from the sun, and refreshing them now and then with water. Harden them gradually, and then transplant them into small pots, placing them in the shade till they have taken root. Place them with other hardy greenhouse plants; and about the end of October remove them into the dry stove. They only require protection from frost, and may be treated in the same manner with the hardier greenhouse plants.

SELAH, a word which occurs no less than seventy times in the Hebrew text in the Psalms, and which has occasioned great difficulty to the critics. The Septuagint renders it *διαψαλμα*, *q. d.* a pause in singing: and this, it must be owned, was greatly wanted before the Psalms were divided into verses.

SELAMA, a village of the island of Ceram, one of the spice islands, situated at the bottom of Sawa Bay, on the north coast, in lat. 2. 56. S.

SELAME, an island, or rather cluster of small islands, near the coast of Arabia, at the entrance of the Persian Gulf, near Cape Mussendoon.

SELANG, a very small island in the Eastern seas, lying off the south coast of the island of Batchian, one of the Moluccas. It is not flat and low, neither is it very high; but the east part slopes down to where it seems to join the mainland of Batchian, the straits there being narrow, and not five feet deep. The island forms two harbours with the mainland, an inner and outer harbour, into either of which there is no danger of running, except what is clearly seen. Lat. 0. 50. S. long. 124. 10. E.

SELANIEH. See **SELENIEH**.

SELANION, in Botany, a name by which some authors have called the common **CROCUS VERNUS**, or the garden spring-flower.

SELB, a town of Bavarian Franconia; 14 miles south-east of Hof. Population 1500.

SELBA, a small rocky island of Austrian Dalmatia, at the entrance of the canal of Zara. It is not fertile, and is inhabited by mariners and fishermen.

SELBISTAN, a town of Persia, in the eastern part of the province of Fars, in a well peopled and cultivated country, bordering on Kerman.

SELBITZ, a small river of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, which flows into the Saale; 2 miles north-east of Lichtenberg.

SELBITZ, a small town of Bavarian Franconia, near the above river; 3 miles south-south-east of Lichtenberg. Population 1000.

SELBORNE, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 4 miles south-by-east of Alton. This parish contained anciently a priory of Black canons, and a house for knights templars. Population 770.

SELBURY-HILL is a high hill of England, in Wiltshire, near the village of Kennet, on the road from Marlborough to Bath. It is an artificial mound, for what purpose raised is unknown; but it is reckoned the largest and most uniform barrow in England.

SELBY, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the right bank of the river Ouse. It is a small but populous town; and the river here being navigable for vessels of burden, it carries on a considerable trade to London and other places. This trade has been much improved of late years by the opening of a new canal, which communicates from hence with the rivers Aire and Calder. A handsome and very complete wooden bridge has been lately erected over the Ouse here, much admired for the facility with which it can be opened for the admission of vessels, by means of a leaf or swivel in the centre. The principal business within the town consists in ship-building, and in the manufacture of leather, sail-cloth, and iron articles. Selby is a place of great antiquity, and was known in Saxon times by the appellation of Salebia. It was noted as the birth-place of Henry I., son of William the Conqueror. William had, in 1070, erected a monastery here, to which he was shortly after paying a visit along with his queen, when the latter was delivered. The abbey stood at the west end of the town, and was filled with Benedictine monks. It was granted, along with its revenues, to Sir Ralph Sadler, by king Henry VIII. Since that period, the buildings have been appropriated to various purposes, and most of them are now demolished, except the church, which seems to have been a very spacious and elegant structure. From the various styles of its architecture, it appears evidently to have been erected at different periods. The oldest

parts are the body and the nave, which are of Norman origin, and are probably coeval with the foundation of the abbey. The western front, though very irregular, is extremely curious, both in regard to structure and ornaments. The entrance on this side, and also on the northern porch, are particularly worthy of attention. The form of the church is that of a cross, the shaft of which is 267 feet in length, and its transept 100 feet. From the centre of the building rises a massive tower, which was rebuilt in 1702. On each side of the choir are 12 ancient stalls, similar in form and workmanship to those of the cathedral at York. In the windows are considerable remains of stained glass. Selby parish contains 742 houses, and 3363 inhabitants. Market on Monday; 14 miles south-by-east of York, and 181 north-by-west of London. Lat. 53. 46. N. long. 1. 3. W.

SELBY PORT, a township of the United States, in Allegany county, Maryland.

SELCHOW, a village of Prussia, in the Middle Mark of Brandenburg; 12 miles south-by-east of Berlin.

SELCHOW, a village of Prussia, in Pomerania; 18 miles south-by-west of Stettin.

SELCKE, a small river of Germany, in Saxony, which rises in the mountainous district of the Harz, and falls into the larger stream of the Bode.

SELCOUTH, *adj.* [*selb*, rare, Sax. and *couth*, known.] Rarely known; uncommon. *Unused.*

Yet nathemore his meaning she ared,

But wondred much at his so *selcouth* case.

Spenser.

SELDEN (John), a very distinguished scholar, and an eminent political character, called by Grotius "the glory of England," was born at Salvington, in Sussex, in 1584. He was educated at the free-school at Chichester, whence he was sent to Hart-hall, Oxford, where he resided about four years. He then removed to London, for the study of the law, and with this view entered himself in Clifford's-Inn, and about two years after he removed to the Inner Temple, where he soon acquired great reputation by his learning. He had already made himself known by some works of great merit, and he now wrote verses in Latin, Greek and English, upon Mr. William Browne's Britannia's Pastors.

Having been called to the bar, he occasionally pleaded, but was much more employed as a chamber counsellor. The first object of his private studies, was the history and antiquities of his own country, and, in 1607, he drew up a work, entitled "Analecton Anglo-Brittannicon," which was a chronological summary of English history down to the Norman conquest. This work was followed, in 1610, by "England's Epinomis," and "Jani Anglorum Facies altera," a Latin and English treatise on the origin and progress of English law. By these compositions, he became known as a diligent enquirer into the early history and constitution of his country, and acquired the esteem of several eminent literary characters, among whom were Camden, Spelman and Sir Robert Cotton. He was also on familiar terms with Ben Jonson, Drayton, Browne and other poets of that period, who seem to have regarded his learning and talents with great respect, and his own genius appears to have been inclined to poetry. In 1614, he published his largest English work, a treatise on "Titles of Honour," in which he displayed a vast extent of reading, directed by sound judgment. It became a standard authority with regard to all that concerns the degrees of nobility and gentry in this kingdom, in which light it is still referred to; and it abounds in historical information concerning the origin of such distinctions as he traced through other countries. In the year 1617, he entered upon a wider field of literature, and made himself known to the learned throughout Europe, by a celebrated work "De Diis Syris." The chief or leading object of this performance, was to treat on the heathen deities mentioned in the Old Testament; but he extended it to an enquiry into Syrian idolatry in general, with occasional illustrations of the theology of other nations. This work was received with great applause by the learned world, and a

new and improved edition of it was printed at Leyden, under the care of Daniel Heinsius.

Hitherto Selden had passed his life in the tranquillity of a man of letters, engaged in subjects not liable to debate; but his next publication, being "A History of Tythes," printed in 1618, subjected him to much angry opposition, and brought upon him, says his biographer, "a storm from a quarter which has always proved dangerous to free enquirers." In the work alluded to, he had considered the question of the divine right to that impost, advanced by the clergy, and now beginning to be maintained by the English church, and though he only treated of it as a matter of his history, without arguing for or against the right, yet as the sum of his authorities manifestly inclined the balance to the negative side of the question, some of the clergy took offence, and made an accusation against him before king James. That sovereign sent for Mr. Selden, and gave him a lecture on the subject; and being afterwards called before the archbishop of Canterbury, and some other members of the high commission court, he was induced so to degrade himself, as to sign a declaration of his sorrow for what he had done.

Selden was next to shine in the character of an advocate for constitutional liberty, with which his name is now so closely allied. The parliament which James's necessities had obliged him to convoke in 1621, was soon at issue with him on the point of their powers and privileges, all of which the king asserted to have been grants from his predecessors and himself, while they maintained them to be an inheritance from their ancestors. Selden being resorted to by the parliament as the ablest legal antiquarian of his time, for information relative to the ancient privileges of that body, spoke so freely before them against the practices of the court, and was so instrumental in drawing up their spirited protestations, that he was selected as one of the victims to the royal resentment, and committed to custody. His imprisonment was not rigorous, and he was soon discharged upon his own petition. Resuming now his antiquarian studies, he edited, in 1723, the historical work of Eadmer, a monk of Canterbury, with learned notes relative to the laws and customs established by William the Conqueror. In the following year he was elected to the new parliament, as one of the representatives for Lancaster; but nothing occurred to call forth his exertions during that session. He was again a member in the two first parliaments of king Charles, in the second of which he was appointed to support some articles of impeachment of the duke of Buckingham. He afterwards took up the cause of Sir Edward Hampden, who had been imprisoned for refusing to contribute to a forced loan; and, in 1628, he was the person whom the House of Commons employed to produce matter of record to justify its resolutions in favour of the subject's right to his liberty and property. These useful and very honourable labours did not so entirely engross his attention, but that he found time, in 1629, to draw up his learned treatise, entitled "Marmora Arundeliana," the occasion of which was the importation by the earl of Arundel of some very ancient Greek marbles, containing inscriptions of great value in the study of history and chronology. This was another obligation conferred by Selden on the learned world, which was received with due gratitude.

On the dissolution of the parliament, on account of its vigorous proceedings against the measures of the court, Selden was one of the eight members of the House of Commons who were thrown into the prison of the Tower, on a charge of sedition; but in the beginning of 1634, they were fully liberated. During the imprisonment of Selden, his mind was not inactive; his studies were turned to Jewish history and antiquities, and the first fruits of them were shewn in a work, entitled "De successione in bona defuncti ad leges Ebræorum," which was published in 1631, and reprinted in 1636, with the addition of a treatise "De successione in Pontificatum Ebræorum." Selden had long employed his great talents in a work which was intended to assert the maritime usurpations of this country, in opposition to the principles advanced by Grotius in his work, entitled "Mare Liberum."

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Selden's treatise appeared in the year 1635, under the title of "Mare Clausum seu Dominio Maris." In this performance, the author first attempts to prove, by reasoning and example, that the sea is capable of dominion: and then to establish, historically, the British right over the circumjacent, or, as they have been denominated by others, the narrow seas. (See Campbell's Lives of the Admirals, vols. i. ii.) This author, speaking of Mr. Selden and his *Mare Clausum*, says that "he has effectually demonstrated, from the principles of the law of nature and nations, that a dominion over the sea may be acquired, and from the most authentic histories, that such a dominion has been claimed and enjoyed by several nations, and submitted to by others for their common benefit: that this was, in fact, the case of the inhabitants of this island, who, at all times, and under every kind of government, had claimed, exercised, and constantly enjoyed such a dominion, which had been confessed by their neighbours frequently, and in the most solemn manner."

Selden's work was acceptable to all parties, and the king in council ordered copies of it to be kept in the council chest, the court of exchequer, and the court of admiralty, as faithful and strong evidence to the dominion of the British seas. Several following years of Selden's life seem to have been chiefly occupied in Hebrew studies, of which one of the principal products appeared in 1640, under the title "De Jure Naturali et Gentium juxta disciplinam Ebræorum:" Lib. septem. This work is a copious digest of Jewish laws and institutions, as well from the rabbinical writers, as from the writings of the Old Testament, which is generally esteemed a valuable repertory of all the matter afforded by history or tradition relative to the subject.

This year, 1640, the *long* parliament met, and Selden was chosen one of the representatives for the university of Oxford. His name appears in several committees appointed for the correcting of the abuses, and restraining the oppressions of the reign, which parliament was, at this period, resolved to pursue. One of its strong measures, viz., the impeachment of lord Strafford, he did not concur in, not considering that this measure was warranted by the law of the land. Nor did he seem willing to proceed further in the reformation of religion, than to check the usurpations of ecclesiastical power, to which he was a most decided enemy; and he had no wish whatever to abrogate the episcopal form of church government, which he preferred to the presbyterian. So well affected was he, upon the whole, to the existing constitution in church and state, that after the king had withdrawn to York, there was a design of appointing him keeper of the great seal. When the differences between the king and parliament were manifestly tending to an open rupture, Selden opposed the attempts of both parties to gain possession of the power of the sword, hoping that the strong arm of the law might prove sufficient to settle the contest, and when his efforts had proved fruitless, he withdrew, as much as he was able, from public business. He remained, however, in parliament, and was one of the synod which met at Westminster for the establishment of church government. In 1643, he was appointed, by the House of Commons, keeper of the records in the Tower; and, in the next year, he subscribed the Solemn League and Covenant. It is mentioned, to his honour, that he constantly employed his influence, in these contentious times, for the service and protection of learning and learned men; and the university of Oxford, on different occasions, expressed its gratitude for the good offices which he performed for it in times of its distress. He likewise befriended the sister university, in which he was regarded with so much veneration, that he was elected to the mastership of Trinity-hall, though he thought it right to decline the office. His learned labours were still unintermitted, and new works were occasionally issuing from his pen, on the subjects of Hebrew history and antiquity. Selden died in November 1654, having completed his seventieth year. His valuable library and museum now make part of the Bodleian library. After his death, his amanuensis printed a collection of Selden's sayings, entitled "Table Talk," which contains much curious matter, and became popular.

E

"Selden,"

"Selden," says Dr. Aikin, "was one of the most learned men of his time, and though the nature of his subjects, and a harsh and difficult style, have thrown his works out of the ordinary course of reading, yet he has been a considerable benefactor to literature, and his merit, as such, has been freely acknowledged by the most eminent scholars at home and abroad. Grotius, Salmasius, Bochart, Gerard Vossius, Gronovius, Daniel Heinsius, and many other writers of great celebrity, have mentioned him with high encomium, and in England he was looked up to as the head of a literary body. He was liberal in his patronage of men of letters, and appears to have been free from the jealousy and arrogance too frequently accompanying the learned character. Lord Clarendon, though widely different from him in political sentiments, has, in his own life, spoken of him in terms of profound respect and admiration; and from personal knowledge, has testified to the amiable qualities of his heart, and urbanity of his manners, as well as to the powers of his understanding."

SE'LDOM, *adv.* [*selban, rarely; selbon, more rarely; selbotz, Sax., most rarely.*] Rarely; not often; not frequently.

SE'LDOM, *adj.* [*selten, Dutch and Germ.*] Rare; not frequent.—The *seldom* discharge of a higher and more noble office. *Milton.*—His sickness in the later years of his life gave him but short and *seldom* truce. *Fell.*

SE'LDOMNESS, *s.* Uncommonness; infrequency; rareness; rarity. *Unused.*—The strength of delight is in its *seldomness* or rarity. *Brown.*

SE'LDSSHOWN, *adj.* Seldom exhibited to view. *Obsolete, but elegant.*

Seldshown flamins

Do press among the popular throngs. *Shakspeare.*

SELE, a hamlet of England, in Hertfordshire, adjacent to the town of Hertford.

SELE, a river of Italy in the west of the kingdom of Naples, which rises among the Appennines, and flowing through the Principato Citra, discharges itself into the gulf of Salerno.

To SELE'CT, *v. a.* [*selectus, Lat.*] To chuse in preference to others rejected.—The footmen, *selected* out of all the provinces, were greatly diminished, being now scarce eight thousand strong. *Knolles.*

SELE'CT, *adj.* Nicely chosen; choice; culled out on account of superior excellence.

To the nuptial bow'r

I led her, blushing like the morn: all heaven,
And happy constellations, on that hour
Shed their *selectest* influence.

Milton.

Select from vulgar herds, with garlands gay,
A hundred bulls ascend the sacred way.

Prior.

SELECTI JUDICES, in the Roman Republic, were persons appointed by the prætor with the mutual consent of contending parties, and bearing in many respects a remarkable resemblance to our juries; for they were first returned by the prætor, then their names were drawn by lot, till a certain number was completed; then the parties were allowed their challenges; next they struck what we call a tales; and, lastly, the judges, like our jury, were sworn.

SELE'CTION, *s.* [*selectio, Lat.*] The act of culling or chusing; choice.—While we single out several dishes, and reject others, the *selection* seems but arbitrary. *Brown.*

SELE'CTNESS, *s.* The state of being select.

SELE'CTOR, *s.* One who selects.

SELEFKEH, a town of Caramania, in Asia Minor, situated near the mouth of a river called Ghiuk Sooyoo, the ancient *Calidicadnus*. It is the residence of an Aga, under the governor of Cyprus; but the modern town is merely an assemblage of mud and wooden huts. It is chiefly distinguished by being on the site of the ancient Seleucia, considerable vestiges of which are still discovered. They are scattered over a large extent of ground, on the western side of the river. Here are found the remains of a theatre, partly cut out of the side of a hill, and facing the south east; and in

front of it a long line of considerable ruins, with porticos and other large buildings. Farther on is a temple, which had been converted into a Christian church, and several large Corinthian columns, about four feet in diameter a few of which are still standing. A quarter of a mile to the southward of the theatre, near a marble quarry which seems to have supplied all the materials of the town, is an extensive cemetery, containing several sarcophagi of coarse workmanship; and in a vein of soft stone on the northern side of the hill, are some catacombs, which, as usual, have been all opened and emptied. At these two places appear a variety of inscriptions. Near the catacombs there is an enormous reservoir, hewn out of this soft stone. The roof is supported by parallel rows of square pillars. Its dimensions are 150 feet by 75, and 35 in depth. On a hill west of the town are the remains of the citadel, of an oval form, surrounded by a double ditch, and a well built wall, flanked by towers. The interior is full of ruined houses, among which are some columns. Lat. 36. 20. N. long. 33. 55. E.

SELENÆ, [*Σεληναι, Gr.*] in Antiquity, a kind of cakes used in sacrifices, and so called from their being broad and horned, in imitation of the new moon.

SELENDERS, in the Manège, are chaps or mangy sores in the bending of a horse's hough, as the *malanders* are in the knees.

SELENGA, a considerable river of Siberia, in the southern part of the government of Irkoutsk. It rises beyond the frontier, in the country of the Mongols, where it receives the smaller streams of the Kharatale and the Iga. On approaching the frontiers of the empire, it begins to be navigable, then flows from south-east north-west, and falls by three mouths into the lake Baikal. The Russians have founded several towns on its right bank, particularly Veschnei Oudinsk, Selenginsk, and Kiachta, distinguished as the theatre of the commerce with China. A great quantity of a species of white fish, called *omouli*, is taken in the Selenga, particularly towards the end of August.

SELENGINSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, on the right bank of the Selenga. It is situated in a barren and desolate country, consisting chiefly of naked and sandy mountains; and it is ten miles farther down the river before any lands are found fit for the purposes of agriculture. The origin of this place was in 1666, when an ostrog, or wooden fort, was built on the spot, which was afterwards converted into a regular fortress, and gave rise to the town. It does not now contain more than three churches, and 150 houses. Notwithstanding its dreary situation, it is supported by being a thoroughfare for the Chinese trade carried on at Kiachta. A considerable quantity of rhubarb is also brought from the bordering country of Mongolia. Lat. 51. 6. 6. N. long. 107. 3. E.

SELENIEH, or SELANIEH, a village of Lower Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 9 miles south-east of Mehallet Kebeer.

SE'LENITE, or SELENI'TES, *s.* [*selenite, Fr., selenites, Lat. from σεληνη, Gr., the moon.*] A sort or fossil. See MINEROLOGY, p. 449.

SELENI'TIC, *adj.* Pertaining to selenites.

SELENOGRA'PHICAL, or SELENOGRA'PHIC, *adj.* [*selenographique, Fr.*] Belonging to selenography.

SELENOGRAPHY, *s.* [*selenographie, Fr., σεληνη and γραφω, Gr.*] A description of the moon.—Hevelius, in his accurate *selenography*, or description of the moon, hath well translated the known appellations of regions, seas and mountains, unto the parts of that luminary. *Brown.*

SELEONES, one of the smaller Shetland isles. Lat. 60. 40. N. long. 1. 22. W.

SELEUCIA, in Ancient Geography, a famous city of Asia, built by Seleucus, one of Alexander's generals, and situated on the western bank of the Tigris, about 45 miles north of ancient Babylon, was the capital of the Macedonian conquests in Upper Asia, and is said to have been the first and principal cause of the destruction of Babylon. Pliny reports, that the intention of the first of the Selucidæ was to

to raise, in opposition to Babylon, a Greek city, with the privilege of being free.

Browné (Travels in Africa, p. 391.) identifies Selucia with Suadea, the port of Antioch, about four hours distant from it. Its former possessors, he says, took immense pains to render it convenient for traffic; but it is now rendered useless, by the negligence of its present masters. A large gate, says this traveller, yet remains entire; it approaches to the Doric order. The rock near it has been excavated into various apartments. A part exists of the thick and substantial wall which defended Seleucia towards the sea. The port must have been commodious and secure, though small, as it was formed by a mole of very large stones. Although it be at present dry, the sand in the bottom appears no higher than the surface of the sea. A little to the north is a remarkable passage, cut in the rock, leading, by a gentle descent, from the summit of the mountain towards the water. It is about 600 common paces long, from 40 to 50 feet high, and above 20 broad. In the middle of it is a covered way, arched through the rock, but both ends are open. A channel for water runs along the side, conveying the pure element down from the mountain to Seleucia. The whole rock above is full of artificial cavities, formed for some purpose now unknown. A Greek inscription of five lines is visible on the south side of the cavern. Towards the sea are some catacombs, ornamented with pilasters, cornices and mouldings.

SELEUCIANS, or SELUCIANI, a sect of ancient heretics, called also Hermiani.

Seleucus and Hermias taught, that God was corporeal; that the elementary matter was co-eternal with him; and that the human soul was formed by the angels of fire and air. They also denied, that Jesus Christ sat at the right hand of God; asserting that he had quitted the right, and had removed his throne into the sun.

SELEUCIDÆ, a race of Greek kings, who reigned as successors of Alexander the Great in Syria, as the Ptolemies did in Egypt. The era of the Seleucidæ, or the Syro-Macedonian era, is a computation of time, commencing from the establishment of the Seleucidæ.

This era we find expressed on a great number of Greek medals struck by the cities of Syria, &c.

SELEUCUS I., surnamed Nicator, king of Syria.—SELEUCUS II., surnamed Callinicus.—SELEUCUS III., surnamed Ceraunus.—SELEUCUS IV., surnamed Philopater. See MACEDON, JEWS, &c.

SELEVITZA, a village of Greece, in the north-west of the Morea, a few miles to the south-west of Dimicizana.

SELF, *pron. pl. selves.* [*silba*, Gothic; *rýlf*, *rýlfa*, Sax., *selve*, Dutch.] Its primary signification seems to be that of an adjective; very; particular; this above others.

Shot another arrow that *self* way
Which you did shoot the first.

Shakspeare.

The cruel ministers, by *self* and violent hands,
Took off her life.

Shakspeare.

On these *self* hills the air is so thin, that it is not sufficient to bear up the body of a bird. *Raleigh.*

At that *self* moment enters Palamon
The gate of Venus.

Dryden.

It is united both to the personal pronouns, and to the neutral pronoun *it*, and is always added when they are used reciprocally, or return upon themselves: as, I did not hurt *him*, he hurt *himself*; the people hiss *me*, but I clap *myself*; thou lovest *thyself*, though the world scorns *thee*. It is sometimes used emphatically in the nominative case: as, *myself* will decide it; *myself* will come; *himself* shall revenge it: but this use of *self*, thus compounded, without the pronoun personal, is chiefly poetical. Compounded with *him*, a pronoun substantive, *self* is in appearance an adjective: joined to *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, pronoun adjectives, it seems a substantive. Even when compounded with *him*, it

is at last found to be a substantive, by its variation in the plural, contrary to the nature of English adjectives, as *himself*, *themselves*. *Johnson*.—Though the last reason of *Johnson* is, as Tyrwhitt has shewn, not at all conclusive, yet the simplest mode of considering these compounds is as pronouns substantive.

No more be mention'd then of violence

Against *ourselves*, or wilful barrenness.

Milton.

A horse well bitten which *himself* did dress.

Dryden.

And touched with miseries *myself* have known,
I learn to pity woes so like *my* own.

Dryden.

It often adds only emphasis and force to the pronoun with which it is compounded: as, he did it *himself*.—It signifies the individual, as subject to his own contemplation or action.—Since consciousness always accompanies thinking, and it is that that makes every one to be what he calls *self*; and thereby distinguishes himself from all other thinking things; in this alone consists personal identity, i. e. the sameness of a rational being. *Locke*.—It is much used in composition: thus we have from *Sidney*, the words *self-love*, *self-like*, *self-destruction*.—*Self-consuming* from *Spenser*.—*Self-abuse*, *self-affairs*, *self-charity*, *self-chain* (very chain), *self-born*, *self-affrighted*, *self-mate*, *self-metal* (same metal), *self-same*, *self-willed*, *self-wrong*, *self-subdued*, *self-slaughter*, *self-reproving*, *self-offences*, *self-caparisons*, *self-neglecting*, *self-mettle*, *self-glorious*, *self-harming*, *cum multis aliis*, from *Shakspeare*.—*Self-preservation*, *self-rolled*, *self-esteem*, *self-knowing*, *self-begotten*, *self-left*; from *Milton*.—*Self-delusions*, *self-denial*, *self-denying*, *self-examination*, *self-imposture*, *self-opinioned*, *self-sufficient*; from *South*.—*Self-conscious*, *self-sufficiency*, *self-centered*, *self-born*, *self-kindled*, *self-restrained*; from *Dryden*.—*Self-evidence*, *self-conceitedness*, *self-consciousness*, *self-determination*; from *Locke*.

SELFHEAL, *s.* [*prunella*, Lat.] A plant. See SANCICULA.

SELFISH, *adj.* Attentive only to one's own sensual interest; void of regard for others.

Passions, though *selfish*, if their means be fair,
List unto Reason, and deserve her care;
Those that imparted court a nobler aim,
Exalt their kind, and take some virtue's name.

Pope.

SELFISHNESS, *s.* Attention to his own interest, without any regard to others; self-love.—This sublimer love, being, by an intimate conjunction with its object, thoroughly refined from all base dross of selfishness and interest, nobly begets a perfect submission of our wills to the will of God. *Boyle*.

SELFISHLY, *adv.* With regard only to his own interest; without love of others.

He can your merit *selfishly* approve,
And shew the sense of it without the love.

Pope.

SELFNESS, *s.* Self-love; selfishness.—Wholly her's, all *selfness* he forbears. *Sidney*.—The simple good without all *selfness* or straitness. *More*.—Unused.

SELFSAME, *adj.* Exactly the same.

Behold me punish'd in the *self-same* kind;
Th' ungrateful does a more ungrateful find.

Dryden.

SELGOVÆ, in Ancient Geography, a people of Britain, seated to the west of the Gadeni, in the countries now called Eskdale, Annandale and Nithsdale, lying along the shores of the Solway Frith, which is believed to have derived its name from that of this ancient British nation.

SELI, in Botany, a word formed by an abbreviation of the word *seseli*, and signifying the same plant.

SELIADRIM, a political division or district of the island of Celebes.

SELIKINSKO, a fort of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Yenisei; 260 miles north-north-west of Turuchansk.

SELICHA, a name given by the Arabians to a kind of cinnamon.

SELICO,

SELICO, or SELUGO, a town of western Africa, on the northern bank of the Gambia.

SELIGENSTADT, or SELINGSTADT, a small town in the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, on the Maine; 17 miles east-south-east of Frankfort. Population 2300.

SELIGER, or SELIGERO, a lake of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Tver.

SELIM I., a Turkish emperor.—SELIM II., also a Turkish emperor. See TURKEY.

SELIME, a watering place in the desert to the west of Nubia, frequented by the caravans from Cairo to Darfur. The water is excellent; 42 miles south of Shethi.

SELIMPORE, a town of Bengal, district of Burdwan. Lat. 23. 23. N. long. 87. 35. E.

SELIN, a town of Gallam, in Central Africa; 15 miles south of Gallam.

SELIN'S GROVE, a post village of the United States, in Northumberland county, Pennsylvania.

SELING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quangsee. Lat. 21. 55. N. long. 126. 29. E.

SELINGA. See SELENGA.

SELINO, a small town of European Turkey, on the south-west coast of the island of Candia. In the environs are raised cotton, olives, and fruit of various kinds.

SELINTY, a cape of Caramania, in Asia Minor, formed by a bold romantic headland, on which are the ruins of the ancient Trajanopolis. The hill rises steeply from the plain on one side, and breaks off into a chain of magnificent cliffs on the other. On the highest point of these are the ruins of a castle, which commands the ascent of the hill in every direction, and looks perpendicularly down upon the sea. The ancient line of fortification is marked by a wall, within which there are many remains of houses; while outside of them, between the foot of the hill and the river, the remains of some large buildings are yet standing. The most remarkable of these is a low massy edifice, of about 70 feet by 50, the top of which is flat, and which appears to have been formerly the basement of some splendid superstructure. This edifice stands in the centre of a quadrangle, along each side of which there was a row of thirty small columns; but they have been all broken off close to the ground, and carried away. Lower down the river are the remains of a small theatre, the seats of which have been all removed. Near the mouth of the river are found some baths; and fronting the theatre is a long ruined aqueduct on arches, which, crossing the river, communicates with a distant hill. At the south-east point of the hill are numbers of tombs, containing several Greek inscriptions. The coast here is marked by petrified gravel, which, at a distance, has the appearance of loose stones; but on approaching, proves to be a solid crust of pudding stone. The mistake thus produced may prove dangerous to mariners. The ancient city was originally called Selinus, till the time of Trajan, who gave his own name to it.

SELINUM [*Σελίνιον*, Gr. of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel, universal manifold, spreading, flat: partial similar. Involucre universal, many-leaved: leaves lanceolate-linear, reflex: partial similar, spreading, length of the corollet. Perianth proper, scarcely observable. Corolla universal uniform. Florets all fertile. Proper of five cordate equal petals. Stamina: filaments five, capillary. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ inferior. Styles two, reflex. Stigmas simple. Pericarp none. Fruit compressed-flat, oval-oblong, striated in the middle on both sides, bipartite. Seeds two, oval oblong; flat on both sides, striated in the middle, with the sides membranaceous. The seeds vary in form, and the involucre in number of leaflets.—*Essential Character*. Petal cordate, equal. Involucre reflex. Fruit oval-oblong, compressed-flat, striated in the middle.

1. *Selinum sylvestre*, or wild selinum.—Stem even, root fusiform, manifold. The herb is a little milky, with numerous even stems. Leaflets linear. Umbel patulous. Umbellets remote. Seeds oval-oblong, with three raised obtuse

approximating grooves. It has both involucre.—Native of Denmark, Germany, Silesia, France and Piedmont.

2. *Selinum palustre*, or marsh selinum.—Stem striated, three or four feet high, root almost simple, rays of the umbel hispid. The whole plant, when wounded, pours forth a milky thick bitter fetid juice.—Native of the North of Europe, Germany, Austria, Dauphiné, Piedmont and England, in swamps and moors. Known to be indigenous of England till very lately. It flowers in July.

3. *Selinum Austriacum*, or Austrian selinum.—Stem grooved, universal, involucre many-leaved, leaflets wedge-form, gashed. Root perennial, at the beginning of autumn pouring out a moderate quantity of yellowish white milk. Petals white, equal, cordate. All the flowers are not fertile.—Native of Austria, Idria, and perhaps of Dauphiné and Piedmont.

4. *Selinum Sibericum*, or Siberian selinum.—Leaves tri-pinnate, universal and partial involucre colourless, nine-leaved. Root biennial, fusiform. Stem erect, three feet high, hollow, striated, glaucous.—Native of Siberia.

5. *Selinum caruifolia*, or caraway-leaved selinum.—Stem grooved, acute-angled, universal, involucre none, leaflets lanceolate, gashed, mucronate at the top. Root perennial.—Native of Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, Austria and Siberia.

6. *Selinum chabrazii*.—Stem round, striated, universal, involucre none, sheaths of the leaves loose, leaflets filiform-linear. Height from eight inches to a foot.—Native of Germany, Austria, France and Italy.

7. *Selinum seguiera*, or fennel-leaved selinum.—Stem roundish, striated, four feet high, universal, involucre none, leaflets trifid, linear, mucronate. Perennial.—Native of Italy and Carniola.

8. *Selinum monnieri*, or annual selinum.—Umbels clustered, universal, involucre reflex, five membranaceous ribs to the seed. This has the same structure of the seeds as in *laserpitium*; but the habit and every thing else of selinum.—Native of the South of France. Annual.

9. *Selinum decipiens*.—Stem woody, naked below, lower leaves bipinnate, pinnules lanceolate, entire and gashed, serrate.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are easily propagated by seeds, sown in the autumn. The plants are to be treated in the same way as *Angelica*.

SELINUS, or SELINUNTE, formerly a celebrated city on the south coast of Sicily, at the mouth of the river Heraclea. Its ruins are still seen about seven miles south of Castro Vetrano, and are described as of enormous bulk; every column resembling a turret, and every fragment of a fallen capital a rock. From the traces of the walls, the town appears to have been built in the form of a horse shoe, and to have had a port in the centre; but the latter is now filled up. The most conspicuous of the ruins are two temples, apparently of great extent. A stone of one of them has been lately found to measure 21 feet in length, 5 feet 8 inches in height, and 6 feet 9 inches in breadth. On the west side, the walls are still in a considerable degree of perfection; and there are two vast flights of steps between the port and the upper part of the city. Selinus is said to have been founded B. C. 725.

SE'LION, *s.* [*selio*, low Lat.] A ridge of land. *Ainsworth*.—*Obsolete*.

SELIVRIA. See SILIVRIA.

SELKIRK (Alexander); whose adventures have given rise to a well known and highly esteemed romance, was born at Largo, in Fifeshire, in Scotland, about the year 1676, and was brought up to the sea-service. He left England in 1703, in the capacity of sailing-master of a small vessel called the Cinque-Ports-Galley, Charles Pickering, captain; and in the month of September, the same year, he sailed from Cork in company with another ship of 26 guns, and 120 men, called the St. George, commanded by Captain William Dampier, intended to cruise against the Spaniards in the South sea. On the coast of Brazil, Pickering died, and was succeeded in the command by Lieutenant Stradling. They proceeded

SELINUM SILENE AND SIBBALDIA.



1. *Silene rupestris*. 2. *S. nutans*. 3. 4. 5. 6. *Selinum palustre*. 7. *Sibbaldia procumbens*.



proceeded round Cape Horn to the island of Juan Fernandez, whence they were driven by the appearance of two French ships of 36 guns each, and left five of Stradling's men on shore, who were taken off by the French. Hence they sailed to the coast of America, where Dampier and Stradling quarrelled, and separated by agreement. This was in the month of May 1704; and in the following September Stradling came to the island of Juan Fernandez, where Selkirk and his captain having a quarrel, he determined to remain there alone. But when the ship was ready to sail, his resolution was shaken, and he desired to be taken on board; but now the captain refused his request, and he was left with his clothes, bedding, a gun and a small quantity of powder and ball, some trifling implements, and a few books, with certain mathematical and nautical instruments. Thus left sole monarch of the island, with plenty of the necessaries of life, he found himself at first in a situation scarcely supportable; and such was his melancholy, that he frequently determined to put an end to his existence. It was full eighteen months, according to his own account, before he could reconcile himself to his lot. At length his mind became calm: he grew happy, employed his time in building and decorating his huts, chasing the goats, whom he soon equalled in speed, and scarcely ever failed of catching. He also tamed young kids, and other animals, to be his companions. When his garments were worn out, he made others from the skins of the goats, whose flesh served him as food. His only liquor was water. He computed that he had caught, during his abode in the island, about 1000 goats, half of which he had suffered to go at large, having first marked them with a slit in the ear. Commodore Anson, who went there 30 years after, found the first goat, which they shot, had been thus marked; and hence they concluded that it had been under the power of Selkirk. Though he constantly performed his devotions at stated hours, and read aloud, yet when he was taken from the island, his language, from disuse of conversation, had become scarcely intelligible. In this solitude he remained four years and four months, during which only two incidents occurred which he thought worthy of record. The first was, that pursuing a goat eagerly, he caught at the edge of a precipice, of which he was not aware, and he fell over to the bottom, where he lay some time senseless; but of the exact space of time in which he was bereaved of his active powers he could not form an accurate estimate. When, however, he came to himself, he found the goat lying under him dead. It was with difficulty that he could crawl to his habitation, and it was not till after a considerable time that he entirely recovered from his bruises. The other event was the arrival of a ship, which he at first supposed to be French, but upon the crew's landing, he found them to be Spaniards, of whom he had too great a dread to trust himself in their hands. They, however, had seen him, and he found it extremely difficult to make his escape. In this solitude Selkirk remained until the 2d of February 1709, when he saw two ships come to the bay, and knew them to be English. He immediately lighted a fire as a signal, and he found, upon the landing of the men, that they were two privateers from Bristol, commanded by captains Rogers and Courtney. These, after a fortnight's stay at Juan Fernandez, embarked, taking Selkirk with them, and returned by way of the East Indies to England, where they arrived on the 1st of October, 1711; Selkirk having been absent eight years. The public curiosity being much excited, he, after his return, gave Steele some account of what had occurred during his solitary exile, which the latter published. This Defoe, made the foundation of his well-known work, entitled *Robinson Crusoe*. The time and place of Selkirk's death are not on record. It is said, that so late as the year 1798, the chest and musquet, which Selkirk had with him on the island, were in possession of a grand nephew, John Selkirk, a weaver in Largo, North Britain. The circumstances of Selkirk's seclusion from human society, during his stay on the desolate island, have given birth to a fine poem by

Mr. Cowper, with which our readers are no doubt well acquainted. *Biog. Brit.*

SELKIRKSHIRE, a county in Scotland, situated between 55° 21' and 55° 42' north latitude, and between 2° 48' and 3° 20' west longitude from Greenwich. It has Mid-Lothian, or the county of Edinburgh, on the north; Roxburghshire on the east and south-east; Dumfries-shire on the south; and Peebles-shire, or Tweeddale, on the west. The line which separates it from these counties being on all sides, but the south, exceedingly irregular, its area has been computed very differently; but, according to the latest authorities, it appears to be about 269 square miles, or 172,160 English acres. It includes only two entire parishes, with five parish churches: but seven other parishes belong partly to this, and partly to the adjoining counties.

This is almost entirely a pastoral district, and in many respects bears a resemblance to the higher parts of the contiguous county of Roxburghshire. Like the latter county, its general declivity is towards the north-east and north, where all its streams discharge themselves into the Tweed; and the surface differs principally, in so far as some of the hills are more elevated, its streams smaller, and the valleys in which they flow still more contracted. Several of the hills are more than 2000 feet high; such as Windlestraw Law at the northern extremity, on the confines of Mid-Lothian, Blackhouse Heights and Minchmoor on the borders of Peebles-shire, and Ettrick-penn on the south-west boundary. The lower hills are for the most part green, and afford good pasturage for sheep; but heath prevails on many of the higher grounds, especially towards the south-west. The lowest land is about 300 feet above the level of the sea, and the sites of many of the houses are from 600 to 1000 feet high and upwards.

The rivers are the Tweed, which crosses the north side of the county in its course from Peebles-shire on the west to Roxburghshire on the east; the Gala, which, for some distance, forms the boundary with Roxburghshire on the north-east, and falls into the Tweed, from the north, a little below the village of Galasheils; the Cador, a beautiful stream, which also joins the Tweed from the north; the Ettrick and Yarrow, which have their sources on the confines of Dumfries-shire, and, flowing north-east, almost parallel to each other, join their streams above Selkirk, and afterwards, under the name of Ettrick, passing to the west of that town, and, for a short distance along the boundary with Roxburghshire, enter the Tweed, in which their name is lost, and which then becomes the boundary with that county. The Ale, which rises in the north-east, soon after passes into Roxburghshire, and also the Borthwick, which washes the north-eastern boundary. Next to the Tweed, the most considerable waters are the Ettrick and the Yarrow, which receive, in the first instance, nearly all the other streams that traverse this district. Both have been celebrated in song, and given their names to some plaintive melodies of great beauty and feeling. The scenery on the Yarrow is exceedingly romantic and delightful. Soon after its rise, it passes through two lakes, the Loch of the Lows, and St. Mary's Loch; the latter, which is separated from the former only by a narrow neck of level ground, and is three miles long, having its banks partly covered with coppice-wood, is the finest piece of water in the south of Scotland. From thence the Yarrow flows for eight or nine miles, through sheep-walks, without wood or cultivation; but afterwards the sides of the lofty hills in its course are covered with wood to a considerable height, and its valley is embellished with a variety of bushes and wild flowers. Ettrick, the larger stream, has a wider and more cultivated valley, and a little before it receives the Yarrow, natural wood begins to appear on its banks. It afterwards flows for four miles through a rich tract, sheltered by plantations on the hills, till it loses its name in the Tweed. From this river the whole district has been sometimes called Ettrick Forest; but the name of Forest here, as elsewhere, has long since ceased to denote the existence of extensive woodlands, of which, whatever

may have been the case formerly, there are now scarcely any traces here. Besides the two lakes we have mentioned, a great many smaller ones are scattered over the east and south-east quarters, of which the more considerable are Lochs Ale Moor, the principal source of the Ale, and Oakermoor, noted for the vast quantity of marl which it contains.

The soil of the arable land, which does not much exceed one-twentieth part of the whole, is light, dry and easily cultivated; and produces oats, barley, turnips and potatoes; but very little wheat, for which the country is too elevated, and its climate in general too moist and rigorous. There is no coal, limestone, or sandstone, but a great deal of shell-marl in the lakes and mosses, which, when situated conveniently for the arable land, serves as a valuable manure. The rest of the county is almost exclusively occupied by sheep, which are now, for the most part, of the Cheviot breed, though not often pure, and scarcely, in any instance, equal to those of Roxburghshire. The heath or mountain race still keep their ground near the sources of the streams in the elevated districts on the south-west. There is but a small number of cattle, which are kept chiefly for their milk. The valued rent of the county is 80,307*l.* 15*s.* 6*d.* Scots, and the real rent of the lands and houses in 1812, was 41,162*l.* 10*s.* sterling. In the same year, the land-rent was divided among forty-four estates, of which nine had each a valuation exceeding 2000*l.* Scots, twenty were below 2000*l.* and above 500*l.*, and fifteen below 500*l.*; a division which indicates that most of the district belonged to a few individuals. Two-fifths of the whole are held under entail. The principal proprietors are the Duke of Buccleuch, the Earl of Traquair, Lords Elibank and Napier, and gentlemen of the names of Pringle, Lockhart, Elliot, Murray and Scott.

Selkirk, the county town, and a royal burgh, and the village of Galashiels, contain nearly all that part of the population that is not employed in husbandry; and both are small places. Selkirk is situated on a rising ground below the confluence of the Yarrow and Ettrick, near the borders of Roxburghshire, and is a place of considerable antiquity. Galashiels, on the Gala, north from Tweed, also on the borders of the same county, has been long distinguished for its woollen manufacture, the most considerable of the kind in the south of Scotland; where all the various processes, from the sorting of the fleece to the finishing of the fabric, are conducted with much skill and success. For some time only coarse cloths were made, such as were formerly worn by farm servants, seldom worth more than 3*s.* the yard, and popularly known by the name of *Galashiel greys*; but, within these few years, some very fine broad cloths have been produced, and a hall has been opened for the sale of their cloths, similar to those long established at the woollen manufactories of England. A considerable proportion of the wool of the county finds a market at Galashiels. An inkle work, and some tanneries, are the only other branches carried on for sale out of the county; so that its exports consist chiefly of raw produce, of which its sheep and wool are by far the most considerable articles.

Selkirkshire, which has thirty-eight freeholders, sends one member to Parliament, and Selkirk, along with Peebles, Lanark, and Linlithgow, elect another for the Scottish burghs. Though it is a very thinly peopled district, containing, in 1811, only about twenty-two inhabitants to the square mile, yet poor rates have been long and universally established. The population, according to the census of 1801, was 5070; in 1811 it amounted to 5889; and in 1821 to 6637, of which 3205 were males, and 3432 females. The families employed in agriculture were 421, in all other occupations 409. The increase of population, from 1811 to 1821, was 748; 36 miles south of Edinburgh, 11 north of Hawick, 7 west of Melrose, and 23 east of Peebles.

SELL, *pron.* Retained in Scotland, and the north of England, for *self*; and *sells* in the plural for *selves*.

They turn round like grindle-stones,
Which they dig out fro' the dells,
For their bairns' bread, wives and *sells*. *B. Jonson.*

SELL, *s.* [*selle*, Fr., *sella*, Lat.] A saddle. *Obsolete.*
Turning to that place, in which whilere
He left his lofty steed with golden *sell*
And goodly gorgeous barbes, him found not there. *Spenser.*

[*Selle*, old Fr., "sieg, tribunal de justice." *Lacombe.*] A royal seat; a throne.—The tyrant proud, frown'd from his lofty *sell*. *Fairfax.*—A sill.

SELL, in Building, is of two kinds, viz., ground-sell, which denotes the lowest piece of timber in a timber building, and that on which the whole superstructure is raised.

SELL, WINDOW, called also window-soil, is the bottom piece in a window-frame.

SELL-BED, in Mining, a term used in some parts of England to express some particularly rich parts of the vein of ore.

To SELL, *v. a.* [*M. Goth. saljan*; Sax. *fyllan*, *fellan*; Icel. *selia*,] To give for a price; the word correlative to buy; to vend.

You would have *sold* your king to slaughter,
His princes and his peers to servitude. *Shakspeare.*

To SELL, *v. n.* To have commerce or traffic with one.—I will buy with you, *sell* with you; but I will not eat with you. *Shakspeare.*—To be sold.—Few writings *sell*, which are not filled with great names. *Addison.*

SELLA, among the Romans, a chair in which the old and infirm were carried by servants through the city, and on journeys. Sometimes the physicians prescribed it as an exercise.

SELLA EQUINA, TURCICA, or SPHENOIDES, in Anatomy, is a name given to the four apophyses of the os sphenoides, or cuneiforme, in the brain; in regard of their forming a resemblance of a saddle, which the Latins call *sella*.

They are sometimes also called by the Greek name *clinoides*. In the *sella* is contained the pituitary gland.

SELLA, a river of the north of Spain, in the province of Asturias, which falls into the Bay of Biscay, at Rhio de Sella.

SELLA, a town in the east of Spain, in Valencia, to the north of Alicante. Population 2000.

SELLANDER, *s.* A dry scab in a horse's hough or pastern. *Ainsworth.*

SELLAY, a small island of the Hebrides, in the district of Harris; about 2 miles north from Pabbay. It is about a mile in circumference, and yields excellent pasture for sheep.

SELLE, a small river of French Flanders, which falls into the Scheldt, not far from Valenciennes.

SELLECK, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 4 miles north-west of Ross.

SELLEF, a village of Irak, in Persia; 110 miles east of Ispahan.

SELLER, *s.* The person that sells; vender.—To things of sale a *seller's* praise belongs. *Shakspeare.*—The name of the agent, of the *seller*, notary and witnesses, are in both instruments. *Addison.*

SELLER-HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, on the east of the isle of Lewis, near Stornoway.

SELLES, a small town in the central part of France, department of the Loir and Cher, on the river Cher. Population 3600. It has some manufactures of woollens; 14 miles south-west of Romorantin, and 25 south of Blois.

SELLHAM, a parish of England, in Sussex; 3½ miles west-south-west of Petworth.

SELLIERA [dedicated by Cavanilles to a Parisian engraver, Natalis Sellier, who executed the plates of Cavanilles' *Icones*, and also of his *monodelphia*], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character.

racter. Calyx: perianth superior, permanent, deeply five-cleft. Corolla of one petal, irregular; tube cloven longitudinally to the base; limb ascending, cloven into five, lanceolate segments. Stamina: filaments five, placed in an erect manner on the germen, surrounding the style; anthers ovate, erect. Pistil: germen inferior, ovate, turban-shaped; style simple, incurved, longer than the filaments; stigma globular truncated. Pericarp: berry ovate-turbinate, crowned by the calyx, of one cell and many seeds. Seeds ovate, compressed roughish.—*Essential Character.* Calyx superior, five-cleft. Tube cloven longitudinally to its base. Berry of one cell and many seeds.

Selliera radicans.—Native of the moist maritime parts of Chili: flowering between February and May. Stem prostrate, hairy, a foot high, sending out fibrous roots. Branches scarcely more than an inch long. Leaves alternate, spatulate, entire, clustered at the axils. Flowers blue and white, either terminating the branches, or axillary, on solitary stalks, which have two awl-shaped bracteas in the middle. Cavanilles described this elegant little plant from a dried specimen only. He says that it differs from *Scævola* in its fruit, which he suspects to be succulent, as in *Passiflora*; for after immersing the berry in warm water, he found it abounded with little moist cavities containing a glutinous fluid.

SELLIGA, a name by which some authors have called the *narda Celta*, or Celtic spikenard.

SELLING, a parish of England, in Kent; 4 miles south-south-east of Feversham. Population 458.

SELLINGE, a parish of England, in Kent, with fairs in May and October; 5 miles north-west of Hythe.

SELLYE, or SCHELLE, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, on the Woag, with 1600 inhabitants; 48 miles north-north-west of Comorin. Lat. 48. 9. 47. N. long. 17. 52. 1. E.

SELMA CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the Ohio, Lat. 38. 54. N. long. 84. 34. W.

SELMAST, a considerable town of Aderbijan, in Persia, containing 2000 inhabitants, principally Nestorian Christians. It is famed for its lofty poplars and delightful gardens; 75 miles west-south-west of Tabreez.

SELMESTON, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5½ miles west-by-south of Haylesham.

SELOKOI, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk. Lat. 64. 8. N. long. 76. 14. E.

SELONDA, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the north coast of Cumbava. Lat. 8. 5. S. long. 117. 34. E.

SELONGEY, a small town in the interior of France, department of the Cote d'Or, on the river Venelle. Population 1600; 18 miles north-west of Gray.

SELORICO. See CELORICO.

SELRAIN, a large straggling village of Austria, in Tyrol; 7 miles west-south-west of Innspruck.

SELSEA, or SELSEY, a village and parish of England, situated on a peninsula formed by an inlet of the sea called Selsea harbour. It was formerly a considerable town, with a bishop's see; but the town was swallowed up by the encroachment of the sea, and the bishopric was removed to Chichester, in 1075. Population 648; 7 miles south of Chichester.

SELSER TOWN, or ELLICOTSVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Adam's county Mississippi; about 15 miles north-east of Natchez.

SELSIDE, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 4 miles north-north-east of Kendal.

SELSTEIN, a very lofty mountain of the Rhætian Alps, in Tyrol, 9550 feet in height.

SELSTON, a parish of England, county of Nottingham; 9 miles south-west of Mansfield. Population 1102.

SELTERS, or LOWER SELTERS, a village in the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau; 24 miles north of Mentz, and 26 east of Coblenz. In the neighbourhood is one of the most celebrated mineral springs in Europe, commonly known by the name of Seltzer. The water is ex-

ported in stone bottles, each containing about three English pints, and may be conveyed to any distance, without any diminution of its medicinal qualities, some of the Dutch inhabitants of Batavia, in the East Indies, having used it as their ordinary beverage. The ingredients are magnesia, soda, and lime, with a large proportion of common salt; and the water is prescribed in complaints of the stomach, and bowels. See SELTZER-WATER.

SELTZ, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Lower Rhine, situated at the influx of the Seltzbach into the Rhine. Population 1500. It was the scene of diplomatic conferences between the French and allies, in 1798; 27 miles north of Strasburg.

SELTZER. See SELTERS.

SELTZER-WATER, the name of a mineral water of Germany, which arises near Neider Seltzer, or Lower Seltzer, about ten miles from Francfort-on-the-Mayne, and which is imported into England and many other countries.

This water issues forth at the spring with great rapidity, is remarkably clear and bright, and on pouring it from one bottle into another, discharges abundance of air-bubbles. That which is imported at London is brought over in stone-bottles, closely corked and cemented, containing about three English pints each, by which means this water, as long as the common air is excluded, will retain many of its excellent qualities for several months; but this caution is so necessary, that if too large an empty space is left even in the neck of a bottle, it soon loses in a great degree the brisk, smart, pungent taste, which principally characterizes its excellence, and is more liable to be injured by keeping than any other mineral water.

The Seltzer mineral water contains, besides the mere elementary water, a very small quantity of calcareous earth, and a much greater portion of a native mineral alkali, together with some acid retained a while within the water, but which either evaporates into the open air, or else is soon combined with the mineral alkali: the active virtues of this water depend more on this elastic matter, or fixed air, which it contains in such uncommon abundance beyond other mineral waters, than in any combination of its saline and earthy contents, which are found in such small quantities, as to be incapable of any material service.

SELVA, SAN FRANCISCO DE LA, a town of Chili, capital of the Province of Copiapo. It is an ancient town; and in 1742 it was greatly improved, and was regularly built in strait lines. Lat. 27. 19. 30. S.

SELVA BAXA, a small town of Spain, in Catalonia, near the borders of France, on a bay of the same name, with a small harbour, and 3600 inhabitants. On a height in the neighbourhood stands the small town of Selva Alta. Vines are cultivated in the environs; 31 miles north-east of Gerona, and 43 north-east of Rossa. Lat. 42. 20. N. long. 3. 2. E.

SELVA-PLANA, a village of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, in the Upper Engadine. It stands on a projecting point of land, which divides into two the lake of Selva-plana. At a little distance is another lake called St. Moritz. The banks of these lakes, the scenery of the valley, and the enormous glaciers on the mountains, all concur to render this a most romantic spot; 26 miles south-south-east of Coire.

SELVAGE, or SELVEDGE, [formerly written *selvidge*: *salvus*, Lat. *safe*.] The edge of cloth where it is closed by complicating the threads.—Meditation is like the *selvedge*, which keeps the cloth from ravelling. *Echard*.

SELVAGE, in Sea Language, a sort of hank or skein of rope-yarn tied together at several distances. It is used to fasten round any rope, as a shroud or stay, so that a tackle may be hooked in it, to extend the said shroud or stay, which is called *setting it up*.

SELVEDGED, *adj.* Hemmed; bordered; welted.

SELVES. The plural of *self*.—Consciousness being interrupted, and we losing sight of our past *selves*, doubts are raised whether we are the same. *Locke*.

SELWOOD,

SELWOOD, a track in the east part of the county of Somerset, in England, about 15 miles long by 6 broad. It was formerly a forest. The neighbouring country was called Selwoodshire; and the chief town still bears the name of Frome-Selwood.

SELWORTHY, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 2½ miles west of Minehead. Population 458.

SEMANA. See **SAMANA**.

SEMAO, an island in the Eastern seas, about 24 miles long from north to south, and from 6 to 10 broad; separated from the south-west end of the island of Timor, by a narrow channel, called the strait of Sema. It is of considerable extent, and moderately elevated. The channel, which is navigable with deep water, affords secure shelter to ships during the strength of the westerly monsoons. Lat 10. 15. S. long. 123. 45. E.

SEMATAI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Pechelee; 55 miles north-east of Pekin.

SEMAU, an island in the Eastern seas; 9 miles south from the island of Timor.

SEMAVAT. See **SAMAVAT**.

SEMAYLA, a rich gold mine of Bambouk, in Central Africa. It is situated in a hillock about 200 feet high, but 5000 in circumference. The gold is contained in a kind of reddish sandstone, extremely hard, which is mixed with a species of calculous emery, and very hard red marble. These substances cannot be subjected to ablation, the only African process for the extrication of the gold, without being first pounded, and reduced completely to powder. This constitutes a very tedious and laborious process, especially as the instruments employed are merely a pestle and mortar of hard wood, which are soon worn by the superior hardness of the pounded substances. At the depth of about 30 feet, the miners find a solid stratum of red marble, richly impregnated with gold, upon which their skill does not enable them to make any impression. These difficulties in working cause the mine of Semayla, though the richest in Bambouk to be considered only of secondary value.

SEMBELLA, among the Romans, a small silver coin, equal in value and weight to half the libella.

SEMBIANI, or **SEMBIANS**, a sect of ancient heretics, denominated from their leader, Sembius, or Sembianus, who condemned all use of wine, as evil of itself; persuaded his followers, that the wine was a production of Satan and the earth, denied the resurrection of the dead, and rejected most of the books of the Old Testament.

SE'MBLABLE, *adj.* [*semblable*, Fr.] Like; resembling.

Then be abhorr'd

All feasts, societies, and throngs of men!
His *semblable*, yea himself, Timon disdains. *Shakespeare*.

With *semblable* reason we might expect a regularity in the winds. *Bacon*.

SE'MBLABLY, *adv.* With resemblance.

A gallant knight he was, his name was Blunt;
Se'mblably furnish'd like the king himself. *Shakespeare*.

SE'MBLANCE, *s.* [*semblance*, Fr.] Likeness; resemblance; similitude; representation.

She's but the sign and *semblance* of her honour;
Behold how like a maid she blushes here!
O, what authority and shew of truth
Can cunning sin cover itself withal! *Shakespeare*.

He with high words, that bore
Se'mblance of worth, not substance, gently rais'd
Their fainting courage, and dispell'd their fears. *Milton*.

Appearance; show; figure.

Be you the soldier; for you likest are,
For manly *semblance* and for skill in war. *Spenser*.

Their *semblance* kind, and mild their gestures were,
Peace in their hands, and friendship in their face. *Fairfax*.

SE'MBLANT, *adj.* [*semblant*, Fr.] Like; resembling; having the appearance of any thing. *Little used*.

Thy picture, like thy fame;
Entire may last; that as their eyes survey
The *semblant* shade, men yet unborn may say,
Thus great, thus gracious look'd Britannia's queen;
Her brow thus smooth, her look was thus serene. *Prior*.

SE'MBLANT, *s.* Show; figure; resemblance; representation. *Not in use*.

Her purpose was not such as she did feign,
Ne yet her person such as it was seen;

But under simple shew, and *semblant* plain,
Lurks false Duessa, secretly unseen. *Spenser*.

SE'MBLATIVE, *adj.* Suitable; accommodate; fit; resembling.

Diana's lip

Is not more smooth and ruby; thy small pipe
Is as the maiden's organ; shrill and sound;
And all is *semblative* a woman's part. *Shakespeare*.

To **SE'MBLE**, *v. n.* [*sembler*, Fr.] To represent; to make a likeness. *Little used*.

Let Europe, sav'd, the column high erect,
Than Trajan's higher, or than Antonine's,
Where *sembling* art may carve the fair effect,
And full achievement of thy great designs. *Prior*.

SEMBRADOR, an engine, invented by Don Jos. de Lucatello, for the evenly sowing of seeds, described in the Philosophical Transactions under the title of the *Spanish Sembrador*.

SEMD, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, near Umstadt. Population 1000.

SEMECARPUS [from *σημα*, a mark, or *σημειωσις*, to mark, and *καρπος*, a fruit], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia.—Generic Character. Hermaphrodite.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, bell-shaped, inferior, half-five-cleft; segments cordate, acute. Corolla: petals five, lanceolate, margined, obtuse, larger than the calyx. Stamina: filaments five-awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers oblong, small. Pistil: germ superior, globular-depressed. Styles three, recurved, incumbent on the germ, and shorter than it. Stigmas club-shaped, retuse. Pericarp none: receptacle erect, fleshy, pear-shaped (or globular-depressed), smooth. Seed a single nut, resting upon the receptacle, heart-shaped, flattened on both sides, smooth and shining. Male flowers on a separate tree, smaller than the hermaphrodites. Calyx and corolla as in the hermaphrodites. Stamina: filaments five, length of the petals; anthers much larger. Pistil none; but in its place a semiglobular, hairy glandulous body. In the younger Linnæus's supplement, the fruit is considered as a drupe.—*Essential Character*. Calyx inferior, five-cleft; corolla five-petalled; nut kidney-form, inserted into a large fleshy flattened receptacle.

Semecarpus anacardium, or marking-nut tree.—This is a large tree, straight, lofty trunk, covered with gray scabrous bark; the bark of the younger parts is smooth, and of a light ash-colour; its inner substance contains in crevices a quantity of a white, soft, almost insipid gum. Branches numerous, spreading. Leaves about the extremities of the branchlets, alternate, petioled, wedge-form, above pretty smooth, below whitish and scabrous, from nine to eighteen inches long, and from four to eight broad. Petiole an inch and half or two inches long, half-round. Panicle terminating, very large; composed of many simple spikes; that of the male tree much more slender, but as large or larger. Bractes many, small, falling. Flowers numerous, small, of a dirty-greenish yellow colour.—It is a native of all the mountainous parts of India: flowering in July and August. The seed is ripe in January and February.

The wood of this tree is reckoned of no use; not only on account of its softness, but also because it contains much acrid juice, which renders it dangerous to cut down and work upon. The fleshy receptacles on which the seed rests are roasted in the ashes, and eaten by the natives: the taste

is exceedingly like that of roasted apples: unroasted they taste astringent and acrid, leaving a painful sensation on the tongue for some time.

It is in general use for marking cotton cloths; the colour is improved and prevented from running, by a little mixture of quick-lime and water. This juice is not soluble in water, and only diffusible in spirits of wine, for it soon falls to the bottom, unless the menstruum be previously alkalinized. The solution is then pretty complete, and of a deep black colour. It sinks in expressed oils, but soon unites perfectly with them; alkaline lixivium acts upon it with no better success than plain water.

SEMEGONDA, a city described by the Arabian geographers as situated in Wangara, in Central Africa, upon the shore of a great fresh water lake.

SEMIOTICA [*σημειωτική*, formed from *σημειον*, *sign*, or *symptom*], that part of medicine which considers the signs or symptoms of diseases.

SEMELA, a village of Tripoli, in Africa; 145 miles south of Mesurada.

SEMELE, in Mythology, the mother of Bacchus.

SEMEN, in Physiology, an animal fluid secreted by the male, the contact of which is necessary to render the germs formed by the female prolific.

SEMENCAN, a town of great Bukharia; 100 miles south-east of Balkh.

SEMENDERY, a town on the south coast of the island of Java. Lat. 7. 1. S. long. 106. 50. E.

SEMENDRIA, a town in the north-west of European Turkey, in Servia, situated on the south side of the Danube, and containing above 9000 inhabitants. It is defended by an old castle, and was, in a remote age, the residence of the kings of Servia. It has been repeatedly taken and retaken by the Turks and their Christian opponents, viz., in 1688, by the Hungarians; in 1690, by the Turks; and again by the Hungarians in 1718, after which it was ceded to the Turks; 20 miles south-east of Belgrade, and 50 south of Temesvar. Lat. 44. 52. N. long. 20. 41. E.

SEMENGE, an instrument used in Arabia by those wandering musicians who accompany the dancing women. It is a sort of bad violin, joined with a drum. The body is commonly a cocoa-nut shell, with a piece of skin extended upon it; three strings of catgut, and sometimes of horsehair, are fitted to it; and it is played with a bow, not less awkward in its form than the Greek lyre.

SEMENNUD, a considerable town of Lower Egypt, the site of which, however, is not marked by any ruins; 53 miles north of Cairo.

SEMENOV, a small town in the north of European Russia; 40 miles north of the town of Niznei-Novgorod. Population only 700.

SEMENTINÆ FERIÆ, feasts held annually among the Romans, to obtain of the gods a plentiful harvest.

SEMER, or SEAMER, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2 miles south-by-east of Bildeston.

SEMI, *s.* [Latin.] A word which, used in composition, signifies half; as *semicircle*, half a circle.

SEMIA'NNULAR, *adj.* Half round. Another boar tusk, somewhat slenderer, and of a *semiannular* figure. *Grey.*

SEMI-ARIANS, a branch of the ancient Arians, consisting, according to Epiphanius, of such as, in appearance, condemned the errors of that heresiarch, but yet acquiesced in some of his principles, only palliating and hiding them under softer and more moderate terms.

As the zeal of the Arians was chiefly levelled against the second person in the Trinity, that of the Semi-Arians was bent against the third; whence, as the former were sometimes called *Χριστομαχοι*, the latter were denominated *Πνευματομαχοι*.

SEMIBRIEF, or SEMIBREVE, *s.* [*semibreve*, French.] A *semibreve* is a note of half the quantity of a breve, containing two minims, four crotchets, &c. It is accounted one measure or time, or the integer in fractions and multiples,

whereby the time of the other notes is expressed. *Mus. Dict.*

SEMICIRCLE, *s.* [*semicirculus*, Lat.] A half round part of a circle divided by the diameter.

Black brows

Become some women best, so they be in a *semicircle*,
Or a half-moon, made with a pen. *Shakspeare.*

SEMIRCLED, or SEMIRCULAR, *adj.* Half round —The rainbow is caused by the rays of the sun falling upon a rorid and opposite cloud, whereof some reflected, others refracted, beget the *semicircular* variety we call the rainbow. *Brown.*

SEMIRCULAR CANALS, in Anatomy, three small membranous tubes, inclosed in excavations of the bone, and composing part of the labyrinth of the ear. See EAR.

SEMICO'OLON, *s.* [*semi* and *κωλον*.] Half a colon; a point made thus [;] to note a greater pause than that of a comma.

Dr. Ward, formerly professor at Gresham, says, that the semicolon is properly used to distinguish the conjunct members of sentences. Now by a conjunct member of a sentence, he means, such an one as contains at least two simple members.

Whenever, then, a sentence can be divided into several members of the same degree, which are again divisible into other simple members, the former are to be separated by a semicolon.

E. gr. "If Fortune bear a great sway over him, who has nicely stated and concerted every circumstance of an affair; we must not commit every thing, without reserve, to Fortune, lest she should have too great a hold of us."

According to Bishop Lowth, a member of a sentence, whether simple or compounded, that requires a greater pause than a comma, yet does not of itself make a complete sentence, but is followed by something closely depending on it, may be distinguished by a semicolon. E. gr. "But as this passion for admiration, when it works according to reason, improves the beautiful part of our species in every thing that is laudable; so nothing is more destructive to them, when it is governed by vanity and folly." Here the whole sentence is divided into two parts by the semicolon; each of which parts is a compounded member, divided into its simple members by the comma. It is obvious, however, that no rule can be laid down for the use of the semicolon; but its use is a matter partly of taste. The — generally supersedes the frequent use of the semicolon amongst fashionable writers, which is to be regretted, since the hyphen has a proper and peculiar use of its own.

SEMICON, a musical instrument among the Greeks, which had thirty-five strings.

SEMI-CUBICAL PARABOLA, a curve of the second order, in which the cubes of the ordinates are as the squares of the abscisses. Its equation is $x^2 = y$.

SEMICUPIUM, a half bath, in which the patient is only placed up to the waist.

SEMI-DIAMETER, *s.* Half the line which, drawn through the centre of a circle, divides it into two equal parts; a straight line drawn from the circumference to the centre of a circle.—Their difference is as little considerable as a *semi-diameter* of the earth in two measures of the highest heaven, the one taken from the surface of the earth, the other from its centre: the disproportion is just nothing. *More.*

SEMI-DIAPASON, a defective octave; or an octave diminished by a lesser semitone, or four commas.—SEMI-DIAPENTE, a defective fifth, called usually by the Italians *falsa quinta*, and by us a *false fifth*.—SEMI-DIATESSARON, a defective fourth, called, properly a *false fourth*.—SEMI-DITONUS, is used by some writers, as Salinas, for the third minor.

SEMIDIAPHANEITY, *s.* Half transparency; imperfect transparency.—The transparency or *semidiaphaneity* of the superficial corpuscles of bigger bodies may have an interest in the production of their colours. *Boyle.*

SEMIDIA'PHANOUS, *adj.* Half transparent; imperfectly transparent.—Another plate, finely variegated with a *semidiaphanous* grey or sky, yellow and brown. *Woodward.*

SEMIFLORET, *s.* Among florists, an half flourish, which is tubulous at the beginning like a floret, and afterwards expanded in the form of a tongue. *Bailey.*

SEMIFLOSCULOUS, a term used to express the flowers of a certain class of plants, of which the dandelion, hawkweed, and the like, are kinds.

SEMIFLUID, *adj.* Imperfectly fluid.

SEMIGALLIA, a duchy in the north-west of European Russia, forming the eastern part of Courland. Its length is about 110 miles, its breadth in general less than 20. It is separated by the Dwina from the part of Russia situated to the north; on the other sides it is bounded by Courland. Mittau is the capital. See **COURLAND**.

SEMI-JUDAIZERS, a sect of Socinians, consisting of the disciples and friends of Francis Davides, superintendent of the Socinian churches in Transylvania; who, in consequence of his adherence to the opinions he had adopted, was thrown into prison by Christopher Bathoni, prince of Transylvania, where he died, in the year 1579, in an advanced age.

SEMILE, or **SEMILOY**, a small town in the north of Bohemia, on the Iser; 56 miles north-east of Prague. Population 900.

SEMILUNAR, or **SEMILUNARY**, *adj.* [*semilunare*, Fr.] Resembling in form a half moon.—This bay is of a *semilunary* form. *Sir T. Herbert.*—The eyes are guarded with a *semilunar* ridge. *Grew.*

SEMILUNAR, or **SEMILUNARIS**, in Anatomy, an epithet applied, in consequence of their figure, to various parts of the body.

SEMIMEMBRANOSUS, a muscle of the thigh. See **ANATOMY**.

SEMI-METALS, a term formerly applied to those metals not possessing ductility or malleability. In a mechanical point of view, this is doubtless a distinction, but the chemical properties of this numerous class of bodies are so undefined, as to render it obsolete.

SEMINAL, *adj.* [*seminal*, French; *seminis*, Latin.] Belonging to seed; contained in the seed; radical.—Had our senses never presented us with those obvious *seminal* principles of apparent generations, we should never have suspected that a plant or animal would have proceeded from such unlikely materials. *Glanville.*

SEMINAL, *s.* Seminal state. *Not in use.*—The *seminals* of other iniquities. *Brown.*

SEMINALITY, *s.* The nature of seed.—The power of being produced.—In the seeds of wheat there lieth obscurely the *seminality* of darnel. *Brown.*

SEMINARA, a small town of Italy, in the south of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, with 1800 inhabitants. Here is an abbey belonging to the united Greek church. In 1783, the town suffered dreadfully from an earthquake; 12 miles south-south-west of Rossano, and 17 north-north-east of Reggio. Lat. 38. 26. N. long. 16. 18. E.

SEMINARIST, *s.* A Romish priest educated in a seminary. *Seminarists* now come from Rome to pervert souls. *Sheldon.*

To **SEMINARIZE**, *v. a.* To sow or plant. *Not in use.*

SEMINARY, *s.* [*seminaire*, Fr., *seminarium*, from *semino*, Lat.] The ground where any thing is sown to be afterwards transplanted; seed plot.—Some, at the first transplanting trees out of their *seminaries*, cut them off about an inch from the ground, and plant them like quickset. *Mortimer.*—The place or original stock whence any thing is brought.—This stratum is expanded, serving for a common integument, and being the *seminary* or promptuary that furnisheth forth matter for the formation and increment of animal and vegetable bodies. *Woodward.*—Seminal state.—The hand of God, who first created the earth, hath wisely contrived them in their proper *seminaries*, and where they best

maintain the intention of their species. *Brown.*—Principle; causality.—Nothing subministrates apter matter to be converted into pestilent *seminaries*, sooner than steams of nasty folks and beggars. *Harvey.*—Breeding-place; place of education, from whence scholars are transplanted into life.—It was the seat of the greatest monarchy, and the *seminary* of the greatest men of the world, whilst it was heathen. *Bacon.*—A Romish priest educated in a seminary; a seminarist.—O my conscience, a *seminary!* he kisses the stocks. *B. Jonson.*

SEMINARY, *adj.* [*seminaire*, Fr.] Seminal; belonging to seed.—*Seminary* vessels, both preparatory and ejaculatory. *Smith.*

SEMINATION, *s.* [from *semino*, Lat.] The act of sowing.

SEMINED, *adj.* [*semino*, Lat.] Thick-covered as with seeds.—Her garments blue, and *semined* with stars. *B. Jonson.*

SEMINIFICIAL, or **SEMINIFIC**, *adj.* [*semen* and *facio*, Lat.] Productive of seed.—We are made to believe, that in the fourteenth year males are *seminificial* and pubescent; but he that shall inquire into the generality, will rather adhere unto Aristotle. *Brown.*

SEMINIFICATION, *s.* *Seminification* is the propagation from the seed or seminal parts. *Hale.*

SEMINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Wiltshire; 3 miles north-east of Trowbridge.

SEMINOLES, a division of the Creek nation of Indians who inhabit the flat level country on the rivers Appalachi-cola and Flint.

SEMIOPACOUS, *adj.* [*semi* and *opacus*, Lat.] Half dark.—*Semiopacous* bodies are such as, looked upon in an ordinary light, and not held betwixt it and the eye, are not wont to be discriminated from the rest of opacous bodies. *Boyle.*

SEMIORDINATE, *s.* [In conic sections.] A line drawn at right angles to and bisected by the axis, and reaching from one side of the section to another; the half of which is properly the *semiordinate*, but is now called the ordinate. *Harris.*

SEMPALATNOI, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the southern part of the government of Tomsk, built with a view of protecting the trade there carried on with the Calmucs and Bucharians. It was built first in 1718; but as the current of the Irtysh, on whose banks it was situated, continually carried away the adjacent ground, it was successively removed to different spots, and is now in its fourth position; but the river is here so shallow, and so obstructed with islets, that it has been found impossible to make a passage to the fort. The rendezvous, therefore, made for the purpose of trade with the Kirghisian and Bucharian caravans, has been fixed about ten miles below, where a smaller fort has been erected for the purpose. The principal fortress forms a square, composed of wooden ramparts, and surrounded by a ditch. There are two villages, one above, and the other below, both palisaded like the fort, and containing about 200 houses. The most profitable trade carried on here, is with the Kirghises, who give their horses and cattle at a very cheap rate, for mere toys and trifles. It is also frequented by traders from Taschkent and Little Bucharia, who bring chiefly cotton goods of inferior quality. The name of Semipalatnoi, which signifies the Seven Palaces, is derived from some ruins situated in the neighbourhood, which are, however, unworthy of such an appellation, and evidently of Bucharian origin. Lat. 50. 29. 45. N. long. 80. 10. E.

SEMI-PARABOLA. See **CONIC SECTIONS**.

SEMIPE'DAL, *adj.* Containing half a foot.

SEMI-PELAGIANS, a name anciently given to such as retained some tincture of Pelagianism.

The leading principles of the Semi-pelagians were the five following. 1. That God did not dispense his grace to one more than another in consequence of predestination, i. e. an eternal and absolute decree, but was willing to save all men.

if they complied with the terms of his gospel. 2. That Christ died for all men. 3. That the grace purchased by Christ, and necessary to salvation, was offered to all men. 4. That man, before he received grace, was capable of faith and holy desires. 5. That man was born free, and was consequently capable of resisting the influences of grace, or of complying with its suggestion. The Semi-pelagians were very numerous; and the doctrine of Cassian, though variously explained, was received in the greatest part of the monastic schools in Gaul, from whence it spread itself far and wide through the European provinces. As to the Greeks, and other eastern Christians, they had embraced the Semi-pelagian doctrine before Cassian, and still adhere firmly to it. In the sixth century, the controversy between the Semi-pelagians and the disciples of Augustine, prevailed much, and continued to divide the Western churches. *Mosheim's Eccl. Hist.* vol. i.

SEMIPELLUCID, *adj.* [*semi* and *pellucidus*, Latin.] Half clear; imperfectly transparent.—A light grey *semipellucid* flint, of much the same complexion with the common Indian agat. *Woodward.*

SEMI-PERIOD, a mark of distinction recommended by Dr. Ward, but not admitted by other grammarians. It is greater than the colon, and supposed to answer the same purpose between the colon and period, as the semicolon does between the comma and colon.

SEMI-PERSPICUOUS, *adj.* [*semi* and *perspicuus*, Lat.] Half transparent; imperfectly clear.—A kind of amethystine flint, not composed of crystals or grains; but one entire massy stone, *semi-perspicuous*, and of a pale blue, almost of the colour of some cows' horns. *Grew.*

SEMI-PROOF, *s.* The proof of a single evidence. *Bailey.*

SEMIQUADRATE, or **SEMIQUARTILE**, *s.* [In astronomy.] An aspect of the planets when distant from each other forty-five degrees, or one sign and a half. *Bailey.*

SEMIQUAVER, *s.* [In music.] A note containing half the quantity of the quaver. *Bailey.*

SEMIQUINTILE, *s.* [In astronomy.] An aspect of the planets when at the distance of thirty-six degrees from one another. *Bailey.*

SEMI-RAMIS. See **ASSYRIA**.

SEMIREVERBERATORY *Fire*, in Chemistry, a term used to express such a reverberatory fire, in which the flame is only beaten back upon the bottom of the vessel.

SEMI-RHOMBUS, in *old* Surgery, a sort of bandage.

SEMISEXTILE, *s.* [In astronomy.] A semi-sixth; an aspect of the planets when they are distant from each other one-twelfth part of a circle, or thirty degrees. *Bailey.*

SEMISICILICUS, a word used by some pharmaceutical writers to express a drachm.

SEMISIDERATUS, an old word for a person struck with hemiplegia.

SEMISOSPIRO, a little pause, or the eighth part of a bar in common time.

SEMISPHERICAL, *adj.* Belonging to half a sphere. *Bailey.*

SEMISPHEROIDAL, *adj.* Formed like half a spheroid.

SEMISPINALIS DORSI, a muscle. See **ANATOMY**.

SEMITA LUMINOSA, a name given to a kind of lucid tract in the heavens, which a little before the vernal equinox, or after the autumnal, may be seen about six o'clock at night, extending from the western edge of the horizon, up towards the Pleiades.

SEMITENDINOSUS, a muscle. See **ANATOMY**.

SEMITERTIAN, *s.* An ague compounded of a tertian and a quotidian. *Bailey.*

SEMITONE, *s.* [*semiton*, French.] in Music, one of the degrees of concinnous intervals of concords. *Bailey.*

SEMITRANSEPT, *s.* The half of a transept.—There is a proportionable lateral projection, or southern *semitranssept*, before we enter the chancel. *Warton.*

SEMIVOWEL, *s.* A consonant which makes an imperfect sound, or does not demand a total occlusion of the mouth.—When Homer would represent any agreeable object,

he makes use of the smoothest vowels and most flowing *semivowels*. *Broome.*

SEMIVULPA, in Zoology, a name by which Gesner, and some others, have called the opossum.

SEMLEY, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Hindon. Population 546.

SEMLIN, a town of Sclavonia, in the military frontier district near the confluence of the Save and the Danube, and separated from Belgrade by the Save. It is the seat of an arch priest of the Greek church, and the residence of the Austrian commander of the frontier district. It has 8000 inhabitants, and is the principal place for carrying on the transit trade between Turkey and Sclavonia. From the frequent prevalence of the plague in Turkey and the neighbourhood of Belgrade, great precautions are necessary to prevent the introduction of infection: all persons coming from Belgrade must undergo a quarantine here. A market is held daily in a meadow between the two towns, where two rows of palisades separate the dealers; centinels are continually on the watch, to see that no hazardous communication takes place; and all the goods bought from the Turks, must be exposed to the air, and fumigated.

SEMOY, a small river in the south of the Netherlands, which rises near Arlon, in the duchy of Luxemburg, and flows into the Maese.

SEMPACH LAKE, a small lake in the north of Switzerland, canton of Lucerne; 6 miles long, and about 2 broad. It is about 1600 feet above the level of the sea, and its banks are highly beautiful.

SEMPACH, a small town in the interior of Switzerland, canton of Lucerne, situated on the east bank of the preceding lake. It is remarkable for the memorable battle gained by the Swiss over Leopold of Austria, in 1386. It was fought about two miles from the town, and a chapel was erected on the spot, where, on 9th July each year, its anniversary is still celebrated; 7 miles north-west of Lucerne, and 24 south-west of Zurich. Lat. 47. 1. N. long. 8. 6. E.

SEMPERVIVÆ, a natural order of plants, so termed from one of the principal genera; as also perhaps, more especially, in allusion to the tenaciousness of the living principle, common to the whole order; and to which the said genus owes its name.

This is the 83d of Jussieu's orders, the first of his 14th class.

The genera, are *Tillæ*, *Crassula*, *Cotyledon*, *Rhodiola*, *Sedum*, *Sempervivum*, and *Septas*.

SEMPERVIVÆ, *s.* A plant. See **SEMPERVIVUM**.

SEMPERVIVUM [of Pliny, or ever-living evergreen], in Botany; a genus of the class dodecandria, order polygyni, Sempervivum dodecagynia, natural order of succulentæ; *sempervivæ* (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx perianth six to twelve-parted, concave, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals six to twelve, oblong, lanceolate, acute, concave, a little bigger than the calyx. Stamina: filaments six to twelve (or more), subulate-slender; anthers roundish. Pistil: germs six to twelve, in a ring, erect; ending in as many spreading styles; stigmas acute. Pericarp: capsules six to twelve, oblong, compressed, short, in a ring, acuminate outwards, opening inwards. Seeds many, roundish, small. Being very frequently luxuriant, it becomes greater as to the number, especially as to the female parts of the flower. It is allied to *Sedum*, but differs in having more petals than five.—*Essential Character.* Calyx twelve-parted; petals twelve; capsules twelve, many-seeded.

1. *Sempervivum arboreum*, or tree houseleek.—Tree houseleek rises with a fleshy smooth stalk eight or ten feet high, dividing into many branches, which are terminated by round heads or clusters of leaves lying over each other like the petals of a double rose, succulent, of a bright green, and having very small indentures on their edges. The flower-stalks rise from the centre of these heads; and the numerous bright yellow flowers form a large pyramidal spike, or thyse.—Native of Portugal, the Levant, and Barbary near Algiers: the old walls about Lisbon are covered with it. There is a variety of this with variegated leaves.

2. *Sempervivum Canariense*, or Canary houseleek.—This seldom rises above a foot and half high. The stalk is thick and rugged, chiefly occasioned by the vestiges of decayed leaves. At the top is a very large crown of leaves, disposed circularly like a full blown rose. The flower-stalk comes out from the centre, and rises near two feet high, branching out from the bottom, so as to form a regular pyramid of flowers.—Native of the Canary Islands.

3. *Sempervivum glutinosum*, or clammy houseleek.—Leaves wedge-form, viscid, ciliate, cilia cartilaginous, pressed close. Petals yellow, eight or nine. Stamens sixteen or eighteen. Pistils eight or nine.—Native of Madeira.

4. *Sempervivum glandulosum*, or glandulous-leaved houseleek.—Stem frutescent; leaves orbicular-spatulate, glandular at the edge, glands globular, nectaries wedge-form truncate.—This is also a native of Madeira.

5. *Sempervivum tectorum*, or common houseleek.—Leaves ciliate, offsets spreading. It has a perennial fibrous root. Root-leaves in form of a full-bloom double rose. Flowering-stem upright, from nine inches to a foot in height, round, fleshy, pubescent, having alternate, lanceolate, thinner leaves on it, of a reddish colour, at top branched and forming a sort of corymb; the branches spreading and bending back. Flowers numerous, clustered, upright, pubescent, flesh-coloured, all growing one way.—Native of many parts of Europe on rocks, and on the roofs of buildings, but there not properly indigenous: it flowers in July.

6. *Sempervivum globiserum*, or globular houseleek.—Leaves ciliate, offsets globular. Leaves much narrower, and the heads furnished with a greater number of them than those of the preceding species.—Native of Russia, Austria, Germany and Switzerland.

7. *Sempervivum villosum*, or hairy houseleek.—Leaves spatulate-wedge-form obtuse, villose; nectaries palmate; segments subulate. It is an annual plant.—Native of Madeira.

8. *Sempervivum tortuosum*, or gouty houseleek.—Leaves obovate beneath, gibbous, villose; nectaries two-lobed. This is a shrubby plant of low growth, producing numerous fleshy leaves, growing thickly together.—Native of the Canary Islands.

9. *Sempervivum stellatum*, or starry houseleek.—Stem herbaceous, pubescent; leaves spatulate, scattered. If the synonym of Seguier be right, it is a native of Monte Baldo, where it was found on the rocks by Giovanni Battista Scarella.

10. *Sempervivum arachnoideum*, or cobweb houseleek.—Leaves interwoven with hairs; offsets globular. This has much shorter and narrower leaves than the common houseleek.—Native of the mountains of Switzerland, Dauphiné and Italy.

11. *Sempervivum hirtum*, or rough houseleek.—Stem leaves and ends of the petals rough haired. Root hard, round, perennial; from which there are many rose-like tufts of leaves, as in the next species.—Native of Germany, Silesia and Piedmont,

12. *Sempervivum montanum*, or mountain houseleek.—Leaves quite entire; offsets spreading. This greatly resembles the fifth or common houseleek.—Native of Germany, Silesia, Austria, Switzerland, the South of France and Italy.

13. *Sempervivum sediforme*, or stoncrop-leaved houseleek.—Leaves scattered, lower ones cylindrical, upper ones flattened. All the stems are perpetually and constantly very stiff and standing upright.—Native of the South of Europe.

14. *Sempervivum monanthos*, or clustered houseleek.—Leaves round-club-shaped clustered, peduncles naked, mostly one flowered, nectaries obcordate. The number of the parts of fructification varies from five to eight.—Native of the Canary Islands.

Propagation and Culture.—The first is easily propagated by cutting off the branches, which, when planted, soon put out roots; these should be laid in a dry place for a week before they are planted, that the bottom may be healed over, otherwise they are apt to rot, especially if they have much wet.

The second is propagated by seeds, which should be sown soon after it is ripe in pots filled with light sandy earth, covering them over very lightly with the same earth. These require shelter in winter, all the others, except No. 7, are increased by offsets.

The 3, 4, 7, 8, 14 sorts require the protection of a greenhouse.

SEMPITE'RNAL, *adj.* [*sempiternus*, Lat.] Eternal in futurity; having beginning, but no end.—I hose, though they suppose the world not to be eternal, *à parte ante*, are not contented to suppose it to be *sempiternal*, or eternal, *à parte post*; but will carry up the creation of the world to an immense antiquity. *Hale.*

SEMPITE'RNITY, *s.* [*sempiternitas*, Lat.] Future duration without end.

This silent night, when all things lie in lap of sweet repose, Ye only wake; the powres of sleepe your eyes do never close; To shew the *sempiternitie*, to which their names ye raise, On wings of your immortal verse, that truly merit praise.

Mir. Mag.

SEMPRINGHAM, a decayed parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles east-south-east of Folkingham.

SEMPRONIUS, a post township of the United States, in Cayuga county, New York; 160 miles west of Albany. Population 3137.

SEMPSTRESS, *s.* [*semstresse*, Sax.] (The word is also often written *sempstress*.) A woman whose business is to sew; a woman who lives by her needle.—Two hundred *sempstresses* were employed to make me shirts, and linen for bed and table, which they were forced to quilt together in several folds. *Swift.*

SEMUR, a small town in the east of France, formerly the place of meeting of the states or parliament of Burgundy. It stands in a picturesque situation among rugged rocks, and is surrounded on three sides by the river Armancon. Its population, including the suburbs, is 4300. Here is a small public library. Semur has considerable manufactures of woollen stuffs, linen and leather, and some trade in corn, wine and cattle; 42 miles north of Autun, and 34 north-west of Dijon. Lat. 47. 32. N. long. 4. 20. E.

SEMYDA, the name of a tree, mentioned by Theophrastus, and by some supposed to be the same with the *betula*, or birch-tree, but very erroneously.

SEMYLE, a fortress of Hindostan, province of Assam. It is situated on the bank of the Brahmapootra river, which it commands. It was taken by the Mahometans in 1662; but in consequence of an epidemical disease, they were compelled to abandon it, and all the other parts of Assam. Lat. not ascertained.

SEN, or **SENS**, *adv.* Since; *Sen* or *sin* is still our northern word; *sens* is Spenser's accommodation to his rhyme.

With boastfull vain pretence
Stept Braggadochio forth, and as his thrall
Her claim'd, by him in battell wonne long *sens*. *Spenser.*

SENA, **SENN**, or **EGYPTIAN CASSIA**, in the *Materia Medica*, a leaf much used in purgative draughts and compositions.

The shrub which bears it is a species of **CASSIA**; which see.

SENA, **Bastard**, in Botany: See **CASSIA**.—**SENA**, **Bladder**: see **COLUTEA**.—**SENA**, **Podded**: see **CORONILLA**.—**SENA**, **Scorpion**, a species of **CORONILLA**; which see.

SENA, a Portuguese settlement in Eastern Africa, about 247 miles up the great river Zambeze. It contains about 2000 inhabitants, is protected by a strong fort, and commands all the settlements on the river. It forms also the centre of the trade carried on there, which consists chiefly in bringing down ivory and gold dust collected in the interior.

SENABA, a village of Lower Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 13 miles south of Melani.

SENAC,

SENAC (John), a distinguished French physician, was born in Gascony, about the close of the 17th century. Little is recorded respecting the progress of his education and life; but he is stated to have been a doctor of the faculty of physic of Rheims, and a bachelor of that of Paris; which last degree he obtained in the year 1724 or 1725. He was a man of profound erudition, united with great modesty, and became possessed, by his industry in the practice of his profession, of much sound medical knowledge. His merits obtained for him the favour of the court, and he was appointed consulting physician to Louis XV., and subsequently succeeded Checoyneau in the office of first physician to that monarch. He was also a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, and of the Royal Society of Nancy. He died in December, 1770, at the age of about 77 years. This able physician left these works: "Traité de la Structure du Cœur, de son Action, et de ses Maladies," Paris, 1749, in two volumes, 4to., which is still a standard work upon this interesting subject. An essay "De reconditâ februm intermittentium et remittentium natura," Amst. 1759, "Anatomie d'Heister, avec des Essais de Physique sur l'Usage des Parties du Corps Humain," Paris 1724; and afterwards "Discours sur la Méthode de Franco, et sus celle de M. Rau touchant l'Operation de la Taille," 1727. "Traité des Causes, des Accidens, et de la Cure de la Peste," 1744. A work under the assumed name of Julien Morison, entitled "Lettres sur la Choix des Saignées," 1730. A paper in the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences for 1725, under the title of "Reflexions sur les Noyes," in which he combated some erroneous opinions respecting the cause of death by drowning, and the treatment founded upon them.

SENACIA, so named by him in honour of *Senae*, in Botany, a genus of Commerson's, not however established. It differs from *Celastrus* only in having a longer style and oblong stamens.

SENAMARIBO, a river of Guiana, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 5. 30. N. long. 54. 6. W.

SENAN, a township of England, in the county of Cornwall, the most westerly of the kingdom; 5 miles from St. Barien, and $9\frac{1}{2}$ west-south-west of Penzance. Population 495.

SENAN, a village of Algiers; 20 miles south of Oran.

SENAN-FOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Koitchoo. It is situated on a fine river, in an extensive plain, surrounded on all sides by mountains, to which the inhabitants sometimes betake themselves in times of danger. These mountains are occupied by a barbarous race, who hold little communication with the Chinese. Lat. 27. 56. N. long. 107. E.

SENANLU, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 30 miles north-west of Sefekkeh.

SENAPSE, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 17 miles west of Dendera.

SENAQUIA, a river of the province of Darien, which enters the sea, opposite the Mulatto isles.

SENARICA, a village in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in Abruzzo Ultra, situated in a rugged valley of the Appennines. It has the title of a republic, and chooses its own magistrates; 10 miles south-west of Teramo.

SENARIO, MONTE, a mountain of Italy, about 6 miles from Florence, on the side of which is situated the celebrated palace of the Medicis family, called Pratolino.

SENARY, *adj.* [*senarius*, Lat.] Belonging to the number six; containing six.

SENAS, a village in the south-east of France, department of the Mouths of the Rhone, with 1200 inhabitants; 21 miles south-by-east of Tarascon.

SENATE, *s.* [*senatus*, Latin; *senat*, French; *senat*, Saxon.] An assembly of legislators.

We debate

The nature of our seats, which will in time break ope
The locks o' th' *senate*, and bring in the crows

To peck the eagles.

Shakspeare.

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The senate of ancient Rome was, of all senates, the most celebrated, during the splendour of the republic. Cicero in his oration for Milo, defines it, *templum sanctitatis, amplitudinis, mentis, consiliique publici Romani, caput orbis, ara sociorum, portusque omnium gentium*. The Roman senate exercised no contentious jurisdiction: it appointed judges either out of the senate, or among the knights; but it never stooped to judge any processes in a body. The senate concerted matters of war, appointed who should command the armies, sent governors into the provinces, took order, and disposed of the revenues of the commonwealth. Yet did not the whole sovereign power reside in the senate; it could not alone elect magistrates, make laws, nor decide of war and peace: but in all these cases, the senators were to consult the people. Under the emperors, when the senate became despoiled of most of its other offices, they began to hear causes. For those of less consequence they appointed particular judges; the rest, principally criminal causes, they reserved for their own cognizance, to be judged by them in a body, and that frequently in the emperor's presence. Nero farther committed to the senate the judgment of all appeals; but this did not hold long.

It has been the opinion of some, that under the kings of Rome the choice and nomination of all the senators depended wholly on the will of the prince, without any right in the people, either direct or indirect; and that the consuls, who succeeded to the kingly power, enjoyed the same prerogative, till the creation of the censors, who ever after possessed the sole and absolute right of making and unmaking senators. But Dr. Middleton is of opinion, that the kings, the consuls, and the censors, acted in this affair but ministerially and subordinately to the supreme will of the people, in whom the proper and absolute power of creating senators always resided. And the doctor assures us, upon the strictest search into the state of the present question, as it stood under the kingly government, he cannot but conclude, from the express testimony of the best historians, the concurrence of similar facts, and the probability of the thing itself, that the right of choosing senators was originally and constitutionally vested in the people. Middleton of Rom. Sen. p. 36.

But lord Hervey, who studied the Roman history with care and attention, is of a different opinion. The senate, at its first establishment being, in his opinion, nothing more than the king's council. In this light not only Festus, Eutropius and Livy, represent the senate, but even Dionysius himself. It is therefore highly probable, his lordship says, that each member of this council was merely, as Livy and Plutarch relate, the choice of the king, and not, as Dionysius reports, elected by the people.

On two special occasions the senate was always held without the gates of Rome, either in the temple of Bellona, or of Apollo. 1st. For the reception of foreign ambassadors, and especially of those who came from enemies, who were not permitted to enter the city. 2dly. To give audience, and transact business with their own generals, who were never allowed to come within the walls as long as their commission subsisted, and they had the actual command of an army.

SENATE of four hundred, an ancient senate of Athens, when the city was divided into four tribes, each of which chose a hundred men. This lasted till the time of Solon.

SENATE-HOUSE, *s.* Place of public council.

The nobles in great earnestness are going

All to the *senate-house*; some news is come. *Shakspeare.*

SENATOR, *s.* [*senator*, Lat., *senateur*, Fr.] A public legislator.

As if to ev'ry fop it might belong,

Like *senators*, to censure, right or wrong.

Granville.

There were two orders, or degrees, among the Roman nobility; that of the *senators*, and that of the *knights*; after these two, came the people. The first hundred senators were appointed by Romulus, and called *patres, fathers*. Upon the union with the Sabines, Romulus, or as others say, Tullus, added a second hundred, called *patres majorum gentium*:

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gentium: this distinguished them from a third hundred added by the elder Tarquin, and called *patres minorum gentium*, fathers of the lower rank.

In ancient Rome, the number of senators is commonly supposed to have been limited to three hundred, from the time of the kings to that of the Gracchi. But this must not be taken too strictly. The senate generally had that number, or thereabout, and upon any remarkable deficiency, was filled up again to that complement by an extraordinary creation. But as the number of the public magistrates increased with the increase of their conquests and dominions, so the number of the senate, which was supplied of course by those magistrates, must have been liable also to some variation. To what number Sylla increased them is not absolutely certain; but in Cicero's time they were not less than four hundred and fifteen, as appears by his letter to Atticus, lib. i. ep. 14.

In the time of Gracchus they were six hundred; during the civil wars they were reduced to three hundred. Julius Caesar augmented that number to nine hundred; the triumvirs to above a thousand: and Augustus reduced them to six hundred, according to Dion Cassius; and to three hundred, according to Suetonius.

To hold the senatorial dignity, a *yearly* revenue of eight hundred thousand sesterces was required, which amounts to between six and seven thousand pounds of our money. Half as much was required for the qualification of the knights. The senators who sunk below this revenue, were discarded, and expunged out of the list by the censor. This qualification was increased by Augustus to twelve hundred thousand, or 10,000*l.* sterling; but this is not taken, by some, for an annual income, but the whole estate of a senator, real and personal, as estimated by the survey and valuation of the censors.

SENATORIAL, or SENATORIAN, *adj.* [*senatorius*, Lat.] Belonging to senators; befitting senators.

Go on, brave youths, till, in some future age,
Whips shall become the senatorial badge. *Warton.*

SENATORIALLY, *adv.* In a solemn manner; in a way becoming a senator.—The mother was cheerful; the father *senatorially* grave. *Drummond.*

SENATORSHIP, *s.* The office or dignity of a senator.—From which step his courage and wisdom raised him by degrees to the sovereignty of Lucca, the *senatorship* of Rome, the special favour of the emperor, and a near hope, only by death prevented, of subduing Florence. *Carew.*

SENATUS-CONSULTUM, a vote, or resolution, of the Roman senate, pronounced on some question, or point of law, proposed to it.

SENCE, a river of England, which rises in Leicestershire, and passing through Warwickshire, falls into the Anker, opposite Atherstone.

SENCE, a small river of the island of Guadaloupe.

To SEND, *v. a.* pret. and part. pass. *sent.* [*senban*, Sax. *senden*, Dutch.] To dispatch from one place to another: used both of persons and things.—He *sent* letters by posts on horseback. *Esther.*

My overshadowing spirit and might with thee
I *send* along. *Milton.*

To transmit by another; not to bring.—They *sent* it to the elders by the hands of Barnabas. *Acts.*—To grant as from a distant place: as, if God *send* life.—I pray thee *send* me good speed this day, and shew kindness unto my master. *Gen.*—To inflict; as from a distance.—The Lord shall *send* upon thee cursing, vexation, and rebuke, in all that thou settest thine hand unto. *Deut.*—To emit; to immit; to produce.—The water *sends* forth plants that have no roots fixed in the bottom, being almost but leaves. *Bacon.*—The senses *send* in only the influxes of material things, and the imagination and memory present only their pictures or images, when the objects themselves are absent. *Cheyne.*—To diffuse; to propagate.

Cherubick songs by night from neighbouring hills
Aereal music *send.*

Milton.

When the fury took her staid on high,
A hiss from all the snaky tire went round:
The dreadful signal all the rocks rebound,
And through the Achaian cities *send* the sound.

Pope.

To let fly; to cast or shoot.

To SEND, *v. n.* To dispatch a message.

I have made bold to *send* into your wife:

My suit is that she will to Desdemona

Procure me some access.

Shakspeare.

To SEND *for.* To require by message to come, or cause to be brought.

He *sent for* me: and, while I rais'd his head,

He threw his aged arms about my neck,

And, seeing that I wept, he press'd me close.

Dryden.

SEND, is used by seamen, when a ship, either at an anchor, or under sail, falls with her head, or stern, deep into the trough of the sea, i. e. into a hollow made between two waves, or billows. They say she *sends* much that way, whether it be a-head or a-stern.

SEND, a parish of England, in Surrey; 3 miles south-west of Ripley. Population 392.

SENDAL, *s.* [*sendalum*, low Lat., *sendal*, Fr. and Span.] A sort of thin silk: a word formerly much in use.—Lined with taffata and with *sendalle*. *Chaucer.*—*Sendale*—was a thinnest stuffe like sarcenet, and of a rawe kynde of sylk or sarcenett. *Thynne's Animadv.* *Chaucer.*

SENDEBAS, a village of Lower Egypt, on the eastern branch of the Nile; 13 miles south of Semennud.

SENDEN AND SENDENHORST, two small towns of Prussian Westphalia, in the government of Munster. The first, 7 miles south-south-west of Munster, has 2000 inhabitants; the second, 11 miles south-south-east of Paderborn, has 1300.

SENDER, *s.* He that sends.

This was a merry message.

—We hope to make the *sender* blush at it.

Shakspeare.

Love that comes too late,

Like a remorseful pardon slowly carried,

To the great *sender* turns a sour offence.

Shakspeare.

Best with the best, the *sender*, not the sent. *Milton.*

SENDESE, a village of Lower Egypt, on the Kalitz il Menhi; 3 miles north of Behnese.

SENDLING, a large village of Germany, in Bavaria, near Munich. In 1705, an armed assemblage of peasants, about 4000 in number, were cut in pieces here by the Austrians.

SENDOMIR. See SANDOMIR.

SENEBIERA, in Botany, a genus of Decandolle's, dedicated to Mr. John Senebier, a Genevan naturalist, who published a work upon Vegetable Physiology, in 1791. Decand. Mem. de la Soc. d'Histoire Naturelle, 142. De Theis, 427.

SENECA (Lucius Annæus), a celebrated philosopher, was born at Corduba, near the commencement of the Christian era. His father was a man of equestrian rank, and an eminent orator, of whom some declamations and controversies are extant. His mother was Helvia, a Spanish lady of distinction. Being educated at Rome, he was early initiated in the study of eloquence by his father, and other masters; but his own propensity led him to devote his talents to the study of philosophy. He first joined the Pythagoreans, whom he soon left for the Stoics: he, however, confined himself to no sect, but extended his inquiries to all the systems of Grecian philosophy. In conformity to the wishes of his father, he pleaded some time in the courts of justice, and acquired by the practice a considerable reputation; but it is thought that he relinquished the bar, through fear of the jealousy of Caligula, who was ambitious of oratorical fame. Entering into public life, he obtained the office of questor, and had risen to some consequence in the

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the court of Claudius, when, at the instigation of Messalina, he was accused of an adulterous commerce with Julia, the daughter of Germanicus, and was banished to the island of Corsica. In that island he remained in exile eight years, consoling himself with the maxims of philosophy, though never resigned to the severity of his lot, as may be inferred from his complaints, and his abject application to the emperor for pardon.

Upon the marriage of Claudius to his second wife Agrippina, Seneca was, through her influence, recalled, and, after being raised to the prætorship, was appointed preceptor to her son, the afterwards most infamous Nero; while Burrhus was made his governor and military instructor. They are said to have acted with the most perfect unanimity in restraining him from those vices, to which his situation and inclination prompted him; and obtained an ascendancy over him, to which is attributed the flattering promise of the first years of his reign.

When Nero began to display his real character, his quarrels with his mother, who was as violent and wicked as her son, laid his governors under great difficulties. See **ROME**.

At length under the pretence of Seneca's connection with a conspiracy, a military tribune was sent with a band of soldiers to Seneca's house, where he was at supper with his wife Paulina, and two friends. He was, without much ceremony, commanded to put an end to himself. The philosopher heard the sentence with equanimity, and only asked for time sufficient to make his will. This was refused, and turning to his friends, he said, that since he was not allowed to shew his gratitude to them in any other way, he would leave them the image of his life, as the best memorial of their friendship. He then exhorted them to moderate their grief. He embraced Paulina, and endeavoured to comfort her; but she refused any other consolation than that of dying with him. The death which he chose was that by opening his veins, and he expired in the year 65, and in the 12th year of Nero's reign. The emperor would not suffer Paulina to die with her husband; but she never recovered the loss of blood which she had experienced, before the imperial decree arrived.

"If," says one of the philosopher's biographers, "a writer could be estimated by his works, a purer moralist could not easily be found; for their constant tenor is that of solid virtue, tempered with humanity, and exalted by the noblest principles of theism. They are indeed marked with the tumid pride inculcated by the Stoical sect, to which he chiefly adhered, though he freely adopted what he found good in others." Of his writings which have come down to us, the greater part are moral, consisting of epistles, 124 in number, and of distinct treatises on Anger, Consolation, Providence, &c. There are, moreover, seven books on physical topics, entitled "Natural Questions," in which are to be found the rudiments of some notions regarded as fundamental in modern physics.

A number of tragedies are extant, under the name of Seneca, but they are probably not his; nor is it at all known to whom they ought to be ascribed. The editions of Seneca's works are very numerous. Of the works, not including the tragedies, the most esteemed are those of Lipsius; the *Variorum*, 3 vols. 8vo.; the *Leipsic*, 2 vols. 8vo.; and the *Bipontine*. Of the tragedies, are the *Variorum*; that by Heinsius, with notes by Scaliger; and the *quarto Delphin*.

SENECA, a county of the United States, separated from Cayuga county, in 1804. It is bounded north by Cayuga county, east by Cayuga county and lake, south by Tompkins county, and west by Seneca lake and county. It is situated about 186 miles westward of Albany, on the great avenue to the western counties. The surface of this county is either quite level, or but gently undulated with hill and dale: though Hector and Ulysses, the two southern towns, are considerably hilly. The soil is principally a calcareous loam, or a well mixed vegetable mould; and may be called

a good medium, in general, for grain or grass. Population 16,609. Chief towns Waterloo and Ovid.

SENECA, a village of the United States, in Junius county, New York.

SENECA, a township of the United States, in Guernsey county, Ohio. Population 300.

SENECA, a post township of the United States, in Ontario county, New York, on the west side of Seneca lake, 192 miles west of Albany. It contains a glass manufactory. Population 3431.

SENECA CREEK, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into the Potomac; 21 miles west of Washington.

SENECA INDIANS, one of the Six Nations, in the United States. Number 1780. They inhabit on Buffalo creek in the township of Buffalo, on the Genesee and the Allegany in New York, and on French Creek in Pennsylvania.

SENECA LAKE, a lake of the United States, in New York, from 6 to 15 miles west of Cayuga lake. It is 35 miles long, and from 2 to 4 broad. A quarry of excellent marble, beautifully variegated, of an excellent quality, and proof against fire, has lately been discovered on the bank of this lake.

SENECA RIVER, a river of the United States, in New York, which flows from Seneca lake, north-east into the Oswego, in Cicero. Its whole course is about 60 miles, in which it receives the streams which flow from Cayuga, Canandaigua, Owasco, Skeneatiles, and Onondaga lakes. It affords considerable facilities for boat navigation, and furnishes some valuable mill seats.

SENECAL, or **SENECE** (Antoine Bauderon de), a French poet, was born at Maçon in 1643. Voltaire denominated him "a poet of a singular imagination," and says, that his tale of "Kaimac" is a distinguished performance. He also speaks in praise of his *Travaux d'Appollon*." His tale, entitled "La Manière de Filer le parfait Amour," is much esteemed. He was also the author of "Remarques Historiques," with observations on the *Memoirs of Cardinal de Retz*.

SENECIO [of Pliny. From *Senex*, an old man; or *senescere*, to grow old; the flowers going off early, and producing their seeds crowned with a down, like gray hairs], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia superflua, natural order of compositæ discoideæ corymbifere (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common calyced, conical, truncate: scales awl-shaped, very many, parallel in a cylinder contracted above, contiguous, equal, fewer covering the base imbricatewise, the tops mortified. Corolla compound, higher than the calyx. Corollets hermaphrodite, tubular, numerous in the disk. Females ligulate in the ray, if any present. Proper in the hermaphrodites funnel-form: border reflex, five-cleft. In the females, if any, oblong, obscurely three-toothed. Stamina in the hermaphrodites, filaments five, capillary, very small. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil in both. Germ ovate. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, oblong, revolute. Pericarp none. Calyx conical-converging. Seeds in the hermaphrodites solitary, ovate. Pappus capillary, long. In the females very like the hermaphrodites. Receptacle naked, flat.—*Essential Character*. Calyx cylindrical, calyced, with the scales mortified at the tip. Down simple. Receptacle naked.

I.—Flowers without a radius.

1. *Senecio reclinatus*, or grass-leaved groundsel.—Corolla naked. Calyx ventricose, somewhat imbricated. Leaves thread-shaped, smooth. Stem herbaceous, about three feet high, wavy, reclined and branched at the top, yellowish-green, round. Leaves sessile, grassy, revolute at the edge, rough. Flowers terminal, panicled, golden-coloured, with a glaucous calyx.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Senecio purpureus*, or purple groundsel.—Corolla naked. Leaves lyrate, hairy; the upper ones lanceolate, toothed

toothed. Root perennial, thick. Stem numerous, erect, a foot high, striated. Leaves alternate, lyrate, obtuse, thickish; the lower ones on long stalks; all beautifully veined. Flowers terminal, corymbose, purple, rather small.—Native also of the Cape.

3. *Senecio cernuus*, or drooping groundsel.—Stem herbaceous, a foot high, erect. Leaves alternate, stalked, veined, rough, with two little angulated stipulas at the base of each footstalk. Flowers solitary, terminal, violet-coloured, on long, generally drooping stalks.

4. *Senecio pseudo-China*, or Chinese groundsel.—Root perennial, tuberous, fleshy, fibrous. Stem none. Leaves radical, large, shaped like those of a turnip, smooth. Flower-stalk slender, more than a foot high, sustaining a few yellow flowers at the top.—Native of the East Indies.

5. *Senecio vulgaris*. Common groundsel or simson.—Root annual, fibrous. Stem erect, branched, leafy, angular, either smooth or clothed with a cottony down like the back of the foliage. Leaves alternate, bright green; radical ones stalked; those of the stem sessile, auriculate. Flowers terminal, scattered or paniced, yellow. Seeds furrowed, pubescent: a common weed.

The remaining species of this section, are, *Senecio angustifolius*, *mucronatus*, *niveus*, *hieracifolius*, *erubescens*, *persicifolius*, *biflorus*, *paniculatus*, *bidentatus*, *scaber*, *vestitus*, *virgatus*, *divaricatus*, *croaticus*, *Japonicus*, *peucedanifolius*, *Arabicus* and *verbenifolius*.

II.—Flowers with a revolute radius.

6. *Senecio viscosus*, or stinking groundsel.—The whole herb is hairy and viscid, with a very fetid smell. Root annual. Stem a foot high, much branched, spreading, furrowed, leafy. Leaves alternate. Flower-stalks solitary, terminal, each bearing a flower of a bright gold-colour.—Common in Great Britain.

7. *Senecio lividus*, or green-scaled groundsel.—This species varies much in the depth of the segments of its leaves. The florets of the radius are not at first revolute, but gradually become so.—Native of Spain and England.

8. *Senecio sylvaticus*, or mountain groundsel.—Root annual. Stem three feet high, leafy, furrowed, rather hairy, many-flowered. Leaves numerous, with an unpleasant smell, and slightly viscid. Flowers yellow.—Found plentifully in England.

The remaining species of this section are *Senecio triflorus*, *Ægyptius*, *Australis*, *lautus*, *crassifolius*, *humilis*, *leucanthemifolius*, *auritus*, *giganteus*, *telephifolius*, *trilobus*, *cinerascens*, *Javanicus*, *coronopifolius*, *multifidus*, *nebrodensis*, *glaucus* and *varicosus*.

III.—Flowers with a spreading radius and pinnatifid leaves.

9. *Senecio hastatus*, or spleen-wort-leaved groundsel.—Stem herbaceous, perennial, about two feet high, branched at the bottom. Leaves stalked, narrow, seven or eight inches long, very glutinous. Flowers terminal, yellow, two or three on each stalk.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

10. *Senecio elegans*. Elegant groundsel, or purple jacobæa.—Stem is about eighteen inches high, erect, branched, furrowed. Leaves at the stem-joints, bright green. It occasionally produces white flowers.

11. *Senecio squalidus*, or inelegant rag-wort.—Root annual or biennial. Stem erect, branched, much spreading, sometimes a little hairy. Leaves sessile, deeply pinnatifid, narrow, smooth, rather fleshy, often purplish beneath. Flowers solitary, of a bright golden yellow, on terminal, solitary, bracteated, corymbose stalks. The whole herb has a peculiar smell, somewhat like Tansy or Mug-wort.—Native of England.

12. *Senecio abrotanifolius*, or southern-wood-leaved groundsel.—Stem from one to two feet high, striated upwards. Lower leaves bipinnatifid, stalked: upper pinnatifid, sessile; all dark green above, glaucous beneath. Flowers large and handsome, lemon-coloured, in terminal bunches.—Native of Austria.

13. *Senecio tenuifolius*, or hoary-rag-wort.—Root peren-

nial, rather creeping. Stem erect, wand-like, leafy, corymbose at the top. Leaves numerous, alternate, embracing the stem, cottony beneath, and often white with down. Flowers corymbose, bright yellow.—Native of England.

14. *Senecio Jacobææ*, or common-rag-wort.—Root perennial, fibrous. Stem erect, branched, leafy, corymbose, many-flowered. Leaves mostly smooth, dark green, cut into various, spreading, toothed segments. Flowers very numerous, of a bright, golden yellow, terminal, corymbose.

15. *Senecio aquaticus*, or marsh-rag-wort.—Stem erect, branched, purplish at the base, like the last species. Leaves variable in shape. The flowers are larger, fewer in number, and of a brighter colour.—Native of England.

The remaining species in this section are, *Senecio squamosus*, *incisus*, *carnosus*, *abruptus*, *lyratus*, *spiræifolius*, *pubigerus*, *vernalis*, *montanus*, *rupestris*, *dentatus*, *venustus*, *erucifolius*, *speciosus*, *erosus*, *uniflorus*, *incanus*, *carniolicus*, *parviflorus*, *muricatus*, *lævigatus*, *grandiflorus*, *myrrhifolius*, *diffusus*, *Canadensis*, *delphinifolius*, *auriculatus*, *aureus*, *Balsamitæ*, *obovatus* and *umbellatus*.

IV.—Flowers with a radius. Leaves undivided.

16. *Senecio paludosus*, or great fen rag-wort.—Root perennial, of many long, simple fibres. Stems erect, from three to six feet in height, leafy, striated, hollow, clothed with a loose down. Leaves sessile, scattered, narrow at the base, smooth above, paler and downy beneath. Flowers above an inch in diameter, bright yellow; in a kind of terminal corymb, the lowermost stalks arising from the bosom of the upper leaves.—Native of Europe.

17. *Senecio nemorensis*, or branching groundsel.—Root perennial, fibrous, not creeping. Stems generally single, two or three feet high, erect, slightly angular or grooved towards the top, pale green, purplish here and there. Leaves alternate or scattered, five or six inches long, pointed, smooth above, hairy beneath. Flowers very numerous, yellow, in terminal compound corymbs.—Native of Austria, &c.

18. *Senecio Saracenicus*, or broad-leaved groundsel.—Root perennial, creeping. Stems erect, from three to five feet high, angular, leafy, smooth, corymbose at the top. Leaves alternate, sessile, lanceolate, slightly downy. Flowers bright yellow, in a large, terminal corymb, with narrow, lanceolate, pointed bractæas, and rather downy stalks.—This is one of our rarest British plants.

19. *Senecio doria*, or broad-leaved groundsel.—Root perennial, brownish, bitter, with long white fibres. Stem from two to five feet in height, much branched upwards, striated. Leaves alternate, lower ones stalked; upper sessile; all of them extremely glaucous and ribbed. Flowers rather small, numerous, palish yellow, in terminal, compound corymbs.—Native of Austria.

20. *Senecio doricum*, or Alpine groundsel.—Root perennial, fibrous. Stem perfectly simple, hairy. Radical leaves stalked, thickish, plain or striated on either side of the mid-rib; stem-leaves small, lanceolate, nearly awl-shaped. Flowers large, terminal, mostly solitary, of a deep yellow or orange-colour, on longish, thick, hairy stalks.—Native of the South of Europe.

21. *Senecio lanceus*, or spear-leaved groundsel.—Root perennial, fibrous. Stems numerous, annual, round, smooth; from four to six feet high, streaked with purple. Leaves alternate, somewhat leathery, smooth, glaucous, pointed, veined with purple. Flowers in terminal, thick, compound corymbs, bright yellow; the disk turning brown.

The remaining species of this last and fourth section are, *Senecio linifolius*, *juniperinus*, *rosmarinifolius*, *asper*, *striatus*, *cruciatus*, *rigescens*, *pinnulatus*, *hadiensis*, *ovatus*, *coriaceus*, *orientalis*, *barrelieri*, *arenarius*, *glastifolius*, *oporus*, *longifolius*, *undulatus*, *byzantinus*, *heterophyllus*, *halimifolius*, *marginatus*, *maritimus*, *lanatus*, *mollis*, *quercifolius*, *ilicifolius*, *crispus*, *crenatus*, *angulatus*, *cordifolius*, *repandus*, *rigidus* et *solidaginoides*.

Propagation and Culture.—*Senecio* contains plants of the herbaceous, annual, and perennial kinds, of which the species

species cultivated are; the hieracium-leaved groundsel (*senecio hieracifolius*); the Chinese groundsel (*senecio pseudo China*); the spleenwort-leaved groundsel (*senecio hastatus*); and the elegant groundsel, or purple *Jacobæa* (*senecio elegans*.)

In the fourth species there are varieties with very double purple, and with equally double white flowers. The former is now chiefly cultivated.

And there are other species that may be cultivated for variety.

The first and two last sorts are readily increased by planting cuttings of the branches in pots filled with fine mould in the summer season, shading them till they have taken root; and, as the winter approaches, removing them under the protection of the greenhouse, where they should remain till May, when they may be planted out in the borders or clumps. They may likewise be raised from seed, which should be sown in the spring in pots, and placed in a gentle hot-bed.

The second sort should be more carefully attended to, being raised from offsets, which should be planted in pots in the spring season, and be plunged in the hot-bed of the stove, where the plants should be constantly kept.

The first and two last sorts afford variety in the borders, and among potted plants; and the second in stove collections.

SENECEY, a small town in the east of France, department of the Saone and Loire, with 1800 inhabitants; 11 miles south of Chalons-sur-Saone.—There are three other villages of France of the same name; one in the department of the Cote d'Or, 6 miles east of Verdun-sur-Saone; another, 3 miles south of Dijon; and the third, in the department of the Saone and Loire, north of Macon.

SENECTA ANGUIUM, the exuvix, or sloughs of serpens.

SENEFFE, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, with nearly 3000 inhabitants. It is noted as the scene of a sanguinary but indecisive battle, fought on 11th August 1674, between the prince of Orange and the prince of Conde; 12 miles north-west of Charleroi.

SENEGAL, a large and remarkable river of Africa, the principal one, which falls into the sea on its western coast. In all the early delineations of Africa, it was considered as the same river with the Niger, and was thus delineated as coming from the most distant regions in the interior of the continent. Thus, till the beginning or middle of last century, the words Senegal and Niger were considered as synonymous. The French, however, having fixed their head settlement at St. Louis, at the mouth of the Senegal, penetrated up the river as far as Gallam, where they also established a fort. Tombuctoo, early celebrated as the centre of African wealth, being situated on the Niger, anxious inquiries were made as to the means of penetrating to that city, by ascending the Senegal. The result, however, was not satisfactory. It was found, that about sixty miles above Gallam, the country assumed a mountainous aspect, and the rocks intersected the river in such a manner, as to render it impossible for barks to ascend. This was called the cataract of Felu; and about forty leagues higher were the falls of Govinea, which have not been so carefully examined, but have been reported as equally formidable. These obstacles served to account for the fact, which was soon ascertained, that there was no instance of a vessel sailing between Tombuctoo and Gallam. It was still conceived, however, that by transporting the goods from the rock of Felu, to beyond that of Govinea, the benefit of the navigation of the supposed Niger might be obtained to a great extent. In endeavouring, however, to trace the higher part of its course, they were perplexed by various and contradictory reports. According to some, the Niger, after passing Tombuctoo, continued to flow westward, till it discharged itself into the Atlantic; but others positively asserted, that the river passing Tombuctoo flowed eastward, and had no communication with the Senegal. These last statements appeared so strongly attested, that the learned

French geographers, Delisle and D'Anville, hesitated not, in the course of the century, to make an essential change on the geography of this part of Africa, describing the Senegal as a completely distinct river from the Niger. They derived it erroneously, however, from the lake Maberia, which appears to be the same described by Mr. Park, under the name of Dibbe. At the same time, the governors and the persons best acquainted with the French settlement on the Senegal, continued to cherish the old ideas, and to hope still for a navigable intercourse with Tombuctoo. The geography of this part of the continent was never cleared up, till the journey of Park, who fully ascertained the distinction between the two rivers, the eastward course of the Niger, to which a great portion of what even Delisle and D'Anville had assigned to the Senegal, really belonged. He learned moreover the source of the Senegal itself, in the great range of mountains which traverses Manding and Jallonkadoo, and from the other side of which the Niger takes its rise. From these descend a succession of rivers, of which that called on the spot the Ba Fing, or Black river, is considered as the principal branch of the Senegal. Its source has never been precisely explored; but it may be fixed pretty nearly in 7. 0. W. long. and 11. 50. N. lat. The Faleme, and the Ba Lee, or Kokoro, are also great streams, which, joining the Senegal in the kingdom of Gallam, render it a river of the first magnitude. The whole of the early course of this river, and of its tributaries, is through a broken country, diversified by rugged and precipitous hills, and intersected by numerous streams, the sands of which being copiously impregnated with gold dust, afford a considerable source of wealth. The gold is extricated by the women, by the mere process of agitation in water. After passing Gallam, the Senegal rolls over a level plain, through Foota Torra, the states of the Siratik, and the country of the Foulabs. After passing Podor, about 60 leagues from its mouth, the level is so complete, that Adanson does not conceive it to descend in that space more than two feet and a half. The river in this part of its course is bordered by vast woods, obstructed by thick underwood, and filled with numberless species of birds. The different kinds of monkeys and parrots in particular, are exhibited in vast variety. Crocodiles, and other species of amphibia, abound in the upper parts of the river. The Senegal, in this level part of its course, separates into branches, which form several large islands. Its entrance is obstructed by a very formidable bar, consisting of a ridge of sand, stretching across its mouth at a little distance under water. The mouth of the Senegal is in Lat. 16. 5. N.

SENEGAL, GOVERNMENT OF, the name given by the French to their great African settlement, situated at the mouth of the above river. It was under the reign of Louis XIV., that the energies of France began first to be directed towards colonies and commerce. In 1637, when Jannequin undertook his voyage to the Senegal, he found no settlement by any European nation, and his party were obliged to erect temporary habitations for themselves at the village of Biyutt, on the left bank of the river. It was in 1664 that the first West India Company, being established at Dieppe, directed its operations towards this part of Africa. It was soon involved in bankruptcy; and several similar companies, which followed in succession, were equally unfortunate. Each, however, at their commencement, made vigorous exertions to promote and extend the trade, of which they had obtained the monopoly; so that the settlement soon acquired some degree of prosperity. St. Louis, the capital of the French settlements on the Senegal and in Africa, is situated on an island in the middle of the river, which is here of considerable breadth. The only advantage of this situation is its security, for the island is a mere bank of white and moving sand, entirely arid, and destitute of the least appearance or vegetation. The streets are well arranged, and in general composed of thatched cottages or huts, amongst which are interspersed some stone houses, covered, according to the custom of this part of Africa, with flat roofs. Though producing nothing within itself, it is plentifully supplied

with all necessaries from the opposite continent. The water is brackish and bad, but is rendered potable by the use of filtering stones, brought from the island of Teneriffe. In 1787, the number of white inhabitants permanently established at Fort St. Louis, did not exceed 60, consisting of merchants, mechanics and soldiers, who had retired and intermarried with the mulatto women. The governor, the military, naval and civil officers, and all the European servants, might amount to nearly 600. The free mulatto and negro population was estimated at 2400 individuals. The domestic and labouring slaves, called cottage captives, amounted to nearly the same number. Lastly, during the prevalence of the slave trade, about 1200 unfortunate negroes were always kept in confinement, ready to be embarked for the West Indies. Thus the whole population amounted to about 6000 souls. The negroes here are partly Christians and partly Mahometans; and a recent traveller accuses them of being always ready to change their religion from motives of interest.

The most important branch of the commerce of this settlement, consists in procuring the gum known in commerce by the name of gum Senegal. It has been ascertained by experiment, that this is much superior to all the eastern kinds, and even to that of Arabia; that it is both more mucilaginous and gummy; that in some arts and trades no other gum can be used as a substitute; in short the use of it has become general within the last half century; it is now sought after with avidity, and the increase of the different manufactures has rendered it an object of great importance. The forests of acacia, from which this substance exudes, grow in the track of desert extending northwards from the Senegal. They are in the possession of three tribes of Moors, called Trarshaz, Braknaz and Darmanko, who occupy about seven oases or verdant spots, in that vast track of desert bounded on the south by the Senegal, on the west by the Atlantic, and on the east and north extending indefinitely into the vast expanse of the Sahara. There are three great gum forests called Sahel, Al Fatack and El Hiebar. The former, producing the white gum, which is held in highest estimation, is in the possession of the Trarshaz; while the forest of Al Fatack belongs to the Braknaz, and that of El Hiebar to the Darmanko. These two last produce gum of the red kind. The gum tree of the Senegal is in general not more than eighteen or twenty feet high, and its circumference seldom exceeds three feet. On the banks of the Senegal, the trees have been observed from twenty-five to twenty-eight feet high; but there the soil is covered with a stratum of vegetable earth, and the trees are also few in number. In general too, the gum tree of the desert is crooked, and has a rough and irregular appearance; such an appearance is common to all the productions of this track, which are, as it were, stunted, so that the plants appear rather like bushes than shrubs. The aridity of the soil, and the severity of the winds, are probably the cause of this imperfect growth. The leaves of these trees are alternate, of a dry and dirty green; the branches are thorny at the points where the leaves project, the blossoms are white and very short, the bark is smooth, and of a dark green. The period when the trees begin to give out their gum is about the 10th of November, when the great periodical rains have newly ceased. No artificial incision is necessary; for as soon as the harmattan or hot wind of the desert begins to blow, the drying process is so powerful, that the bark cracks in numberless places. The gum then issues out in various forms, but chiefly in drops about the size of a partridge's egg. The tenacity of the substance, however, is such as to prevent the drops from falling to the ground, when they would be in danger of being buried in the sand. They remain attached to the bark, near the spot whence they issued; they are always transparent and brilliant at the part where they are broken off, and when they have been kept for a few moments in the mouth, have all the clearness, limpidity and transparency of the finest rock crystal. About the beginning of December, the Moors of the three tribes quit their residences in the desert, where they leave only the aged, decrepid and infants, with a few who are necessary to tend the cattle; all

the rest set out in a confused and tumultuous crowd, the kings, princes, and rich men, riding on horses and camels, while the poor march on foot. In twelve days or a fortnight, each tribe reaches the forest which belongs to it, and on the borders of which it forms an encampment. The harvest continues about six weeks, when the gum being collected in heaps, is placed on the backs of camels and oxen, for the purpose of being transported to the banks of the Senegal. The camel generally carries from four to five hundred weight; the ox about a hundred and fifty pounds; and the gum is contained in immense leathern sacks, made of tanned ox hides. The great gum fair is at a spot on the northern bank of the Senegal, about midway between Podor and Fort St. Louis. There is not in the world a more barren and desolate spot; it is merely an immense plain, formed of white and moving sands; not an herb, plant, or shrub, varies the uniformity of this immense solitude. It does not even afford a drop of potable water, which must be brought from the river or from the neighbourhood. Hither, at the usual time, the French merchants repair, to wait the arrival of the Moors. On the morning of their approach, there may be heard, even at a great distance, the confused noise of their armies in motion; and towards noon, this vast and solitary plain appears covered with a multitude of men, women, camels, oxen and goats, all enveloped in clouds of dust. Some of these animals carry the tents and baggage; on others are placed the women, who may be seen in the act of suckling their children. The kings and chiefs are mounted on beautiful horses, while their wives appear seated on a few chosen camels, elegantly caparisoned, in a kind of baskets, covered with an awning. A band of Moors, armed with muskets and lances, escort this ambulatory horde, and vainly attempt to preserve some appearance of order. The air resounds with the voices of men, women, children and animals; and the living creatures who fill the plain appear truly innumerable. At length, when the whole of this barbarous assemblage is collected, the camps are fixed; a canon is then fired as a signal for beginning the fair. In carrying on the treaty there is no artifice to which these Moors do not resort; no lies which they do not invent, to obtain a higher price for their merchandise: address and threats are alternately employed; and the kings and chiefs invent a hundred lies to exact higher prices, and more considerable presents. The most ridiculous pretensions are every year renewed by these artful savages, who purposely raise innumerable difficulties in the course of the negotiation. Europeans are driven almost distracted by the extreme slowness and apathy of the Moors, who incessantly defer the termination of the business. Between the years 1785 and 1787, the quantity of gum actually bought by the French, amounted to 800,000lbs., independent of 400,000 carried to Portendick, and sold to the English. It is purchased in kantars, which originally contained about 500lbs.; but the French, that they might not be behind hand in cheating, gradually increased the size of the kantar, without any observation being made by the Moors, who are entire strangers to this kind of geometry. The kantar thus amounts now to about 2000lbs. It is paid almost exclusively in East India cotton cloths, dyed with indigo, called pieces of guinea; each of these is seven or eight ells long, and half an ell broad. Attempts have been made to make them receive cottons of French manufacture; but the Moors immediately distinguish by the smell, the genuine productions of the East Indies, and will accept of no other. The standard price of the kantar is 15 pieces of guinea; and as these may be averaged at 25 francs, the original price of the kantar will be 365 francs (15s. 7½d.) which gives the pound of gum at nearly 3 sols, 6 deniers (not quite 2d.) The gum has sold in Europe at from 30 to 40 sols (15d. to 20d.); so that, after ample allowance for freight and charges, the profit must still be very great. The trade might admit of considerable extension, as there are two other forests at Guerouf and Gallam, farther up the Senegal, the gum from which might be procured at a cheaper rate, though with greater expense of transport.

Another trade to which the French have devoted a much greater

greater share of attention, and from which they have conceived greater hopes, is that with the interior, by means of their settlement at Gallam, on the upper part of the Senegal. Through it they hoped not only to obtain an establishment in Bambouk, a country so rich in gold, but to extend their intercourse to Tombuctoo, and all the countries on the Niger. A fort was first built in 1700, at Dramanet, called Fort St. Joseph; but no proper measures having been taken to conciliate the natives, they soon rose in insurrection, and though unable to make any impression on European fortifications, yet, by perseverance and cutting off all supplies, they at length obliged the French to evacuate it. In 1713, a new fort was erected a little farther down, and in a very advantageous situation, at Mankanet. Repeated visits were made here by the governors of Senegal, with the view of acquiring information, and extending the trade. They never were able, however, to raise it to any high degree of importance. The excessively winding course of the river, which nearly doubles the distance from St. Louis to Gallam; the extreme unhealthiness of the climate, especially as the voyage can be carried on only in the rainy season; the difficult negotiation with the chiefs who occupy the banks, not to mention the danger of plunder; these circumstances have deterred all, except the most daring, from adventuring upon this voyage. Sanguier, who undertook it, says indeed that trade may be carried on with advantage, and that he made 100 per cent.; but in the way down he was plundered of his whole cargo.

Besides gum, there were exported from the Senegal, in 1786, slaves to the number of 2200, valued at 2,640,000 livres; gold to the amount of 90,000 livres; ivory and miscellaneous articles to 130,000 livres.

Considerable political revolutions have been experienced by this colony. In the war of 1756, it yielded to the victorious arms of Britain, and was ceded to this country at the peace of 1763. The French, however, retook it in 1779, and retained it by the peace of 1783. They lost it again in the revolutionary war; but on the restoration of the Bourbons, it was anew ceded to them. It was in sailing to resume possession of this settlement, that the *Medusa* frigate sustained that terrible shipwreck, which has drawn so much of the notice of the public. This disaster seems to have hitherto paralysed any attempts which the French might make, to restore the importance of their settlements in this part of Africa.

SENEGALIA, or SENEGALLUS, in Ornithology, the *Loxia astrill*. See LOXIA. See also FRINGILLA *Senegala*.

SENEGANTI, a river of South America, in the province of Darien, which runs west, and enters the great river Charquaguai.

SENEKA, or RATTLESNAKE-ROOT. See POLYGALA *Senega*.

SENELEE, a river of North America, which falls into the Tombigbee.

SENEMBL, in Zoology, a name given by Marcgrave to the LACERTA IGUANA; which see.

SENERE, a river of Brazil, in the territory of Matto-Grosso, which runs nearly south, and enters the Itenes or Guapore.

SENE'SCENCE, *s.* [*senesco*, Lat.] The state of growing old; decay by time.—The earth and all things will continue in the state wherein they now are, without the least *senescence* or decay, without jarring, disorder, or invasion of one another. *Woodward*.

SENE'SCHAL, *s.* [*scneschal*, Fr. from *scalck*, or *schalk*, the old Goth. and Germ. word for a *servant*, *senex*, old Lat. forming the first part of the word.] One who had in great houses the care of feasts, or domestic ceremonies.

The *seneschal* rebuk'd, inhaste withdrew;
With equal haste a menial train pursue.

It afterwards came to signify other offices.

Pope.

There eke he placed a strong garrison,
And set a *seneschal* of dreaded might,
That by his powre oppressed every one,
And vanquished all venturous knights in fight. *Spenser*.

SENEZ, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Lower Alps, situated in a wild and rugged district, on the small river Asse. Population 800; 14 miles south-south-east of Digne.

SENFTEMBERG, a small town of Austria; 3 miles north of Stein, and 40 west-by-north of Vienna.

SENFTEMBERG, a small town of the Prussian states, in Lower Lusatia; 35 miles north-east of Meissen. Population 1000.

SENFTEMBERG, a small town in the east of Bohemia; 70 miles east of Prague. Population 1600.

SENGBEST, a town of Korassan, in Persia; 25 miles south-east of Meshed.

SENGEN, a city of China, of the first rank, in Quang-see, situated in a small and mountainous district. Lat. 23. 24. N. long. 107. 34. E.

SENGILEJEV, a town in the south-east of European Russia, at the confluence of the Wolga and Sengilaika. Population 2500; 29 miles south-by-east of Simbirsk.

SENGLEA, a town, or rather part of the city of Valette, in the island of Malta, divided by a canal from Vittoriosa, which is also a part of Valette. Senglea contains nearly 5500 inhabitants. See VALETTE.

SENGMA, a sea-port of Western Africa, in the country of Calabar; 5 miles north of Cape Formosa.

SENGOA, a village of Aderbijan, in Persia; 48 miles south-east of Tabreez.

SE'NGREEN, *s.* A plant. See SEDUM.

SENGWARDEN, a small town of Westphalia, in the grand duchy of Oldenburg, with 1400 inhabitants; 6 miles east of Jever.

SENICCA, a town in the north of Austrian Italy, in the Brescian, near the lake of Iseo.

SENILE, *adj.* [*senilis*, Lat.] Belonging to old age; consequent on old age.—My green youth made me very unripe for a task of that nature, whose difficulty requires that it should be handled by a person in whom nature, education, and time have happily matched a *senile* maturity of judgment with youthful vigour of fancy. *Boyle*.

SENI'LITY, *s.* [*seniliter*, Lat.] Old age.—Mr. Edwards, when going away, again recurred to his consciousness of *senility*; and, looking full in Dr. Johnson's face, said to him, You'll find in Dr. Young, "O my coevals! remnants of yourselves." Johnson did not relish this at all. *Boswell's Johnson*.

SENIIO, a small river of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical states, which flows into the Argento.

SENIOR, *s.* [*senior*, Lat.] One older than another; one who on account of longer time has some superiority.—How can you admit your *seniors* to the examination or allowing of them, not only being inferior in office and calling, but in gifts also? *Whitgift*.—An aged person.

A *senior* of the place replies,
Well read, and curious of antiquities.

Dryden.

SENIORE, a village of Algiers; 22 miles west of Tiffesh.

SENIORITY, *s.* Eldership; priority of birth.—He was the elder brother, and Ulysses might be consigned to his care, by the right due to his *seniority*. *Broomc*.

SENIORY, *s.* Seniority. *Unused*.

SENI'TZ, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, on the Miava; 37 miles north of Presburg, inhabited by Slovaks.

SENJEN, a large island on the coast of Norway. It is 25 miles in length, and 38 in breadth: the north part consists of hills, which, though seldom above 700 feet in elevation, seem much higher, their sharp peaks being covered nearly to the top with plants, which, in this high latitude, bear the same stunted appearance as among the higher Alps.

The

The chief town, Kloeven, is a small but neat place. Lat. 69. 30. N. long. 17. 0. E.

SENKOV, or ZENKOV, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Sloboosks-Ukraine; 68 miles east-south-east of Charkov.

SENLIS, a town in the north-east of France, department of the Oise, situated on a rising ground, in the middle of an extensive forest, near the small river Nonette. It has 4300 inhabitants, and, being an old place, its streets are narrow, and its houses ill built. The cathedral is, however, admired for its architecture, and its steeple for its height. Senlis has some trade in corn, wine and wool, with manufactures, on a small scale, of cotton, coarse woollens, paper, lace and porcelain. Its quarries afford good stone for building. Here are two great yearly fairs; one in April, the other in October; 30 miles north of Paris.

SENNA, in Botany: see CASSIA.—SENNA, Bladder: see COLUTEA.—SENNA, Scorpion: see CORONILLA.

SENNA, a town of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey. It is most romantically situated in the bosom of a deep valley, well cultivated, and interspersed with orchards of peach, apricot, pear, apple and cherry trees. It is a flourishing little town, containing a population of about 8000 souls, of which number 2000 are Jews, Armenians and Nestorians, who trade to Mosul, Bagdad and Ispahan. The country round is mountainous, inhabited by wandering tribes of Curds and Iliats; 80 miles south-south-east of Mosul.

SENNAAR, a country of Eastern Africa, having Abyssinia on the east and south, Darfur on the west, Dongola and the independent districts of Nubia on the north. A great part of Sennaar being nearly inclosed between the Nile and the Tacazze, formed what was called by the ancients the island of Meroe, the central seat of the empire of ancient Ethiopia, which repeatedly conquered Egypt, and, according to some, perhaps fanciful traditions, communicated to that country many of its sciences and institutions. The ancient history and revolutions of Ethiopia are involved, however, in deep obscurity. In the early ages of the Christian era, this country, like the neighbouring one of Abyssinia, was converted to the Christian faith, which it appears even to have maintained down to the 12th century, and probably later; but the greater part of the inhabitants are now converted to the Mahometan religion, which they combine with the practices of Paganism, and with some remains of Christian observances. The kingdom of Sennaar is not of high antiquity. It was founded in 1504, by a body of Shilluk negroes, who descended from their settlements in the upper part of the Bahr-el-Abiad, drove before them, or subjected, the Arab inhabitants, and have since reigned over Sennaar. The principle of the government is entirely despotic, to such a degree, that all the courtiers assume *slave* as the highest title of honour. On the accession of a new king, all his brothers who can be found, are, according to a custom prevalent in these barbarous despotisms, immediately put to death. No female is allowed to reign, and the princesses, who are very numerous, meet with little more respect than any other of the female attendants. This absolute power, however, is tempered by a most extraordinary limitation, which is, that the king may lawfully be put to death by a council of the great officers, whenever they choose to decide that his reign is no longer for the public advantage. The execution of the sentence is entrusted to an officer called the sid-el-koom, who is a member of the monarch's own family, master of his household, and carries on an intimate and confidential intercourse with the king, whose days he is likely to be the instrument of bringing to a period. The fact appears to be, that the hereditary kings have sunk into a species of state pageants, kept up merely to amuse the people, and that the real power is now in the hands of the chief officers, particularly the commander of the forces. The troops of Sennaar, stationed immediately around the capital, consist of about 14,000, of a race of negroes called Nuba, from which is derived the general name of Nubia, applied to this region. The infantry are armed merely with a short

javelin and a round shield, and appear to be by no means good troops; but the horse, amounting to 1800, though armed only with coats of mail and a broad Slavonian sword, appeared to Mr. Bruce equal to any in the world. Sennaar has three governments which are tributary to it. One is Kordofan, situated between Sennaar and Darfur, to which latter country it is occasionally subjected. To the south of this is Fazuelo, a mountainous territory, affording a large supply of Gold and slaves, the staples of interior Africa. The government of Sennaar, on conquering this territory, continued its Mek or sovereign in the capacity of governor. The third government is that of El Acie, or Alleis, on the Bahr-el-Abiad, and including the original country of the Shilluk. The inhabitants are all fishermen, and possess a vast number of boats, with large fleets of which they made their successful invasion in 1504.

The territory of Sennaar for several miles from the banks of the river; is of very remarkable fertility. At the time also of the rains, which take place about the end of August and the beginning of September, it assumes a most delightful appearance, resembling the pleasantest parts of Holland. The corn springs up, covers the ground, makes the whole appear a level green track, interspersed with great lakes of water, and ornamental at certain intervals with groups of villages, the conical tops of the houses presenting at a distance the appearance of small encampments. The Nile flows through this immense plain above a mile broad, full to the very brim, but never overflowing. Soon after, however, the rains cease; the dhourra then ripens, the leaves turn yellow and rot, the lakes putrify, smell and are full of vermin; all the beauty disappears, and bare scorched Nubia returns, with all its terrors of poisonous winds and moving sands, glowing and ventilated with sultry blasts.

The dress of the people of Sennaar is extremely simple. A long shirt of blue Surat cloth, called marowty, covers them from the lower part of the neck down to the feet. The neck itself, however, is left open, which alone distinguishes the dress of the men from that of the women; who button this shirt round the neck. The men sometimes tie a sash round the middle; and both sexes, even of the better ranks, go through the house barefooted. The apartments, particularly those of the females, have the floor covered with Persian carpets. In going out, they wear sandals, and a kind of wooden patten, very neatly ornamented with shells. With a view to coolness, they have buckets of water thrown upon them in the middle of the day. In order to preserve themselves from cutaneous eruptions, of which they entertain a peculiar dread, they anoint themselves daily with camel's grease mixed with civet: and, for the same reason, though they put on every day a clean shirt, they lie all night upon one dipt in grease, which forms their only covering, their couch being merely a bull's hide tanned, and very much softened by this constant greasing, though it occasions a smell from which nothing can free them. The principal diet of the poor consists of bread and flour made of millet. The rich make it into a pudding toasted before the fire, with milk and butter; besides which they eat beef, partly roasted and partly raw. Their horned cattle are the largest and fattest in the world; but camel's flesh is the meat chiefly sold in the market. The liver of the animal, and the spare rib, are always eaten raw. Hog's flesh is not sold in the market, but is eaten publicly by the people in general, and secretly by those who pretend to be Mahometans. The diseases prevalent at Sennaar are the dysentery and the bloody flux, frequently accompanied by intermitting fever, for which bark is found a sovereign cure. Epilepsies and schirrous livers are likewise very frequent. Those who live much in camps, or in quarters distant from rivers, have more or less the gravel, occasioned probably by the use of well water; but at Sennaar this malady is rare. The elephantiasis is not known, nor is the small-pox endemic.

Sennaar produces within itself few commodities fit for trade; and that which it carries on consists chiefly in exchanging

changing the productions of interior Africa with those of Egypt and Arabia. The most extensive communication is with Suakin and Jidda, by Shendi, and thence across the track extending from the Nile to the Red Sea. With Egypt the intercourse is conducted by two different routes. One leads along the east of the Nile, and follows the course of that river to Shendi, when the caravans strike across the vast desert of Nubia, where for 500 miles they do not encounter a human habitation, till they arrive at Syene. The other track is west of the Nile. The caravans here, in coming from Egypt, quit the Nile at Siout, then strike across the equally extensive desert to the west of that river. They refresh themselves at Charje or the Great Oasis, then proceed for some time by the same track as the caravans to Darfur, till they rejoin the Nile at Moscho, in the territory of Dongola. After passing through the capital of that kingdom, they come to Korti, where they proceed across the desert of Bahiouda, and joining the Nile at Derri, follow its course to Sennaar. The commodities drawn from interior Africa, for export to Egypt and Arabia, are gold dust, called *tibhar*, ivory, civet, rhinoceros' horns, but above all, slaves. The gold still maintains its reputation as the purest and best in Africa. The foreign commodity chiefly sought after is blue cotton cloth from Surat. They receive also spices, hardware and toys, particularly a species of black beads made at Venice.

SENNAAR, a city, capital of the above kingdom, situated on the shore of the Bahr-el-Azrek, a river of Abyssinia, about 200 miles previous to its junction with the Bahr-el-Abiad, or main branch of the Nile. It stands upon ground merely high enough to secure it against the rise which takes place during the rainy season, at which time the river rises to the level of the street. The city is large, and is supposed to contain 100,000 inhabitants, though the houses are in general poorly built, and do not usually consist of more than one story. Bruce, however, found the habitations of all the great officers raised to the height of two stories. They have flat roofs, which form agreeable terraces; a construction peculiar to this city, as throughout the tropic in general, the roofs are made conical, in order that the violent rains to which these climates are subject, may run off without injuring the edifice. The moderation of these rains is also indicated by the sparing mixture of straw with the clay, of which all the houses are built. The king's palace is surrounded with a lofty brick wall, but the edifices which compose it are not arranged with any degree of order or taste. The apartments, however, are richly adorned with carpets. The soil around Sennaar is composed of a rich black earth, the most fertile that can be conceived; it has even been asserted, though doubtless with exaggeration, to yield three hundred for one. The crops of dhourra and millet are immense; and wheat and rice are also produced. There appears to be something, however, either in the air, or in this rank vegetation, which is pernicious to animal life. Mr. Bruce assures us, that no domestic animal of any description ever bred in the town, or in any district for several miles round; none of them, whether horse, mule, ass, or of any other description, can live there for all the year round, but must be carried every half year to the sands, three or four miles distant. Here Adelan, the general and actual ruler, kept his stud, which he maintained in the most perfect condition. There is also a constant mortality among the children in the city, and the numbers could not be kept up, unless by the constant introduction of slaves from the southward. The men are strong and large, but short-lived; which, however, may perhaps be sufficiently accounted for by the excesses in which they indulge. Neither rose, nor any species of jessamin, grows near the city; nor any tree, except the lemon. Lat. 13. 34. 36. N. long. 33. 30. 30. E.

SENNE, a small slow flowing river of the Netherlands, in the province of the Hainault, which passes through Brussels, and falls into the Dyle.

SENNERAT, an island near the west coast of West Greenland. Lat. 61. 28. N. long. 47. 35. W.

SENNERTUS (Daniel), a learned physician, was born on

the 25th of November, 1572, at Breslaw, in Silesia, where his father was a shoe-maker. He received his early education in his native city, under the direction of his mother, and was then sent to the university of Wittenberg, in the year 1593, where he exhibited such proofs of acuteness of mind and solidity of judgment, that every opportunity was afforded him, by visiting the other celebrated universities of Germany, especially those of Leipsic, Jena, Francfort-on-the-Oder, and Berlin, of cultivating his talents. He returned to Wittenberg in 1601, and received the degree of Doctor in September of that year, and in the same month of the following year was appointed to a professorship of medicine. In this office his eloquence and knowledge were calculated to raise him to a high reputation, and his luminous method of teaching brought crowds of pupils to his lectures. His reputation became so extensive, that patients came to him from all parts of the world, and he refused his assistance to nobody. He took what was offered for his trouble, but demanded nothing, and even returned to the poor what they gave him. The plague prevailed seven times at Wittenberg, while he was professor there; but he never retired, nor was ever known to refuse to visit the poorest sick. George I., elector of Saxony, whom he had cured of a dangerous illness in 1626, appointed him one of his physicians in ordinary; but with the permission to remain at Wittenberg, that the world might continue to derive the benefit of his public instructions. He was three times married, and had seven children by his first wife, three of whom survived him. He was at length carried off by an attack of the plague, which was raging in Wittenberg, in the month of July, 1637, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

Sennertus was a voluminous writer, and has been characterized, by some critics, as a mere compiler from the works of the ancients; for his writings contain an epitome of the learning of the Greeks and Arabians, which renders them, even at this day, of considerable value as books of reference. His various works have been collected together, and published at different times and places, under the title of "Opera omnia;" but they were principally promulgated by himself under the following titles:—"Questionum Medicarum controversarum Liber;" 1609. "Institutiones Medicæ, et de Origine animarum in Brutis;" 1611. "Epitome Scientiæ Naturalis;" 1618. "De Febris Libri quatuor;" 1619. "De Scorbuto Tractatus;" 1624. "Practiciæ Medicinæ Liber primus;" 1628. Five other books of the same work were successively published. "Tractatus de Arthritide;" 1631. "Epitome Institutionum Medicarum disputationibus 18 comprehensa;" 1631. "Epitome Inst. Med. et Librorum de Febris;" 1634. "Hypomnemata physica;" 1635; and one or two small works of less note. Almost all these works have passed through many editions and translations. See Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Méd. Vita Dan. Sennerti, prefixed to his "Opera omnia."

SENNFELD, a village of Bavarian Franconia; 2 miles south-east of Schweinfurt. Population 800.

SE'NNIGHT, *s.* [Contracted from *sevensnight*.] The space of seven nights and days; a week.—Time trots hard with a young maid between the contract of her marriage and the day it is solemnized; if the interim be but a *sevensnight*, time's pace is so hard that it seems the length of seven years. *Shakspeare*.

SENNIT, [of *seven* and *knit*,] a sort of flat, braided cordage, formed by plating five or seven rope-yarns together. This is beaten smooth and flat with a hammer, and serves to keep the ropes to which it is applied from galling.

SENNOJE, a small town in the west of European Russia, in the government of Mohilev, on a lake of the same name. It is inhabited chiefly by Jews.

SENO'ULAR, *adj.* [*seni* and *oculus*, Lat.] Having six eyes. Most animals are binocular, spiders octonocular, some *senocular*. *Derham*.

SENONCHES, a small town in the north of France, department of the Eure and Loir. Population 1800; 13 miles north of Nogent-le-Rotrou.

SENONES, in Ancient Geography, a people of Gallia Cæltica,

Celtica, who occupied nearly the whole extent of the diocese of Sens and that of Auxerre, according to the ancient divisions of France. According to Cæsar, they were confined to Belgica. This author says of them: "est civitas in primis firma, et magnæ apud Gallos auctoritatis."—Also, a people of Italy, in Gallia Cispadana, upon the borders of the Adriatic sea. Their arrival in Italy may be fixed in the year before the vulgar era 397. They were overpowered in the year of Rome 463, by M. Curius Gentalus and P. Cornelius Rufinus; and were afterwards driven from the whole country which they occupied, from the Cæsis to the Rubicon. A colony was sent into their country, which assumed the name of "Sena Gallia." Seven years afterwards they were almost entirely exterminated by Dolabella.

SENONES, a small town in the east of France, department of the Vosges. It contains 1600 inhabitants, and has some woollen manufactures; 33 miles south-west of Strasburg.

SENON LENIC, a small well-built town of Upper Egypt, a few miles to the south of Benisuef.

SENOSECZ, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Carniola, in the mountainous district called the Karst; 9 miles south-west of Czirknitz.

SENRA, SENREA, or SERRA, in Botany, a genus of Cavanilles, upon which different authors have bestowed the above appellations. We are ignorant of its derivation. See CAVAN, Diss. 2, 83. It appears to be allied both to MALVA and GOSSYPIUM.

SENS, a considerable town in the interior of France, department of the Yonne, situated on the side of a hill, in a pleasant spot, watered by the Yonne and the Vanne. It contains a population of 8000, and is the see of an archbishop. Its cathedral is admired both for its exterior and interior: it contains the tomb of the Dauphin, son of Louis XV., and of Dupradt, chancellor of France. To the college belong a museum and library. Sens has manufactures of woollens, velvet, stockings, gloves and leather. Its trade consists in corn, wine, wood, coal and hemp. Several ecclesiastical councils have been held here; among others that of 1140, in which the well-known Abelard was condemned. It was taken by an allied force, chiefly Austrian, on 11th February, 1814, but evacuated soon after; 34 miles west of Troyes, and 84 south-east of Paris. Lat. 48. 11. 55. N. long. 3. 16. 59. E.

SENSAON, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Fez, situated near a mountain of the same name; 25 miles south of Tetuan.

SE'NSATED, *part. adj.* Perceived by the senses.—As those of the one are *sensated* by the ear, so those of the other are by the eye. *Hooke.*

SENSA'TION, *s.* [*sensatio*, school Lat.] Perception by means of the senses.—Diversity of constitution, or other circumstances, vary the *sensations*; and to them of Java pepper is cold. *Glanville.*—This great source of most of the ideas we have, depending wholly upon our senses, and derived by them to the understanding, I call *sensation*. *Locke.*—The happiest, upon a fair estimate, have stronger *sensations* of pain than pleasure. *Rogers.*

SENSBURG, a small town of East Prussia; 63 miles south-south-east of Königsberg. Population 1400.

SENSE, *s.* [*sens*, Fr., *sensus*, Lat.] Faculty or power by which external objects are perceived; the sight; touch; hearing; smell; taste.

This power is *sense*, which from abroad doth bring
The colour, taste, and touch, and scent, and sound,
The quantity and shape of every thing
Within earth's centre, or heav'n's circle found:
And though things sensible be numberless,
But only five the *sense's* organs be;
And in those five, all things their forms express,
Which we can touch, taste, feel, or hear or see.

Davies.

Then is the soul a nature, which contains
The power of *sense* within a greater power,
Which doth employ and use the *sense's* pains;
But sits and rules within her private bower.

Davies.

Both contain
Within them every lower faculty
Of *sense*, whereby they hear, see, smell, touch, taste.

Milton.

Of the five *senses*, two are usually and most properly called the *senses* of learning, as being most capable of receiving communication of thought and notions by selected signs; and these are hearing and seeing. *Holder.*—Perception by the senses; sensation.

If we had nought but *sense*, then only they
Should have sound minds which have their senses sound;
But wisdom grows when senses do decay,
And folly most in quickest *sense* is found.

Davies.

Sensibility; quickness or keenness of perception.

He should have liv'd,
Save that his riotous youth, with dangerous *sense*,
Might in the times to come have ta'en revenge. *Shakspeare.*

Understanding; soundness of faculties; strength of natural reason.

There's something previous ev'n to taste; 'tis *sense*,
Good *sense*, which only is the gift of heaven.
And though no science, fairly worth the seven. *Pope.*

Reason; reasonable meaning.—Opinion; notion; judgment.

I speak my private but impartial *sense*
With freedom, and, I hope, without offence. *Roscommon.*

Consciousness; conviction.—In the due *sense* of my want of learning, I only make a confession of my own faith. *Dryden.*—Moral perception.—Some are so hardened in wickedness, as to have no *sense* of the most friendly offices: *L'Estrange.*—Meaning; import.

My hearty friends,
You take me in too dolorous a *sense*. *Shakspeare.*

SE'NSED, *part.* Perceived by the senses. *A word not in use.*—Let the sciolist tell me, why things must needs be so as his individual senses represent them: is he sure that objects are not otherwise *sensed* by others, than they are by him? And why must his *sense* be the infallible criterion? It may be, what is white to us, is black to negroes. *Glanville.*

SE'NSEFUL, *adj.* Reasonable; judicious. *Not used.*
The lady, hearkning to his *sensefull* speech,
Found nothing that he said unmeet nor geason. *Spenser.*

SE'NSELESS, *adj.* Wanting sense; wanting life; void of all life or perception.

The charm and venom, which they drunk,
Their blood with secret filth infected hath,
Being diffused through the *senseless* trunk,
That through the great contagion direful deadly stunk.

Spenser.

Unfeeling; wanting sympathy.—The *senseless* grave feels not your pious sorrows. *Rowe.*—Unreasonable; stupid; doltish; blockish.

She saw her favour was misplac'd;
The fellows had a wretched taste:
She needs must tell them to their face,
They were a *senseless* stupid race.

Swift.

Other creatures, as well as monkeys, little wiser than they, destroy their young by *senseless* fondness, and too much embracing. *Locke.*—Wanting sensibility; wanting quickness or keenness of perception. *Not in use.*—To draw Mars like a young Hippolytus, with an effeminate countenance, or that hot-spurred Harpalice in Virgil, proceeded from a *senseless* and unconscionable judgment. *Peacham.*—Wanting knowledge; overcausious; with of.

The wretch is drench'd too deep;
His soul is stupid, and his heart asleep,
Fatten'd in vice: so callous and so gross,
He sins and sees not, *senseless* of his loss.

Dryden.

SE'NSELESSLY,

SENSELESSLY, *adv.* In a senseless manner; stupidly; unreasonably.

SENSELESSNESS, *s.* Folly; unreasonableness; absurdity; stupidity.

SENSIBILITY, *s.* [*sensibilité*, Fr.] Sensibleness; perception. *Unused.*—Quickness of sensation; quickness of perception; delicacy.—Modesty is a kind of quick and delicate feeling in the soul: it is such an exquisite *sensibility*, as warns a woman to shun the first appearance of every thing hurtful. *Addison.*

SENSIBILITY, in Physiology, the power of receiving an impression, and transmitting it to the brain, so as to cause sensation or feeling. The question whether any part be sensible is, therefore, whether by acting on it in any way, feeling can be excited. Sensibility in this, its common acceptation, obviously refers to the internal feeling or act of consciousness resulting from its exercise. Some physiologists have used the word in a more extensive sense, to denote all impressions produced on our organs, even those which are not felt; as that of the blood on the heart, the food on the alimentary canal, &c. Thus Bichat calls the former *animal sensibility*, because it is peculiar to living beings: and distinguishes the latter by the name *organic*, as it belongs to those parts where motions are involuntary, and which constitute the automatic or organic life.

SENSIBLE, *adj.* [*sensible*, Fr., *sensilis*, Lat.] Having the power of perceiving by the senses.—A blind man conceives not colours, but under the notion of some other *sensible* faculty. *Glanville.*—Perceptible by the senses.

Come let me clutch thee:

I have thee not, and yet I see thee still —

Art thou not, fatal vision, *sensible*

To feeling as to sight?

Shakespeare.

Air is *sensible* to the touch by its motion, and by its resistance to bodies moved in it. *Arbuthnot.*—Perceived by the mind.—Idleness was punished by so many stripes in public, and the disgrace was more *sensible* than the pain. *Temple.*—Perceiving by either mind or senses; having perception by the mind or senses.—The versification is as beautiful as the description complete: every ear must be *sensible* of it. *Broome.*—Having moral perception; having the quality of being affected by moral good or ill.

If thou wert *sensible* of courtesy,

I should not make so great a shew of zeal.

Shakespeare.

Having quick intellectual feeling; being easily or strongly affected.

Even I, the bold, the *sensible* of wrong,

Restrain'd by shame, was forc'd to hold my tongue.

Dryden.

Convinced; persuaded. *A colloquial use.*—They are very *sensible* that they had better have pushed their conquests on the other side of the Adriatic; for then their territories would have lain together. *Addison.*—In conversation it has sometimes the sense of reasonable; judicious; wise.—I have been tired with accounts from *sensible* men, furnished with matters of fact which have happened within their own knowledge. *Addison.*

SENSIBLE, *s.* Sensation: a poetical conversion of the adjective into the substantive.

Our torments also may in length of time
Become our elements; these piercing fires
As soft as now severe, our temper chang'd
Into their temper; which must needs remove
The *sensible* of pain.

Milton.

Whatever is perceptible around us.

The creation

Of this wide *sensible*.

More.

SENSIBLENESS, *s.* Possibility to be perceived by the senses.—Actual perception by mind or body.—Sensibility.

The *sensibleness* of the eye renders it subject to pain, as also unfit to be dressed with sharp medicaments. *Sharp.*

SENSIBLY, *adv.* Perceptibly to the senses.

He is your brother, lords; *sensibly* fed
Of that self-blood, that first gave life to you. *Shakespeare.*

A sudden pain in my right foot increased *sensibly*. *Temple.*
—The salts of human urine may, by the violent motion of the blood, be turned alkaline, and even corrosive; and so they affect the fibres of the brain more *sensibly* than other parts. *Arbuthnot.*—With perception of either mind or body.—Externally; by impression on the senses.—That church of Christ, which we properly term his body mystical, can be but one; neither can that one be *sensibly* discerned by any, inasmuch as the parts thereof are some in heaven already with Christ. *Hooker.*—With quick intellectual perception.

What remains past cure

Bear not too *sensibly*; nor still insist

To afflict thyself in vain.

Milton.

[In conversation.] Judiciously; reasonably.

SENSITIVE, *adj.* [*sensitif*, Fr.] Having sense, but not reason or perception.

SENSITIVE PLANT, *s.* [*mimosa*, Lat.] A plant.

Whence does it happen, that the plant which well
We name the *sensitive*, should move and feel?

Whence know her leaves to answer her command,

And with quick horror fly the neighbouring hand? *Prior.*

The *sensitive plant* is so called, because, as soon as you touch it, the leaf shrinks. *Mortimer.* See MIMOSA.

SENSITIVELY, *adv.* In a sensitive manner.—The sensitive faculty, through the nature of man's sense, may express itself more *sensitively* towards an inferior object than towards God: this is a piece of frailty. *Hammond.*

SENSORIUM, in Physiology, the part which feels and perceives, the common centre, to which sentiments are conveyed, and from which volition emanates; in other words, the brain. In medical and physiological writings, this expression is used as synonymous with brain; thus we read of affections of the sensorium; of sensorial power and influence, &c. *Sensorium commune*, is the imaginary point of the brain, the residence of the metaphysical soul, to which every sensation is brought, and from which all determinations of the will proceed. The like nonsense is inseparable from all those who attempt to class the soul under our ordinary conceptions of quantity.

SENSUAL, *adj.* [*sensuel*, Fr.] Consisting in sense; depending on sense; affecting the senses.—Men in general are too partial, in favour of a *sensual* appetite, to take notice of truth when they have found it. *L'Estrange.*—Pleasing to the senses; carnal; not spiritual.—The greatest part of men are such as prefer their own private good before all things, even that good which is *sensual* before whatsoever is most divine. *Hooker.*—Devoted to sense; lewd; luxurious.

From amidst them rose

Belial, the dissolutes spirit that fell,

The *sensuallest*; and, after Asmodai,

The fleshiest incubus.

Milton.

SENSUALIST, *s.* A carnal person; one devoted to corporeal pleasures.—Let atheists and *sensualists* satisfy themselves as they are able; the former of which will find, that, as long as reason keeps her ground, religion neither can nor will lose her's. *South.*

SENSUALITY, *s.* [*sensualité*, Fr. Cotgrave.] Devotedness to the senses; addiction to brutal and corporeal pleasures.—Impure and brutal *sensuality* was too much confirmed by the religion of those countries, where even Venus and Bacchus had their temples. *Bentley.*

To SENSUALIZE, *v. a.* To sink to sensual pleasures; to degrade the mind into subjection to the senses.—Not to suffer one's self to be *sensualized* by pleasures, like those who were changed into brutes by Circe. *Pope.*

SENSUALLY, *adv.* In a sensual manner.—She had lived most corruptly and *sensually*. *Id. Herbert.*

SENSUOUS, *adj.* Sensual.—The soul by this means of overbodying herself, given up to fleshly delights, bated her wing

wing apace downward; and finding the ease she had from her visible and *sensuous* colleague the body, in performance of religious duty, her pinions now broken and flagging, shifted off from herself the labour of high soaring any more. *Milton*.—Harmonious, or appealing to the sense.—To this poetry would be made precedent, as being less subtle and fine; but more simple, *sensuous* and passionate. *Milton*.

SENT. The participle passive of *sens*.

SENTENCE, *s.* [*sentence*, Fr., *sententia*, Lat.] Determination or decision, as of a judge civil or criminal.—If matter of fact breaks out with too great an evidence to be denied, why, still there are other lenitives, that friendship will apply, before it will be brought to the decretory rigours of a condemning *sentence*. *South*.—It is usually spoken of condemnation pronounced by the judge; doom.—By the consent of all laws, in capital causes, the evidence must be full and clear; and if so, where one man's life is in question, what say we to a war, which is ever the *sentence* of death upon many? *Bacon*.—A maxim; an axiom, generally moral.—An excellent spirit, knowledge, understanding, and shewing of hard *sentences* were found in Daniel. *Dan*.—A *sentence* may be defined a moral instruction couched in a few words. *Broome*.—A short paragraph; a period in writing.—A simple *sentence* has but one subject and one finite verb: a compounded *sentence* has more than one subject or one finite verb, either expressed or understood; or it consists of two or more simple *sentences* connected together. *Lowth*.

To SENTENCE, *v. a.* [*sentencier*, Fr.] To pass the last judgment on any one.

After this cold consideration, *sentence* me;
And, as you are a king, speak in your state,
What I have done that misbecame my place. *Shakspeare*.

To condemn; to doom to punishment.—Idleness, *sented* by the decurions, was punished by so many stripes. *Temple*.—To relate, or express, in a short and energetic way. *Unused*.—The best way for speech, is to be short, plain, material. Let me hear one wise man *sentence* it, rather than twenty fools, garrulous in their lengthened tale. *Feltham*.

SENTENTIAL, *adj.* Comprising sentences.—Dr. Geddes is an advocate for a translation, which is not literal or verbal, but "*sentential*;" that is, where every sentence of the English corresponds as exactly to the Hebrew as the difference of the two idioms will permit. *Abp. Newcome*.

SENTENTIOSITY, *s.* Comprehension in a sentence. *Unused*.—Vulgar precepts in morality carry with them nothing above the line, or beyond the extemporary *sententiousness* of common conceits with us. *Brown*.

SENTENTIOUS, *adj.* [*sentencieux*, Fr.] Abounding with sentences, axioms and maxims, short and energetic.—He is very swift and *sententious*. *Shakspeare*.

Eloquence, with all her pomp and charms,
Foretold us useful and *sententious* truths. *Waller*.

Comprising sentences.—The making of figures being tedious, and requiring much room, put men first upon contracting them; as by the most ancient Egyptian monuments it appears they did: next, instead of *sententious* marks, to think of verbal, such as the Chinese still retain. *Grew*.

SENTENTIOUSLY, *adv.* In short sentences; with striking brevity.—They describe her in part finely and elegantly, and in part gravely and *sententiously*: they say, look how many feathers she hath, so many eyes she hath underneath. *Bacon*.

SENTENTIOUSNESS, *s.* Pithiness of sentences; brevity with strength.—The Medea I esteem for the gravity and *sententiousness* of it, which he himself concludes to be suitable to a tragedy. *Dryden*.

SENER HARBOUR, a cove in the north-west part of Lake Winnepisegee.

SENTERY, *s.* [This is commonly written *sentry*, corrupted from *sentinel*.] One who is set to watch in a garrison, or in the outlines of an army.

What strength, what art can then
Suffice, or what evasion bear him safe
Through the strict *senteries*, and stations thick
Of angels watching round? *Milton*.

SENTIENT, *adj.* [*sentiens*, Lat.] Perceiving; having perception.—This acting of the *sentient* phantasy is performed by a presence of sense, as the horse is under the sense of hunger, and that without any formal syllogism presseth him to eat. *Hale*.

SENTIENT, *s.* He that has perception.—If the *sentient* be carried, *passibus æquis*, with the body, whose motion it would observe, supposing it regular, the remove is insensible. *Glanville*.

SENTIMENT *s.* [*sentiment*, Fr.] Opinion; properly on moral topics; but it has been carelessly used for any opinion.—The consideration of the reason, why they are annexed to so many other ideas, serving to give us due *sentiments* of the wisdom and goodness of the sovereign Disposer of all things, may not be unsuitable to the main end of these inquiries. *Locke*.

Alike to council or the assembly came,
With equal souls and *sentiments* the same. *Pope*.

A striking sentence in a composition.—Those who could no longer defend the conduct of Cato, praised the *sentiments*. *Dennis*.—Sensibility; feeling.—He pretends to and recommends *sentiment* and liberality; but I know him to be artful, close and malicious: in short, a sentimental knave. *Sheridan*.

SENTIMENTAL, *adj.* Abounding with sentiment; affecting sensibility, in a contemptuous sense.—Shall we imitate the *sentimental* and deep-searching Barrow? *Langhorne*.—Petrarch has described the perplexities of a lover's mind, and his struggles betwixt hope and despair, a subject most fertile of *sentimental* complaint, by a combination of contrarities; a species of wit highly relished by the Italians. *Warton*.

SENTIMENTALITY, *s.* Affectation of fine feeling or exquisite sensibility.—She has even the false pity and *sentimentality* of many modern ladies. *Warton*.

SENTINEL, *s.* [*sentinelle*, Fr. from *sentio*, Lat.] One who watches or keeps guard to prevent surprise.

Norfolk, hie thee to thy charge;
Use careful watch, chuse trusty *sentinels*. *Shakspeare*.

First, the two eyes, which have the seeing power,
Stand as one watchman, spy, or *sentinel*,
Being plac'd aloft, within the head's high tow'r;
And though both see, yet both but one thing tell. *Davies*.

SENTINEL, GREAT, an island in the Eastern seas, about 10 miles in circumference; 20 miles south-west from the Greater Andaman. Lat. 11. 36. N. long. 92. 40. E.

SENTINEL, LITTLE, a small island in the Eastern seas; about 8 miles from the Little Andaman. Lat. 10. 59. N. long. 92. 23. E.

SENTINO, a small river of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical States, which rises in the duchy of Urbino, and falls into the Esino.

SENTIPAC, the capital of a district of the same name, in the kingdom of Mexico, and intendency of Guadalajara. Its population consists of 58 families of Spaniards, mulattoes, and a mixed race of both, and 105 Indians.

SENTOU, a town of China, of the third rank, in Setchuen, on the river Kincha.

SENTRY, *s.* [corrupted from *sentinel*.] A watch or sentinel.

One goose they had, 'twas all they could allow,
A wakeful *sentry*, and on duty now. *Dryden*.

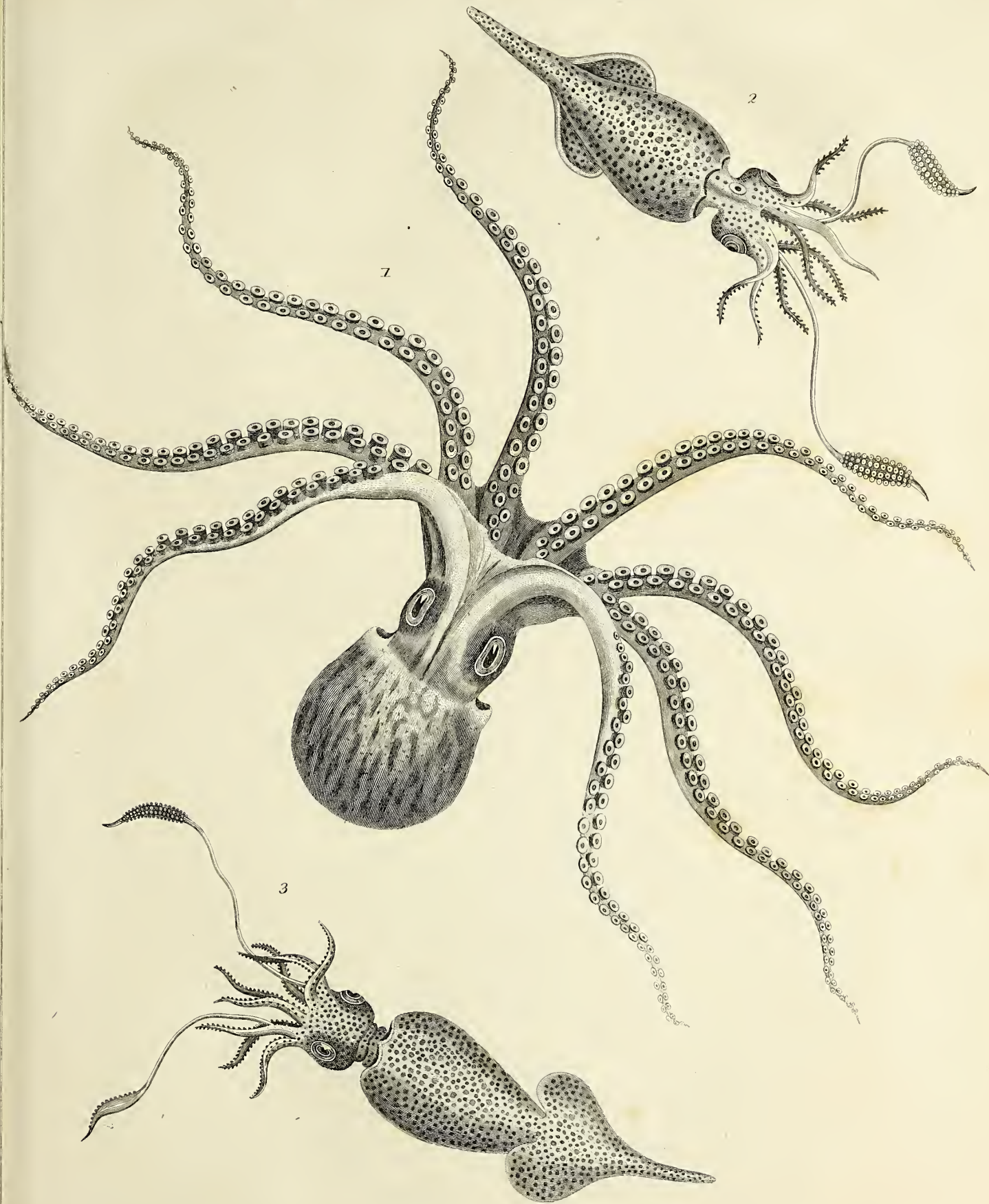
Guard; watch; the duty of a sentry.
Here toils and death, and death's half-brother, sleep,
Forms terrible to view, their *sentry* keep. *Dryden*.

SENURIS, a village of Fayoum, in Egypt, near the Birket il Cairun.

SENZARSKAIA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk; 80 miles south of Yalutorousk.

SEODA,

SEPIA.



1. *S. Octopus*. 2. under Surface of *S. media*. 3. Back of the same.

J. Pons sc.

SEODA, a sea-port on the southern coast of Nippon, in Japan; 105 miles east of Meaco.

SEOUJI KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Mongols; 23 miles south-west of Karhotun.

SEOUNY, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh, belonging to the rajah of Nagpore. Lat. 22. 4. N. long. 83. 3. E.

SEOUNY, a town of Hindostan, province of Khan-deish, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 22. 21. N. long. 77. 1. E.

SEPARABILITY, *s.* The quality of admitting disunion or discription.—*Separability* is the greatest argument of real distinction. *Glanville*.—The greatest argument of real distinction is *separability*, and actual separation; for nothing can be separated from itself. *Norris*.

SEPARABLE, *adj.* [*separable*, Fr., *separabilis*, Lat.] Susceptive of disunion; discriptible.—The infusions and decoctions of plants contain the most *separable* parts of the plants, and convey not only their nutritious but medicinal qualities into the blood. *Arbuthnot*.—Possible to be disjoined from something: with *from*.—Expansion and duration have this farther agreement, that though they are both considered by us as having parts, yet their parts are not *separable* one from another. *Locke*.

SEPARABLENESS, *s.* Capableness of being separated. *Used by Boyle*.

To SEPARATE, *v. a.* [*separo*, Lat., *separer*, Fr.] To break; to divide into parts. To disunite; to disjoin.

I'll to England.

—To Ireland, I: our *separated* fortunes
Shall keep us both the safer.

Shakspeare.

To sever from the rest.—Can a body be inflammable from which it would puzzle a chymist to *separate* an inflammable ingredient? *Boyle*.—To set apart; to segregate.—*Separate* me Barnabas and Saul, for the work whereunto I have called them. *Acts*.—David *separated* to the service those who should prophesy. *Chron*.—To withdraw.—*Separate* thyself from me: if thou wilt take the left, I will go to the right. *Gen*.

To SEPARATE, *v. n.* To part; to be disunited.—When there was not room enough for their herds to feed, they by *separate* separated, and enlarged their pasture. *Locke*.

SEPARATE, *adj.* Divided from the rest; parted from another.—'Twere hard to conceive an eternal watch, whose pieces were never *separate* one from another, nor ever in any other form. *Burnet*.—Disjointed; withdrawn.—Eve *separate* he wish'd.—Secret; secluded.

In a secret vale the Trojan sees
A *separate* grove.

Dryden.

Disunited from the body; disengaged from corporeal nature. *An emphatical sense*.—Whatever ideas the mind can receive and contemplate without the help of the body, it can retain without the help of the body too: or else the soul, or any *separate* spirit, will have but little advantage by thinking. *Locke*.

SEPARATED FLOWERS, in Botany, are so called when the stamens and pistils are situated in different flowers of the same species. Hence it appears that separated flowers are confined to such plants as are either monoecious, dioecious, or polygamous. They are termed by Linnaeus, *DICLINES*.

SEPARATELY, *adv.* Apart; singly; not in union; distinctly; particularly.—It is of singular use to princes, if they take the opinion of their council, both *separately* and together, for private opinion is more free, but opinion before others is more reserved. *Bacon*.

SEPARATENESS, *s.* The state of being separate.

SEPARATION, *s.* [*separatio*, Lat.] The act of separating; disjunction.—They have a dark opinion, that the soul doth live after the *separation* from the body. *Abbot*.—The state of being separate; disunion.—As the confusion of tongues was a mark of *separation*, so the being of one language was a mark of union. *Bacon*.—Chemical analysis,
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or the operation of disuniting things mingled.—A fifteenth part of silver, incorporate with gold, will not be recovered by any matter of *separation*, unless you put a greater quantity of silver, which is the last refuge in *separations*. *Bacon*.—Divorce; disjunction from a married state.

Did you not hear

A buzzing of a *separation*

Between the king and Catherine.

Shakspeare.

SEPARATION BAY, a bay in the straits of Magellan, on the coast of Terra del Fuego; 10 miles south-east of Cape Pillar.

SEPARATIST, *s.* [*separatiste*, Fr.] One who divides from the church; a seceder.—The anabaptists, *separatists*, and sectaries' tenets are full of schism, and inconsistent with monarchy. *Bacon*.

SEPARATOR, *s.* One who divides; a divider.

SEPARATORY, *adj.* Used in separation.—The most conspicuous gland of an animal is the system of the guts, where the lacteals are the emissary vessels, or *separatory* ducts. *Cheyne*.

SEPARATRIX, in Arithmetic, denotes the point, or comma, which separates and distinguishes decimals from integers; thus, 465,32 or 465.32.

SEPET, or CAPE DE SEPET, a promontory in the south-east of France, near Toulon, with a small fort, which defends the entrance of Toulon harbour.

SEPHIROS, a word used by Paracelsus and his followers, to express a sort of dry and hard imposthume, or kind of spurious scirrhus.

SEPHIROTH, a Hebrew word signifying *brightnesses*; and the cabalists give the name of sephiroth to the most secret parts of their science.

SEPHOURY, a village of Palestine, on the site of the ancient city of Sephor, or Sephoris, once the strongest in all this country, and the capital of Galilee. It contains the ruins of a church, and on a hill about half a mile distant, those of a castle. About a mile to the south is the fine fountain of Sephoury, probably the same where the kings of Jerusalem, during the holy war, encamped their armies, on account of the great plenty of forage and water. There is a chapel here, belonging to the Greek church; 12 miles north-west of Tabaria.

SEPHTON, a parish of England, in Lancashire; 7 miles north of Liverpool. Population 2852.

SEPIA, the Cuttle-fish, a genus of the Vermes Mollusca class and order, of which the Generic Character is as follows: the body is fleshy, receiving the breast in a sheath, with a tubular aperture at its base; it has eight arms, beset with numerous warts or suckers, and in most species two pedunculated tentacula; the head is short; the eyes large: the mouth resembling a parrot's beak.

These animals inhabit various seas, and in hot climates some of them grow to an enormous size: they are armed with a dreadful apparatus of holders furnished with suckers, by which they fasten upon and convey their prey to the mouth; they have the power of squirting out a black fluid resembling ink, and which is said to be an ingredient in the composition of Indian ink; the bone in the back is converted into pounce: the eggs are deposited upon sea-weed, and exactly resemble a bunch of grapes; at the moment the female deposits them they are white, but the males pass over them to impregnate them, and they then become black; they are round, with a little point at the end, and in each of them is enclosed a living cuttle-fish, surrounded by a gelatinous fluid. There are eight species, of which the 1st, 2d, 5th, 6th, and 7th, are natives of this country.

1. *Sepia octopus*.—The Specific Character of this species is, that the body has no tail or appendage; it has no pedunculated tentacula. It is found in the Mediterranean and Indian seas, in the latter of which it sometimes grows to a vast size; the arms are said to be eight or nine fathoms long. In these seas the Indians never venture out without hatchets in their boats, to cut off the arms, should it attempt to fasten upon them under water. This
L species

species is characterized by the shortness of the body, which is rounded behind: the arms taper to a point, joined at the base by a membrane or web, and covered within with two rows of alternate suckers. When opened this animal is said to exhibit so brilliant a light as to illuminate a large room.

2. *Sepia officinalis*.—Body without tail or appendage, and surrounded by a margin; it has two tentacula, or longer arms. This is found on our own coasts, and also in other oceans, and is frequently the prey of the whale tribe, and of plaice; its arms are frequently eaten by the conger-eel, and are reproduced; the bony scale on the back is that which is sold in the shops; and the black matter which it squirts out to darken the waters round it, and elude the pursuit of its enemies, is sometimes used as ink. The body was eaten by the ancients, and it is even now used as food by the Italians. The body of this species is ovate, the margin crenate and interrupted at the bottom; eight of the arms are short and pointed; the two tentacula are four times as long as the others; they are rounded, and the tips are very broad, and furnished within with numerous suckers.

3. *Sepia unguiculata*.—The body of this is without a tail or appendage; the arms are furnished with hooks, and it is found in the Pacific Ocean. The body is rounded behind; the arms are furnished with hooks, which are retractile within their proper sheaths instead of suckers.

4. *Sepia hexapus*.—The body of this is tailed, four or five-jointed; arms only six in number. This also is found in the Pacific Ocean. The body is about half a foot long, and the thickness of a finger; arms furnished with very minute suckers, which stick fast to whatever it fixes on.

5. *Sepia media*.—Body long, slender, cylindrical; the tail is finned, pointed, and carinate on each side; it has two long arms.—It inhabits the ocean, and in some respects it resembles the *Sepia officinalis*. The body ends in a point, and is furnished with a membrane on each side, commencing about the middle of the body.

6. *Sepia loligo*, or the Calamary.—The body of this is subcylindrical, subulate, and furnished with a flattish sharp-edged rhombic membrane at the tail on each side. This is found in divers parts of the ocean, and is from nine to twelve inches long. The body is of a reddish-brown, with two longer arms or tentacula; the eyes are of a fine blue; the cartilaginous plate or bone in the back is long, lance-shaped, and transparent; it has sometimes been placed as a species of the *pennatula*.

7. *Sepia sepiola*.—The body of this species has two rounded wings or processes behind.—It is found in the Mediterranean and European seas, and is very small. The body is short, rounded behind, with a round membrane or fin at the lower extremity; it has two long arms.

8. *Sepia tunicata*.—The body of this species is entirely enclosed in a black pellucid membrane, with two semicircular wings or processes behind.—This is an inhabitant of the Pacific Ocean. The body is very large, and is said sometimes to weigh one hundred and fifty pounds, and is convertible into palatable and pleasant food.

SEPLACE, in Italian Music, signifies that the part it is joined to may be repeated or not, at pleasure.

SEPIBILE, *adj.* [*sepio*, Lat.] That may be buried. *Unused. Bailey.*

SEPIMENT, *s.* [*sepimentum*, Lat.] A hedge; a fence. *Unused. Bailey.*—A farther testimony and *sepiment* to which, were the Samaritan, Chaldee, and Greek versions. *Lively Oracles.*

SEPINO, a small town of Italy, in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Molise, with 3300 inhabitants, and a bishop's see, now united to that of Bojano. In the neighbourhood are found the ruins of the ancient SEPINUS; 17 miles north-by-west of Benevento.

To SEPOSE, *v. a.* [*sepono*, *sepositus*, Lat.] To set apart.—God *seposed* a seventh of our time for his exterior worship. *Donne.*

SEPOSITION, *s.* [*sepono*, Lat.] The act of setting apart; segregation.—We must contend with prayer, with

actual dereliction and *seposition* of all our other affairs. *Bp. Taylor.*

SEPOURY, or SPRY, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Agra, and district of Gohud. It was taken by the British in 1781, but they were shortly after compelled to retreat. It now belongs to the Mahratta chief Sindia; it is situated 18 miles south-west of Narwa.

SEPOY, *s.* [*sipah*, Pers. an army, soldiers.] An Indian native who is a soldier in the infantry of the East-India Company.

SEPRIO, a thriving village of Austrian Italy, on the river Olona; 20 miles north-west of Milan.

SEPS, *s.* A kind of venomous eel.

SEPSI, or SCHEPSI, a district of Transylvania, in the province of the Szeklers, now united to that of Haromzek.

SEPT, *s.* [*septum*, Lat.] A clan; a race; a family; a generation. A word used generally with regard or allusion to Ireland.—The English forces were ever too weak to subdue so many warlike nations, or *septs* of the Irish as did possess this island. *Davies.*—The true and ancient Russians, a *sept* whom he had met with in one of the provinces of that vast empire, were white like the Danes. *Boyle.*

SEPTA, in Antiquity, were inclosures, or rails made of boards, through which persons went in to give their votes in the assemblies of the Romans.

SEPTALIUS, or SETTALA (Louis), an Italian physician of celebrity, was born at Milan, in February, 1552. He evinced from his early childhood, a strong inclination to the pursuits of literature, and at the age of sixteen defended some theses on the subject of natural philosophy with an acuteness of reasoning far above his years, and which excited the surprise of the audience, among whom was the archbishop of Milan. It was now supposed that he would follow the steps of his ancestors, both maternal and paternal, who had been much distinguished at the bar; but his inclination led him to the medical profession, and he accordingly repaired to Pavia, for the purpose of commencing the study of it. Here he proceeded with the same success, and obtained the degree of doctor in his 21st year, and was even appointed to a chair in this celebrated university in his 23d year. In his professorial capacity, though so young, he gave so many demonstrations of his talents and acquirements, that he soon became known to the most distinguished men of his time. Nevertheless, at the end of four years from the time of his appointment, he determined to relinquish the professorial dignity, for the purpose of exercising his medical skill in his native city. Though Philip III., king of Spain, selected him for his historiographer, the elector of Bavaria invited him to a professorship in the university of Ingoldstadt; the grand duke of Pisa, to a chair at that place; the city of Bologna to a similar appointment in their schools; and the senate of Venice by still more considerable offers both of honour and reward laboured assiduously to bring him to the university of Padua. He declined all these opportunities of elevation, content with the esteem and affection of his fellow-citizens. The only honour which he accepted was the appointment of chief physician to the state of Milan, which Philip IV. conferred upon him in 1627, as a reward for his virtues and talents. In the year 1628, the plague visited Milan. Septalius gave all the aid in his power to his fellow-citizens, and in the midst of his labours to alleviate the distresses occasioned by this fatal calamity, he was himself seized with the disease. He had scarcely recovered from this attack, when he was suddenly surprised by a fit of apoplexy, which left him speechless, and paralytic on one side. From this, however, he in a great measure recovered, and lived several years afterwards, but in a state of feebleness and imperfect health. He died in September 1633, in consequence of an attack of dysentery, at the age of 81. Septalius was a man of acute powers and solid judgment, and was reputed extremely successful in his practice. He was warmly attached to the doctrines of Hippocrates, whose works he never ceased to study. He was author of the following works: "In Librum Hippocratis Cui, de Aeribus, Aquis, et Locis Commentarii

Commentarii quinque," 1590; "In Aristotelis Problemata Commentaria Latina," tom. i. 1602, ii. 1607; "De Nævis Liber," 1006. "Animadversionum et Cautionum Medicarum Libri duo, septem aliis additi," 1629. This is a valuable work, the result of 40 years of practice, and equal to any of its contemporaries of the 17th century. "De Margaritis Judicium," 1618; "De Peste et Pestiferis Affectibus Libri V." 1622; "Analyticarum et Animasticarum Dissertationum Libri II." 1626; "De Morbis ex mucronata Cartilagine evenientibus, Liber unus," 1632, &c. *Eloy*. *Dict. Hist. de la Médecine.*

SEPTANA, a word used by the ancient physicians for a septenary fever, or one that performs its regular period in seven days.

SEPTANGULAR, *adj.* [*septum* and *angulus*, Latin.] Having seven corners or sides.

SEPTARIÆ, the name of a large class of fossils, called by some *ludus Helmontii*, and by others the *waxen veins*. They are defined to be fossile bodies not inflammable, nor soluble in water, naturally found in loose detached masses of a moderately firm texture and dusky hue, divided by several septa, or thin partitions, and composed of a sparry matter greatly debased by earth, not giving fire with steel, fermenting with acids, and in great part dissolved by them, and calcining in a moderate fire.

SEPTAS [from *septem*: the number seven prevailing in the fructification], in Botany, a genus of the class heptandria, order heptagynia, natural order of succulentæ, sempervivæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth seven parted, spreading, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals seven, oblong, equal, twice as long as the calyx. Stamina: filaments seven, awl-shaped, length of the calyx. Anthers subovate, erect. Pistil: germs seven, oblong, ending in awl-shaped styles, the length of the stamens. Stigmas bluntish. Pericarp: capsules seven, oblong, acute, parallel, one-valved. Seeds very many.—*Essential Character*. Calyx seven-parted. Petals seven. Germs seven. Capsules seven, many-seeded.

Septas Capensis, or round-leaved septas.—Leaves radical, four, blunt, crenate; opposite, subpetioled, roundish. Scape filiform, naked, terminated by a simple umbel, composed of seven or eight filiform, one-flowered, naked peduncles, with a very small involucret. In the natural orders it approaches to saxifraga and sedum.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

SEPTEMBER, *s.* [Latin; *Septembre*, Fr.] The ninth month of the year; the seventh from March.—*September* hath his name as being the seventh month from March: he is drawn with a merry and cheerful countenance, in a purple robe. *Peacham*.

The Roman senate would have given this month the name of *Tiberius*, but that emperor opposed it; the emperor Domitian gave it his own name *Germanicus*; the senate under Antoninus Pius gave it that of *Antoninus*; Commodus gave it his surname *Herculeus*, and the emperor Tacitus his own name *Tacitus*. But these appellations are all gone into disuse.

SEPTENARY, *adj.* [*septenarius*, Lat.] Consisting of seven.—Every controversy has seven questions belonging to it; tho' the order of nature seems too much neglected by a confinement to this *septenary* number. *Watts*.

SEPTENARY, *s.* The number seven.—The days of men are cast up by *septenaries*, and every seventh year conceived to carry some altering character in temper of mind or body. *Brown*.

SEPTENNIAL, *adj.* [*septennis*, Lat.] Lasting seven years.—The dreadful disorders of frequent elections have also necessitated a *septennial* instead of a triennial duration of parliaments. *Burke*.—Happening once in seven years.—Being once dispensed with for his *septennial* visit, by a holy instrument from Petropolis, he resolved to govern them by subaltern ministers. *Howell*.

SEPTE'NTRION, *s.* [French; *septentrio*, Lat.] The north.

Thou art as opposite to every good,
As the antipodes are unto us,
Or as the south to the *septentrion*.

Shakspeare.

SEPTE'NTRION, or SEPTE'NTRIONAL, *adj.* [*septentrionalis*, Latin; *septentrional*, Fr.] Northern.

Back'd with a ridge of hills,
That screen'd the fruits of th' earth and seats of men
From cold *septentrion* blasts.

Milton.

If the Spring
Preceding should be destitute of rain,
Or blast *septentrional* with brushing wings
Sweep up the smoaky mists and vapours damp,
Then woe to mortals.

Philips.

SEPTE'NTRIONALITY, *s.* Northerliness.

SEPTE'NTRIONALLY, *adv.* Towards the north; northerly.

To SEPTE'NTRIONATE, *v. n.* [from *septentrio*, Lat.] To tend northerly.—Steel and good iron, never excited by the loadstone, *septentrionate* at one extreme, and australize at another. *Brown*.

SEPTEONS, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Tarn and Garonne, with 1000 inhabitants.

SEPTERION, [*Σεπτεριον*, Gr.] in Antiquity, a Delphic festival, celebrated every ninth year, in memory of Apollo's victory over Python. The chief part of the solemnity was a representation of Python pursued by Apollo.

SEPTICAL, or Σεπτικ, *adj.* [*σηπτικός*, Gr., *septique*, Fr.] Having power to promote or produce putrefaction.—As a *septical* medicine, Galen commended the ashes of a salamander. *Brown*.

SEPTICS, among Physicians, an appellation given to all such medicines as promote putrefaction.

From the many curious experiments made by Dr. Pringle to ascertain the septic and antiseptic virtues of natural bodies, it appears that there are very few substances of a truly septic nature even on the dead body; and as there is never any putrefaction in the living body it is clear that all such medicines are deceipts.

SEPTIER, or SETIER, a French measure, differing according to the species of the things measured.

For dry measure, the septier is very different in different places and different commodities; as not being any vessel of measure, but only an estimation of several other measures.

The septier is also a liquid measure at Paris and in other parts of France, and at Geneva. A muid of wine at Paris and in some other parts of France, contains 36 septiers, or 71½ English gallons.

At Geneva, the septier is = about 12 English gallons.

SEPTILATERAL, *adj.* [*septem* and *lateris*, Lat.] Having seven sides.—By an equal interval they make seven triangles, the bases whereof are the seven sides of a *septilateral* figure, described within a circle. *Brown*.

SEPTIMONTIUM, among the Romans, a festival celebrated in December, on all the seven hills of Rome; whence also it had this name, being otherwise called *Agoualia*.

SEPTIZON, or SEPTIZONIUM, in the Ancient Architecture, a term almost appropriated to a famous mausoleum of the family of the Antonines, which, Aur. Victor tells us, was built in the tenth region of the city of Rome, being a large insulated building, with seven stages or stories of columns.

SEPTUAGENARY, *adj.* [*septuagenarius*, Lat., *septuagenaire*, Fr.] Consisting of seventy.—The three hundred years of John of times, or Nestor, cannot afford a reasonable encouragement beyond Moses's *septuaginary* determination. *Brown*.

SEPTUAGE'SIMA, *s.* [Lat.] The third Sunday before Lent.

SEPTUAGE'SIMAL, *adj.* [*septuagesimus*, Lat.] Consisting of seventy.—In our abridged and *septuagesimal* age, it is very rare to behold the fourth generation. *Brown*.

SEPTUAGINT,

SEPTUAGINT, *s.* [*septuaginta*, Lat.] The old Greek version of the Old Testament, so called as being supposed the work of seventy-two interpreters.—Which way soever you try, you shall find the product great enough for the extent of this earth; and if you follow the *septuagint* chronology, it will still be far higher. *Burnet*.

SEPTUM, in Anatomy, a name applied to various parts of the body; generally such as separate contiguous cavities. The SEPTUM *Auricularum* in the heart is placed between the two auricles. SEPTUM *Cerebri* and *Cerebelli*, the falci-form processes of the dura mater, &c.

SEPTUPLE, *adj.* [*septuplex*, Lat.] Seven times as much. *A technical term*.

SEPU, a village of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas; 40 miles south-east of Sivas.

SEPU'LCHRAL, *adj.* [*sepulchral*, Fr.; *sepulchralis*, from *sepulchrum*, Lat.] Relating to burial; relating to the grave; monumental.

Sepulchral lies our holy walls to grace,
And new-year odes.

Pope.

SE'PULCHRE, *s.* [*sepulcre*, Fr.; *sepulchrum*, Lat.] A grave; a tomb.

To entail him and his heirs unto the crown,
What is it but to make thy *sepulchre*? *Shakspeare.*

Flies and spiders get a *sepulchre* in amber, more durable than the monument and embalming of any king. *Bacon.*

To SE'PULCHRE, *v. a.* [accented on the second syllable by Shakspeare and Milton.] To bury; to entomb.

Go to thy lady's grave, and call her thence;
Or, at the least, in her's *sepulchre* thine. *Shakspeare.*

I am glad to see that time survive,
When merit is not *sepulchre'd* alive;
Where good men's virtues them to honours bring,
And not to dangers. *B. Jonson.*

Thou so *sepulchre'd* in such pomp do'st lie,
That kings for such a tomb would wish to die. *Milton.*

Disparted streams shall from their channels fly,
And, deep surcharg'd, by sandy mountains lie,
Obscurely *sepulchre'd*. *Prior.*

SEPULTURE, *s.* [*sepulture*, Fr.; *sepultura*, Lat.] Interment; burial.—In England *sepulture*, or burial of the dead, may be deferred and put off for the debts of the person deceased. *Ayliffe*.

SEPULVEDA, a small town of Spain, in Old Castile, province of Segovia, on a height near the river Duraton. It contains 1600 inhabitants, and the environs produce quantities of flax and hemp; 24 miles east-north-east of Segovia.

SEQUA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*sequacis*, Lat.] Following; attendant.—Rather a *sequacious* and credulous easiness. *Bp. Taylor.*

Orpheus could lead the savage race,
And trees uprooted left their place,
Sequacious of the lyre;
But bright Cecilia rais'd the wonder higher:
When to her organ vocal breath was giv'n,
An angel heard and straight appear'd,
Mistaking earth for heaven. *Dryden.*

Ductile; pliant.—In the greater bodies the forge was easy, the matter being ductile and *sequacious*, and obedient to the hand and stroke of the artificer, and apt to be drawn, formed, or moulded. *Ray*.

SEQUA'CIOUSNESS, *s.* State of being sequacious.—That servility and *sequaciousness* of conscience. *Bp. Taylor.*

SEQUA'CITY, *s.* [*sequax*, Lat.] Ductility; toughness.—Matter, whereof creatures are produced, hath a closeness, lenter, and *sequacity*. *Bacon*.—Act of following.—Liberty of judgment seemeth almost lost either in lazy or blind *sequacity* of other men's votes. *Whitlock*.

SEQUATCHEE, a river of the United States, in Tennessee, which rises in Bledsoe county, runs south-west, passing through the western part of the Cherokee country, and flows into the Tennessee.

SEQUATUR *sub suo periculo*, a writ that lies, when a *summons ad warrantandum* is awarded, and the sheriff returns that the party hath nothing by which he may be summoned: then goes forth an *alias* and a *pluries*; and if he comes not on the *pluries*, this writ shall issue.

SE'QUEL, *s.* [*sequela*, Fr.; *sequela*, Lat.] Conclusion; succeeding part.—Consequence inferred.—Was he not a man of wisdom? Yes, but he was poor: but was he not also successful? True, but still he was poor: grant this, and you cannot keep off that unavoidable *sequel* in the next verse, the poor man's wisdom is despised. *South*.—Consequence; event.

In these he put two weights,
The *sequel* each of parting and of fight. *Milton.*

What *sequel* is there in this argument? An archdeacon is the chief deacon: ergo, he is only a deacon. *Whitgift*.

SE'QUENCE, *s.* [*sequence*, old Fr., from *sequor*, Lat.] Order of succession.

How art thou a king,
But by fair *sequence* and succession? *Shakspeare.*

The inevitable *sequences* of sin and punishment. *Bp. Hall*.—Series; arrangement; method.—The cause proceedeth from a precedent *sequence*, and series of the seasons of the year. *Bacon*.

SE'QUENT, *adj.* [*sequent*, old Fr.; *sequens*, Lat.] Following; succeeding.

Let my tryal be mine own confession:
Immediate sentence then, and *sequent* death,
Is all the grace I beg. *Shakspeare.*

Either I am
The forehorse in the team, or I am none
That draw i' the *sequent* trace. *Beaum. and Fl.*

There he dies, and leaves his race
Growing into a nation; and now grown
Suspected to a *sequent* king, who seeks
To stop their overgrowth. *Milton.*

Consequential.
SE'QUENT, *s.* A follower. *Not in use*.—Here he hath framed a letter to a *sequent* of the stranger queen's, which accidentally miscarried. *Shakspeare*.

To SEQUE'STER, *v. a.* [*sequestrer*, Fr.; *secrestar*, Spanish; *sequestro*, low Lat.] To separate from others for the sake of privacy.

To the which place a poor *sequester'd* stag,
That from the hunter's aim had ta'en a hurt,
Did come to languish. *Shakspeare.*

In shady bowers,
More sacred and *sequester'd*, though but feign'd,
Pan or Sylvanus never slept. *Milton.*

To put aside; to remove.—Although I had wholly *sequestered* my civil affairs, yet I set down, out of experience in business, and conversation in books, what I thought pertinent to this affair. *Bacon*.—To withdraw; to segregate.—A thing as seasonable in grief as in joy, as decent being added unto actions of greatest weight and solemnity, as being used when most *sequester* themselves from action. *Hooker*.—To set aside from the use of the owner to that of others: as, his annuity is *sequestered* to pay his creditors.—To deprive of possessions.—It was his taylor and his cook, his fine fashions and his French ragou's, which *sequestred* him; and, in a word, he came by his poverty as sinfully as some usually do by their riches. *South*.

To SEQUE'STER, *v. n.* To withdraw; to retire.—To *sequester* out of the world into Atlantic and Eutopian politics, which can never be drawn into use, will not mend our condition. *Milton*.

SEQUE'STRABLE, *adj.* Subject to privation.—Capable

pable of separation.—Hartshorn, and divers other bodies belonging to the animal kingdom, abound with a not uneasily sequestrable salt. *Boyle.*

To SEQUESTRATE, *v. n.* To sequester; to separate.—In general contagions more perish for want of necessaries than by the malignity of the disease, they being sequestrated from mankind. *Arbutnot.*

SEQUESTRATION, *s.* [*sequestration*, Fr.] Separation; retirement.

His addiction was to courses vain,
I never noted him in any study,
Any retirement, any sequestration
From open haunts and popularity.

Shakspeare.

There must be leisure, retirement, solitude, and a sequestration of a man's self from the noise of the world; for truth scorns to be seen by eyes much fixt upon inferior objects. *South.*—Disunion; disjunction.—The metals remain unsevered, the fire only dividing the body into smaller particles, hindering rest and continuity, without any sequestration of elementary principles. *Boyle.*—State of being set aside.

Since Henry Monmouth first began to reign,
Before whose glory I was great in arms,
This loathsome sequestration have I had.

Shakspeare.

Deprivation of the use and profits of a possession.—If there be a single spot in the glebe more barren, the rector or vicar may be obliged, by the caprice or pique of the bishop, to build upon it, under pain of sequestration. *Swift.*

SEQUESTRATOR, *s.* One who takes from a man the profit of his possessions.—I am fallen into the hands of publicans and sequestrators, and they have taken all from me. *Bp. Taylor.*—By their sequestrators, men for the most part of insatiable hands and noted disloyalty, those orders were commonly disobeyed. *Milton.*—We have complained of armies, committees, sequestrators, triers, and decimators. *South.*

SEQUESTRO HABENDO, a writ judicial for the discharging a sequestration of the profits of a church benefice, granted by the bishop at the king's commandment, in order to compel the parson to appear at the suit of another. The parson, upon his appearance, may have this writ for the release of the sequestration.

SEQUIN, ZECAIN, or *Zeechino*, a gold coin struck at Venice, Genoa, Rome, Milan, Piedmont and Tuscany, and in several parts of the grand signior's states.

SEQUIN, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 105 miles south of Konieh.

SERA, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore, and capital of a district of the same name. Little rain is said to fall in this district, on which account the cultivation is inferior to that of other places. This town was taken by the Mahometans in 1664, and became afterwards the residence of a military collector belonging to the Nizam; but it frequently changed masters. It was taken by Hyder Aly in 1761; subsequently to that period by the Mahrattas; and afterwards in 1773 by Hyder again. By the war of 1799 it came into possession of the British, and was made over to the rajah of Mysore, as part of his territory. Lat. 13. 37. N. long. 76. 55. E.

SERAB, a village of Aderbijan, in Persia; 15 miles east of Tabreez.

SERACH, in the Turkish Military Orders, an officer who holds the stirrup of the caia of the janizaries in charge, attends him when he goes out on horseback, and serves him as a messenger on all occasions. After this office he has the title of *chous*; and after he has passed through this, he has the same office under the aga of the janizaries. *Pocoeke's Egypt.*

SERACORRO, a town of Bambara, in Central Africa; 80 miles west-north-west of Sego.

SERAES, or SERKAS, a town of Korassan, in Persia; 180 miles north north-west of Herat.

SERA'GLIO, *s.* [Italian, is derived from the Persian *serai*, a large hall or house: the French *serrail*, was formed.] Vol. XXIII. No. 1553.

merly our word, and not the Italian *serraglio*. "I could adde much more concerning the enormities of Rome, and your *serrail*." Sheldon, Mir. of Antiehr. 1616. "In that stately *serail* he discerned a prince." Situation of Parad. 1683. Cotgrave renders *serrail*, "the palace wherein the Great Turke mueth up his concubines." A house of women kept in the East for debauchery.—There is a great deal more solid content to be found in a constant course of well living, than in the voluptuousness of a *seraglio*. *Norris.*

SERAGLIO, formed of the Turkish word *serai*, which is borrowed from the Persian *seraw*, signifying a house, among the Levantines denotes the palace of a prince or lord.

At Constantinople they say, the seraglio of the ambassador of England, of France, &c.

The seraglio is used, by way of eminence, for the palace of the grand seignior at Constantinople, where he keeps his court, and where his concubines are lodged, and where the youth are trained up for the chief posts of the empire.

It is a triangle about three Italian miles round, wholly within the city, at the end of the promontory Chrysoceras, now called the Seraglio Point. The buildings run back to the top of the hill, and from thence are gardens that reach to the edge of the sea. It is inclosed with a very high and strong wall, upon which there are several watch towers: and it has many gates, some of which open towards the sea-side, and the rest into the city: but the chief gate is one of the latter, which is constantly guarded by a company of capoochees, or porters; and in the night it is well guarded towards the sea.

The outward appearance, du Loir tells us, is not beautiful, in regard the architecture is irregular, being cantoned out into separate edifices and apartments, in manner of pavilions and domes.

The old seraglio is the place where the emperor's old mistresses, who have died or who have been deposed, and the sultanas that have belonged to the deceased grand seigniors, are kept.

They are here fed and maintained with some luxury, and served with much attention, but they can no longer go out of this place of retirement.

The *harem* is that quarter of the seraglio in which the females are kept. This is soon replenished, because traders come from all parts to offer young slaves, and the pachas and great men are eager to present beauties capable of fixing the attention of the sovereign; thus hoping to obtain instantly his good graces, and place about his person the women who at some future time may be useful to them.

It is very difficult, and perhaps impossible, to learn exactly the manner in which the female slaves are treated in the harem of the grand seignior: never has the eye of the observer penetrated into this abode of hatred, jealousy and pride; into this abode where pleasure and love have so seldom resided. But, according to the account of the women, whose profession calls them thither, the reader may represent to himself three or four hundred black eunuchs, malicious, peevish, tormented by their impotence, cursing their nullity, endeavouring to counteract the female slaves intrusted to their charge; then a considerable number of young women, whose hearts would willingly expand, whose senses are moved at the idea of the pleasures which they wish in vain to know, jealous of the happiness which they are persuaded that their rivals enjoy, cursing the overseers who perplex them, solely taken up with their toilet, with their dress and with all the nonsense which idleness and ignorance can suggest to them; seeking, rather from vanity than from love, every means of pleasing a master, too frequently disdainful. We may represent to ourselves, in short, a sultan, young or old, mastered by ridiculous prejudices, without delicacy, often whimsical or capricious, alone in the midst of five or six hundred women, all equally beautiful, in whom he gives birth to desires which he is unable to gratify, who enjoys with them no pleasures but such as are too easy and without prelude, in which the heart has no share, and we shall

shall have a true idea of what passes in the harem of the grand seignior.

The chief of the black eunuchs, called *kistar-aga*, is one of the greatest personages of the empire: he it is who carries to the female slaves the will of his master: he it is who announces to them the happiness which they have to please him. Independently of the authority which he exercises in the harem, he has the superintendance of all the imperial mosques; he is charged with the general administration of all the pious foundations which relate to them; he has the pre-eminence over the chief of the white eunuchs, and, what is more flattering to a slave, he more frequently approaches his master, and more commonly enjoys his confidence. His income is very considerable.

The *keasne-vekili* is the second eunuch of the seraglio; he replaces the *kistar-aga*, when he dies, or is turned out of office. He has the general administration of the interior imperial treasure, which must be distinguished from the private treasure of the grand seignior, administered by the *khasnadar-aga*, one of the pages of confidence. There are some other eunuchs raised in dignity, such as he who belongs to the queen-mother, he to whom the care of the princes is entrusted, those who serve the royal mosque of the sultana Validai, whither the slaves of the grand seignior go to say their prayers; he who has the particular superintendance of the apartment of the *hasseke*; and a few others whose functions are less important.

The white eunuchs do not approach the women: they are employed out of the harem, and in the particular service of the sultan.

Balzac observes, that the seraglio at Constantinople is only a copy of that which Solomon anciently built at Jerusalem, for his wives and concubines. For a particular description of the seraglio, see Greave's Works.

SERAGLIO. See BOSNA SERAJO.

SERAI, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 24 miles east of Castamena.

SERAI, a village of the desert of Syria; 30 miles east of Aleppo.

SERAING, a very large village of the Netherlands, on the Maese, with 2000 inhabitants. Here is a castle belonging to the bishop of Liege, and a number of villas; 3 miles south of Liege.

SERAMICA, or SURAMACA, a large river of South America, which rises in the mountains of Guiana, and, after a winding course of about 100 miles, falls into the Atlantic Ocean. It is from two to four miles broad, and is much encumbered with shallows, rocks and falls, so that it is hardly navigable for vessels of any burden.

SERAMPEI, a country or district in the interior of the island of Sumatra, bounded on the north and north-west by Korinchi, on the east, south-east, and south, by Pakalang, Jambee, and Sungei-tenang; and on the west and south-west by the greater Ayer Dikit river, and chain of high mountains bordering on the Sungei-ipu country. It comprehends 15 fortified and independent villages, besides talangs, or small open ones. Their intrenchments consist of large trees laid horizontally between stakes driven into the ground, about seven feet high, and six feet thick, with loopholes for firing through. The inhabitants further defend themselves by planting *ranjaus*, which are small sharp pointed rods in the paths, and carefully concealed, which wound the feet in a distressing manner. They decapitate the bodies of their enemies, stick the heads on poles, and address abusive language to them. Those taken alive are made slaves. In general the inhabitants seem to be quiet and inoffensive. The women are ugly, and their manners are uncouth. These people are apparently very strong, being capable of carrying heavy loads during journeys of 20 or 30 days. They acknowledge themselves the subjects of the sultan of Jambec, who sometimes, but rarely, exacts a tribute from each village, of a buffalo, a tail of gold, and an hundred bamboos of rice. This country produces cocoa nuts and cassia, which latter is to be obtained in quantities. The rhinoceros is common, and in the woods are myriads

of small insects, described to be leeches, which, dropping from the leaves, immediately fix on the skin, and there gorge themselves with blood. They do not exceed an inch in length, and are as slender as a needle; therefore they can penetrate any part of the clothes, and travellers must sometimes strip, and go into the water in order to wash them off. Part of Serampey is hilly; it is intersected by several rivers, and contains hot springs, near which columns of smoke are seen to issue from the earth. The inhabitants are Mahometans.

SERAMPORE, a town of Bengal, belonging to the Danes. It is pleasantly situated on the western bank of the Bhaggarutty or Hoogly river; 12 miles north of Calcutta. Its territory extends about a mile along the river, by half a mile in breadth. The houses are built of brick, plastered with mortar, and have flat roofs, with balconies and Venetian windows, but few of them are more than two stories high. There is a handsome church, and a battery of twelve pieces of cannon near the flag-staff, but the town is not fortified. It carries on a trifling trade with Europe, China, &c., but is principally supported by the missionaries, and British subjects who take refuge here from their creditors. About the year 1676 the Danes obtained this situation for their factory, from the Nabob Shaista Khan, who gave great countenance to European and other merchants, and encouraged them to settle in the vicinity of Hoogly. During the short war with the Danes, it was taken possession of by the British, but soon after restored. Lat. 22. 45. N. long. 88. 26. E. There are several other places of this name in Hindostan, called after Siri Ram, one of the Hindoo deities.

SERAN, a small river of Savoy, which rises near Chamberri, and joins the Rhone above Seissel.

SERANGANI, a cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas, situated about five leagues from the southern extremity of Magindanao, and between the 5th and 6th degrees of north latitude. There are three principal islands; the largest, named Hummock, is about 30 miles, and the next in size about 25 miles in circumference. There is also another of inferior dimensions. This island, which is the most westerly, is very high, making a sugar loaf. Its north coast is bold. It is well cultivated, and is called Belk. It produces most of the tropical fruits, and also rice, sugar-canes, pine-apples, mangoes, sour oranges, limes, jacks, plantains, cocoa-nuts, sago, sweet potatoes, tobacco, Indian corn and honey. The eastern has not near so good an appearance, neither are there any cocoa-nut trees to be seen on it, though they are so numerous on the western island. These islands abound in refreshments, with which they abundantly supply the ships that pass by them. The articles most in request among the natives are white or printed cottons, such as loose gowns or jackets, coloured handkerchiefs, clasp-knives, razors, and bar iron. Metal buttons are also much in demand, and a coat is soon stripped. The inhabitants speak the same language, and are of the same description, as those on the sea coast of Magindanao, being complete Malays, both in appearance and disposition. They have canoes, and also larger boats, armed with small brass cannon, and, like the other natives of the eastern isles, are much addicted to piracy. Their prows are covered with an awning of split bamboos, and can conceal a great many men. The Dutch East India Company claimed a sovereignty over these islands, but do not appear to have exercised any of its functions, or established any settlement on them.

SERANGODES, a word used originally as an epithet for the pumice-stone, and expressing cavernous, spongy, or full of holes. It has been hence applied to sinuous ulcers, and to all sorts of things that are cavernous, or of a spongy texture.

SERAPH, *s.* [שרפ, Heb.] One of the orders of angels.

As full, as perfect in vile man that mourns,
As the wrapt *seraph* that adores and burns.

Pope.

SERAPH is also said to be the name of a Turkish gold coin, worth about 5s. sterling.

SERAPH'S HEAD, in Heraldry, is used to denote a child's

child's head, with three pair of wings, viz., two in chief, two in fesse, and two in base.

SERA'PHIC, or SERA'PHICAL, *adj.* Angelic; angelical.—Love is curious of little things, desiring to be of angelical purity, of perfect innocence, and *seraphical* fervour. *Bp. Taylor*.—*Seraphic* arms and trophies. *Milton*.—Pure; refined from sensuality.

'Tis to the world a secret yet,
Whether the nymph, to please her swain,
Talks in a high romantic strain;
Or whether he at last descends
To like with less *seraphic* ends.

Swift.

SERAPHIM, *s.* [This is properly the plural of *seraph*, and therefore cannot have *s* added; yet, in compliance with our language, *seraphims* is sometimes written.] Angels of one of the heavenly orders.—To thee cherubim and *seraphims* continually do cry. *Com. Prayer*.—Then flew one of the *seraphims* unto me, having a live coal in his hand. *Isa*.—Of *seraphim* another row. *Milton*.

SERAPHIM, ORDER OF, in Heraldry, otherwise sur-named of *Jesus*, was instituted in Sweden, in 1334, by Magnus II. king of Sweden, in memory of the siege of the metropolitan city of Upsal.

SERAPIAS [from *serapis*, one of the Egyptian idols], in Botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order diandria, natural order of orchideae.—Generic Character. Calyx: spathes wandering. Spadix simple. Perianth none. Corolla: petals five, ovate-oblong, from erect patulous, converging upwards. Nectary, length of the petals, excavated at the base, melliferous, ovate, gibbous below, trifid, acute: the middle segment cordate, obtuse, three-toothed at the base with a bifid scar. Stamina: filaments two, very short, placed on the pistil. Anthers erect, under the upper lip of the nectary. Pistil: germ oblong, contorted, inferior. Style growing to the upper lip of the nectary. Stigma obsolete. Pericarp: capsule obovate, bluntly three-cornered, with three keels adjoined, three-valved, opening under the keels, one celled. Seeds numerous, sawdust-form. Receptacle linear, adjoined to each valve of the pericarp.—*Essential Character*. Nectary ovate, gibbous, with an ovate lip.

1. *Serapias latifolia*, or broad leaved helleborine.—Roots creeping; perennial, leaves ovate, embracing, flowers drooping, lip entire, pointed, shorter than the petals.—Native of Europe, in woods, groves and hedges: flowering in July and August.

2. *Serapias palustris*, or marsh helleborine.—Roots creeping; leaves lanceolate, embracing, flowers drooping, lip crenate, obtuse, equal to the petals.—Native of Europe, in swampy meadows, watery places, marshes, morasses and bogs.

3. *Serapias ensifolia*, or sword-leaved helleborine.—Root fibrous, leaves sword-shaped, bractes much shorter than the germ, flowers erect, lip obtuse, half as long as the petals.—Native of several parts of Europe.

4. *Serapias grandiflora*, or white helleborine.—Root creeping, leaves elliptic-lanceolate, bractes longer than the germ, flowers erect, lip obtuse, rather shorter than the petals.—Native of Europe in woods and thickets.

5. *Serapias nivea*, or snowy helleborine.—Leaves lanceolate, flowers loosely racemed, erect, bractes very small, lip obtuse, twice as short as the petals.—Native of Algiers, on hills.

6. *Serapias polystachya*, or many-spiked helleborine.—Roots fibrous, stem subdivided, jointed, leaves oblong-lanceolate, raceme compound, terminating, lip of the nectary ovate, recurved.—Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola.

7. *Serapias flava*, or yellow helleborine.—Roots fibrous, stem subdivided, jointed, leaves oblong-lanceolate, racemes compound axillary, lip of the nectary erect, acuminate.—Native of Jamaica.

8. *Serapias rubra*, or purple helleborine.—Root creeping, leaves lanceolate, bractes longer than the germ, flowers erect, lip acute, marked with waving lines.—Native of Europe.

9. *Serapias Lingua*, or narrow-leaved helleborine.—Bulbs roundish, lip of the nectary trifid, acuminate, smooth, longer than the petals.—Native of France, Switzerland, Carniola, Italy and Africa near Algiers.

10. *Serapias cordigera*, or heart-lipped helleborine.—Bulbs roundish, lip of the nectary trifid, acuminate, very large bearded at the base.—Native of Spain, Italy, the Levant and Africa, about Algiers: flowering early in the spring.

11. *Serapias Capensis*, or Cape helleborine.—Leaves conduplicate-ensiform, stem almost naked above, sheaths spatheous.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

12. *Serapias erecta*, or upright helleborine.—Leaves ovate, embracing, flowers erect.—Native of Japan.

13. *Serapias falcata*, or sickle-leaved helleborine.—Leaves ensiform, convoluted, sickle-form, flowers erect.—Native of Japan, on the mountain Fakona: flowering in April.

14. *Serapias regularis*.—Bulbs ovate, fibrous, leaves sheathing ensiform, keeled, scape erect, spiked, corollas six-petalled.—Native of New Zealand.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants being difficult to preserve and propagate, few have attempted to keep them in gardens. They may be taken up from the places where they grow naturally when their leaves begin to decay, and planted in a shady moist place, where they will thrive and flower.

SERAPIS, in Mythology, an Egyptian deity, who was worshipped under various names and attributes, as the tutelary god of Egypt in general, and as the patron of several of their principal cities.

SERAVALLE, a town in the east of Austrian Italy, in the district of Treviso, on the small river Mischio, with a population of 5000. It has manufactures of woollen and silk stuffs, and carries on a brisk trade with Germany; 20 miles east-by-north of Asolo.

SERAVALLE, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in the Sardinian part of the Milanese, on the Scrivia. It is slightly fortified, and has a population of 2400; 18 miles north of Genoa.

SERAVEZZA, a hill of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical States, near Carrara, remarkable for its beautiful marble, which is variegated with white and purple.

SERAVI, a village of Egypt, on the Eastern branch of the Nile; 21 miles north of Cairo.

SERARWA, a town of Abyssinia, in the province of Avergale, on a sandy plain.

SERASKER, a Turkish word, composed of *ser*, which in Persian signifies head, and *asker*, i. e. soldiers. This is a military degree, that admits of no superior, somewhat like generalissimo, and is a title given to those who command on the frontiers, or are detached with a considerable body of troops.

SERASS, in Ornithology, a bird of the genus *COLUMBA*, which comes yearly to Surat, in the East Indies, from Mount Caucasus, and is distinguished by a plication of the *asperia arteria*.

SERAVAN, in Ornithology, the name given by Buffon to the *LOXIA Astrild*; which see.

SERAWOOLLIES, a people of Gallam, in Central Africa, called by the French Saracolets. They are black as jet, active and intelligent. The trade of this part of Africa is entirely in their hands, and they are every way fitted for conducting it. Mr. Park says, they are tolerably fair in their dealings, though fond of money, esteeming a man almost wholly in proportion to the amount of his property. Saugnier, however, cautions those who deal with them, to carry on their transactions in a room cleared of all property, otherwise it would run an imminent risk of disappearing. They are also very jealous of the respect paid to them, and expect that, while present, they shall be the exclusive object of attention. Their language is less harmonious than that of the Foulahs, but is generally spoken in this part of the continent.

SERBADJE, a village of Egypt, on the eastern bank of the Nile; 20 miles north of Cairo.

SERBAH,

SERBAH, a village of Mekran, in Persia; 50 miles north-north-west of Kej.

SERBAJEE, in the Eastern military Orders, is a captain in the horse, in the service of the grand seignior.

SERBERNIDSCHÉ, or **SREBERNIK**, a town in the north-west of European Turkey, in Bosnia, situated between the Save, the Bosna and Drino. Here are some silver mines, 30 miles north-west of Zvornik.

SERBRAXOS, a village of Abyssinia, in the province of Gondar, which was the scene of a great battle between the king and the Galla, in consequence of which the king was obliged to abandon his capital.

SERBURA, the name of a dog, assigned by the mythological legends of the Hindoos, as an attendant on Yama, the regent of their infernal regions.

SERCHIO, a river of Italy, which rises in the duchy of Modena, flows through that of Lucca, and falls into the Mediterranean; 4 miles north-north-west of Pisa.

SERD, a village of Aderbijan, in Persia; 15 miles north of Tabreez.

SERDOBOL, a small town in the north of Russia, in Finland, on the north bank of the lake of Ladoga. The inhabitants are in number only 600; 66 miles north-north-east of Wiborg.

SERDOBSK, a town of European Russia, government of Saratov, on the Serdoba; 84 miles north-west of Saratov. Population 2500.

SERE, *adj.* [jeaman, Sax. *to dry.*] Dry; withered; no longer green. See **SEAR**.

The muses, that were wont green bays to wear,
Now bringen bitter elder-branches *sere*. *Spenser.*

He is deformed, crooked, old, and *sere*,
Ill-fac'd, worse bodied, shapeless every where;
Vicious, ungentle. *Shakspeare.*

Ere this diurnal star
Leave cold the night, how we his gather'd beams,
Reflected, may with matter *sere* foment. *Milton.*

They *sere* wood from the rotten hedges took,
And seeds of latent fire from flints provoke. *Dryden.*

On a *sere* branch,
Low bending to the bank, I sat me down,
Musing and still. *Rowe.*

SERE, *s.* [the old Fr. *serre*, "a hawk's talon." *Cotgrave.*] Claw; talon.

Two eagles,
That, mounted on the winds, together still
Their strokes extended; but arriving now
Amidst the council, over every brow
Shook their thick wings, and threatening death's cold fears,
Their necks and cheeks tore with their eager *seres*. *Chapman.*

SEREFCON, a river of Guiana, which runs south, and enters Caroni.

SERED. See **SERT**.

SEREEK, a town of Mekran, in Persia, situated four miles from the coast, near the entrance of the Persian gulf. It is the residence of the chief of Jask, and contains a large mud fort and six hundred huts; 105 miles north of Jask.

SEREGIPPE, or **SERGIPPE**, a province of Brazil, bounded north by the province of Pernambuco, south by the province of Todos Santos, east by the sea, and west by the deserts of the interior. It is very fertile and well cultivated, abounding particularly in cattle, grain, tobacco and sugar, in all of which it carries on a flourishing trade. Its ports do not admit large vessels. Population 20,000.

SEREGIPPE, the capital of the above province, situated on the shore of the river Vazabaris, five miles from the coast. It has a parish church, which is very handsome. It is the residence of the Portuguese governor. Its population is now reduced to 500 housekeepers. Lat. 11. 40. S. long. 37. 30. W.

SEREGIPPE, a river of the same province and kingdom, which rises in the mountains that lie between the rivers Real

and the Rio Francisco, runs south-south-east, and enters the bay.

SEREGNO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, with a population of 3300.

SEREIL, Feathers of a Hawk, the name which answers to pinions in any other fowls.

SEREIMA, a native African tribe, occupying part of the country behind Mosambique. During Mr. Salt's late visit to that settlement, it was governed by a female in alliance with the Portuguese. She could bring fifteen hundred men into the field.

SERENA, **GUTTA**, in Medicine, the same as amaurosis. See *Gutta Serena*, in **SURGERY**.

SERENA'DE, *s.* [*serenade*, Fr.; *serenata*, Ital.] Music or songs with which ladies are entertained by their lovers in the night.

Mixt dance, or wanton mask, or midnight ball,
Or *serenate*, which the starv'd lover sings
To his proud fair; best quitted with disdain. *Milton.*

Foolish swallow, what do'st thou
So often at my window do,
With thy tuneless *serenade*? *Cowley.*

To **SERENA'DE**, *v. a.* To entertain with nocturnal music.—He continued to *serenade* her every morning, till the queen was charmed with his harmony. *Spectator.*

To **SERENA'DE**, *v. n.* To perform a serenade.—A man might as well *serenade* in Greenland as in our region. *Tatler.*

SERE'NE, *adj.* [*seren*, Fr.; *serenus*, Lat.] Calm; placid; quiet.

Spirits live inspher'd
In regions mild, of calm and *serene* air. *Milton.*

The moon, *serene* in glory, mounts the sky. *Pope.*—
Unruffled; undisturbed; even of temper; peaceful or calm of mind; shewing a calm mind.

There wanted yet a creature might erect
His stature, and upright with front *serene*
Govern the rest. *Milton.*

Applied as a title of respect.—To the most *serene* Prince Leopold, Archduke of Austria, &c. *Milton.*

Gutta SERE'NA, *s.* A disease of the optic nerve, *Amaurosis*.

These eyes that roll in vain,
So thick a drop *serene* hath quench'd their orbs. *Milton.*

SERE'NE, *s.* [*seren*, or *serain*, Fr.; "fair, clear, calm weather; also the harmful dews of some summer's evenings; also the fresh cool air of the evening." *Cotgrave.*] A calm damp evening.—The fogs and the *serene* offend us. *Daniel.*—He hath felt the excess of heat, the dangerous *serains*. *Howell.*

To **SERE'NE**, *v. a.* [*sereno*, Lat.] To calm; to quiet. She, where she passes, makes the wind to lye
With gentle motion, and *serenes* the skye. *Fanshaw.*

To clear; to brighten.

Take care
Thy muddy beverage to *serene*, and drive
Precipitant the baser ropy lees. *Philips.*

SERE'NELY, *adv.* Calmly; quietly.—With unruffled temper.—The setting sun now shone *serenely* bright. *Pope.*

The nymph did like the scene appear,
Serenely pleasant, calmly fair:
Soft fell her words as flew the air. *Pope.*

SERE'NESS, *s.* Serenity. *Unused.*

SERENES, a small and frequented sea-port of Bursin, in Western Africa.

SERE'NITUDE, *s.* Calmness; coolness of mind. *Not in use.*

SERE'NITY, *s.* [*serenité*, Fr.; from *serenus*, Lat.] Calmness; mild temperature.

Pure

Pure *serenity* apace

Induces thought, and contemplation still. *Thomson.*

Peace; quietness; not disturbance.—A general peace and *serenity* newly succeeded a general trouble and cloud throughout all his kingdoms. *Temple.*—Evenness of temper; coolness of mind.—I cannot see how many men should ever transgress those moral rules, with confidence and *serenity*, were they innate, and stamped upon their minds. *Locke.*—Highness; title of respect.—The sentence of that court, now sent to your *serenity*, together with these letters, positively declares, &c. *Milton to Prince Leopold.*

SERENUS (Sammonicus, Quintus), a Roman physician, in the reigns of Severus and Caracalla, who was assassinated at a banquet, by the order of the last-mentioned emperor. He left an immense library, said to contain twenty thousand volumes, to his son, who was preceptor to the younger Gordian, to whom he presented this valuable bequest. Serenus was the author of several works on history and the products of nature; and also of a medical work in verse, which has passed through a multitude of editions, under the title of "Carmen de Medicina." He was superstitious in the choice of his remedies, and especially in that which he proposed for the Semitertian fever, which consisted in wearing about the neck, suspended by a linen thread, a piece of paper, on which was written the word *Abraçadabra*, in the form of a triangle. *Eloy. Dict. Hist. de la Méd.*

SÉRERES, a rude tribe of the Jolop nation, in Western Africa, inhabiting the country in the vicinity of Cape Verd. They are dispersed into several small republics, which unite into one body against a common enemy. They go naked, and appear to have few ideas on the subject of religion. They seem to be an inoffensive people, and hospitable to strangers; industrious, and unacquainted with strong liquors.

SERES, or SIRUS, a large inland town of European Turkey, in Macedon, situated in an elevated plain, at some distance to the east of the river called anciently Strymon, now the Carasou or Pondus. It is tolerably well built, has a number of handsome mosques, baths and other public edifices, and is said to contain a population of 30,000. Its manufactures of towels and other strong linen cloth, are the most noted in the Levant; and those of cotton stuffs are very extensive, consuming annually about 1000 bales of that article. The surrounding district is fertile, producing cotton, tobacco, and different kinds of corn and fruit. It is to this fertility; and the health of the situation, that the town owes its increase, having no harbour, and being out of the great road to Constantinople. It is the residence of a Greek archbishop; 45 miles north-east of Salonica.

SERETH, a large and navigable river of European Turkey, which rises at the foot of the Carpathians, flows through the Buckowine and Moldavia, and falls into the Danube at Brailow; 4 miles south of Galacz.

SERETH, or SIRET, a small town of Austrian Galicia, in the Buckowine, on the river Sereth, with 2000 inhabitants; 80 miles west-north-west of Jassy.

SERETKINA, a village of Irkoutsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Angara.

SERF, *s.* [*serf*, old Fr.; *servus*, Lat.] A slave.—A great part of them were *serfs*, and lived in a state of absolute slavery or villainage. *Hume.*

SERFIA, or SERFIDSCHÉ, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, on the small river Indschekara; 45 miles west-south-west of Salonica.

SERFO. See SERPHANTO.

SERGATSCII, a small town of the interior of European Russia. Population 1800; 75 miles south-east of Niznci-Novgorod.

SERGE, *s.* [*serge*, Fr., or *serge*; Germ. *a mat.*] A kind of woollen cloth.—The same wool one man felts into a hat, another weaves into cloth, another into kersey or *serge*, and another into arras. *Hale.*

SER'GEANT, *s.* [*sergent*, Fr.; *sergente*, Ital.; from *serviens*, Lat.] An officer whose business it is to execute

the commands of magistrates.—A petty officer in the army.

This is the *sergeant*,
Who, like a good and hardy soldier, fought. *Shakspeare.*

A lawyer of the highest rank under a judge.—None should be made *sergeants*, but such as probably might be held fit to be judges afterwards. *Bacon.*—It is a title given to some of the king's servants: as, *sergeant churgeons*; that is, a chirurgion *servant* to the king.

SER'GEANTRY, *s.* Grand *sergeantry* is that where one holdeth lands of the king by *service*, which he ought to do in his own person unto him: as to bear the king's banner or his spear, or to lead his host, or to be his marshal, or to blow a horn, when he seeth his enemies invade the land; or to find a man-at-arms to fight within the four seas, or else to do it himself, or to bear the king's sword before him at his coronation, or on that day to be his sewer, carver, butler or chamberlain. Petit *sergeantry* is where a man holdeth land of the king, to yield him yearly some small thing toward his wars; as a sword, dagger, bow, knife, spear, pair of gloves of mail, a pair of spurs, or such like. *Cowel.*

SER'GEANTSHIP, *s.* The office of a sergeant.

SERGIEY, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Yenisei; 72 miles north of Yeniseisk.

SERGIEVSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa; 180 miles west of Oufa.

SERGIEUSKAI A NOVA, a fortress of Oufa, in Asiatic Russia, on the Samara; 56 miles north-west of Orenbourg.

SERGIEVSKY-POSAD, a large village of European Russia, in the government of Moscow; 45 miles north north-east of Moscow.

SERGILUS, in Botany, a genus formed by Gærtner, v. 2. 409. t. 174. f. 6, of the Linnæan *Culea scoparia*, *Chrysocoma*, n. 2, Browne Jam. 316. t. 34. f. 4.

SERGINES, a small town in the central part of France, department of the Yonne, with 1500 inhabitants; 13 miles south of Provins.

SERGNA, a small town in the north of the kingdom of Naples, province of Molise. It is a bishop's see.

SERIANA [designed to commemorate a person of the name of Sergeant], in Botany, a genus of the class *Ocandria*, order trigynia, natural order of trihilatæ, sapindi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of five ovate, concave, spreading, permanent, unequal leaves. Corolla: petals four, obovate-oblong, twice the length of the calyx, furnished with claws; two of them more distant than the rest. Nectaries two; one of four oblong scales, inserted into the claws of the petals; the other of four glands at the base of the petals. Stamina: filaments eight, simple, shortish; anthers small, ovate, two-lobed. Pistil: germen superior, stalked, obovate, with three furrows; styles three, combined at the base, recurved; stigmas simple, obtuse. Pericarp: capsules three, globose, combined longitudinally, each of one cell, not bursting, dilated at the base into a half-ovate membranous wing. Seeds solitary ovate.—*Essential Character.* Calyx of five unequal leaves. Petals four. Nectaries of four scales and four glands. Capsules three, globose, combined, not bursting, each with a dilated wing at the base. Seeds solitary.—The fruit only distinguishes this genus from PAULLINIA, however similar the flowers, and habits of the plants.

1. *Seriana sinuata.*—Wings of the capsules dilated below their insertion. Leaves ternate; leaflets ovate-lanceolate, sinuated and toothed.—Native of South America. The stem is angular, furrowed and downy, climbing by means of tendrils. Leaves alternate, stalked; leaflets about two inches long, veiny, tapering at the base; roughish to the touch, though somewhat shining, above; paler beneath. Flowers small, in compound downy clusters. Wing of each capsule near an inch long.

2. *Seriana divaricata.*—Native of the woods of Jamaica. Stem climbing to a great height, zig-zag, with a few distant slight prickles, angular, smooth. Footstalks two inches long,

furrowed, smooth. Leaflets stalked, the stalks of the middle one winged. Tendrils axillary, divided at the extremity. Panicles from the same point, on long stalks, their branches racemose, alternate, spreading. Flowers white.

3. *Seriana Caracasana*.—Native of the Caraccas. The numerous stems climb by tendrils to a great height. Leaves smooth; leaflets elliptic-oblong, two or three inches in length. Flowers white, in compound cylindrical clusters, each cluster on a long stalk, accompanied by two strong revolute tendrils at the top of the stalk.

4. *Seriana racemosa*.—Native of Vera Cruz. Leaves acute. Footstalks scarcely bordered. Panicle (or compound cluster) with two tendrils. *Schumacher*.

5. *Seriana spectabilis*.—Native of the West Indies. This has much of the habit of *Seriana Caracasana*, but the winged footstalks, and obtuse leaflets, distinguish it essentially.

6. *Seriana Mexicana*.—Native of Mexico. Akin to the last, but the entire leaflets, and compound inflorescence distinguish it. The clusters, each of which is simple, are ranged alternately, in one large panicle.

7. *Seriana angustifolia*.—Leaves twice ternate; leaflets linear-lanceolate, acute, entire. Footstalks winged.—Native of South America.

8. *Seriana lupulina*.—Native of South America. Clusters almost simple, the length of the leaves, and accompanied by two tendrils. *Schumacher*.

9. *Seriana lucida*.—Native of Santa Cruz. The upper surface of the leaves is highly polished, and strongly veined. Clusters in some measure compound, accompanied by two spiral tendrils. Communicated by Sir J. Banks, to the younger Linnæus.

10. *Seriana triternata*.—Native of South America, or the West Indies. The clusters are not accompanied by tendrils, but form a sort of panicle, as in *Seriana Mexicana*.

There seem to be more species, of which incomplete specimens or descriptions exist, but with which we are not sufficiently acquainted to reduce them to order.

SERIATO, a town of Austrian Italy, in the Bergamasco, on the Serio; 3 miles east-south-east of Bergamo.

SERICH, the name of a seed used in the food of the Egyptian Coptics.

SERICUM, or SILK.

SERICUM is also a name given by old chemical writers to the flowers of zinc raised by sublimation in an inclined open crucible. These flowers are not reducible into zinc again, and are of a fibrous texture, and a beautiful bright white colour. This has made them be called also the *philosophic cotton*, and others have named them the *aqua sicca philosophorum*.

SERIDIA, in Botany, a generic name given by Jussieu to those species of Centaurea, which are included under the sixth section of that genus.

SERIES, *s.* [*serie*; Fr.; *series*, Lat.] Sequence; order.—The chasms of the correspondence I cannot supply, having destroyed too many letters to preserve any *series*. *Pope*.—Succession; course.

This is the *series* of perpetual woe,
Which thou, alas! and thine are born to know. *Pope*.

SERIGNI, a sea-port town of the island of Java, in the straits of Sunda, belonging to the king of Bantam.

SERIKOTCHE, a town of Korassan, in Persia; 195 miles north of Herat.

SERIMSAH, a village of Lower Egypt; 16 miles south Damietta.

SERINAGUR, or GERWALL, a principality of Northern Hindostan, situated chiefly between the 30th and 32d degrees of northern latitude, and between the 77th and 79th of eastern longitude. It is estimated at 140 miles in length by 60 in breadth. The whole face of the country is an assemblage of hills or mountains, some of which are covered with trees, the others bare rocks. The valleys are fertile, but very confined. It produces the oak, and several other European

trees and fruits; and a number of elephants are found in the woods. Previous to the invasion of Serinagur by the Nepaulese, the revenue was estimated at £65,000 per annum, and was governed by a Hindoo prince, whose authority was absolute. It produces a considerable quantity of copper, some gold, and carries on a trifling commerce with the neighbouring countries. The animals used for the transport of this traffic are sheep and goats, each of whom are loaded with a small sack, containing about 12 pounds of borax-salt, or grain, &c., and travel in flocks of 100 or 200, guarded by dogs and a few shepherds, led on by a stout ram, bearing a large bell, and travel at the rate of 10 or 15 miles per day. The natives are, generally speaking, Hindoos. This country does not appear to have been ever conquered by the Mahometans; but tribute was frequently exacted from it; and in the year 1568, Aurungzebe compelled the rajah to deliver up his nephew, the prince Soliman, who had taken refuge with him.

In the year 1791, the Nepaulese invaded Serinagur; but the rajah having collected about 5000 men, armed with matchlocks, bows and arrows, &c., defended the passes and a fortress called Sunggur, with such perseverance, that the invaders were compelled to retreat, upon the promise of an annual tribute; but in the year 1803, the rajah of Nepal marched in person at the head of his army, and was met at the village of Gurudwara, by the Serinagur chief, with a very inferior force. A bloody battle ensued, in which the latter, with a number of his followers, were killed, and the rest compelled to fly. After this untoward event, the Nepaulese became complete masters of the country, and divided it into numerous subdivisions, over each of which they appointed a native superintendant, leaving an army at the capital to keep them in proper subjection. During the war between the Nepaulese and the British, in 1815 and 1816, a relation of the late rajah having joined the latter, was admitted as an auxiliary, and at the conclusion of the peace, was re-established in his principality, and the Nepaulese compelled to resign every claim on the country. Serinagur may be therefore now considered as entirely under the British protection and influence; but it is too poor to support a resident at its court.

SERINAGUR, the capital of the above-mentioned province. It is situated in the centre of a valley of three miles in length, watered by the river Alcananda. The town is about three quarters of a mile in length. The houses are built of rough stone and mud, and are covered with slate, but are seldom more than two stories high. The palace of the rajah is, however, an exception, and is elevated to four stories. The streets are narrow and dirty, but there are some good shops. The river is about 80 yards wide in the dry season, and is crossed by means of a bridge of ropes. There are about 70 Mahometan families settled in the town, and the remainder of the inhabitants are Hindoos. On the opposite side of the river is a celebrated temple dedicated to Ishwara, which is attended by a number of dancing girls, who are said to be very licentious. The air of Serinagur is unfavourable to foreigners; on which account many of the merchants forsake it during the rainy season. Lat. 30. 11. N. long. 79. 18. E.

SERINGAPATAM, a celebrated city of the south of India, and for a considerable period the capital of the province of Mysore. It is situated at the upper end of an island of four miles in length, by one and a half in breadth, in the river Cavéry. Its proper name is Siri Runga Patan. It has existed as a fortress from a very early period; but in the year 1610, was taken from the viceroy of the fallen dynasty of Bijanagur, by rajah Wadeyar, and made the capital of Mysore. His successors continued to enlarge the town, and increase the fortifications; but it was not till the reigns of Hyder Aly and his son Tippoo Sultan, that it attained that degree of splendour and strength, to attract the cupidity, and often foil the attacks of the neighbouring powers. It was frequently besieged by the Mahrattas, and by the Nizam's troops, but without any other effect than compelling

compelling Hyder to pay sums of money. In the month of February 1792, it was invested by the British and allied armies, under the command of lord Cornwallis, amounting, with their followers, to the immense number of 400,000 men. Terrified by such a host, and dispirited by a defeat, Tippoo Sultan relinquished half his dominions, and paid the sum of three and a half millions sterling to the conquerors. In the year 1790, a war having again broken out between the British and Mysore, Seringapatam was again invested by the British and Nizam's forces, on the 14th of April, and was stormed about two o'clock in the afternoon of the 4th of May. On this occasion, Tippoo Sultan, and nearly 8000 of his followers, are reported to have fallen, and the whole of his family and treasures were taken by the conquerors. Previous to the siege, the city and island are said to have contained 150,000 inhabitants, including the garrison; but in the following year, the number of inhabitants were reduced to less than 32,000. Seringapatam has of course declined exceedingly in consequence; and having proved unhealthy to the European part of the garrison, it has been in contemplation to demolish the fortifications, as the province contains several places of greater strength. By the treaty made with the allied powers, Seringapatam became the property of the British, and is now protected by a strong garrison, and is the residence of a judge, collector, &c. Besides the city, the island contains a very celebrated temple, dedicated to Vishnu, and a handsome garden called the Loll Bang, in which are deposited the remains of Hyder Aly and his son Tippoo Sultan, under a handsome mausoleum, which is kept in repair at the expense of the Madras government. Further information respecting Seringapatam, may be found in the article **MYSOORE**. Lat. 12. 26. N. long. 76. 51. E.

SERINGHAM, an island of the district of Trichinopoly, in the south of India. It is situated on the river Cavery, and is celebrated on account of its Hindoo temples, the largest of which is situated about a mile from the western extremity of the island, and is surrounded by seven square inclosures built of brick. These inclosures are at the distance of 350 feet from each other, and have each four gates opposite the cardinal points. The outward wall is nearly four miles in circumference, and its gateway to the south is ornamented with pillars, several of which are single stones, 33 feet long, and 5 in diameter. The temple is built in the Egyptian style, and is dedicated to Vishnu; but the British pay such deference to the superstition of the attendant Brahmins, that no European has yet entered it. Pilgrims from all parts of India resort to this place for absolution from their sins; and as a considerable tax is levied upon them, this fund, besides supporting a great number of Brahmins, dancing girls, &c., yields a considerable and fair revenue to government. In the year 1751, during the siege of Trichinopoly, the French and their allies took possession of the island of Seringham; but they neither profaned, nor in any manner injured the temple. Early in the following year, the whole of the French forces were captured in the island by the British, under Major Lawrence, who also respected the rites and superstitions of the Hindoos. This island is situated in the middle of the river Cavery, half a mile north of the fortress of Trichinopoly.

SERINHAIM, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Todos Santos, which runs east, and enters the Atlantic.

SERINO, a town of Italy, in the central part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Ultra, with 7500 inhabitants. Here are the remains of an ancient aqueduct, and in the neighbourhood the ruins of the Roman town of Sebastia; 12 miles north-by-east of Salerno.

SERINPALE, a small town of Western Africa, on the Senegal, in an island formed by two branches of that river; 80 miles north-east of St. Louis.

SERINZA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, peopled by 100 Indians and a few whites. There is another settlement of the same name in this province, containing 300 housekeepers.

SERIO, a river of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, which rises on the borders of the Vatteline, flows through the Bergamasco, and falls into the Adda.

SERIO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, district of Bergamo, on the lake of Serio.

SERIOIA [a little vessel, jar or pot], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of compositæ semiflosculosæ, cichoraceæ (*Juss.*).—Generic Character. Calyx common, simple: leaflets linear, almost equal, erect. Corolla compound, imbricate, uniform. Corollets hermaphrodite, equal, numerous. Proper one-petalled, ligulate, linear, truncate, five-toothed. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubulous. Pistil: germ ovate. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, reflex. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds oblong, length of the calyx. Pappus capillary, stipitate; with ten rays, hairy at the sides. Receptacle chaffy, length of the calyx, deciduous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx simple. Pappus subplumose. Receptacle chaffy.

1. *Seriola lævigata*, or smooth seriola.—Smoothish, leaves obovate, toothed. Roots perennial, long, twisted, the thickness of the little finger, covered at top with brown scales from the withered petioles.—Native of the island of Candia, and of Barbary, in the clefts of rocks.

2. *Seriola æthnensis*, or rough seriola.—Hispid, leaves obovate, somewhat toothed. Root annual.—Native of Italy, and of Barbary near Mascar.

3. *Seriola Cretensis*, or Cretan seriola.—Rough-haired, with runcinate leaves.—Native of the island of Candia or Crete.

4. *Seriola urens*, or stinging seriola.—Stinging; leaves toothed, stem branched.—Native of Sicily and other parts of the south of Europe.

SERIOUS, *adj.* [*serieux*, Fr.; *serius*, Lat.] Grave; solemn.—Important; weighty; not trifling.—I'll hence to London on a *serious* matter. *Shakspeare.*

There's nothing *serious* in mortality;
All is but toys.

Shakspeare.

SERIOUSLY, *adv.* Gravely; solemnly; in earnest; without levity.

All laugh'd to find
Unthinking plainness so o'erspread thy mind
That thou could'st *seriously* persuade the crowd
To keep their oaths, and to believe a God.

Dryden.

SERIOUSNESS, *s.* Gravity; solemnity; earnest attention.—The youth was received at the door by a servant, who then conducted him with great silence and *seriousness* to a long gallery, which was darkened at noon-day. *Addison.*

SERIPHIIUM [*Σερίφιον* of Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia segregata, natural order of compositæ nucamentaceæ, corymbifereæ (*Juss.*).—Generic Character. Calyx: outer perianth of five roundish, imbricate, tomentose leaflets. Inner of five erect, acuminate, awl-shaped, very smooth, scarious leaflets, twice as long as the others; one-flowered. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form, shorter than the inner calyx; border five-toothed. Stamina: filaments five, capillary. Anther cylindrical. Pistil: germ inferior to the corollet, superior to the calyx. Style filiform. Stigma sub-bifid. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged, closed. Seed solitary, oblong.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate. Corolla one-petalled, regular. Seed one, oblong; below the corolla.

1. *Seriphium cinereum*, or heath-leaved seriphium.—Flowers whorl-spiked, one-flowered, leaves spreading. Branches in whorls.

2. *Seriphium plumosum*.—Flowers in spikes, six-flowered, leaves granulate-ovate.

3. *Seriphium fuscum*, or brown seriphium.—Flowers capitate, one-flowered, leaves imbricate.

4. *Seriphium ambiguum*, or doubtful seriphium.—Flowers in spikes, three-flowered, leaves linear.—All the species are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

SERIPHOS,

SERIPHOS. See SERPHANTO.

SERISSA, in Botany, a genus of Jussieu's, separated from Lycium.

SERJEANT, or SERGEANT, a term in our Law, applied to sundry offices. *Serjeant-at-law*, or *of the coif*, is the highest degree taken in the common law, as that of doctor is in the civil law.

The first mention which judge Blackstone has met with of serjeants or *countors*, is in the stat. of West. 1. 3 Edw. c. 29. But M. Paris, in his life of John II. abbot of St. Alban's, which he wrote in 1255, 39 Hen. III. speaks of advocates at the common law, or countors (*quos banci narratores vulgariter appellamus*) as of an order of men well known; and the antiquity of the coif appears from the same author's Hist. of England, A. D. 1259. Serjeants were anciently called *servientes ad legem*, and *servientes narratores*; Mr. Selden adds, that they were also called *doctores legis*; though others are of opinion, that the judges are more properly the *doctores legis*, and serjeants, the *bachelors of law*.

Spelman observes, that however a serjeant may be richer than all the doctors of the Commons, yet a doctor is superior in degree to a serjeant, for the very name of a doctor is ministerial, but that of a serjeant ministerial. Hence, the doctors are seated and covered when they plead, but the serjeants stand uncovered at the bar, excepting for their coif.

As these are supposed the most learned and experienced, there is one court appropriated for them to plead in by themselves, which is the Common Pleas, where the common law of England is most strictly observed; but they are not prohibited pleading in other courts; and all judges, who, by custom, must first be serjeants, call them *brothers*.

SERJEANTS-AT-ARMS, are officers appointed to attend the person of the king, to arrest traitors, and persons of quality offending, and to attend the lord high steward when he sits in judgment on any traitor, &c.

SERJEANT, COMMON, an officer in the city of London, who attends the lord mayor and court of aldermen on court days, and is in council with them on all occasions, within and without the precincts, or liberties of the city.

SERJEANTS OF THE HOUSEHOLD, are officers who execute several functions within the king's household, mentioned in the stat. 33 Hen. VIII. c. 12.

SERJEANT, or SERGEANT, in War, is a non-commissioned or inferior officer in a company of foot, or troop of dragoons; armed with an halberd, and appointed to see discipline observed, to teach the soldiers their exercise and other duty. He receives the orders from the adjutant, which he communicates to his officers.

Each company has generally two serjeants.

SERJEANT, COVERING, a non-commissioned officer, who, during the exercise of a battalion, regularly stands or moves behind each officer, commanding or acting with a platoon or company. When the ranks take open order, and the officers move in front, the covering serjeants replace their leaders; and when the ranks are closed, they fall back in their rear.

SERJEANT, DRILL, an expert and active non-commissioned officer, who, under the immediate direction of the serjeant-major, instructs the raw recruits of a regiment in the first principles of military exercise. When awkward or ill-behaved men are sent to drill, they are usually placed under the care of the drill-serjeant.

SERJEANT, LANCE, a corporal who acts as serjeant in a company, but only receives the pay of corporal.

SERJEANT, PAY, an honest, steady, non-commissioned officer, who is a good accountant, and writes well, that is selected by the captain of a company in the infantry to pay the men twice a-week, and to account weekly to him, or to his subaltern, for all disbursements. He likewise keeps a regular statement of the necessities of the men, and assists in making up the monthly abstract for pay, allowances, &c.

SERJEANT, QUARTER-MASTER, a non-commissioned officer, who acts under the quarter-master of a regiment: he ought to be steady, a good accountant, and well acquainted with the resources of a country town or village.

SERJEANT, TRUMPET. An officer under the Lord Chamberlain, whose duty it is to attend (with his sixteen trumpeters and kettle drum) on coronations, royal marriages, christenings, funerals, proclamations and installations. On inspection of his patent it will appear that his duties and privileges were formerly very extensive; being summoned to attend the [sheriffs and judges on the circuit; nor could any concert or theatrical performance take place, without his licence and authority. The two great theatres accordingly paid him a fee, till the time of Sheridan, who broke through the custom.

SERJEANTY, or SERGEANTY, in Law, a service anciently due to the king for lands held of him, and which could not be due to any other lord.

It is divided into *grand* and *petit* serjeanty. See SEARJEANTY.

SERJIHEY ODOUK, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Mongols. Lat. 42. 15. N. long. 102. 34. E.

SERKA, a village of Sennaar; 200 miles south of Sennaar.

SERKIS, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 50 miles west of Konieh.

SERLE'S ISLAND, in the South Pacific Ocean, seven or eight miles long, and four or five broad, with a lagoon in the middle. A dangerous surf beats on the shore, which consists of ridges of coral rock. Fish is particularly abundant; and there are various species of trees. Most of the soil consists of white coral sand, intermixed with decayed vegetable matter, and this seems peculiarly favourable to the growth of plants. It does not appear to be permanently inhabited, though visitors have found evidence that men have dwelt there. Lat. 18. 13. S. long. 223. E.

SERLEBY, a township of England, in Nottinghamshire; 2½ miles south-south-west of Bawtry.

SERLIO (Sebastiano), an eminent architect, was a native of Bologna, who flourished in the early part of the sixteenth century, at Venice. He travelled through Italy, and resided a considerable time at Rome, where he studied the fine arts, and made many drawings of edifices, ancient and modern, and he is said to have been the first who examined, with the eye of a man of science, the remains of ancient architecture. The knowledge which he acquired was given to the public in a complete treatise of architecture, of which he planned several books, and the first that appeared was the fourth in order, comprehending the general rules of architecture, which he printed at Venice in 1537, dedicated to Hercules II. duke of Ferrara. The other six books appeared successively at different intervals, and the different editions made of them prove their popularity. Serlio, in 1541, was invited to France, by Francis I., and was, by that sovereign, employed in the erections at Fontainebleau, where he thenceforth resided, and where he died, at an advanced age, in 1578. Though, as an author, he was much attached to the principles of Vitruvius, in his designs as an artist he very much neglected them. His school of St. Roch, and palace Grimani, at Venice, are built in a grand and magnificent style. *Gen. Biog.*

SERMATTA, an island in the Eastern seas; about 22 miles long, and 6 broad. Lat. 8. 9. S. long. 129. 13. E.

SERMESOK, an island near the west coast of West Greenland. Lat. 61. 50. N. long. 47. 45. W.

SERMIONE, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the district of Brescia, situated on a neck of land projecting into the lake of Garda. Population 1800. It has a castle, and was the birth-place of Catullus, the poet; 16 miles west of Verona.

SERMOCINATION, *s.* [*sermocinatio*, Lat.] The art or practice of making speeches. *Unused.*—The orator conveyeth

veyeth his speech either to prosopopeia, *sermocination*, &c. *Peacham*.—No *sermocinations* of ironmongers, felt-makers, cobblers, broom-men! *Bp. Hall*.

SERMOCINATOR, *s.* [*sermocinator*, Lat.] A preacher; a speechmaker.—These obstreperous *sermocinators* make easy impression upon the minds of the vulgar. *Howell*.

SERMOLOGUS, or SERMOLOGUE, an ecclesiastical book composed of sermons, or homilies of popes, and other persons of eminence and sanctity, formerly read at the feasts of the Confessors, the Purification, All Saints, and on every day from Christmas to the octave of the Epiphany.

SE'RMON, *s.* [*sermon*, Fr.; *sermo*, Lat.] A religious discourse pronounced by a divine from the pulpit.

This our life, exempt from public haunt,
Finds tongues in trees, books in the running brooks,
Sermons in stones, and good in every thing. *Shakspeare*.

Sermons he heard, yet not so many

As left no time to practise any:

He heard them reverently, and then

His practice preach'd them o'er again.

Crashaw.

Many, while they have preached Christ in their *sermons*, have read a lecture of Atheism in their practice. *South*.

To SE'RMON, *v. a.* [*sermoner*, Fr.] To discourse as in a sermon. *Unused*.—Some would rather have good discipline delivered plainly by way of precept, or *sermoned* at large, than thus cloudily unwrapped in allegorical devices. *Spenser*.—To tutor; to teach dogmatically.

Come, *sermon* me no farther:

No villainous bounty yet hath pass'd my heart. *Shakspeare*.

To SE'RMON, *v. n.* To compose or deliver a sermon. *Unused*.—A weekly charge of *sermoning*. *Milton*.

SERMONES, the title which Horace gives his Satires. See SATIRE.

Critics are divided about the reason of the name; the opinion of father Bossu seems best grounded. A mere observance of feet and measure, such as we find in Terence, Plautus, and in Horace's Satires, he thinks is not sufficient to constitute verse, to determine the work to be poetical, or to distinguish it from prose; unless it have some farther air, or character of poetry; somewhat of the fable or the sublime.

Hence he judges it is, that Horace calls his Satires *prose*, or *sermons*: his Odes have quite another air, and are therefore called *poems*, *carmina*.

SERMONETA, a small town of the States of the Church, in the Campagna di Roma, situated on a hill difficult of access. It is supposed by some to stand on the site of the ancient Sora, by others on that of Salmona; 13 miles south of Veletri.

SE'RMONING, *s.* Discourse; instruction; advice; persuasion.

I trow there nedeth litle *sermoning*

To maken you assenten to this thing.

Chaucer.

Canons and quaint *sermonings*, interlined with barbarous Latin. *Milton*.

SERMONIUM, in Old Records, a kind of interlude or historical play, which the inferior orders of clergy, assisted by boys, &c., used at times to act in the body of the church, suitable to the solemnity of some festival or high procession day.

This is supposed to have been the origin of the modern drama.

To SE'RMONIZE, *v. n.* To preach.—Under a pretence of *sermonizing*, they have cast off God's solemn worship on this day:—the primitive church never thought preaching the sole work of the Lord's day. *Bp. Nicholson*.—To inculcate rigid rules.—If you consider them as the dictates of a morose and *sermonizing* father, I am sure they will be not only unattended to, but unread. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

SE'RMOUNTAIN, *s.* [*sermontain*, Fr.] A plant. See SESELI.

SERNANIELHE, a small but tolerably well-built town

in the central part of Portugal, province of Beira; 13 miles south-south-west of St. Joao de Pesqueira, and 19 south-east of Lamego.

SERNIN, *Str.*, a small town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron, situated on an eminence near the Rance. Population 1000. In the neighbourhood are mines of alum; 21 miles east of Alby.

SEROGLASOVSKAIA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Caucasus, on the Volga; 24 miles north-west of Astracan.

SERON, a measure: of almonds, 2 cwt.; of anniseed, from 3 to 4 cwt.

SERONGE, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. It is a large open town, situated in a fertile country, and celebrated for its manufacture of Chintzes, but from its exposed situation, has been often plundered by contending parties. In the year 1804, it was made over by Holkar, to the celebrated freebooter Ameer Khan, who some years after gave himself up to the British, and received a grant of lands in Goorackpore. At this period Seronge, with the dependent district, was estimated at about 6000*l.* per annum. Lat. 24. 8. N. long. 78. E.

SEROOSKERKE, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Zealand, containing 800 inhabitants.

SERO'SITY, *s.* [*scrosité*, Fr.] Thin or watery part of the blood: the serum.

SEROUGE, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 80 miles south-west of Diarbekir.

SE'ROUS, *adj.* [*sereux*, Fr., *scrosus*, Lat.] Thin; watery. Used of the part of the blood which separates in congelation from the grumous or red part. Adapted to the serum.—This disease is commonly an extravasation of *serum*, received in some cavity of the body; for there may be also a dropsy by a dilatation of the *serous* vessels, as that in the ovarium. *Arbuthnot*.

SEROWICZ, a small town in the south of Bohemia; 25 miles east-south-east of Tabor. Population 1800.

SERPA, a small but strong frontier town in the south-east of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo, situated on a rocky height near the Guadiana, with about 4000 inhabitants. There is a fertile district adjacent, full of clumps of fig and olive trees; 17 miles south-west of Mourao, and 100 south-east of Lisbon.

SERPEISK, a small town in the central part of European Russia, in the government of Kaluga, with 1000 inhabitants; 53 miles west of Kaluga.

SERPENS HYPNOTICUS. See HYPNOTICUS.

SERPENS RUBESCENS, the RED SERPENT FISH, in Ichthyology, the name of a fish, properly of the *tænia* kind.

SERPENS TERRENUS, the EARTH-SERPENT, a name given by some of the chemical writers to nitre.

SE'RPENT, *s.* [*serpens*, Lat.] A well-known creeping animal that moves without legs.

She was arrayed all in lily white,
And in her right hand bore a cup of gold,
With wine and water filled up to the height;
In which a *serpent* did himself enfold,
That horror made to all that did behold.

Spenser.

A sort of firework.

In fireworks give him leave to vent his spite,
These are the only *serpents* he can write.

Dryden.

A bass musical instrument.

SERPENT CUCUMBER, in Botany. See TRICHOSANTHES.

SERPENT ISLANDS, small islands near the north coast of Lake Huron. Lat. 46. 2. N. lat. 82. 45. W.

SERPENT-STONES. See SNAKE-STONES.

SERPENT'S-TONGUE, in Botany, a genus of the cryptogamia filices class; comprehending five species.

SERPENTS' TONGUES. The island of Malta abounds with glossopetræ, or the petrified teeth of sharks, which, from their resemblance to a tongue, are by the vulgar supposed

posed to be the tongues of serpents turned into stone by some miracle of St. Paul, when he was there.

SERPENT, in Mythology, was a very common symbol of the sun, and he is represented biting his tail, and with his body formed into a circle, in order to indicate the ordinary course of this luminary; and under this form it was an emblem of time and eternity.

SERPENTARA, GRANDE and PICOLA, two small islands in the Mediterranean, at the south-east point of the island of Sardinia.

SERPENTARIUS, in Astronomy, a constellation of the northern hemisphere, called also *Ophiuchus*, and anciently *Æsculapius*.

The stars in the constellation Serpentarius, in Ptolemy's catalogue, are 29; in Tycho's, 15; in Hevelius's, 40; in the Britannic catalogue, they are 74.

SERPENTES, in Natural History, the second order in the class amphibia. They are thus commonly characterized: they are footless; their eggs are connected in a chain; the penis is double, and mucicate.

These animals are sufficiently distinguished from reptiles by their total want of feet. The distinction of species in this numerous tribe is, according to Dr. Shaw, frequently very difficult. Linnæus thought that an infallible criterion might be found in the number of scaly plates on the abdomen, and beneath the tail; and accordingly attempted, in the *Systema Naturæ*, to discriminate the species by this mark alone. This is now found to be, by much, too uncertain and variable for a specific test.

The distinction of serpents into poisonous and innocuous, can only be known by an accurate examination of their teeth; the fangs, or poisoning teeth, being always of a tubular structure, and calculated for the conveyance or injection of the poisonous fluid from a peculiar reservoir, communicating with the fang on each side of the head: the fangs are always situated in the anterior and exterior part of the upper jaw, and are generally, but not always, of much larger size than the other teeth; they are also frequently accompanied by some smaller or subsidiary fangs, apparently destined to supply the principal ones, when lost either by age or accident. The fangs are situated in a peculiar bone, so articulated with the rest of the jaw, as to elevate or depress them at the pleasure of the animal. In a quiescent state, they are recumbent, with their points directed inwards or backwards; but when the animal is inclined to use them as weapons of offence, their position is altered by the peculiar mechanism of the above-mentioned bone, in which they are rooted, and they become almost perpendicular.

In the edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, by Gmelin, seven genera are enumerated and described, viz.:—*Acrochordus*, *amphisbæna*, *anguis*, *boa*, *cæcilia*, *coluber* and *crotalus*.

In our alphabetical arrangement, a description of the above genera will be found. It remains only to introduce here a short account of the anatomical structure of the order.

The skeleton of serpents consists of the bones of the head, the vertebræ and the ribs.

Each of the vertebræ is composed of a *body*, a *superior spinous* process, two *transverse* processes, and an *inferior spinous* process. Of these, the last is formed in the boa, of two laminae arising from the sides of the vertebral body, and uniting as they descend. It is very long in this genus, which is otherwise remarkable for having two distinct inferior spinous processes on the second vertebræ, which are moveable. In all other serpents, the inferior spinous process assumes the form of a long spur.

The bodies of the vertebræ are articulated to each other by segments of spheres; so that were there no lateral articulations, the axes of the vertebræ might be bent in all directions, and might describe circles in any of those bendings. But, in the first place, the lateral articulations whose plane surfaces are horizontal, prevent very much the immediate flexion of the vertebræ on another; and, secondly, the superior spinous apophyses are so long with most of these

reptiles, as to stop that flexion upwards which the lateral articulations would permit. Flexion downwards is, however, limited only by the lateral articulations, for the inferior spinous apophyses are very long and straight, and receive only *flectent* muscles.

The ribs, which are very numerous, are articulated pretty strongly to the bodies of the vertebræ under the transverse processes. They are not, as in quadrupeds, inserted *between* the vertebræ, but each rib is attached to one vertebral body. As they are not fixed inferiorly, their extremities can describe circles proportional to their intervals; and as these intervals are very large, and as, on account of the variations in their respective curves, one rib may pass into another, the flexion downwards is left very free, and motion laterally still more so: the latter motion is facilitated also by the horizontal planes of the lateral articulations; and this motion is evidently the most extensive: the majority of serpents creeping by horizontal undulations.

The parietal bone folding under until it meets the sphenoid, forms the lateral wall of the cranium. The point of the sphenoid is prolonged very far forwards, and meets the frontals, which curve backwards, to meet it near the median line.

On the side of the head, two bones are articulated which form points of attachment for the muscle, that move the lower jaw. They are in serpents with very moveable chops, capable of considerable motion in the cranium; and they assume, where the jaw acts, such a position that the point of resistance in biting is at the superior and hind part of the cranium. There is no temporal bone.

The blood-worm, and the genus *amphisbæna*, have the occipital bone articulated to the spine by two condyles: the other genera by one only.

In these two genera, the diminutive condition of the eye coincides with the want of the posterior frontal bone in the cranium, and of the lacrymal bone in the face.

A number of very strong muscles, placed on the spine in that space that intervenes between the spinous and transverse processes, serve to move in powerful undulations the bodies of serpents. But, independently of this, they have powerful means of locomotion in their ribs and intercostal muscles. This apparatus is particularly well seen in the coluber, whose spine is, perhaps, the least capable of flexion of any of this order. It was an observation made by Sir Joseph Banks, during the exhibition of a coluber of unusual size, that first led to this discovery. While it was moving briskly along the carpet, he said, "he thought he saw the ribs come forward in succession, like the feet of a caterpillar; and on putting the hand under its belly, while the snake was in the act of passing over the palm, the ends of the ribs were distinctly felt pressing upon the surface in regular succession, so as to leave no doubt of the ribs forming so many pairs of levers by which the animal moved its body from place to place."

The following is the description of the muscles which act on the ribs for the purpose of progressive motion:—

The muscles which bring the ribs forward, consist of five sets; one set (fig. 1, A), from the transverse process of each vertebra to the rib immediately behind it; which rib is attached to the next vertebra. The next set (B), goes from the rib a little way from the spine, just beyond where the former terminates; it passes over two ribs sending a slip to each, and is inserted into the third: there is a slip also connecting it with the next muscle in succession.

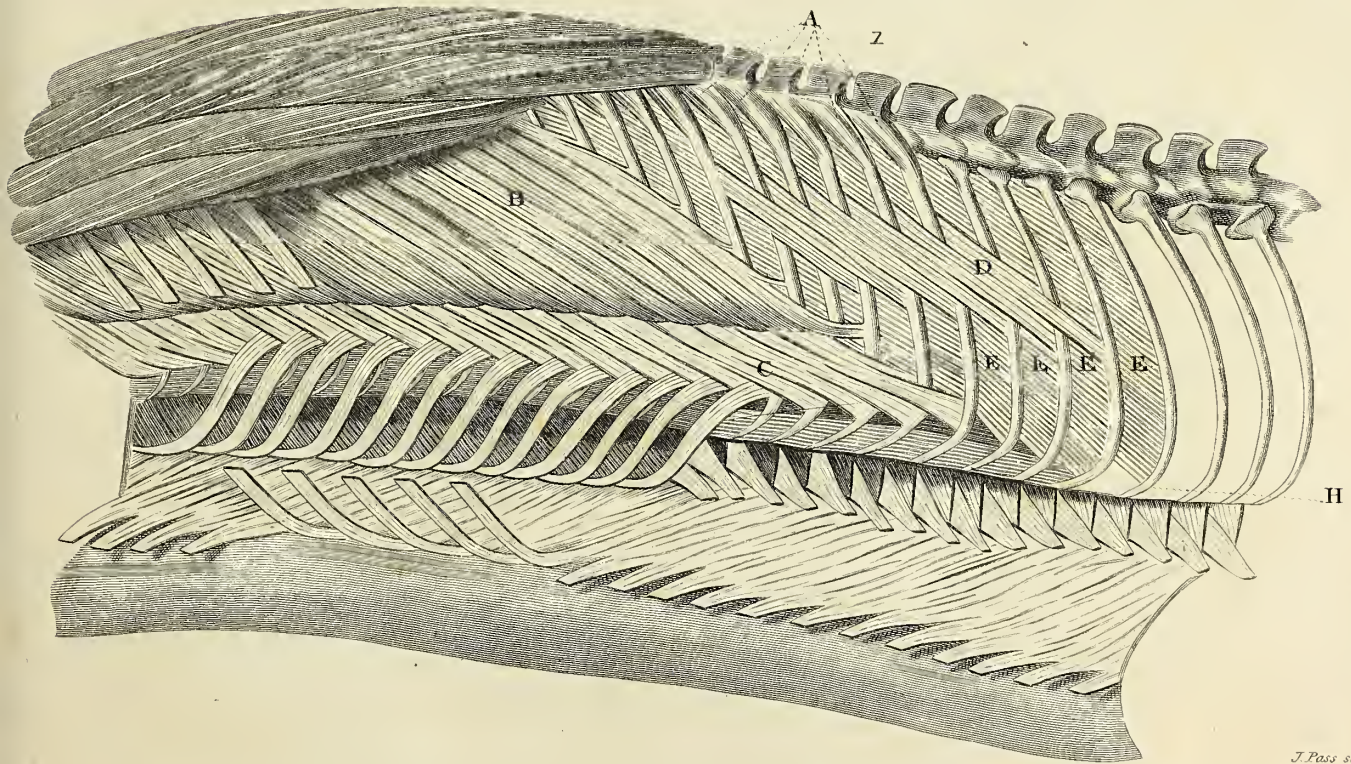
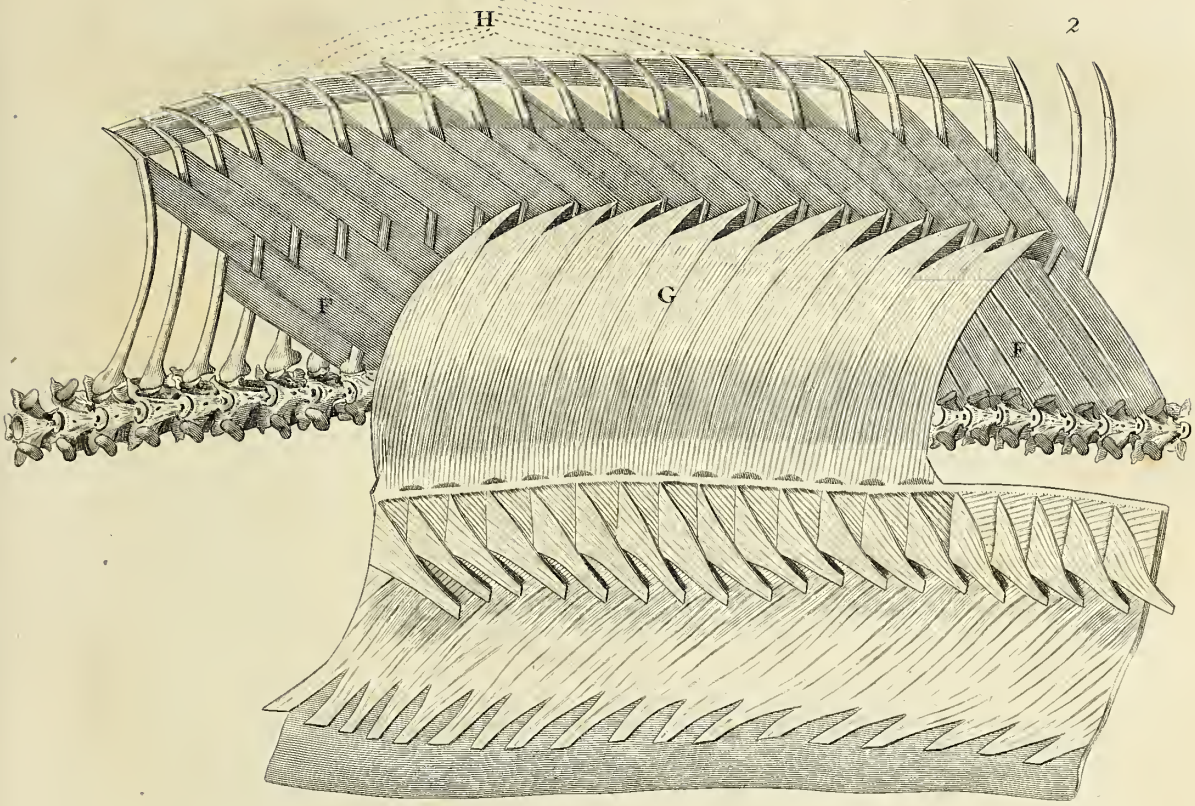
Under this is the third set (C), which arises from the posterior side of each rib, passes over two ribs sending a lateral slip to the next muscle, and is inserted into the third rib behind it.

The fourth set (D), passes from one rib over the next, and is inserted into the second rib.

The fifth set (E), goes from rib to rib.

On the inside of the chest, there is a strong set of muscles attached to the anterior surface of each vertebra, and, passing obliquely forwards over four ribs to be inserted into the fifth

SERPENTES.



J. Pass sc.

The locomotive muscular system of Serpents.

fifth nearly at the middle part between the two extremities (see F, fig. 2).

From this part of each rib, a strong flat muscle (G), comes forward on each side before the viscera, forming the abdominal muscles; and which is only laterally connected to it by loose cellular membrane, is external to the belly of the animal, and is used for the purpose of progressive motion; while that half of each rib next the spine, as far as the lungs extend, is employed in respiration. At the termination of each rib is a small cartilage (H, H), in shape corresponding to the rib, only tapering to the point. Those of the opposite ribs have no connection; and when the ribs are drawn outwards by the muscles, they are separated to some distance, and rest through their whole length on the inner surface of the abdominal scuta, to which they are connected by a set of short muscles: they have also a connection with the cartilages of the neighbouring ribs by a set of short straight muscles.

These observations apply to snakes in general: but the preceding figures and remarks are taken from an account of a boa-constrictor, published in the Philosophical Transactions, by Sir Everard Home.

In all snakes, the ribs are continued to the anus, but the lungs seldom occupy more than one-half of the extent of the cavity covered by the ribs. Consequently, these lower ribs can be employed for the purpose of progressive motion, and, therefore, correspond in that respect with the ribs in the draco-volans superadded to form the wings.

The parts, of which a description has been attempted, will be better understood by an inspection of figs. 1 and 2, in the annexed plate.

When the snake begins to put itself in motion, the ribs of the opposite sides are drawn apart from each other, and the small cartilages at the ends of them are bent upon the upper surfaces of the abdominal scuta, on which the ends of the ribs rest; and as the ribs move in pairs, the scutum under each pair is carried along with it. This scutum, by its posterior edge, lays hold of the ground, and becomes a fixed point from whence to set out anew. This motion is beautifully seen when a snake is climbing over an angle to get upon a flat surface.

When the animal is moving, it alters its shape from a circular or oval form, to something approaching to a triangle, of which the surface on the ground forms the base.

The coluber and boa having large abdominal scuta, which may be considered as hoofs or shoes, are the best fitted for this kind of progressive motion; there is, however, a similar structure of ribs and muscles in the anguis and amphibæna; but in the anguis, the ribs are proportionally weaker, and have nothing that corresponds with the scuta.

The rings of the amphibæna, on the other hand, are a near approach to the large scuta.

SE'RPENTINE, *adj.* [*serpentin*, old Fr., *serpentinus*, Lat.] Resembling a serpent.

Nothing wants, but that thy shape
Like his, and colour *serpentine*, may shew
Thy inward fraud.

Milton.

Winding like a serpent; anfractuious.

Nor can the sun

Perfect a circle, or maintain his way
One inch direct; but where he rose to-day
He comes no more, but with a cozening line
Steals by that point, and so is *serpentine*.

Donne.

To SE'RPENTINE, *v. n.* To wind like a serpent; to meander.

In those fair vales by nature form'd to please,
Where Guadalquivir *serpentes* with ease.

Harte.

SE'RPENTINE, *s.* An herb. *Ainsworth*.

SERPENTINE, in Chemistry, a worm, or pipe of copper or pewter, twisted into a spiral, and ascending from the bottom of the alembic to the capital, and serving in the distillation of spirit of wine.

SERPENTINE, in Mineralogy, a stone, which derives its name from the variety of its colours, supposed to resemble

those of the serpent. The ancients called this stone *ophites*, from the Greek *οφις*, *serpent*, as being speckled like a serpent's skin. The most prevailing colour is green of different shades, spotted with red, or with dark green, and also clouded and veiny. Some serpentines are red, varying from a peach-bloom to a blood-red or scarlet. In rich variety of colours, this stone far exceeds any other of the great rock-formations. It will receive a high polish, and is nearly indestructible by fire or acids, and is therefore eminently suited for ornamental sculpture or architecture. The hardness of serpentine is variable: some kinds scarcely yield to the knife, others are easily worked. It is infusible by the blow-pipe; the fracture is splintery, passing into small conchoidal fragments, which are translucent at the edges; the lustre is somewhat resinous, and when powdered, it has an unctuous soapy feel. The specific gravity varies from about 2.6 to 2.7. Serpentine seems nearly allied to the mineral called *hornblende*, from which it differs in its constituent parts by containing more magnesia and less iron. Chrome has been found in some serpentines. The analysis of different serpentines shews a considerable variation in the proportion of their constituent parts,

from 45 to 29 silex,
18 23 alumine,
23 34 magnesia,
3 4 iron,
11 10 water and loss.

Some serpentines contain 6 per cent. of lime.

To SE'RPENTIZE, *v. n.* To meander; to serpentine.—Between these hills, in the richest of valleys, the Lüne *serpentes* for many a mile, and comes forth ample, and clear, through a well wooded and richly pastured fore-ground. *Mason*.

SE'RPET, *s.* A basket. *Ainsworth*.

SERPANT, a village of Syria, supposed to be the ancient Sarepta; 14 miles south-south-west of Said.

SERPANTO, SERFANTO, or SERFO, the ancient *Seriphos*, an island of European Turkey, in the Archipelago, between the island of Paros and the gulf of Engia. It is a rugged and barren spot, producing little else than saffron, and pasture for sheep. The inhabitants, who are Greeks, and in number only 1000, live chiefly in the small town of Serphanto, which has a harbour. The Romans made this island a place of banishment.

SERPICULA [*a serpendo*, from creeping, a little creeping plant], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order tetrandria, natural order of inundatæ, onagræ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character.—Male flowers solitary, peduncled—Calyx: perianth very small, four-toothed, erect, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals four, oblong, obtuse, sessile. Stamina: filaments four, very short. Anthers oblong, length of the petals.—Female flowers on the same plant—Calyx: perianth superior, four-parted, very small, permanent. Corolla none. Pistil: germ inferior, ovate, grooved. Style none. Stigma none. Pericarp: nut cylindrical, with eight cartilaginous swellings, one-celled, deciduous. Seed single, oblong.—*Essential Character*. Male—Calyx four-toothed. Corolla four-petalled. Female—Calyx four-parted. Pericarp: nut tomentose.

1. *Serpicula verticillata*.—Leaves in whorls, aculeate-serate.—Native of the East Indies.

2. *Serpicula repens*.—Leaves alternate, linear. The herb has the appearance of *veronica serpyllifolia*, but is smaller. Stem creeping. Leaves mostly alternate, linear, seldom serrate.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

SERP'GINOUS, *adj.* Diseased with a serpigo.—The skin behind her ear downwards became *serpiginous*, and was covered with white scales. *Wiseman*.

SERPIGO, in Medicine, from *serpere*, to creep, is nearly synonymous with *herpes*, and signifies, in the language of the older writers, any spreading tetter, or excoriation of the skin. See PATHOLOGY.

For thy own bowels, which do call thee sire,
Do curse the gout, *serpigo*, and the rheum,
For ending thee no sooner,

Shakspeare
SERPOOR

SERPOOR, the name of several towns of Hindostan, but none of any consequence.

SERPUCHOV, a town of European Russia, in the government of Moscow, on the Oka. It contains no fewer than 19 churches or chapels, besides several public buildings, and has 5700 inhabitants. Its trade is chiefly in corn, cattle, butcher's meat, hides, and honey; also in manufacturing canvas; 62 miles south of Moscow. Lat. 55. N. long. 37. 2. E.

SERPULA, in Conchology, a genus of the order testacea, of which the Generic Character is:—animal a terebella: shell univalve, tubular, and generally adhering to other substances; often separated internally by divisions at uncertain distances. There are about fifty species included in this genus, of which the 5th, 6th, 7th, 10th, 16th and 39th to 47th, are found in our own country.

1. *Serpula nautiloides*.—Shell flattish, minute, confluent, verrucose, spiral, with very thin semilunar internal divisions.—It is found in the seas about Norway, adhering to the *Madrepora prolifera*, is very minute, brownish, or white; of an uncertain figure, sometimes rather oblong, sometimes more orbicular; the divisions are parallel, the aperture very narrow.

2. *Serpula semilunum*.—The shell of this is regular, loose, glabrous.—It is found in the Adriatic and Red seas, and sometimes it is obtained fossile. The shell is scarcely larger than a grain of sand, white and yellowish; the whorls are pressed close together; the aperture is narrow, and compressed.

3. *Serpula planorbis*.—In this species the shell is orbicular, regular, flat, equal.—It is found adhering to shells. The shell resembles a round scale, and when broken horizontally it exhibits the appearance of a spire in minute concentric circles.

4. *Serpula spirillum*.—Shell regular, spiral, orbicular, pellucid, with round gradually decreasing whorls.—It inhabits the ocean, on zoophytes, *fertulariæ*, and other marine substances; it resembles the next, which is a native of this country, but is much less than it.

5. *Serpula spirorbis*.—Shell regular, spiral, orbicular, the whorls slightly caniculate above and inwardly, and growing gradually less towards the centre.—It inhabits most seas, adhering to fuci and zoophytes. There is a variety; the shell is white, without polish, not complicated, but disposed singly on the substance to which it is attached; the aperture is circular.

6. *Serpula triquetra*.—The shell of this is creeping, flexuous, triangular.—It inhabits the ocean, adhering to marine substances, stones, and the bottoms of ships; is from half an inch to an inch long. The shell is white, pellucid, irregularly twisted, carinate on the back, sometimes denticulate, with a narrow circular aperture.

7. *Serpula intricata*.—Shell filiform, rough, round, intricately twisted.—It inhabits the European and Indian seas, and often on our own coasts, upon shells. The shell is of a greenish-white, a little rugged and coarse.

8. *Serpula filigrana*.—Shell capillary, fasciculate, in branched complications, and cancellate.—It inhabits the Mediterranean; is four inches long, and forms a beautiful kind of net-work.

9. *Serpula granulata*.—The shell of this is round, spiral, glomerate, with elevated ribs on the upper side.—It inhabits the North seas, in large masses, adhering to stones, shells, &c. The shell is white, and the size of a coriander seed.

10. *Serpula contortuplicata*.—The shell is angular, rugged, and irregularly entwined.—It is found in the European and American seas, and on our own coasts; is from three to four inches long; and sometimes it is as large as a goose-quill: the shell is white, cinereous, or yellowish-brown; within it is smooth, transversely striate.

11. *Serpula glomerata*.—The shell of this species is round, glomerate, with decussate wrinkles.—It inhabits the European and Atlantic seas, in large masses. The shell is white, grey, or brownish; within it is smooth.

12. *Serpula lumbicalis*.—The shell of this is round, flexuous, with a spiral acute tip. There are three varieties of this species, which are found in the Atlantic and Indian seas, in large masses. The shell is from three to five inches long, transversely ribbed and longitudinally wrinkled.

13. *Serpula polythalamia*.—The shell of this is likewise round, diaphanous, smooth, straightish, with numerous internal divisions.—It inhabits the Mediterranean and Indian seas, under the sand. The shell is outwardly white, transversely wrinkled, and annulate; the inside is separated by imperforated convex and concave divisions, making it appear as if it consisted of numerous united tubes.

14. *Serpula arenaria*.—Shell jointed, entire, distinct, flattish beneath.—It is found in India, and divers parts of the coast of Africa. It is probably a teredo, hereafter to be described. The shell is white, with pale brown undulate rays, or whitish, the outside cancellate, within it is smooth; spirally twisted: there are about a hundred striæ, which are sometimes nedulous.

15. *Serpula anguina*.—Shell roundish, sub-spiral, with a longitudinal jointed cleft.—It inhabits the Indian ocean: varies much in figure, being sometimes round and sometimes angular; it is more or less flexuous, glabrous or rough, with the joints of the cleft often obsolete. There is a variety of this species.

16. *Serpula vermicularis*.—Shell round, tapering, curved, wrinkled.—It inhabits the European seas, and is from two to three inches long. The shell is whitish, ending in an obtuse point; the inhabitant is of a bright scarlet, with elegantly feathered tentacula, from the middle of which arises a trumpet-shaped tube, and a lesser simple one.

17. *Serpula penis*.—The shell of this is round, straight, taper, with a dilated radiate larger extremity; the disk is covered with cylindrical pores. This is denominated the *watering-pot*.—It is found chiefly in the Indian ocean. The shell is white or cinereous, with a faint shade of red; smoothish, tapering, and open at the small end; the dilated margin at the larger end terminating in numerous small tubes; the disk is convex, and covered with round perforations, with a longitudinal one in the middle.

18. *Serpula echinata*.—Shell roundish, flexuous, rosy, with numerous rows of prickles, obtuse at the end. It is the size of a crow's quill; the aperture is margined.

19. *Serpula ocrea*.—The shell of this is roundish, striate, brown.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, usually affixed to corals.

20. *Serpula protensa*.—Shell polished, smoothish, with annulate plaits, a little tapering towards the end.—It is found in the Indian and American seas, and is the size of a quill. The shell is ivory, whitish or blueish, either straight or partly bent.

21. *Serpula decussata*.—Shell round, with decussate striæ, slightly wrinkled, flexuous, red, within smooth and white.

22. *Serpula proboscidea*.—The shell is smooth and white; the broader part is straight and transversely plaited. The shell is from two to four inches long, white, or of a dusky brown.

23. *Serpula afro*.—Shell sub-striate, yellowish-brown, round, twisted into three whorls, with a central tip.—It is found about the coasts of the island of Goree.

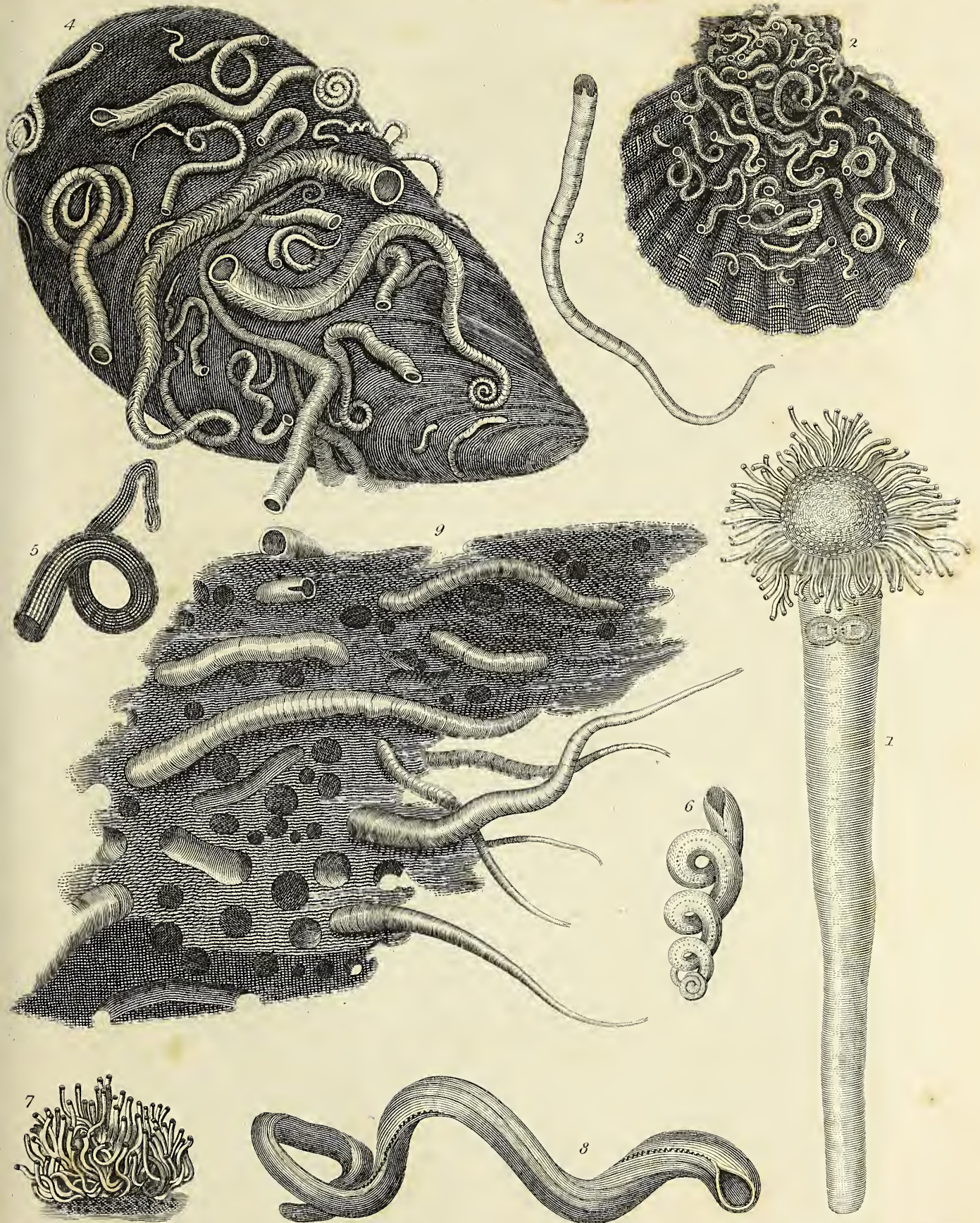
24. *Serpula cereolus*.—Shell round, smooth, yellowish, many times twisted.—It inhabits America. The shell is long and narrow.

25. *Serpula cornucopiæ*.—Shell conic, spirally twisted, yellowish, with brown bands; the middle is round and twisted; the aperture is orbicular. The shell, as to form, is obtuse at the tip.

26. *Serpula Goreensis*.—The shell is round, cancellate, yellow, within horned.—It is found at Goree, fixed to testaceous substances and wood; if from eight to nine inches long, with elevated striæ; the longitudinal ones are crowded.

27. *Serpula intestinalis*.—Shell triangular, twisted, fragile, tuberculate, with hollow dots.—This is found on the African coast

SERPULA AND TEREDO.



1. *S. penis*. 2. *S. triquetra*. 3. *S. vermicularis*. 4. 2. & 3. mixed. 5. *S. reticulata*.
6. *S. papillosa*. 7. *S. filiformis*. 8. *S. sanguinea*. 9. *T. navalis*.

J. Euss sc.



coast. The shell is whitish, singularly twisted, sub-umbilicate, within glabrous.

28. *Serpula infundibulum*.—The shell is round, white, transversely striate, and thrice twisted; the first bend appearing as if composed of five funnels placed on each other.

29. *Serpula pyramidalis*.—Shell cinereous, above convex, beneath flat, pyramidal, hence its specific name, and it is many times twisted, the bends decreasing inwardly.—It is found in the Indian sea, adhering to testaceous substances about an inch long, open at the narrower end; sometimes it is straightish, or a little bent.

30. *Serpula denticulata*.—The shell of this is white, round, subulate, straight, toothed at the sides, with a longitudinal glabrous rib in the middle; the tip is a little incurved and glabrous.—It is found adhering to the *Lepas tintinnabulum*, and is about three-quarters of an inch long.

31. *Serpula melitensis*.—Shell roundish, twisted, umbilicate, with decussate striæ, and longitudinal nodulous ribs, within smooth, with numerous divisions.—It is found fossile in Malta. The two first bends are placed on each other.

32. *Serpula Norwegica*.—The shell of this is round, smooth, incurved, with a nearly obsolete undulate base: the mouth is obliquely truncate.—It is found, as its specific name denotes, in Norway.

33. *Serpula porrecta*.—Shell round, smooth, polished, ascending in a flexuous manner from the spiral base.—It inhabits the North seas. The shell resembles the *serpula spirillum*, but is whiter, pellucid, and not rugged; the inhabitant is short, with a red back and paler sides.

34. *Serpula vitrea*.—The shell is round, regular, spiral, orbicular, pellucid, shining, wrinkled, with a thickened aperture.—This species is found in the Greenland seas, on *sertulariæ*, fuci, stones, and divers marine substances. It resembles the *serpula glomerata*; the shell is thick, umbilicate, not a line in diameter, and sometimes it is of a reddish colour.

35. *Serpula cancellata*.—Shell spiral, glomerate, with three grooves, the lower groove interrupted by transverse lines.—It inhabits the Greenland seas, and resembles the *serpula granulata*. Shell white, grey or greenish, the aperture is two-toothed.

36. *Serpula stellaris*.—Shell sub-orbicular, umbilicate, convex, radiate with wrinkles.—This also is found in the Greenland seas, on *sertulariæ* and stones. The shell is scarcely larger than a needle, violet, reddish-brown, or yellowish radiate with white; beneath it is flat, with a single whorl or bend; the aperture is very minute.

37. *Serpula gigantea*.—The shell of this is somewhat triangular, with a little bend, gradually tapering, violet, within smooth, pale yellow, the aperture is white, with undulate striæ, and armed with a conic tooth.—It inhabits Africa and America, attached to rocks and corals. The shell is six inches high, and as thick as the little finger. The inhabitant is whitish.

38. *Serpula cinerea*.—The shell is filiform, glabrous, conglomerate, perforated.—It inhabits the shores of Massilia; it is glabrous, of a greyish-white, and flexuous.

39. *Serpula sulcata*.—Shell with two whorls, deeply and spirally grooved.—It inhabits the coasts of Pembrokeshire, on the roots of the *fucus digitatus*. It is a minute shell, of a greenish colour.

40. *Serpula ovalis*.—Shell sub-oval, imperforated.—It is found at Tenby. The shell has two bends, which form an oval; it is never perforated, and is minute.

41. *Serpula reflexa*.—The shell is regular, rounded, with a reflected margin at the aperture.—This is found on the Pembrokeshire sands. It is minute; shell glossy, white, perforated; the aperture is above the plane of the spire.

42. *Serpula cornea*.—The shell is regular, rounded, and pellucid, with three whorls.—This also is an inhabitant on the Pembrokeshire coast. It is brown and horny.

43. *Serpula bicornis*.—Shell semilunar, ventricose, white, opaque, glossy.—It is found at Sandwich and Reculver, and is minute.

44. *Serpula perforata*.—Shell semilunar, perforated, white, opaque, glossy.—It inhabits Sandwich, as do all those that will be hereafter described. This is, however, as well as the next, very rare and minute.

45. *Serpula lactea*.—The shell is ovate, thin, smooth, pellucid, with milky veins.

46. *Serpula lagena*.—Shell rounded, striate, grooved, with a narrow neck. This is described, as are all those which are found in this country, in Adams's work on the Microscope. The shell of this is exactly shaped like an oil-flask, and is whitish.

47. *Serpula retorta*.—Shell rounded, margined, with a slender recurved neck. The shell is white, opaque, shaped something like the retort used by chemists.

48. *Serpula incurvata*.—The shell is straight, with three close whorls at the smaller end. The shell is white and transparent, and resembles, in some respects, the *nautilus semilituus*.

SERPILLUM, in Botany, sometimes written *Serpillum*, [so called from its humble creeping mode of growth], a name for THYMUS.

To SERR, *v. a.* [*serrer*, French.] To drive hard together; to crowd into a little space. *Unused*.—The frowning and knitting of the brows is a gathering or *serring* of the spirits, to resist in some measure; and also this knitting will follow upon earnest studying, though it be without dislike. *Bacon*.—Heat attenuates and sends forth the spirit of a body, and upon that the more gross parts contract and *serr* themselves together. *Bacon*.

SERRA PISCIS, in Ichthyology, a name given by many authors to the *pristis* or *saw-fish*.

SERRA is also a name given by Pliny to the trumpet-fish.

SERRA, the general name of assemblages of mountains in Portugal, more particularly of a chain; *serra* meaning, as in Latin, a saw. The principal of these are the Serra de Azenhao, St. Miguel, and St. Salvador in Alentejo; Culdeira and Monchique between Alentejo and Algarva; Alcoba in Beira; Estrica in Entre Douro e Minho; Falperra, Marram, and Rebardeos, in Tras os Montes.

SERRA SAN CHIRICO and SERRA PETRONA, two small towns in the east of Italy, in the marquisate of Ancona.

SERRA CAPRIOLA, a small town of Italy, in the east part of the kingdom of Naples, province of Capitanata.

SERRAIN, a small town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 40 miles south-west of Mecca.

SERRAINA, a cape of the Mediterranean, on the south coast of the island of Sardinia. Lat. 39. 23. N. long. 9. 31. E.

SERRANA, or PEARL ISLAND, a small island in the Caribbean sea, so called from Serrana, commander of a Spanish vessel in the time of Charles V., who was shipwrecked on the coast, and who had lived on the island for four years. Lat. 14. 50. N. long. 78. 50. W.

SERRANILLA ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the bay of Honduras. Lat. 16. 10. N. long. 80. 10. W.

SERRATA, a name given by some of the Roman authors to the *SERRATULA*, or saw-wort.

SERRATE, or SERRATED, *adj.* [*scrattus*, Lat.] Formed with jags or indentures like the edge of a saw.—All that have *serrate* teeth are carnivorous. *Ray*.—The common heron hath long legs for wading, a long neck answerable thereto to reach prey, a wide throat to pouch it, and long toes with strong hooked talons, one of which is remarkably *serrate* on the edge. *Derham*.

SERRATE FLIES, a name given by authors to certain flies, distinguished from all the other kinds by their having a weapon resembling a double saw, placed at the hinder part of the body; this serves several species of them to make holes in the branches of trees, in which they deposit their eggs.

SERRATI, a name anciently given to Syrian, Roman consular, and some few other coins, which were ornamented by cutting out regular notches on the edges. Tacitus says, that the Germans preferred these to other Roman coins. But the old forgers imitated this kind of incision, which was

intended to prevent forgery by shewing the inside of the metal.

SERRATION, *s.* Formation in the shape of a saw.

SERRATULA [so named from the finely serrated leaves of the common sort. The name is found in Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of compositæ capitatæ, cinarocephalæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common, oblong, subcylindrical, imbricate, with lanceolate, acute or obtuse, awnless scales. Corolla: compound, tubulous, uniform. Corollets hermaphrodite, equal. Proper one-petalled, funnel-form: tube bent in; border ventricose, five-cleft. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubulous. Pistil: germ ovate. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, oblong, reflex. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, obovate. Pappus sessile, feathered. Receptacle chaffy, flat.—*Essential Character.* Calyx subcylindrical, imbricate, awnless.

1. *Serratula tinctoria*, or common saw-wort.—Leaves serrate, subciliate, lyrate-pinnatifid; terminating lobe very large; florets uniform; pappus somewhat rugged.—Native of Europe, in woods, thickets, hedges and bushy pastures: flowering in July and August.

2. *Serratula coronata*, or Siberian saw-wort.—Leaves lyrate-pinnatifid; terminating pinna very large; florets of the ray female longer. Native of Italy, Silesia and Siberia.

3. *Serratula Japonica*, or Japanese saw-wort.—Leaves lyrate-pinnatifid, rugged; calyx-scales dilated at the point and membranaceous.—Native of Japan.

4. *Serratula Alpina*, or Alpine saw-wort.—Calyxes somewhat hairy, ovate; leaves undivided, woolly beneath; pappus feathered.—Native of the high mountains of Lapland, Norway, Austria, Switzerland, Silesia, Siberia, Wales and Scotland.

5. *Serratula salicifolia*, or willow-leaved saw-wort.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, alternate, hoary beneath, sessile, quite entire.—Native of Siberia.

6. *Serratula multiflora*, or many-flowered saw-wort.—Leaves lanceolate, villose underneath, subdecurent, quite entire; stem corymb; calyxes cylindrical.—Found in Siberia, Silesia, and China near Canton.

7. *Serratula noveboracensis*, or long-leaved saw-wort.—Leaves lanceolate-oblong, serrate, pendulous.—Native of North America.

8. *Serratula præalta*, or tall saw-wort.—Leaves lanceolate-oblong, serrate, spreading, hirsute beneath.—Native of Virginia, Carolina, Pennsylvania, and most other parts of North America.

9. *Serratula glauca*, or glaucous-leaved saw-wort.—Leaves ovate-oblong, acuminate, serrate; flowers corymb; calyxes roundish.—Native of Maryland, Virginia and Carolina.

10. *Serratula squarrosa*, or rough-headed saw-wort.—Leaves linear; calyxes squarrose, subsessile, acuminate, lateral.—Native of Virginia, and most of the provinces of North America.

11. *Serratula scariosa*, or ragged-cupped saw-wort.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire; calyxes squarrose, peduncled, obtuse.—Native of Virginia.

12. *Serratula pilosa*, or hairy-leaved saw-wort.—Leaves linear, hairy; flowers axillary, on long peduncles.—Native of North America.

13. *Serratula speciosa*, or hairy-cupped saw-wort.—Leaves linear-sickled; flowers sessile, spiked; calycine leaflets, rough-haired, acute; the inner ones elongated, coloured at the point.—Native of Carolina and Georgia.

14. *Serratula spicata*, or spiked saw-wort.—Leaves linear, ciliate at the base; flowers in spikes, sessile, lateral; stem simple.—Native of North America.

15. *Serratula amara*, or bitter saw-wort.—Leaves lanceolate; calycine scales scariosæ at the point, blunt, patulous, coloured; flowers terminating.—Native of Siberia.

16. *Serratula centauroides*, or century-like saw-wort.—Leaves pinnatifid, oblique, acute, smooth, unarmed; calycine scales mucronate; the inner ones scariosæ.—Native of Siberia.

17. *Serratula mucronata*, or pointed-cupped saw-wort.—Smooth; leaves entire, lanceolate; stem few-flowered; calycine scales scariosæ at the point; acuminate, reflex.—Native of Barbary, near Mascar.

18. *Serratula humilis*, or dwarf saw-wort.—Leaves pinnatifid, tomentose beneath; head simple, one-flowered; calyx-leaves subulate, loose.—Native of Mount Atlas, near Tlemsen.

19. *Serratula scordium*.—Leaves lanceolate, serrate, half-embracing; flowers fastigiæ; root creeping.—Native of China and Cochinchina.

20. *Serratula arvensis*.—Corn saw-wort, or way thistle.—Leaves sessile, pinnatifid, spiny; stem paniced; calyxes ovate, spinulose. It is one of the worst pests of arable lands, having strong creeping roots, striking down to a great depth, and then branching out horizontally, so that it is very difficult to root it out where it has once got possession, and every small piece of it will grow.

Propagation and Culture.—The saw-worts are hardy perennial plants, and will thrive in the open air in England. The first is rarely admitted into gardens, but the other sorts are frequently preserved in the gardens of the curious. The 10th, 11th and 14th sorts, have large knobbed roots; these are propagated only by seeds, which seldom ripen in England, so that the seeds must be procured from abroad. These should be sown on an east-angled border, where the morning sun only comes; for if the seeds are exposed to the mid-day sun, they seldom succeed well.

The other perennial sorts may be propagated by parting of the roots; the best time for doing this is in autumn, when their stalks begin to decay; for when they are removed in the spring, if the season should prove dry, their roots will not be sufficiently established to flower well the same year.

SERRATUM, and **SERRULATUM**, *Folium*, in Botany, [so called from *serra*, a saw, the teeth of which are imitated in their margins], or serrate edged-leaf.

SERRATUS, a name given to different muscles attached to the ribs. See **ANATOMY**.

SERRATURE, *s.* Indenture like teeth of saws.—These are serrated on the edges; but the *serratures* are deeper and grosser than in any of the rest. *Woodward.*

SERRAVEZZA, **VALLE DI**, a valley in the grand duchy of Tuscany, about 10 miles from Carrara, containing quarries of white marble, whence Michael Angelo drew the materials for the Medici statues at Florence.

SERRE, a river in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes, which falls into the Oise, not far from La Fere.

SERRE, a small town in the south-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, with 1600 inhabitants; 25 miles south-east of Salerno.

SERRE, a river of Brazil, in the country of Matto-grosso, which runs north, and enters the Itenes.

SERRE (I. A.), a miniature painter and musician of Geneva, who has analysed the "Guida Armonica" of Gemiani, the "Basse fondamentale" of Rameau, and the Treatises of Tartini, with his discovery of the "Terzo Suono." These celebrated works M. Serre has critically examined in two ingenious essays, published in 1753 and 1763, in which there are likewise many curious remarks on disputable points in the theory and practice of harmony, which will both amuse and instruct musical students.

SERRE, [Fr.] close intervals in music, such as the enharmonic quarter tones in the ancient Greek music; and in French music, short and quick.

SERRES (John de), a Protestant Minister, was born in the south of France, and studied at Lausanne. Having made himself known by various works, he became rector of the college of Nismes, and a minister of that city, and he was employed on several important occasions by Henry IV.; that prince having asked Serres if it were possible for a person to be saved in the communion of the church of Rome, he answered in the affirmative, whence he has been accused of promoting Henry's change of religion. Notwithstanding this decision, he was a warm controversialist against

against the Catholics, and made a very severe attack upon the Jesuits, entitled "*Doctrinæ Jesuiticæ precipua capita.*" As a learned author, he is chiefly known by an edition of Plato in three volumes folio, printed by Henry Stephens in 1578, with notes and a new Latin version, which however, is not remarkable for correctness. The principal of his other works are as follow: "Commentariorum de statu Religionis et Rei-publicæ in Regno Franciæ," comprising the events from 1557 to 1576: "Mémoire de la Troisième Guerre civile sous Charles IX.;" "Recueil des Choses memorables avenues en France sous Henri II., François II., Charles IX., et Henri III.;" and "Inventaire Général de l'Histoire de France." Serres towards the end of his life, engaged in the hopeless design of uniting the Catholic and reformed churches, which brought on him the contempt of one party and the enmity of the other. He died in 1598.

SERRES (Oliver de), an eminent agriculturist, was born in 1539, at Villeneuve de Berg, in the Vivarais. Serres wrote works which rendered him the oracle of the cultivators in that age, and many of his ideas have been copied by later writers without acknowledgment. His "*Théâtre d'Agriculture, et Menage des Champs,*" 1600, has been several times reprinted. It has been described by Haller as "a great and valuable work, written by an experienced man, fond of simplicity, and not at all attached to expensive methods." He published treatises on the management of silk-worms, the collection of the silk, and the culture of the white mulberry-tree, which he introduced into France.

SERRES, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Upper Alps, with 1100 inhabitants. It has some small manufactures of hats, cloth, and leather; 24 miles west-south-west of Gap.

SERRET, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 30 miles west of Castamena.

SERREY, or SIERAJE, a small town in the north-east of Poland, in the palatinate of Augustow. Population 1100; 37 miles north of Grodno.

SERRIERES, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Ardecho, on the Rhone. Population 1700; 15 miles north of Tournon.

SERRIERES, a village in the north of Switzerland, on the lake of Neufchatel, with some manufactures of paper and hardware; 2 miles south-west of Neufchatel.

SERRIS, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, and district of Rhotas. It is the chief town of a small district called Serris Columbah. Lat. 24. 50. N. long. 84. 18. E.

SERROPALPUS, in Entomology, a genus of insects, of the order Coleoptera, whose Generic Character, is as follows: antennæ setaceous; four unequal feelers; the anterior ones are the longer, and deeply serrate, composed of four joints, the last very large, truncate, compressed, patelliform; the posterior ones are subclavate; thorax margined, concealing the head, with a prominent angle on each side; the head is deflected; and the feet formed for digging. There are two species:—

1. *Serropalpus striatus.*—The body of this insect is brown; the shells striate.—It inhabits the island of Runsale, and is described in the Stockholm Transactions for the year 1786; where it is said to be found chiefly on old wooden buildings, in the evening in autumn, and is about the size of the *Elater aterrimus.*

2. *Serropalpus lævigatus.*—This species is characterized by a black body, and smooth shells.—It inhabits different parts of Europe, and is likewise described in the volume of the Stockholm Transactions already referred to.

SERRURIA, in Botany, a name altered by Mr. Salisbury and Mr. Brown, from the *Serraria* of professor John Burmann, who in his *Plantæ Africanæ*, 266, establishes the latter appellation, in honour of Dr. Joseph Serrurier, Professor at Utrecht. It comprehends chiefly those plants described under the Linnæan term, *PROTEA.*

To SE'RRY, *v. a.* [*serrer*, French; *serrato*, Italian. Dr. Johnson.—*Sera* is the Cornish term for *lock*, or *shut up.*] To press close; to drive hard together. The participle only is used.

With them rose
A forest huge of spears; and thronging helms
Appear'd, and *serried* shields in thick array.

Milton.

Foul dissipation follow'd, and forc'd rout;
Nor serv'd it to relax their *serried* files.

Milton.

SERSALISIA, separated by Mr. Brown, in his Prodr. Nov. Holl., from the Linnæan *Sideroxylon*; but the character does not seem very clear.

SERT, a town of Kurdistan, in Asiatic Turkey. Its name and position, as well as the tradition of the inhabitants, point it out as the ancient *Tigranocerta*, the capital of Tigranes, who peopled it chiefly by prisoners seized during his invasion of Syria and Cappadocia. In the year 69 A.C. it was taken and plundered by Lucullus, but retained its importance till after the Saracen invasion. It is now only a large village, containing about 3000 inhabitants, partly Mahometans, partly Armenian Christians, accommodated with three small mosques, a college, and Armenian church. It is situated in a small plain, surrounded on every side by high mountains, and is washed by the river Kabour. There are no remarkable monuments of any kind, the country affording no durable materials. The surrounding territory is in a comparatively improved state of culture. The chief of Sert possesses almost absolute authority, and is in every respect a powerful feudal lord; 75 miles south-east of Diarbekir.

SERTORIUS (Quintus), a distinguished Roman commander, was a native of Nursia, in the Picentine region of Italy. He made his first campaign under Servilius Cæpio, against the Cimbrians and Teutones in Gaul. In an early engagement he was severely wounded, and would have lost his life, if he had not possessed sufficient vigour to swim across the Rhone, when encumbered with his armour. He next served under Marius, and exhibited proofs of valour and talents, which much ingratiated him with that general. Spain was the next great theatre of his exertions, where he served under Didius, and acquired much reputation in the campaign. On his return to Rome, he was made questor in Cisalpine Gaul; and when the social war broke out, he brought a well-timed reinforcement to the Roman army. In a battle that ensued, he lost an eye, a mark of bravery in which he always gloried, and which pointed him out to the plaudits of the people, whenever he appeared in the theatre, and other public places. He was candidate for the tribuneship, but was disappointed in his hopes by the overbearing interest of Sylla: he accordingly joined the party of Marius in the succeeding civil war. He commanded one of the three armies which invested Rome, and honourably distinguished himself by abstaining from all those acts of cruelty which disgraced the arms of Cinna and Marius. When Sylla gained the ascendancy in Italy, Sertorius withdrew to Spain, of which country he had been appointed pretor. Here he hoped to be able to revive his cause, and with this view he detached a body of troops to seize the passes of the Pyrenees; but the murder of their commander induced them to abandon their post, and consequently laid Spain open to Sylla's officers. After some various adventures, chiefly of the disastrous kind, Sertorius went into Africa, and assisted the Mauritanians to throw off the yoke of a tyrannical king; defeating one of Sylla's generals, by whom he was supported. His reputation now caused him to be invited to Lusitania; and sailing thither with a small body of Romans and Africans, he obtained such an ascendancy over the natives that he soon had the command of the whole Lusitanian nation. He exercised them in the arts of warfare, and introduced a rigid discipline among them; but Roman tactics being unsuitable to them, he adopted a service better suited to the nature and circumstances of the country. He defeated, with his new trained armies, several Roman generals, who were sent against him, and instituted a senate in competition with that of Rome, and imitated all the forms of the republic. He foiled the attempts of that eminent commander, Metellus, to reduce him; continually harassing his troops by sudden attacks and skirmishes,

skirmishes, and intercepting his convoys. He adopted the liberal policy of civilizing the Lusitanians and neighbouring Spaniards, and familiarizing them with Roman letters and customs. For this purpose he established a great school in the city of Osca, at which the sons of men of distinction were gratuitously educated, and at the same time kept as hostages for the fidelity of their parents. Feeling that his power was not sufficiently firm, without the aid of superstition, which ever captivates the ignorant and uncivilized, he trained a white fawn, that had been presented to him, to such a degree of tameness, that it followed him whithersoever he went, and was his constant companion; and he encouraged the belief that the animal was the gift of Diana, and intended by that goddess to convey him information of the designs of his enemies. At length the famous Pompey was nominated to the command against him; and when he arrived, he found that all the Roman troops, which, after the death of Lepidus, had been carried to Spain by Perseus, with the design of setting up there for himself, had joined Sertorius, who was now at the head of a considerable army. Pompey proceeded against him with a superior force; but Sertorius took a town in his presence, and afterwards defeated him at the battle of Sucro. He gave him a second defeat; but Metellus routed a separate division, and Sertorius was glad to take to the mountains. He then offered to lay down his arms, provided the proscription against him might be taken off, and he were permitted to return to Rome. Soon after he received an embassy from Mithridates, the formidable foe of the Romans, offering him an advantageous alliance, provided he were suffered to repossess the provinces from which he had been expelled by Sylla. But Sertorius would not agree to more than his recovery of Bithynia and Cappadocia, without touching upon the Roman province of Asia; and upon these terms the treaty was concluded. A conspiracy was now formed against Sertorius by the Roman patricians in his army, and they succeeded in exciting a revolt in several Lusitanian towns. Incensed at this defection, he caused several of the children, whom he kept as hostages at Osca, to be slain, and others to be sold as slaves. This is said to have been the only act of cruelty by which his memory is tarnished. In revenge for the loss of their sons, the conspirators formed a plot against the life of Sertorius; in consequence of which he was basely assassinated, while he was at a feast. This event took place in the year 73 B. C. "The great qualities and military talents of this eminent person would undoubtedly have raised him to the first rank among the chiefs of his country, had he not been a leader of a party, instead of a commander for the state. With nothing to support him but the resources of his own mind, he created a powerful kingdom among strangers, and defended it a long time against the arms of Rome, although wielded by the ablest generals of his time; and he displayed public and private virtues, which would have rendered a people happy under his rule at a less turbulent period." *Univer. Hist.*

SERTULARIA, in Natural History, a genus of the class Vermes, and order Zoophytes. The Generic Character is this: the animal grows in the form of a plant; the stem is branched, producing polypes from cup-shaped denticles, or minute cells. There are nearly four-score species, divided into two sections.

1.—Stem horny, tubular, fixed to the base, beset with cup-shaped denticles, and furnished with vesicles, or ovaries, containing polypes, eggs, or living young.

1. *Sertularia rosacea*.—This species is panicled, with opposite, tubular, truncate denticles, and alternate branches; the vesicles are crowned with spines.—It inhabits the European seas, and our own coasts, growing on shells, or creeping up other corallines; it is white; the vesicles resemble the blossom of the pomegranate.

2. *Sertularia pumila*.—The denticles of this species are opposite, pointed, and recurved; the vesicles are obovate; the branches loose and irregular.—It is found in the ocean, on fuci, particularly on the serratus.

3. *Sertularia operculata*.—Denticles opposite, pointed, and nearly erect; the vesicles are obovate, covered with a lid; the branches are alternate.—It inhabits the European and American seas, on fuci and shells. The twigs are about five inches long; the denticles are bicuspidate, with a short bristle on each side.

4. *Sertularia tamarisca*.—Denticles nearly opposite, truncate, three-toothed; vesicles ovate, two-toothed, with a short tube in the centre; the branches are alternate.—This is found in most of the European seas, and is the largest of its kind. It is about four inches long, and is found adhering to shells.

5. *Sertularia abietina*.—Denticles nearly opposite, tubular, oval; the vesicles are oval, and the branches alternate.—It is found in the British and other European seas, and the Mediterranean, growing to shells. It is five inches long, and often covered with small serpulæ; the branches are frequently pinnate.

6. *Sertularia nigra*.—Denticles nearly opposite, minute; vesicles large, placed all on one side, oval, quadrangular; the branches are pinnate.—This is found on the Cornish coast, adhering to the *Mytilus margaritiferus*. It is four inches long, blackish.

7. *Sertularia fuscescens*.—Denticles nearly opposite, tubular; the vesicles are numerous, placed all on one side, minute, with three tubercles on each; the branches are pinnate.—This is also an inhabitant of the Cornish coast. It resembles the last, but is of a greyish-brown colour.

8. *Sertularia obsoleta*.—Denticles generally placed in eight rows, ovate, slightly heart-shaped, and disposed in a quincunx form; the branches are alternate and pinnate.—It is an inhabitant of the Frozen ocean, is about five inches high, and of a horn colour, with the joints becoming more and more obsolete towards the top.

9. *Sertularia pinus*.—Denticles sub-spinous, generally disposed in six rows; the vesicles are bottle-shaped, turgid, subdiaphanous, with a simple mouth; the branches are pinnate, nearly alternate.—It inhabits the White sea, fixed to shells.

10. *Sertularia cupressoides*.—Denticles simple, obliquely truncate, with a slightly protuberant mouth; the vesicles are ovate, with a subtubular mouth; the branches are dichotomous, loose, and with the trunk joined with two rings at the junctures. This is found in the White sea; is subdiaphanous, yellowish, and nearly half a foot long.

11. *Sertularia cupressina*.—Denticles nearly opposite, obliquely truncate, and a little pointed; vesicles obovate, two-toothed; branches panicled, and very long.—It is common in all the European seas, and is found in a long pointed loose panicle.

12. *Sertularia argentea*.—Denticles nearly opposite, pointed; vesicles oval; branches alternate, panicled.—This is an inhabitant of the European and American seas; very much resembles the last, but the branches are shorter and looser, and the panicle is more obtuse.

13. *Sertularia rugosa*.—Denticles nearly opposite, obsolete; vesicles much wrinkled, and three-toothed; the branches are scattered.—This species inhabits the European seas, and is found growing on the *Flustra foliacea*, and other sertulariæ.

14. *Sertularia halecina*.—Denticles alternate, tubular, and two-jointed; the vesicles oval, each united along the side to a small tubular stalk; the stem is alternately branched and pinnate.—This is found in the European and Mediterranean seas. It is horny, and of a yellowish-grey; the denticles are nearly obsolete.

15. *Sertularia thuja*.—The denticles in this species are arranged in two rows, closely adhering to the stem; the vesicles obovate, margined; stem waved and stiff, with a tuft of dichotomous branches near the tip.—It is found on the northern coasts of England, and in the Mediterranean, and is about half a foot long.

16. *Sertularia myriophyllum*.—The denticles are truncate, all leaning one way on the stem; the stem itself is gibbous on the side opposite the branches; the branches lean all one way. This is found in most European seas, and in the Mediterranean;

Mediterranean; it is about three inches long, is pale and horny; the stem is rather angular, with arched protuberances opposite the branches; the denticles are seated in a socket furnished with a short spine on the lower part.

17. *Sertularia hypnoides*.—Denticles pointing one way, campanulate, toothed, and beaked; stems with pinnate branches, and very crowded subdivisions.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, is six inches high; in colour it is brown, with yellowish imbricate radicles.

18. *Sertularia speciosa*.—Denticles campanulate, effuse, toothed, and stipulate; the stem is pinnate, rigid, with incurved branches, mostly pointing one way.—It is found in the Indian ocean, adhering to the tubular radicles of gorgoniae; it is brown, horny, and from three to four inches long.

19. *Sertularia falcata*.—The denticles of this species point all one way; they are imbricate and truncate; the vesicles are ovate; the branches are pinnate and alternate. There is a variety of this species described by Ellis, in his work on Corallines.—It inhabits the European and Indian seas, and is from three inches to a foot long; the stem is a little flexuous; the denticles in a single row.

20. *Sertularia pluma*.—In this the denticles point one way, they are imbricate and campanulate: the vesicles are gibbous and crested; the branches are pinnate, alternate, and lanceolate.—It is found on most European coasts, climbing up fuci; the branches are jointed; the denticles are serrate at the margin, and supported in front by a small hollow spine; the vesicles have a denticulate margin, and generally five oblique crested ribs.

21. *Sertularia echinata*.—Denticles opposite, pointing one way, campanulate; the vesicles are crested; the branches pinnate, alternate, and lanceolate.—It inhabits chiefly the shores of Sweden, on fuci.

22. *Sertularia antennina*.—The denticles are verticillate, in fours, setaceous; vesicles obliquely truncate, verticillate; the stems are generally simple. There is a variety which is branched.—They are both found on the British coasts, often nearly a foot high; it is yellow, with very fine capillary yellowish radicles; the stem is surrounded with small incurved setaceous branches, on the upper sides of which are rows of small cup-shaped denticles; the vesicles are placed on pedicles obliquely open towards the stem, and placed round it at the insertion of the branches.

23. *Sertularia verticillata*.—The denticles in this are obsolete; the vesicles campanulate, toothed round the rim, on long twisted pedicles, and placed in fours round the stem; the branches are alternate.—It is found on the British coasts; stem ribbed, very loosely branched; the denticles are not visible; the vesicles are nearly erect, and glutinous; the ovaries are oval, ending in a tubular mouth.

24. *Sertularia gelatinosa*.—Vesicles campanulate: stem with numerous decomposite spreading branches.—It is found on the coasts of the Netherlands; is half a foot long, and of a greyish-brown colour.

25. *Sertularia volubilis*.—The denticles in this are obsolete; the vesicles are alternate, campanulate, toothed round the rim, on long, twisted pedicles; the branches are alternate.—It inhabits the European seas, climbing up other *Sertularia*; it is whitish and minute; the ovaries are egg-shaped and smooth, or transversely wrinkled.

26. *Sertularia syringa*.—Denticles obsolete; vesicles cylindrical, mostly alternate, and placed on short twisted pedicles.

27. *Sertularia cuscata*.—Denticles obsolete; vesicles oval, axillary; branches opposite and simple.—It is found in the European seas, adhering to fuci.

28. *Sertularia pustulosa*.—Stem with alternate dichotomous branches, obsoletely denticulate on the upper part.—It inhabits the shores of the Isle of Wight, and is four inches long. The stem is seen rising into alternate dichotomous joints, with small denticles, having a circular rim, with a point in the middle of each towards the upper part of each joint.

29. *Sertularia frutescens*.—Denticles cylindrical, campanulate, placed in a single row on the inside of the branches; Vol. XXIII. No. 1554.

the branches are alternate, and pinnate.—This is chiefly found on the British shores; rather hard, blackish with brown branches; the stem is composed of small united tubes.

30. *Sertularia pinaster*.—In this species the denticles are opposite, sessile, with an incurved tubular tip; the vesicles are large, ovate, quadrangular; the angles terminating in a spine, and furnished with a tubular mouth in the centre, placed in a row along the branches; the branches are alternate.

31. *Sertularia pennatula*.—The denticles in this are in a single row, crenate on the rim, and supported by a slender, truncate, incurved horn; the branches are opposite.—It is found in the Indian ocean; is five or six inches long; yellowish-brown; the denticles have two opposite spines on the rim.

32. *Sertularia filicula*.—Denticles opposite, ovate, with a single erect one at the junctures of the branches; vesicles obovate, with a tubular mouth in the centre; the stem is zig-zag, with alternate branches.—It inhabits the British shores, is very tender, and the stem is much branched.

33. *Sertularia quadridentata*.—Denticles in fours, opposite, at the joints of the stem; the stem is simple, with the joints tapering and twisted towards the base.—It inhabits the African shores on the fucus *lendigerus*.

34. *Sertularia spicata*.—Denticles in three, cylindrical, terminal, and nearly closed at the mouth; vesicles ovate, axillary; stem tubular, panicled, annulate, with trichotomous branches disposed in whorls round the rings.

35. *Sertularia Evansii*.—The denticles are short and opposite; the vesicles are lobed, arising from the branches which are opposite.—It inhabits the British coasts, and is found on fuci: it is two inches high, very slender, and yellow, with fulvous vesicles.

36. *Sertularia muricata*.—The denticles of this species are pedicled, proceeding alternately from the joints of the branches; vesicles oval, spinous; the stem is jointed.—It is found on the shores of Scotland; the vesicles are nearly globular, placed on pedicles, and full of pointed spines from crested ribs.

37. *Sertularia secundaria*.—Denticles in a single, campanulate; the vesicles are axillary; the stem is minute, white and incurved.—This species is found in the Mediterranean: it is scarcely three lines high, and not thicker than a fine bristle.

38. *Sertularia misenensis*.—The denticles are alternate, very thin, spreading; the vesicles are oval, peduncles axillary; stem much branched, dichotomous.—It inhabits the Mediterranean, is very slender, pellucid towards the tip, and sometimes covered with the cancer linearis.

39. *Sertularia purpurea*.—Denticles sub-ovate, tubular, in four imbricate rows; the vesicles are erect and campanulate; the branches are dichotomous and square.—It inhabits the sea round Kamtschatka, and is of a blackish-purple.

40. *Sertularia articulata*.—Denticles pressed together; the vesicles are ovate, rather large, covered with the lid, and placed in a single row; the stem is jointed and pinnate.—It is found in the Atlantic ocean, creeping on shells, and is about two inches long; pale yellow.

41. *Sertularia filicina*.—Denticles imbricate, placed on one side only; vesicles jointed; stem granulate, branched and pinnate, the subdivisions alternate.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, is pale, and about three inches long.

42. *Sertularia fruticans*.—The denticles of this species are in a single row on one side, semi-campanulate; the stem is granulate, woody, with alternate setaceous subdivisions.—It inhabits the American seas in tufts, on shells: it is six inches long, and of a yellowish-grey.

II.—The species of this division have a crustaceous stem, inclining to stone, and composed of rows of cells; they have no vesicles, but in the place of these there are small globules.

43. *Sertularia bursaria*.—Denticles opposite, compressed and truncate; the stem is branched, and dichotomous.—It is found

found on the British coasts, adhering to fuci; it is minute, flexile, hyaline; the denticles are carinate, with a small clavate tube at the top.

44. *Sertularia loriculata*.—Denticles opposite, obliquely truncate, and nearly obsolete; the branches are erect and dichotomous.—It inhabits the British coasts, on old sertulariæ.

45. *Sertularia fastigiata*.—Denticles alternate, pointed; branches dichotomous, erect.—This is found in the British seas; the denticles are marked with a black spot in the middle.

46. *Sertularia aricularia*.—The denticles all point one way, nearly opposite, and furnished with two mucronate appendages; the globules appendaged; the stem is branched and dichotomous.—It is found in the European seas; is from one to two inches long; in colour it is of a dirty grey. It is very brittle.

47. *Sertularia neritina*.—The denticles are alternate, acute, and pointing one way; the branches are dichotomous, unequal, and straight.—It is found in the European and American seas. It is soft; the globules have an opening, surrounded by a dark-coloured margin.

48. *Sertularia scruposa*.—Denticles alternate, angular, spinous; the branches are dichotomous and creeping.—It inhabits most seas; is very brittle, linear, and pale, with a double row of cells.

49. *Sertularia pilosa*.—The denticles are alternate, oblique, with a long mouth; the branches are dichotomous, fastigiata, and strong.—It is found in the Mediterranean, and is not half an inch long.

50. *Sertularia crispa*.—This species is very much branched, dichotomous, elongated, and crisp; with depressed ovate joints, furnished with cells on one side.—It inhabits the East, is large, flexile, and of a pale-grey colour.

51. *Sertularia floccosa*.—This is very much branched, dichotomous, fastigiata, with wedge-shaped joints, having cells on one side.—This is found chiefly in the Indian ocean; is large, whitish, with greyish flexile joints.

52. *Sertularia reptans*.—Denticles alternate, two-toothed; the branches are dichotomous and creeping.—This is found in the European seas, adhering to the flustra foliacea; it is not an inch long; white or pale-grey.

53. *Sertularia parasitica*.—The denticles of this species are verticillate, turbinate, ciliate, and parasitical.—It is found in the Mediterranean and North seas, adhering to other sertulariæ and corallines; in colour it is dull red, with terminal denticles.

54. *Sertularia ciliata*.—Denticles alternate, ciliate, funnel-form; branches dichotomous and erect.—It inhabits the European seas, on marine substances; not half an inch high; it is whitish; the cells have wide mouths.

55. *Sertularia eburnea*.—The denticles are alternate, truncate, a little prominent; the vesicles are gibbous, with a tubular beak on one side; the branches spreading.—This inhabits the European and Mediterranean seas, and is found growing upon other sertulariæ and fuci; is about an inch high, and white.

56. *Sertularia anguina*.—The stem is very simple, without denticles, but beset with very simple, obtuse, clavate arms, each with a lateral opening.—This is found climbing up marine substances; it is white, soft, flexile, varying in form, and appears to connect the sertulariæ and hydræ; the arms are testaceous.

57. *Sertularia flabellum*.—This species is stony, branched, jointed, dichotomous; the joints are somewhat wedge-shaped, and have cells on one side.—It inhabits the Bahama Islands, is about two inches high, white, growing in tufts; the joints are convex and striate on one side; the others are flat, with a triple row of cells.

SERVA, a small river of the Sardinian states, in Piedmont, which falls into the Sesia to the north of Vercelli.

SERVAN, St., a considerable town in the north-west of France, department of the Ille and Vilaine, situated at the mouth of the river Rance; about a mile to the south of St. Malo, from which it is separated by a narrow arm of the sea,

dry at low water. It is tolerably built, contains a population of 9000, but covers a space of ground more than proportionally large. It has a fine port, divided into two parts by a rock, on which stands the tower of Solidor. One of these divisions is fitted for men-of-war, or large merchantmen; the other for smaller vessels. Its manufactures, consisting chiefly of linen, sail-cloth, soap and tobacco, are considerable; provisions, and consequently labour being cheap here; ship-building is likewise carried on to some extent. This place is the resort in peace of a number of English families. In time of war it sends out a number of privateers.

SERVANDONI (John Nicholas), an eminent architect, was born at Florence in 1695. He was employed by several of the sovereigns in Europe on occasions of magnificent public spectacles, in which he displayed a very fertile invention, with nobleness of ideas, and a correct taste. As an architect he has left a fine specimen of his taste in the portico and front of the church St. Sulpice.

SERVANT, *s.* [*servus*, Lat.] One who attends another, and acts at his command. The correlative of master. Used of man or woman.

I had rather be a country *servant* maid,
Than a great queen with this condition.

Shakspeare.

He disdain'd not
Thenceforth the form of *servant* to assume.

Milton.

A word of civility used to superiors or equals.—This subjection, due from all men to all men, is something more than the compliment of course, when our betters tell us they are our humble *servants*, but understand us to be their slaves. *Swift*.

The first sort of servants, acknowledged by the laws of England, comprehends *menial* servants; so called from being *intra mania*, or *domestics*. The contract between them and their masters arises upon the hiring: if the hiring be general, without any particular time limited, the law construes it to be hiring for a year (Co. Litt. 42. F. N. B. 168.); but the contract may be made for any larger or smaller term. All single men between twelve years of age and sixty, and married ones under thirty years of age; and all single women between twelve and forty, not having any visible livelihood, are compellable by two justices to go out to service in husbandry, or certain specific trades, for the promotion of honest industry: and no master can put away his servant, or servant leave his master after being so retained, either before or at the end of his term, without a quarter's warning, unless upon reasonable cause, to be allowed by a justice of the peace (stat. 5 Eliz. c. 4.); but they may part by consent, or make a special bargain.

A master may maintain, i. e. abet or assist his servant in any action at law against a stranger; he may also bring an action against any man for beating or maiming his servant, assigning his damage by the loss of service, and proving the loss upon the trial: he may likewise justify an assault in defence of his servant, and a servant in defence of his master (2 Roll. Abr. 546.): and if any person hire or retain my servant, being in my service, I may have an action for damages against both the new master and the servant, or either of them; but if the master did not know that he is my servant, no action lies, unless he afterwards refuse to restore him upon information and demand. F. N. B. 167, 168.

As for those things which a servant may do in behalf of his master, they seem to be grounded on this principle, that the master is answerable for the act of his servant, if done by his command, either expressly given or implied; therefore, if the servant commit a trespass by the command or encouragement of his master, the master shall be guilty of it; if any inn-keeper's servants rob his guests, the master is bound to restitution (Noy's Max. c. 43.); and if the drawer at a tavern sells a man bad wine, by which his health is injured, he may bring an action against the master. (1 Roll. Abr. 95.) In the same manner, whatever a servant is permitted to do in the usual course of his business, is equivalent to a general

general command; if I pay money to a banker's servant, the banker is answerable for it; if a steward lets lease of a farm without the owner's knowledge, the owner must stand to the bargain: a wife, friend, or relation, that used to transact business for a man, are, *quoad hoc*, his servants, and the principal must answer for their conduct. Farther, if a servant, by his negligence, does any damage to a stranger, the master shall answer for his neglect: if a smith's servant lames a horse while he is shoeing him, an action lies against the master and not against the servant. A master is chargeable if any of his family layeth or carrieth any thing out of his house into the street, or common highway, to the damage of an individual, or the common nuisance of his majesty's liege people. In case of fire the servant is accountable. *Blackst. Comm. book. i.*

To SERVANT, *v. a.* To subject. *Not in use.*

My affairs

Are *servanted* to others: though I owe
My revenge properly, remission lies
In Volscian breasts.

Shakspeare.

To SERVE, *v. a.* [*servio*, Latin.] To work for.—Because thou art my brother, should'st thou therefore *serve* me for nought? *Genesis.*—To attend at command.

A goddess among gods ador'd, and *serv'd*
By angels numberless, thy daily train.

Milton.

To obey servilely or meanly.

When wealthy, shew thy wisdom not to be
To wealth a servant, but make wealth *serve* thee. *Denham.*

To supply with food ceremoniously.

Others, pamper'd in their shameless pride,
Are *serv'd* in plate, and in their chariots ride. *Dryden.*

To bring meat as a menial attendant: with *in* or *up*: with *in*, as meat dressed in the kitchen is brought *into* another room; with *up*, as the room of repast is commonly higher than the kitchen.—Bid them cover the table, *serve* in the meat, and we will come in to dinner. *Shakspeare.*

Some part he roasts; then *erves* it up so drest,
And bids me welcome to this humble feast:
Mov'd with disdain,

I with avenging flames the palace burn'd.

Dryden.

To be subservient or subordinate to.

Bodies bright and greater should not *serve*
The less not bright.

Milton.

To supply with any thing: as, the curate *serv'd* two churches.—They that *serve* the city shall *serve* it out of all the tribes of Israel. *Ezek.*—To obey in military actions: as, he *serv'd* the king in three campaigns.—To be sufficient to.—If any subject, interest or fancy has recommended, their reasoning is after their fashion; it *erves* their turn. *Locke.*—To be of use to; to assist; to promote.—When a storm of a sad mischance beats upon our spirits, turn it into some advantage, by observing where it can *serve* another end, either of religion or prudence. *Bp. Taylor.*

He consider'd every creature—

Most opportune might *serve* his wiles.

Milton.

To help by good offices.

Shall he thus *serve* his country, and the muse
The tribute of her just applause refuse?

Tate.

To comply with; to submit to.—They think herein we *serve* the time, because thereby we either hold or seek preferment. *Hooker.*—To satisfy; to content.—As the former empty plea *serv'd* the sottish Jews, this equally *erves* these to put them into a fool's paradise, by feeding their hopes, without changing their lives. *South.*—Nothing would *serve* them then but riding. *L'Estrange.*

One half-pint bottle *erves* them both to dine,
And is at once their vinegar and wine.

Pope.

To stand instead of any thing to one.

The dull flat falsehood *erves* for policy,
And in the cunning, truth itself's a lie.

Pope.

[*Se servir de*, French.] To SERVE *himself* of. To make use of. An unadopted Gallicism.—They would *serve themselves* of this form. *Taylor.*—I will *serve myself* of this concession. *Chillingworth.*—It is much more easy for men to *serve* their own ends of those principles, which they do not put into men, but find there. *Tillotson.*—To treat; to requite: in an ill sense: as, he *serv'd* me ungratefully.—To worship the Supreme Being.—Matters hid—leave thou to God; Him *serve* and fear. *Milton.*

To SERVE a warrant. To seize an offender, and carry to justice.

To SERVE an office. To discharge any public duty.

To SERVE, *v. n.* To be a servant, or slave.—Israel *serv'd* for a wife, and for a wife he kept sheep. *Hosea.*—To be in subjection.—Thou hast made me to *serve* with thy sins; thou hast wearied me with thine iniquities. *Isa.*—To attend; to wait.—Martha was cumbered about much *erving*, and said, Lord, dost thou not care that my sister hath left me to *serve* alone? *St. Luke.*—To engage in the duties of war under command.

Both more or less have given him the revolt;
And none *serve* with him but constrained things,
Whose hearts are absent too.

Shakspeare.

Many noble gentlemen came out of all parts of Italy, who had before been great commanders, but now *serv'd* as private gentlemen without pay. *Knolles.*—To produce the end desired.—The look bewrayed, that as she used these ornaments, not for herself, but to prevail with another, so she feared that all would not *serve.* *Sidney.*—To be sufficient for a purpose.

Take it, she said; and when your needs require,
This little brand will *serve* to light your fire.

Dryden.

To suit; to be convenient.

As occasion *erves*, this noble queen
And prince shall follow with a fresh supply. *Shakspeare.*

To conduce; to be of use.

Who lessens thee, against his purpose *erves*
To manifest the more thy might.

Milton.

Fashion is, for the most part, nothing but the ostentation of riches; and therefore the high price of what *erves* to that, rather increases than lessens its vent. *Locke.*—To officiate or minister: as, he *serv'd* at the public dinner.

In sea language, To *serve* a rope, is to lay spun-yarn, rope-yarn, sennit, a leather, a piece of canvas, or the like upon it, which is rolled fast round about the rope, to keep it from fretting or galling in any place.

SERVERETTE, a small town of the south of France, department of the Lozère. Population 9000; 11 miles north-by-west of Mende.

SERVETISTS, a sect said to be the disciples or followers of Michael Servetus, the ringleader of the Anti-Trinitarians of his age: but Servetus, in reality, had not any disciples, as being burnt, together with his books, before his dogmas had time to take root. But the name Servetists has been given to some of the modern Anti-Trinitarians, because they follow the footsteps he had marked out.

SERVETUS (Michael), was born at Villanueva, in Arragon, in 1509. His father was a notary-public, and he himself was sent to the academy of Toulouse, where he studied the law during the space of three years. About this period his attention was turned to the study of the sacred scriptures, to which he was probably excited by the reformers of that day. He soon discovered many errors and abuses in the church of Rome, in the tenets of which he had been brought up, and laid then the foundation of his opinions concerning the doctrine of the Trinity. He fixed his residence at Basil, in the year 1530. Here he was on a footing of friendly intimacy with Ecolampadius, with whom he often conversed about various religious topics, but to whose peculiar opinions he would not yield, in the smallest degree, any notions which he had previously adopted. An unbending disposition with regard to matters of small moment, alienated many

many persons from Servetus who had formed a high opinion of his talents and integrity. While he was at Basil, he put into the hands of a bookseller a manuscript, "De Trinitatis Erroribus," which was printed in the year 1531. This, as well as his work—"Dialogorum de Trinitate Libri duo," in which he explained and defended his opinions, were very obnoxious to the reformers with whom he was associated. And Melancthon, in speaking at this time of Servetus, says, "he unquestionably speaks like a madman about justification; about the Trinity, *περι της τριδος*, you know that I have been always apprehensive that similar things sooner or later would break out. Good God! what tragedies will this question excite among posterity."

The circumstances of Servetus being low, he engaged for some time with the Frellons, eminent booksellers at Lyons, as corrector of the press. From Lyons he went to Paris, where he studied physic; graduated at Paris, and delivered public lectures in geography and some branches of mathematics, while he followed the profession of a physician. At Paris he quarrelled with the faculty, and wrote an "Apology," which was suppressed by the parliament. After quitting that capital he practised physic at Charlieu, near Lyons, whence, at the invitation of the Archbishop of Vienne, he removed to that city, and had apartments near the palace. He had previously to this, viz., in 1542, superintended the printing of a Latin Bible at Lyons, to which he added marginal notes, under the name of Villanovanus.

During this time, Servetus was in constant correspondence with Calvin, with whom he discussed various points of controversy, and to whom he opened himself freely and without reserve concerning his particular notions, and consulted him respecting his writings. Calvin afterwards made a base use of this confidence, by actually producing his letters and manuscripts as matters of accusation against him on his trial. It must not, however, be concealed, that Calvin does not appear to have encouraged Servetus to this exposition of his sentiments, for he frequently sent him in reply angry and severe letters. In 1553 Servetus published his matured theological system under the title of "Christianismi Restitutio." Conscious of the danger of the author to such a work in a Catholic country he concealed his name, but Calvin took care that the magistrates of Vienne should be informed of it. He was in consequence thrown into prison, and his death would have added another example to the numberless cruelties of Roman Catholic persecutions, had he not made his escape. His effigy and his books were condemned to the flames. Servetus, purposing to go to Naples to practise in his profession, imprudently went through Geneva. Calvin, who was acquainted with the plans of the traveller, and who was on the watch to entrap him, gave information to the magistrates the moment he arrived within the gates of the city. He was accordingly seized, thrown into prison, and a charge of blasphemy and heresy was preferred against him by Calvin's own servant. In order to ensure conviction and condemnation, no less than thirty-eight articles of accusation were brought against him, for which not only his last work, but all his other writings were ransacked. As a proof of the malice and unfairness with which he was treated, it is mentioned that one of the charges was extracted from his preface to an edition of Ptolemy's Geography, published twenty years before, in which he had asserted, that Judea had been falsely extolled for its beauty and fertility, since modern travellers had found it to be sterile and unsightly. As he refused to retract his opinions, he was, notwithstanding his pleas, condemned to the flames as an obstinate heretic, which sentence was carried into execution on the 27th of October, 1553, when he was in the forty-fourth year of his age. His sufferings were particularly severe, and the fire was so managed, that the unfortunate man lingered in excruciating pain more than two hours.

That this bloody persecution was disapproved by many at the time, is rendered very probable by the apology for the Genevan magistrates, published by Calvin, in which he undertook to prove that it was lawful to punish heretics with death. The mild and otherwise moderate and benevo-

lent Melancthon sanctioned the deed by a congratulatory letter addressed to the magistrates of Geneva. The conduct of Calvin in this business, as instigated not only by bigotry, but personal hatred, has impressed an indelible stain on his memory.

The theological system of Servetus is described as singular in the highest degree. According to Mosheim's account, he conceived that the genuine doctrine of Christ had been entirely lost, even before the Council of Nice; and he was moreover of opinion, that it had never been delivered with a sufficient degree of precision in any period of the church. To these extravagant assertions he added another still more so, even that he himself had received a commission from above to reveal anew this divine doctrine, and to explain it to mankind. His notions with respect to the Supreme Being, and a Trinity of persons in the godhead were very obscure and chimerical, and amounted in general to the following propositions:—That the Deity, before the creation of the world, had produced within himself two personal representations or manners of existence, which were to be the medium of intercourse between him and mortals, and by whom, consequently, he was to reveal his will, and to display his mercy and beneficence to the children of men: that these two representatives were the Word and the Holy Ghost: that the former was united to the man Christ, who was born of the Virgin Mary, by an omnipotent act of the Divine Will; and that, on this account, Christ might be properly called *God*: that the Holy Spirit directed the course, animated the whole system of nature, and more especially produced in the minds of men wise counsels, virtuous propensities, and divine feelings; and, finally, that these two representations were to cease after the destruction of this terrestrial globe, and to be absorbed into the substance of the Deity, from whence they had been formed.

Servetus is numbered, among those anatomists who made the nearest approach to the doctrine of the circulation of the blood. The passage cited to this effect is contained in his latest and fatal work, "De Restitutione Christianismi." It clearly states the circulation of the blood through the lungs. He pursued in his medical studies, anatomical researches with the greatest ardour.

Servetus was a man of great erudition and unfeigned piety; his mind was stored with a variety of knowledge, and he stood very high, in the estimation of his contemporaries, for his talents and for his discoveries in the profession of medicine.

The affability of the manners of Servetus, and his vast learning, had procured him numerous friends in France, in Germany, and in Italy; and his name will be handed down to the latest posterity with commiseration and respect.

SERUG, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 12 miles south of Ourfa.

SERVI, a small island of Greece, near the south-east coast of the Morea, at the entrance of the gulf of Coron; 6 miles north of Cerigo. Lat. 36. 28. N. long. 22. 55. E.

SERVIA, an extensive province in the North of European Turkey, corresponding to the Mæsia Superior of the Romans. Its form is nearly oblong, its length being about 190 miles, its breadth 100, its superficial extent 19,000 square miles, or somewhat more than the half of Scotland. Its population is not known with certainty, but calculated at nearly 1,000,000. It is an inland province, bounded on the north by a part of the Hungarian frontier, but on all other sides by portions of the Turkish territory, viz., on the west by Bosnia, on the east by Bulgaria, and on the south by Albania.

Face of the Country.—Servia is a very uneven and even mountainous country; its surface containing a number of extensive forests, and large uncultivated heaths. The mountains in the south extend in a regular chain, but throughout the chief part of the province they have no regular connection. One of the highest is that called Haloga, situated to the south-west of Belgrade. The rivers of Servia are on its frontiers, viz., the Save and Danube on the

the north: the Morawa on its eastern, the Dwina on its western boundary, both flow to the northward, until falling into the Danube, after collecting the waters of a number of inferior streams. The Danube, in this part of its course through Servia, is in many places bordered by lofty rocks, some rising almost perpendicular from the river, others appearing to hang suspended above its channel. Some are bare, others covered with wood, but the scenery, different from the scenery of this river in other countries, is picturesque, and even wild.

Climate and Soil.—The climate of Servia, though temperate, is less mild than might be expected in the 43d and 44th degree of north lat., the winter being of considerable length, and spring not beginning till April. This is owing partly to the height of the great ridge of the Argentario or Glubotin mountains, extending along its southern boundary; partly to the number of forests, and the general neglect of cultivation in its interior. In the month of June the south-west winds generally bring on periodical rains, which are succeeded in July and August by days of great heat, although the nights are generally cool and pleasant. September is often a rainy month; but in October and November, the weather is in general pleasant, and on the whole, the climate of Servia is healthy. Its soil also is in general fertile, the cultivated tracks producing abundant crops; but a small proportion of the country is as yet under tillage. The most common products are wheat, barley, oats, rice, hemp, flax and tobacco; also vines, and fruit of various kinds. Cotton is raised in the valleys and other warm spots. Timber is abundant, and would form, with the aid of water communication, a great article of export. Mines of iron have been discovered in several parts; but like the mines of salt and other minerals, they are almost entirely neglected, the productive industry of this country being as yet in so backward a state as to be confined to the raising and export of a few articles, such as hemp, wool, flax and tobacco; to these is added an annual export of cattle and hogs; the latter fed in the woods. The manufactures, still more limited in extent, are of woollen, cotton and hardware; the whole for home consumption. Improvement is retarded equally by the insecurity of property under so unenlightened a government as the Turkish, as by the total want of canals, and even of carriage roads, except in the immediate vicinity of large towns. Of the latter, Servia reckons only Belgrade, Semendria, and Nissa: the other places are villages meanly built, and thinly peopled. There are, however, spread over the country many vestiges of antiquity, in particular castles resembling forts, said to have been erected by the Romans.

Manners and Language.—The inhabitants of Servia are divided into Servians, Turks and Jews; the last two are found only in the towns. The Servians, who inhabit almost exclusively the open country, are originally a tribe of Sclavonians from Galicia, in Poland, supposed to be of the same race as the Russians. They are not confined to the territory strictly called Servia, but are spread over other parts of Europe, and form a considerable proportion of the population of Hungary. The language of the country has a great resemblance to the Russian; it is spoken not only by the Servians, but by the Bosnians, the modern Bulgarians, the Morlachians, the Sclavonians proper, the Dalmatians and the Ragusans; all which tribes are sometimes comprised under the general denomination of Illyrians. The Servians are reported to be little improved by civilization, and sadly debased by bigotry and superstition. Still they appear to possess much natural activity, and the beautiful specimens of their poetry recently published in this country shew that they are by no means wanting in the higher orders of genius.

History.—Servia, on the decline of the Roman empire, shared the fate of the other frontier provinces, and was occupied by invaders, from a tribe of whom, called Serbis or Serbi, it received its present name. It formed in the middle age a separate and independant kingdom, but yielded to the Turks, when, about the year 1365, their arms extended in this direction. The Servians have since experienced not unfrequently the hardships of a frontier province, and still

oftener those of a government accustomed to allow its pachas and other provincial governors to practise extortions, and its military to live at the expense of the inhabitants. A sense of these injuries, and the implacable hatred of the Turks, inspired by their religion and the instigation of their leaders, led to an insurrection on the part of the Servians about the year 1801. This insurrection, at first partial, soon became general, and the Servians flocked round the standard of Czerni Georges, previously known only as the head of a band of robbers, but now honoured with the name of avenger of his country. This chieftain at first confined himself to the forests, and attacked only detached parties of the Turks. In time his followers increased, and found themselves of sufficient strength to meet the enemy in the open country. In December 1806, he besieged Belgrade, took it after an obstinate resistance, and, in a great measure, expelled the Turks from the country, which he ruled with the authority of a sovereign. The Turks brought, from time to time fresh forces against him. These he resisted with various successes until 1814, when he judged proper to withdraw into Russia; and by a convention concluded between his country and the Porte in 1815, the Servians acknowledged the sovereignty of the sultan, but observed the free exercise of their religion, as well as their civil rights. Every father of a family pays a ducat of yearly tax to the Porte, and every other individual a piastre; no Servian can settle in Turkey, nor travel in that country, except for commercial purposes. The Turkish division of the country is into four sandgiacats, viz., Belgrade, Semendria, Novibassar and Kratow.

SERVIA, or NEW SERVIA, a district in the south-west of European Russia, in the government of Ekaterinoslav, between the Dnieper and the Bog. It takes its name from a number of Servian hussars and Pandours, who emigrated hither in 1754, from Moldavia, Wallachia and Hungary. Being a frontier province of the administration, it has a military form. The territory is divided into ten districts, each occupied by a regiment; and on the southern frontier there is also a regiment of cossacks.

SERVIAN, a small town in the south of France, department of the Herault, with a population of 2200; 6 miles north-east of Beziers.

SERVICE, *s.* [ʃɛrˈvɪs, Sax.] Menial office; low business done at the command of a master.

The banish'd Kent, who in disguise
Follow'd his king, and did him *service*
Improper for a slave. *Shakspeare.*

Attendance of a servant.

Both fell by our servants, by those men we lov'd most:

A most unnatural and faithless *service.* *Shakspeare.*

Place; office of a servant.—I have served prince Florizel;
but now I am out of *service.* *Shakspeare.*

By oppressing and betraying me,

Thou might'st have sooner got another *service.* *Shakspeare.*

These that accuse him are a yoke of his discarded men;
very rogues, now they be out of *service.* *Shakspeare.*—A court, properly a fair, the end of it trade and gain; for none would go to *service* that thinks he has enough to live well of himself. *Temple.*—Any thing done by way of duty to a superior.

That *service* is not *service*, so being done,
But being so allow'd. *Shakspeare.*

Attendance on any superior.—Riches gotten by *service*, though it be of the best rise, yet when gotten by flattery, may be placed amongst the worst. *Bacon.*—Profession of respect uttered or sent.

I am a woman, lacking wit
To make a seemly answer to such persons,
Pray do my *service* to his majesty. *Shakspeare.*

Obedience; submission.

Thou, Nature, art my goddess; to thy law
My *services* are bound. *Shakspeare.*

Act on the performance of which possession depends.—
R Although

Although they built castles and made freeholders, yet were there no tenures and *services* reserved to the crown; but the lords drew all the respect and dependency of the common people unto themselves. *Davies*.—Actual duty; office.—The order of human society cannot be preserved, nor the *services* requisite to the support of it be supplied, without a distinction of stations, and a long subordination of offices. *Rogers*.—Employment; business.—If stations of power and trust were constantly made the rewards of virtue, men of great abilities would endeavour to excel in the duties of a religious life, in order to qualify themselves for public *service*. *Swift*.—Military duty.—When he cometh to experience of *service* abroad, or is put to a piece or pike, he maketh a worthy soldier. *Spenser*.—A military achievement.—Such fellows will learn you by rote where *services* were done, at such and such a breach. *Shakspeare*.—Purpose; use.—All the vessels of the king's house are not for uscs of honour, some be common stuff, and for mean *services*, yet profitable. *Spelman*.—Useful office; advantage conferred.—Gentle streams visit populous towns in their course, and are at once of ornament and *service* to them. *Pope*.—Favour.

To thee a woman's *services* are due,
My fool usurps my body.

Shakspeare.

Public office of devotion.—According to this form of theirs, it must stand for a rule, no sermon, no *service*. *Hooker*.—A particular portion of divine service sung in cathedrals or churches.—Those hymns which church-musicians call by the technical name of *services*, by which they mean the *Te Deum*, *Magnificat*, &c., which the rubric appoints to be sung after the first and second lessons at morning and evening prayer. *Mason*.—Course; order of dishes. Cleopatra made Anthony a supper sumptuous and royal; howbeit there was no extraordinary *service* seen on the board. *Hakewill*.—A tree and fruit. See *SORBUS*.—October is drawn in a garment of yellow and carnation; in his left hand a basket of *services*, medlars and other fruits that ripen late. *Peacham*.

SERVICE, or **SERVAGE**, *Servitium* in Law, a duty which the tenant, by reason of his fee, owes to the lord.

SERVICE, **REAL**, is either *urbane* or *rustic*; which two kinds differ, not in the place, but the thing. The first is that due from a building or house, in whatever place situate, whether in city or in country, as keeping a drain, a vista, or the like.

SERVICES, **RUSTIC**, are those due for grounds, where there is no building; such is the right of passage through ways, &c.

There are also *natural services*. For instance, if a man cannot gather the produce of his lands, without passing through his neighbour's grounds, the neighbour is obliged to allow a passage as a natural service.

SERVICE, **FRANK**, *Servitium liberum*, a service done by the feudatory tenants, who were called *liberi homines*, and distinct from vassals; as was likewise their service; for they were not bound to any base services, but only to find a man and horse to attend the lord into the army or court.

SERVICE, **Base**: see **VILLENAGE**.—**SERVICE**, **Board**: see **BOARD SERVICE**.—**SERVICE**, **Heriot**: see **HERIOT**.—**SERVICE**, **Ovelty** of: see **OVELTY**.—**SERVICE**, **Suit** of: see **SUIT**.

SERVICEABLE, *adj.* Active; diligent; officious.

I know thee well, a *serviceable* villain;

As duteous to the vices of thy mistress

As badness could desire.

Shakspeare.

Useful; beneficial.—A book to justify the revolution, archbishop Tillotson recommended to the king as the most *serviceable* treatise that could have been published then. *Swift*.

SERVICEABLY, *adv.* So as to be serviceable.

SERVICEABLENESS, *s.* Officiousness; activity.—He might continually be in her presence, shewing more humble *serviceableness* and joy to content her than ever before. *Sidney*.—Usefulness; beneficialness.—All action being for some end, its aptness to be commanded or forbidden must be founded upon its *serviceableness* or disserviceableness to some end. *Norris*.

SERVICE-TREE, in Botany, a corruption of the Latin *SORBUS*; see that article, as well as *PYRUS*.

SERVICE-TREE, *Wild.* See *CRATÆGUS*.

SERVIENT, *adj.* [*serviens*, Lat.] Subordinate.—Then *servient* youth, and magisterial *eld.* *Dyer*.

SERVIERES, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Correze, with 1500 inhabitants; 13 miles south-east of Tulle.

SERVILE, *adj.* [*servilis*, Lat.] Slavish; dependant; mean.

Fight and die, is death destroying death:

Where fearing dying, pays death *servile* breath. *Shakspeare.*

Ev'n fortune rules no more a *servile* land,

Where exil'd tyrants still by turns command.

Pope.

Fawning; cringing.—The most *servile* flattery is lodged the most easily in the grossest capacity; for their ordinary conceit draweth a yielding to their greater, and then have they not wit to discern the right degrees of duty. *Sidney*.

SERVILE, in Hebrew Grammar, the denomination of a class of letters used in contradistinction to radical. The latter constitute roots (which see), and the former constitute derivatives, or branches from these roots, and are employed in all the different flexions. Of all the twenty-two letters of the alphabet, any of which may be radicals, there are properly only eleven letters that can claim this title, because they never can be serviles. The serviles are the other eleven letters, by means of which the whole business of flexion, derivation, numbers, genders, persons and tenses, is accomplished. But even these letters are somewhat limited in their servile power. For only two of them, viz., and ך can be inserted or ingrafted between radical letters; the others must be either prefixed or postfixed to the root.

SERVILELY, *adv.* Meanly; slavishly.

T' each changing news, they chang'd affections bring,

And *servilely* from fate expect a king.

Dryden.

He affects a singularity in his actions and thoughts, rather than *servilely* to copy from the wisest. *Swift*.

SERVILENESS, or **SERVILITY**, *s.* Subjection; involuntary obedience.—What, besides this unhappy *servility* to custom, can possibly reconcile men that own Christianity to a practice widely distant from it?—Meanness; dependance; baseness.—Submission from fear.—The angels and demons, those by their subserviency, and these by the *servility* of their obedience, manifestly declared Christ and his apostles to be vested with an authority derived from their Lord. *West*.—Slavery; the condition of a slave.

To be a queen in bondage, is more vile

Than is a slave in base *servility*;

For princes should be free.

Shakspeare.

SERVIN (Louis), a celebrated lawyer in France, who flourished at the sixteenth and beginning of the seventeenth centuries, was descended from a good family in the Vendomois. He distinguished himself by his zealous support of the liberties of the Gallican church, and his opposition to the pretensions of the court of Rome. His printed pleadings were honoured with the censure of the Sorbonne, and with a virulent attack by a Jesuit of Provence. The title of his work was "Actions notables et Plaidoyers." In 1590 he published a work in favour of Henry IV., who had succeeded to the crown, entitled, "Vindiciæ secundum Libertatem Ecclesiæ Gallicanæ, et Defensio Regii Status Gallo-Francorum sub Henrico IV. Rege." In 1598, being joined in a commission for the reformation of the university of Paris, he delivered "a remonstrance" on the subject, which was printed. To him also is attributed a work in favour of the republic of Venice, in the affairs of the Interdict. In the reign of Lewis XIII., at a bed of justice holden in 1620, he made strong and animated remonstrances in favour of the right of parliament to register royal edicts. On another similar occasion, for the purpose of compelling the registry of some financial edicts, as he was firmly but respectfully making fresh remonstrances to his majesty, he suddenly fell and expired at the king's feet.

SERVING—

SERVING-MAID, *s.* A female servant.—They never acknowledged her mistress-ship over them, or themselves to be her *serv-ing-maids*. *Bp. Bull.*

SERVING-MALLET, a cylindrical piece of wood with a handle in the middle, used for serving rope.

SERVING-MAN, *s.* A menial servant.

Just in the nick; the cook knock'd thrice,
And all the waiters in a trice

His summons did obey;

Each *serv-ing-man*, with dish in hand,
March'd boldly up, like our train'd band,

Presented and away.

Suckling.

SERVISTAN, a village of Persia, in the province of Fars; 35 miles south-east of Schiras.

SERVITA, a settlement of South America, in the kingdom of New Granada, and provinces of Pamplona. It contains 400 whites, and 200 Indians.

SERVITES, an order of religious, so denominated from their vowing a peculiar attachment to the service of the Virgin.

The order was founded by seven Florentine merchants, who, about the year 1233, began to live in community on Mount Senar, two leagues from Florence.

SERVITIUS *Acquietandis*, a writ judicial that lies for a man distrained for services to one, when he owes and performs them to another, for the acquittal of such services.

SERVITOR, *s.* [*serviteur*, Fr.] Servant; attendant. *A word obsolete*

Thus are poor *servitors*,

When others sleep upon their quiet beds,
Constrain'd to watch in darkness, rain and cold. *Shakspeare.*

One who acts under another; a follower.—Our Norman conqueror gave away to his *servitors* the lands and possessions of such as did oppose his invasion. *Davies.*—One who professes duty and obedience.

My noble queen, let former grudges pass,

And henceforth I am thy true *servitor*.

Shakspeare.

One of the lowest order in the university of Oxford; similar to the sizer in that of Cambridge.—His learning is much of a size with his birth and education; no more of either than what a poor hungry *servitor* can be expected to bring with him from his college. *Swift.*

SERVITORS OF BILLS, denote such servants or messengers of the marshal of the King's Bench, as were sent abroad with bills or writs, to summon men to that court. They are now commonly called tip-staves.

SERVITORSHIP, *s.* Office of a servitor.—Dr. Johnson, by his interest with Dr. Adams, master of Pembroke College, Oxford, where he was educated for some time, obtained a *servitorship* for young M'Aulay. *Boswell.*

SERVITUDE, *s.* [*servitude*, Fr., *servitus*, Lat.] Slavery; state of a slave; dependance.

You would have sold your king to slaughter,

His princes and his peers to *servitude*,

His subjects to oppression and contempt.

Shakspeare.

Unjustly thou deprav'st it with the name

Of *servitude*, to serve whom God ordains,

Or nature; God and nature bid the same,

When he who rules is worthiest.

Milton.

• Servants collectively. *Not in use.*

After him a cumbrous train

Of herds, and flocks, and numerous *servitude*.

Milton.

Under the declension of the Roman empire, a new kind of servitude was introduced, different from that of the ancient Romans: it consisted in leaving the lands of subjugated nations to the first owners, upon condition of certain rents, and servile offices, to be paid in acknowledgment. Hence the names of *servi censiti*, and *ascriptitii*, and *addicti glebæ*; some of which were taxable at the reasonable discretion of the lord; others at a certain rate agreed on; and others were mainmortalable, who, having no legitimate children, could not make a will to above the value of five-pence, the lord being heir of all the rest; and others were prohibited marrying, or going to live out of the lordship. Most of

which services still subsist in one province or other of France; though they are all abolished in England. Such, however, was the original of our tenures, &c.

SERVITZA, a large village of European Turkey, in Thessaly, the chief place of a district of the same name, stretching along a coast of the gulf of Salonica, to the north of Mount Olympus. It is a commercial place, being one of the chief points of communication between Larissa and Salonica; 40 miles north-by-east of Larissa.

SERVIVS (Maurus-Honoratus), a grammarian and critic, who flourished in the reigns of Arcadius and Honorius, is principally known by his Commentaries on Virgil, which, however, are considered rather as a collection of ancient remarks and criticisms on that poet than as made by himself. They contain many valuable notices of the geography and arts of antiquity.

SERVIVS (Sulpicius Rufus), an eminent Roman jurist and statesman, was descended from the illustrious patrician family of Sulpicii. He was contemporary with Cicero, and born probably about a century before the birth of Christ. He cultivated polite literature from a very early period, especially philosophy and poetry, and wrote some pieces in the latter class, which were marked with the licentiousness of the time. He bore arms in the Marsic war; but finding himself better pleased with the arts of peace, he appeared a pleader at the bar in the 25th year of his age. The professions of advocate and lawyer were then so distinct, that the former were accustomed to consult jurists upon all difficult points. Servivus having once applied for that purpose to Quintus Mucius, a very eminent lawyer, the latter perceiving that Servivus did not comprehend his explanations, asked him if it were not a shame that he, a patrician and pleader, should be ignorant of the law upon which he was frequently called to speak. This reproach is said to have had such an effect upon him, that Servivus quitted the bar, and gave all his attention to legal studies; and such was his success, that Cicero said of him, "If all, in every age, who in this city have acquired a knowledge of the law, were brought together, they would not be to be compared with Sulpicius Servivus;" and he further adds, that, "he was not less the oracle of justice than of the law: he always referred to principles of equity and obvious interpretation what he deduced from the civil code, and was less desirous of finding grounds for actions than of settling disputes." There was a great intimacy formed between these two personages, and there are several letters extant from Cicero to Sulpitius, and two from Sulpicius to Cicero, of which one is a well-known consolatory epistle on the death of Tullia.

When Cæsar was taken off he acted with the party who aimed at the restoration of public liberty. During the siege of Modena, by Mark Antony, he was urged by the senate to undertake a legation to him, which, after pleading his age and infirmities, he accepted: but he foresaw it would be fatal to him, and he died in Antony's camp in the year 43 B. C. Cicero's ninth Philippic is entirely employed in pleading for a brass statue to the memory of this excellent man. Servivus was author of a great number of volumes on legal topics, none of which have been preserved; but quotations from some of them are extant in A. Gellius.

SERVIVS (Tullius), the sixth king of Rome: see **ROME**.

SERULA, the name of a web-footed sea-bird, a kind of mergus, very common about Venice, and called by Mr. Ray *mergus cirratus fuscus*, the brown-crested, or lesser-toothed diver, and supposed to be the *anas longirostra*, or long-beaked duck of Gesner. This is the red-breasted merganser of Pennant.

SERVIVS, *s.* The thin and watery part that separates from the rest in any liquor, as in milk the whey from the cream.—The part of the blood, which in coagulation separates from the crassamentum or grume.

SERVOLO, *St.*, or **SERF**, a maritime village of Austrian Illyria, in Carniola; 4 miles south-east of Trieste. Here is made a large quantity of bay salt.

SERVONG, a town on the north coast of Sumatra. Lat. 5. 3. N. long. 96. 18. W.

SERWELL,

SERWELL, a small district of Afghanistean, province of Cabul. It is situated between the 34th and 35th degrees of north lat. but is very imperfectly known to Europeans.

SERWOY, a name given by Theodore de Bry, and others, to the animal called by us the Opossum.

SESA, a village of Nubia, on the Nile; 210 miles south-south-west of Syene.

SE'SAME, *s.* [σησαμη, Gr.] A white grain or corn growing in India, of which an oil is made. *Ainsworth.*

SESAMION, a word among the ancients to express a cake made of sesamum, honey and oil.

SESAMOID, a name given to some small bones of the thumb and great toe. See ANATOMY.

SESAMOIDES, in Botany, a name first published by Clusius, as applied at Salamanca to two very different plants, neither of them bearing any evident resemblance to sesamum. These are *silencotites* and *reseda sesamoides*: see RESEDA and SILENE.

SESAMUM [of Pliny. *Σησαμιν* of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of *luridæ*, *bignoniæ* (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, erect, equal, very short, permanent: segments lanceolate, the upper one shorter. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped: tube roundish, almost the length of the calyx: throat inflated, spreading, bell-shaped, very large, declined: border five-cleft; segments four, patulous, almost equal, and a fifth, which is the lowest, a little longer, ovate, straight. Stamina: filaments four, springing from the tube, shorter than the corolla, ascending, setaceous, the two inner shorter, with the rudiment of a fifth filament. Anthers oblong, acute, erect. Pistil: germ ovate, hirsute. Style filiform, ascending, a little longer than the stamens. Stigma lanceolate, two-parted: lamellæ parallel. Pericarp: capsule oblong, obscurely four-cornered, compressed, acuminate, four-celled. Seeds very many, subovate. It has the flower of *digitalis*, but the fruit is very different.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla bell-shaped, five-cleft, the lower lobe larger. Rudiment of a fifth filament. Stigma lanceolate. Capsule four-celled.

1. *Sesamum Orientale*, Oriental sesamum or oily-grain.—This is an annual plant, rising with an herbaceous four-cornered stalk about two feet high, sending out a few short side-branches. Leaves opposite and a little hairy. Flowers in loose terminating spikes, small, of a dirty white colour, shaped somewhat like those of the foxglove.—Native of the East Indies.

2. *Sesamum Indicum*, Indian sesamum or oily-grain.—The second sort grows naturally in India, and is also an annual plant. The stalk rises higher than that of the former; the lower leaves are cut into three parts; and these are the only differences between them. There is a variety of this which grows naturally in Africa, and is also an annual plant, with a taller and more branched stalk than either of the former. All the leaves are cut into three parts.

3. *Sesamum luteum*, or yellow sesamum.—Leaves lanceolate on long petioles; corollas hispid on the outside.

Propagation and Culture.—In England, these plants are preserved in botanic gardens as curiosities. Their seeds must be sown in the spring upon a hot-bed, and when the plants are come up, they must be transplanted into a hot-bed to bring them forward. After they have acquired a tolerable degree of strength, they should be planted into pots filled with a rich, light, sandy soil, and plunged into another hot-bed, managing them as has been directed for amaranthuses.

SESBAN, a barbarous generic name given by Poirer to a genus selected by him out of *ÆSCHYNOMENE*: see that article.

SESELI [of Pliny. *Σεσέλι* of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of *umbellatæ* or *umbelliferæ*.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal, rigid; partial very short, manifold, globular. Involucre universal, none; partial of one or two leaflets, linear, acuminate, length of the

umbellet. Proper perianth scarcely observable. Corolla universal, uniform. Florets all fertile. Proper of five inflex-cordate petals, flattish. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ inferior. Styles two, distant. Stigmas blunt. Pericarp none. Fruit ovate, small, striated, bipartite. Seeds two, ovate, convex and striated on one side, flat on the other.—*Essential Character.* Umbels globular. Involucre of one or two leaflets. Fruit ovate, striated.

1. *Seseli filifolium*, or thread-leaved meadow saxifrage.—Leaves filiform, stem flexuose, erect.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Seseli pimpinelloides*.—Stem declined, umbels before they flower nodding. Root perennial.—Native of the south of Europe.

3. *Seseli montanum*, or long-leaved meadow saxifrage.—Stem erect, near two feet high, sending out branches from the side. Leaves short, divided into small segments like hog's-fennel; at the foot-stalk of each a bellied membrane embracing it. Flowers white.—Native of Italy and France.

4. *Seseli striatum*.—Petioles branchy, membranaceous, emarginate, stem striated, pinnas awl-shaped, grooved.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. *Seseli glaucum*, or glaucous meadow saffron.—Root perennial, running deep in the ground, and sending out slender smooth stalks near two feet high. Leaves long and narrow, composed of seven or eight pairs of pinnas. They have a membrane embracing the petiole, and are of a gray colour. The stalks are terminated by umbels of flowers, which are purple on their outside and white within.—Native of France, Austria, Carniola, Silesia and Piedmont.

6. *Seseli aristatum*, or bearded-leaved meadow saxifrage.—Root biennial. Leaves bipinnate, with the leaflets very narrow, and finely divided. Stems strong, a foot and half high, with shining pinnate leaves, and terminated by pretty large umbels of whitish flowers.—Native of the Pyrenean mountains.

7. *Seseli annuum*, or annual meadow saxifrage.—Stem stiff, a span high and more, striated. Leaves bipinnate, lacinate. Flowers whitish with a tinge of violet.—Native of France, Germany, Hungary, Austria, Switzerland and Piedmont.

8. *Seseli chærophyloides*, or chervil-leaved meadow saxifrage.—Petioles branchy, membranaceous, ventricose, entire, stem dichotomous, panicled; leaves super-decompound, smooth.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

9. *Seseli ammoides*, or milfoil-leaved meadow saxifrage.—Root-leaves with the leaflets imbricate. This is an annual plant.—Native of Portugal and Italy.

10. *Seseli tortuosum*, or hard meadow saxifrage.—Stem lofty, rigid, leaflets linear in bundles. The flowers are small and yellow.

11. *Seseli Turbith*.—Universal, involucre one-leafed, seeds striated, villose, styled.—Native of the south of Europe.

12. *Seseli Hippomarathrum*, or various-leaved meadow saxifrage.—Involucres connate-one-leafed. Leaves bipinnate; the first trifid and linear. Stem rushy, glaucous, as is the rest of the plant.—Native of Austria, Carniola, Silesia and Germany.

13. *Seseli Pyrenæum*, or Pyrenean meadow saxifrage.—Leaves doubly pinnate, leaflets gashed, acute, involucrets bristle-shaped, longer than the umbellet. Stem a foot high, round, striated.—Native of the Pyrenees.

14. *Seseli saxifragum*.—Stem filiform, divaricating, a foot high, leaves doubly ternate, linear, umbels subsexfid.—Native of Germany, and the borders of the Lake of Geneva.

15. *Seseli elatum*.—Stem a foot and half high, the thickness of a pigeon's quill, subdichotomous, with the branches divaricating; the uppermost very narrow. Leaves super-decompound; the upper ones only ternate.—Native of France, Austria and Silesia.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in autumn, and they will rise the following spring; whereas when they are sown in the spring, they frequently lie in the ground till the next year before they grow. Drill them eighteen inches asunder,

under, in a bed of fresh earth, where they are designed to remain; thin the plants to the distance of six inches; keep them clear from weeds; and in the second season they will produce seeds. The perennial sorts should have the ground gently dug every spring between the rows, taking care not to injure their roots with the spade. These plants love a moist soil.

SESEME QUIAN, a river of the United States, in Indiana, which runs into the Illinois. It is 60 yards wide at the mouth, and navigable for boats 60 miles.

SESERINUS, in Ichthyology, a name given by Rondeletius, and some others, to the stromateus.

SESHA, or SESHNAGA, a name of a mighty mythological serpent among the Hindoos. Images of Naga, or Sessa, in brass, are said to be invoked in cases of ill health, with appropriate ceremonies, and according to the author of the Hindoo Pantheon, they are very common in India, where the idea of the medicinal virtues of snakes appears to be of very old date. A Hindoo, attacked by a fever, or other disease, makes an image of Naga in brass, clay or wax, and performs appropriate ceremonies in furtherance of his recovery. Such ceremonies are particularly efficacious when the moon is in the nakshatra, or asterism, called Sarpa, or the serpent. We have observed that the snake, in all mythological language, is an emblem of immortality; its endless figure, when its tail is inserted in its mouth, an astrological mysticism common to Asia and Europe; and the annual renewal of its skin and vigour afford symbols of continued youth, of duration, and eternity; and its supposed medicinal virtues, or life-preserving qualities, may also have contributed to the fabled honours of the serpent tribe. In the mythological machinery of India, Egypt and Greece, these coincidences are numerous.

SESHI-MATRIYA, a name of Kartikya, the mythological commander of the celestial armies of Hindoo fable. The name means having *six mothers*.

SESIA, a river of the Sarnadian states, in the Milanese, which rises among the Alps on the borders of the Valais, flows through an extensive valley to which it gives name, and dividing into two branches, falls into the Po between Casal and Valenza. It has a course of about 80 miles, but is not navigable.

SESIAL, a town on the north-west coast of Timor. Lat. 8. 54. S. long. 125 26. E.

SESLERIA, in Botany, received that appellation from Scopoli. Linnæus reduced the plant to PRIMULA; which see.

SESMA, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Navarre, between the Ebro and the Ega; 36 miles south-south-west of Pampeluna.

SESOSTRIS, king of Egypt. See EGYPT.

SESQUI, a particle often used by old masters and theorists, in Music, in the composition of words to express different kinds of measure. They called sesquialter measures those which contain notes equal to one-third more than their usual value; that is, when equal to three notes of less value, instead of two. This happened in what was called *perfect time*, before the use of points or dots, when the breve was equal to three semibreves, the semibreve to three minims, &c.

In Italian treatises by old theorists, sesqui is much used to express a kind of ratio, particularly in different species of triples; that is, when the greater term contains the less once, and some small quantity more; as 3 : 2, when the first term contains the second, and unity over, which is the half of 2. So that if the part remaining be just half the less term, as 4 : 3, the ratio is called *sesqui tercia*, or *tertia*; if a fourth, or 5 : 4, the ratio is *sesqui quarta*, and so on to infinity; still adding to sesqui the ordinal number of the less term.

SESQUIALTER, or SESQUIALTERAL, *adj.* [*sesquialterc*, Fr., *sesquialter*, Lat.] In Geometry, is a ratio, where one quantity of number contains another once and half as much more, as 6 and 9.

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SESQUIALTER, is a stop in the organ, implying a whole and a half. In large organs, this stop has usually five ranks of pipes, each note having one sound in unison with the diapason, one with the principal, one with the twelfth, and one with the fifteenth.

SESQUIDITONE, in Music, a concord, resulting from the sounds of two strings, whose vibrations, in equal times, are to each other in the ratio of 5 to 6.

SESQUIDUPLICATE RATIO, is when of two terms, the greater contains the less twice, and half the less remains; as 15 and 16; 50 and 20.—SESQUI-OCTAVE, is a kind of triple, marked C_3 , called by the Italians *nonupla di crome*, where there are 9 quavers in every measure or bar, in lieu of 8.—SESQUI-QUADRATE, an aspect, or position of the planets, when at the distance of four signs and a half, or 135 degrees, from each other.—SESQUI-QUARTA, DUPLA, is a kind of triple, marked C_3 , called by the Italians *nonupla di semiminime*, where there are 9 crotchets in each measure, instead of 4; that is, three crotchets to each time.—SESQUIQUINTLE, an aspect of the planets, when 108 degrees distant from each other.—SESQUITERTIONAL PROPORTION. When any number or quantity contains another once and one-third, they are sesquitertional proportions.

SESQUIPE'DAL, or SESQUIPE'DALIAN, *adj.* [*sesquipedalis*, Lat.] Containing a foot and a half.—As for my own part, I am but a *sesquipedal*, having only six foot and a half of stature. *Addison*.

SESQUPLICATE, *adj.* [In mathematics.] Is the proportion one quantity or number has to another, in the ratio of one and a half to one.—The periodical times of the planets are in *sesquuplicate* proportion, and not in duplicate proportion of the distances from the centre or the radii; and consequently the planets could not be carried about by an harmonically circulating fluid. *Cheyne*.

SESQUITERTIAN. [In mathematics.] Having such a ratio, as that one quantity or number contains another once and one third part more; as between 6 and 8.

SESQUITTE, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Guatavita, which contains 100 housekeepers; 9 leagues north of Santa Fe.

SESS, *s.* for ASSESS. Rate; tax.—His army was so ill paid and governed, as the English suffered more damage by the *sess* of his soldiers than they gained profit or security by abating the pride of their enemies. *Davies*.

SESSA, an Indian philosopher and mathematician, and the inventor of the game of chess, which he communicated to his sovereign Scheram, who was so pleased with it, that he ordered him to demand what he pleased as a reward for his ingenuity. Sessa asked only for a single grain of wheat to be laid on the first square, two on the second, four on the third, and so on in progression through the sixty-four squares. The king, offended that he should demand so mean a gift, directed that he should have just what he asked, and no more; but upon coming practically to the business, it was, in a very short time, found that all the granaries in the kingdom would not supply the demand. Scheram, astonished at the fact, crowned Sessa with very high honours. He lived about the eleventh century.

SESSA, or SEZZA, a town in the north-west part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, situated at the foot of Mount Massico. Though small, and indifferently built, it is the see of a bishop. Several vestiges of Roman antiquities are found in the neighbourhood. Population only 3800; 29 miles north-north-west of Naples, and 72 south-east of Rome.

SESSAY, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles north-west of Easingwold.

SESSE, or SEZZA, a small town of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical States, situated on an eminence near the Pontine marshes. It was called Setia or Setinum by the ancients; and was celebrated by Martial and Juvenal for its wines, which are now, however, of very middling quality. In the neighbourhood are vestiges of an ancient temple of Saturn. The surrounding district, though, from insalubrity, ill cultivated,

tivated, claims the attention of the naturalist by its products, viz., Indian figs, aloes, and fruit of various kinds. Population 5000; 35 miles south-east of Rome.

SESSEA [dedicated by the authors of the Flora Peruviana, to the honour of a Spanish botanist, named Martin Sessé], in Botany, a genus of plants of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of luridæ, solanææ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, tubular, with five angles, each angle terminating in an oval tooth, permanent. Corolla of one petal, funnel-shaped; tube as long again as the calyx; throat globular; limb plaited, in five deep, straight, oval segments, revolute at their margin. Stamina: filaments five, inserted towards the middle of the tube, curved and downy at their base, as long as the tube; anthers oval, of two cells. Pistil: germen superior, small, oblong; style terminal, thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigma of two unequal lobes. Pericarp: capsule cylindrical, slightly curved, as long again as the calyx, of one cell, and two cloven valves. Seeds numerous, imbricated, oblong, compressed, each encompassed with a membranous border.—*Essential Character.* Corolla funnel-shaped. Calyx tubular, with five angles, and five teeth. Stamens simple. Stigma of two unequal lobes. Capsule of one cell and two cloven valves. Seeds numerous, bordered.

1. *Sessea stipulata*.—A fetid shrub, five or six feet high, having the aspect of a cestrum. The branches are straight, leafy, alternate. Leaves alternate, stalked, mostly lanceolate, heart-shaped at the base. Stipulas at the base of the footstalks, equal to them in length, opposite, large, oval, obtuse, sessile, a little heart-shaped at the bottom, deflexed at the sides, deciduous. Panicles terminal, composed of straight, downy clusters, with corymbose stalks, of yellow, downy flowers, accompanied by small, awl-shaped, deciduous bractæas.

2. *Sessea dependens*.—A tree, twenty-five or thirty feet high, agreeing in many respects with the foregoing, but the leaves are very powdery at the back, and the clusters very long, simple and pendulous, slightly zig-zag. The flowers are usually placed three together, in alternate, sessile tufts. Calyx powdery. Corolla with a black tube, and yellowish limb, externally downy. Capsules black.

Both species are esteemed emollient and anodyne.

SESSILE, in Botany, a term applied to any part of the herbage or flowers of a plant, that is not elevated on any kind of stalk; from the Latin *sessilis*, sitting close.

SESSION, *s.* [*sessio*, Lat.] The act of sitting.—He hath as man, not as God only, a supreme dominion over quick and dead; for so much his ascension into heaven, and his *session* at the right hand of God do import. *Hooker*.—A stated assembly of magistrates or senators.

Summon a *session*, that we may arraign
Our most disloyal lady.

Shakspeare.

Of their *session* ended they bid cry
The great result!

Milton.

The space for which an assembly sits, without intermission or recess.—It was contrary to the course of parliament, that any bill that had been rejected should be again preferred the same *session*. *Clarendon*.—The second Nicene council affords us plentiful assistance, in the first *session*, wherein the pope's vicar declares that Meletius was ordained by Arian bishops, and yet his ordination was never questioned. *Stillingfleet*.—Many decrees are enacted, which at the next *session* are repealed. *Norris*.—A meeting of justices: as the *sessions* of the peace.

Quarter-sessions, called *general sessions*, or *open sessions*, stand opposite to *especial*, otherwise called *petty sessions*, which are procured upon some special occasion, for the more speedy dispatch of justice.

Statute-sessions, are those kept by a high-constable of a hundred, for the placing of servants, &c.

SESSIONS for *Weights and Measures*. In London, four justices from among the mayor, recorder and aldermen

(of whom the mayor or recorder is to be one), may hold a sessions to inquire into offences of selling by false weights and measures, contrary to the statutes; and to receive indictments, punish offenders, &c. Char. K. Cha. I.

SESSION, *The Court of*, otherwise called the college of justice, is the supreme court in Scotland. See SCOTLAND.

SESSOLO, a small town of the continental Sardinian states, duchy of Montferrat, district of Alba, near the Bormida.

SESTERCE, or SESTERTIUM, was the fourth part of the denarius, and originally contained two asses and a half.

The sesterce was at first denoted by LLS; the two L's signifying two libræ, and the S half. But the librarii, afterwards converting the two L's into an H, expressed the sesterce by HS.

The word *sestertius* was first introduced by way of abbreviation for *semistertius*, which signifies two, and a half of a third, or, literally, only half a third; for in expressing half a third, it was understood that there were two before. Hence *sestertius* came to be the great estimate of Roman money.

Some authors make two kinds of sesterces: the less, called *sestertius*, in the masculine gender; and the great one, called *sestertium*, in the neuter: the first, that which we have already described; the latter containing a thousand of the other.

This matter has been accurately stated by Mr. Raper, in the following manner:—The substantive to which *sestertius* referred is either *as*, or *pondus*; and *sestertius as* is two asses and a half; *sestertium pondus*, two pondera and a half, or two hundred and fifty denarii. When the denarius passed for ten asses, the sesterce of two asses and a half was a quarter of it; and the Romans continued to keep their accounts in these sesterces long after the denarius passed for sixteen asses; till, growing rich, they found it more convenient to reckon by quarters of the denarius, which they called *nummi*, and used the words *nummus* and *sestertius* indifferently, as synonymous terms, and sometimes both together, as *sestertius nummus*; in which case, the word *sestertius* having lost its original signification, was used as a substantive; for *sestertius nummus* was not two nummi and a half, but a single nummus of four asses. They called any sum under two thousand sesterces so many *sestertii* in the masculine gender; two thousand sesterces they called *duo* or *бина sestertia*, in the neuter; so many quarters making five hundred denarii, which was twice the *sestertium*; and they said *dena*, *vicena*, &c., *sestertia*, till the sum amounted to a thousand *sestertia*, which was a million of sesterces. But, to avoid ambiguity, they did not use the neuter *sestertium* in the singular number, when the whole sum amounted to no more than a thousand sesterces, or one *sestertium*. They called a million of sesterces, *decies nummus*, or *decies sestertium*, for *decies centena millia nummorum*, or *sestertium* (in the masculine gender), omitting *centena millia*, for the sake of brevity. They likewise called the same sum *decies sestertium* (in the neuter gender) for *decies centies sestertium*, omitting *centies* for the same reason; or simply *decies*, omitting *centena millia sestertium*, or *centies sestertium*; and with the numeral adverbs, *decies*, *vicies*, *centies*, *millies*, and the like, either *centena millia*, or *centies*, was always understood. These were their most usual forms of expression; though for *бина*, *dena*, *vicena sestertia*, they frequently said *бина*, *dena*, *vicena millia nummum*. If the consular denarius contained sixty troy grains of fine silver, it was worth somewhat more than eightpence farthing and a half sterling; and the *as*, of sixteen to the denarius, a little more than a half-penny. To reduce the ancient sesterces of two asses and a half, when the denarius passed for sixteen, to pounds sterling, multiply the given number by 5454, and cut off six figures on the right hand for decimals. To reduce *nummi sestertii*, or quarters of the denarius, to pounds sterling; if the given sum be consular money, multiply it by 8727, and cut off six figures on the right

right hand for decimals; but for imperial money, diminish the said product by one-eighth of itself. *Phil. Trans.* vol. lxi. part ii. art. 48.

To be qualified for a Roman knight, an estate of four hundred thousand sesterces was required; and for a senator, of eight hundred thousand.

Authors also mention a copper sesterce, worth about one-third of a penny English.

SESTERCE, *Sestertius*, was also used, in Antiquity, for a thing containing two wholes and a half of another: as *as* was taken for any whole, or integer.

SESTINO and SESTO, two small towns of the grand duchy of Tuscany, in the Florentine territory.

SESTO (Cesare), named by the name of *Cesare Milanese*, was a native of Milan, and flourished about the year 1500. He is one of those painters by whom probably were executed some of the many pictures attributed to Lionardo da Vinci; and in the Ambrosian library was a head by him often attributed to Lionardo. In some of his works he also imitated Raphael, to whom he was known. He died at Milan in 1524.

SESTO, a small but fortified town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, situated on the Ticino, near where that river flows out of the Lake Maggiore. A number of inscriptions and other antiquities were found here in the 16th century; 28 miles west-north-west of Milan.

SESTOLA, a small inland town of Italy, situated on a hill; 17 miles south of Modena.

SESTOS, a fortress (formerly a town) of European Turkey, opposite Abydos, at the narrowest part of the Hellespont. Lat. 40. 6. N. long. 26. 25. E.

SESTRA, a river of Russia, which separates Finland from the government of St. Petersburg, and falls into the gulf of Finland.

SESTRABEK, a small town of European Russia, in the south of Finland, at the mouth of the Sestra; 23 miles west-north-west of St. Petersburg. On the other side of the river there is a very large manufactory of arms of different kinds; also of anchors and other instruments, and articles of iron, the whole employing about 6000 persons.

SESTRI DI LEVANTE, a small town of the north-west of Italy, situated on a peninsula in the gulf of Genoa. It is defended by a castle, and on the west side of the peninsula is a large bay, which forms a good roadstead. The Genoese have here a number of country houses, and the environs are delightful. Quarries of marble are wrought in the neighbourhood. Population 4000; 12 miles west of Brugnello.

SESTRI DI PONENTI, a small town of the north-west of Italy, situated on the coast of the gulf of Genoa. In the neighbourhood are mines of chalk and alabaster; 4 miles west of Genoa.

SESTRO, CRO, a large and beautiful village on the Grain coast of Africa, where good water may be procured.

SESTRO, GREAT, one of the largest and most populous towns on the Grain coast of Guinea, carrying on a great trade in Guinea pepper and ivory. The French had once a settlement there, which they have now abandoned.

SESTRO, LITTLE, a small town situated eight miles to the south of the Rio Sestro.

SESTRO, RIO, a river of Western Africa, which crosses the Grain coast, and falls into the Atlantic, in Lat. 5. 30. N. about 20 miles north-west of the river Sangwin. It affords good anchorage, and its environs are very fertile but unhealthy.

SESUVIUM, in Botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order trigynia, natural order of succulentæ, ficoideæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, bell-shaped, five-parted; segments ovate, acute, coloured within, shrivelling. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments very many, awl-shaped, inserted into the calyx below the segments, and shorter than the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ oblong, in the bottom of the calyx, three-cornered above. Styles often three, capillary, erect, length of the stamens. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule ovate, three-celled, cut

round. Seeds roundish, flattish, having a beak at the margin.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted, coloured. Petals none. Capsule ovate, three-celled, cut round, many-seeded.

Sesuvium Portulacastrum.—Root perennial. Stems herbaceous, four or five inches long, decumbent, succulent. Leaves wedge-shaped, on very short petioles, opposite, thick, smooth, bright green. Petioles sheathing, embracing, with membranaceous edges. Peduncles solitary, axillary, shorter than the leaves. Flowers green on the outside, white and blood-red within.—Native of the West Indies.

To SET, *v. a.* preterite *I set*; part. pass. *I am set*. [*settan, sætan, Sax.*]. To place; to put in any situation or place; to put.

Ere I could.

Give him that parting-kiss which I had *set*
Betwixt two charming words, comes in my father. *Shakspeare.*

But that my admirable dexterity of wit, counterfeiting the action of an old woman, delivered me, the knave constable had *set* me i' the common stocks for a witch. *Shakspeare.*
—He that hath received his testimony, hath *set* to his seal that God is true. *St. John.*—They have *set* her in a bed in the midst of the slain. *Ezek.*—To put into any condition, state or posture.—They thought the very disturbance of things established an hire sufficient to *set* them on work. *Hooker.*

That man that sits within a monarch's heart,
Would he abuse the count'nance of the king,
Alack! what mischiefs might he *set* abroad! *Shakspeare.*

This present enterprize *set* off his head,
I do not think a braver gentleman
Is now alive. *Shakspeare.*

The shipping might be *set* on work by fishing, by transportations from port to port. *Bacon.*

By his aid aspiring
To *set* himself in glory above his peers. *Milton.*

Jove call'd in haste
The son of Maia with severe decree,
To kill the keeper, and to *set* her free. *Dryden.*

This river,
When Nature's self lay ready to expire,
Quench'd the dire flame that *set* the world on fire. *Addison.*

To make motionless; to fix immovably.
Struck with the sight, inanimate she seems,
Set are her eyes, and motionless her limbs. *Garth.*

To fix; to state by some rule.—The town of Bera has handsome fountains planted, at *set* distances, from one end of the streets to the other. *Addison.*—To regulate; to adjust.—In court they determine the king's good by his desires, which is a kind of *setting* the sun by the dial *Suckling.*—Our palates grow into a liking of the seasoning and cookery, which by custom they are *set* to. *Locke.*

He rules the church's blest dominions,
And *sets* men's faith by his opinions. *Prior.*

To fit to music; to adapt with notes.—*Set* thy own songs, and sing them to thy lute. *Dryden.*

Grief he tames that fetters it in verse;
But when I have done so,
Some man, his heart or voice to show,
Doth *set* and sing my pain;
And by delighting many, frees again
Grief, which verse did restrain. *Donne.*

To plant, not sow.
I prostrate fell,
To shrubs and plants my vile devotion paid,
And *set* the bearded leek to which I pray'd. *Prior.*

To intersperse or variegate with any thing.
As with stars, their bodies all
And wings were *set* with eyes. *Milton.*
High

High on their heads, with jewels richly *set*,
Each lady wore a radiant coronet.

Dryden.

To reduce from a fractured or dislocated state.—Can honour *set* to a leg? no: or an arm? no: honour hath no skill in surgery then? no. *Shakspeare*.—Credit is gained by course of time, and seldom recovers a strain; but if broken, is never well *set* again. *Temple*.—To fix the affection; to determine the thoughts.—*Set* your affection on things above, not on things on the earth. *Col.*

Some I found wonderous harsh,
Contemptuous, proud, *set* on revenge and spite. *Milton.*

Set not thy heart
Thus overfond on that which is not thine. *Milton.*

Men take an ill-natured pleasure in disappointing us in what our hearts are most *set* upon. *Addison*.—To pre-terminate; to settle.—He remembers only the name of Conon, and forgets the other on *set* purpose, to shew his country swain was no great scholar. *Dryden*.—To establish; to appoint; to fix.—For using *set* and prescribed forms, there is no doubt but that wholesome words, being known, are aptest to excite judicious and fervent affections. *Jeon Basilike.*

Though *set* form of prayer be an abomination,
Set forms of petitions find great approbation. *Denham.*

To appoint to an office; to assign to a post.—Am I a sea, or a whale, that thou *settest* a watch over me? *Job*.—To exhibit; to display; with *before*.—Through the variety of my reading, I *set before* me many examples both of ancient and later times. *Bacon.*

A spacious veil from his broad shoulders flew,
That *set* the unhappy Phaeton to view:
The flaming chariot and the steeds it shew'd,
And the whole table in the mantle glow'd. *Addison.*

To propose to choice.—All that can be done is to *set* the thing *before* men, and to offer it to their choice. *Tillotson*.—To value; to estimate; to rate.—The backwardness parents shew in divulging their faults, will make them *set* a greater value on their credit themselves, and teach them to be the more careful to preserve the good opinion of others. *Locke*.—If we act by several broken views, and will not only be virtuous, but wealthy, popular, and every thing that has a value *set* upon it by the world, we shall live and die in misery. *Addison.*

Though the same sun, with all diffusive rays,
Blush in the rose and in the diamond blaze,
We prize the stronger effort of his pow'r,
And always *set* the gem above the flow'r. *Pope.*

To stake at play.
What sad disorders play begets!
Desperate and mad, at length he *sets*
Those darts, whose points make gods adore. *Prior.*

To offer a wager at dice to another.—Who *sets* me else? I'll throw at all. *Shakspeare*.—To fix in metal.—He may learn to cut, polish, and *set* precious stones. *Locke*.—To embarrass; to distress; to perplex.—Those who raise popular murmurs and discontents against his majesty's government, that they find so very few and so very improper occasions for them, shewing how hard they are *set* in this particular, represent the bill as a grievance. *Addison*.—To fix in an artificial manner, so as to produce a particular effect.—The proud have laid a snare for me, they have *set* gins. *Psalms*.—To apply to something, as a thing to be done.—Unto thy brother thou shalt not lend upon usury, that the Lord may bless thee in all that thou *settest* thine hand to. *Deuteronomy.*

With what'er gall thou *set'st* thyself to write,
Thy inoffensive satires never bite. *Dryden.*

To let; to grant to a tenant.—They care not how high they sell any of their commodities, at how unreasonable rates they *set* their grounds. *Bp. Hall*.—To place in order; to frame.—After it was framed, and ready to be *set* together, he was,

with infinite labour and charge, carried by land with camels, through that hot and sandy country. *Knolles*.—To station; to place.

Cœnus has betray'd
The bitter truths that our loose court upbraid:
Your friend was *set* upon you for a spy,
And on his witness you are doom'd to die. *Dryden.*

To oppose.—Will you *set* your wit to a fool's? *Shakspeare*.—To bring to a fine edge: as, to *set* a razor.—To point out, without noise or disturbance: as, a dog *sets* birds.

To *SET* about. To apply to.—They should make them play-games, or endeavour it, and *set* themselves about it. *Locke.*

To *SET* against. To place in a state of enmity or opposition.—The king of Babylon *set* himself against Jerusalem. *Ezekiel*.—The devil hath reason to *set* himself against it; for nothing is more destructive to him than a soul armed with prayer. *Duppa.*

To *SET* against. To oppose; to place in rhetorical opposition.—This perishing of the world in a deluge is *set* against, or compared with, the perishing of the world in the conflagration. *Burnet.*

To *SET* apart. To neglect for a season.—They highly commended his forwardness, and all other matters for that time *set* apart. *Knolles.*

To *SET* aside. To omit for the present.—*Set* your knighthood and your soldiery aside, and give me leave to tell you that you lie in your throat. *Shakspeare*.—In 1585 followed the prosperous expedition of Drake and Carlike; in the which I *set* aside the taking of St. Jago and St. Domingo, as surprizes rather than encounters. *Bacon*.—My highest interest is not to be deceived about these matters; therefore, *setting* aside all other considerations, I will endeavour to know the truth, and yield to that. *Tillotson.*

To *SET* aside. To reject.—I'll look into the pretensions of each, and shew upon what ground 'tis that I embrace that of the deluge, and *set* aside all the rest. *Woodward.*

To *SET* aside. To abrogate; to annul.—Several innovations made to the detriment of the English merchant, are now entirely *set* aside. *Addison.*

To *SET* by. To regard; to esteem. *Unused*.—David behaved himself more wisely than all, so that his name was much *set* by. *1 Sam.*

To *SET* by. To reject or omit for the present.—You shall hardly edify me, that those nations might not, by the law of nature, have been subdued by any nation that had only policy and moral virtue; though the propagation of the faith, whereof we shall speak in the proper place, were *set* by, and not made part of the case. *Bacon.*

To *SET* down. To explain; or relate in writing.—They have *set* down, that a rose set by garlick is sweeter, because the more fetid juice goeth into the garlick. *Bacon.*

To *SET* down. To register or note in any book or paper; to put in writing.—I cannot forbear *setting* down the beautiful description Claudian has made of a wild heast, newly brought from the woods, and making its first appearance in a full amphitheatre. *Addison.*

To *SET* down. To fix on a resolve.—Finding him so resolutely *set* down, that he was neither by fair nor foul means, but only by force, to be removed out of his town, he inclosed the same round. *Knolles.*

To *SET* down. To fix; to establish.—This law we may name eternal, being that order which God before all others hath *set* down with himself, for himself to do all things by. *Hooker.*

To *SET* forth. To publish; to promulgate; to make appear.

My willing love,
The rather by these arguments of fear,
Set forth in your pursuit. *Shakspeare.*

The poems, which have been so ill *set* forth under his name, are as he first writ them. *Waller.*

To *SET* forth. To raise; to send out on expeditions.—
Our

Our merchants, to their great charges, *set forth* fleets to desecrate the seas. *Abbot.*

To SET forth. To display; to explain; to represent.—So little have these false colours dishonoured painting, that they have only served to *set forth* her praise, and to make her merit further known. *Dryden.*

To SET forth. To arrange; to place in order.
Up higher to the plain, where we'll *set forth*
In best appointment all our regiments. *Shakspeare.*

To SET forth. To show; to exhibit.
When poor Rutilus spends all his worth,
In hopes of *setting* one good dinner *forth*,
'Tis downright madness. *Dryden.*

To SET forward. To advance; to promote.—They yield that reading may *set forward*, but not begin the work of salvation. *Hooker.*—Amongst them there are not those helps which others have to *set them forward* in the way of life. *Hooker.*

To SET in. To put in a way to begin.—If you please to assist and *set me in*, I will recollect myself. *Collier.*

To SET off. To decorate; to recommend by contrast; to adorn; to embellish.

Like bright metal on a sullen ground,
My reformation, glittering o'er my fault,
Shall shew more goodly, and attract more eyes,
Than that which hath no foil to *set it off.* *Shakspeare.*

The prince put thee into my service for no other reason than to *set me off.* *Shakspeare.*

To SET on or upon. To animate; to instigate; to incite.
He upbraids Iago, that he made him
Brave me upon the watch; whereon it came
That I was cast; and even now he spake
Iago *set him on.* *Shakspeare.*

The skill used in dressing up power, will serve only to give a greater edge to man's natural ambition: what can this do but *set men on* the more eagerly to scramble. *Locke.*

To SET on or upon. This sense may, perhaps, be rather neutral. To attack; to assault.—There you missing me, I was taken up by the pirates, who putting me under board prisoner, presently *set upon* another ship, and maintaining a long fight, in the end put them all to the sword. *Sidney.*—Of one hundred ships there came scarce thirty to work: howbeit with them, and such as came daily in, we *set upon* them, and gave them the chase. *Bacon.*

To SET on. To employ as in a task.—*Set on* thy wife to observe. *Shakspeare.*

To SET on or upon. To fix the attention; to determine to any thing with settled resolution.—It becomes a true lover to have your heart more *set upon* her good than your own, and to bear a tenderer respect to her honour than your satisfaction. *Sidney.*

To SET out. To assign; to allot.—The rest, unable to serve any longer, or willing to fall to thrift, should be placed in part of the lands by them won, at better rate than others, to whom the same shall be *set out.* *Spenser.*

To SET out. To mark by boundaries or distinctions of space.—Time and place, taken thus for determinate portions of those infinite abysses of space and duration, *set out*, or supposed to be distinguished from the rest by known boundaries, have each a twofold acceptation. *Locke.*

To SET out. To adorn; to embellish.—An ugly woman, in a rich habit *set out* with jewels, nothing can become. *Dryden.*

To SET out. To raise; to equip.—The Venetians pretend they could *set out*, in case of great necessity, thirty men of war, a hundred galleys, and ten galeasses. *Addison.*

To SET out. To show; to display; to recommend.—Barbarossa, in his discourses concerning the conquest of Africk, *set him out* as a most fit instrument for subduing the kingdom of Tunis. *Knolles.*

To SET out. To show; to prove.—Those very reasons *set out* how heinous his sin was. *Atterbury.*

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To SET up. To erect; to establish newly.—There are many excellent institutions of charity lately *set up*, and which deserve all manner of encouragement, particularly those which relate to the careful and pious education of poor children. *Atterbury.*

To SET up. To enable to commence a new business.
Who could not win the mistress woo'd the maid,
Set up themselves, and drove a separate trade. *Pope.*

To SET up. To build; to erect.
Their ancient habitations they neglect,
And *set up* new: then, if the echo like not,
In such a room they pluck down those. *B. Jonson.*

To SET up. To raise; to exalt; to put in power.—He was skillful enough to have lived still, if knowledge could be *set up* against mortality. *Shakspeare.*—Homer took all occasions of *setting up* his own countrymen the Grecians, and of undervaluing the Trojan chiefs. *Dryden.*

To SET up. To establish; to appoint; to fix.—Whatever practical rule is generally broke, it cannot be supposed innate; it being impossible that men should, without shame or fear, serenely break a rule which they could not but evidently know that God had *set up.* *Locke.*

To SET up. To place in view.—He hath taken me by my neck, shaken me to pieces, and *set me up* for his mark. *Job.*—Scarecrows are *set up* to keep birds from corn and fruit. *Bacon.*

Thy father's merit *sets thee up* to view,
And shows thee in the fairest point of light,
To make thy virtues or thy faults conspicuous. *Addison.*

To SET up. To place in repose; to fix; to rest.—Whilst we *set up* our hopes here, we do not so seriously, as we ought, consider that God has provided another and better place for us. *Wake.*

To SET up. To raise by the voice.
My right eye itches, some good luck is near;
Perhaps my Amaryllis may appear;
I'll *set up* such a note as she shall hear. *Dryden.*

To SET up. To advance; to propose to reception.—The authors that *set up* this opinion were not themselves satisfied with it. *Burnet.*

To SET up. To raise a sufficient fortune; to set up a trade; to set up a trader.—In a soldier's life there's honour to be got, and one lucky hit *sets up* a man for ever. *L'Estrange.*

To SET, v. n. To fall below the horizon, as the sun at evening.
That sun once *set*, a thousand meaner stars
Gave a dim light to violence and wars. *Waller.*

A gathering and serring of the spirits together to resist maketh the teeth to *set* hard one against another. *Bacon.*—Ahijah could not see, for his eyes were *set*, by reason of his age. *Kings.*—To fit music to words.

That I might sing it, madam, to a tune,
Give me a note: your ladyship can *set.*—
—As little by such toys as may be possible. *Shakspeare.*

To become not fluid; to concrete.—That fluid substance in a few minutes begins to *set*, as the tradesmen speak; that is, to exchange its fluidity, for firmness. *Boyle.*—To begin a journey.

So let him land,
And solemnly see him *set on* to London. *Shakspeare.*
On Wednesday next, Harry, thou shalt *set forward*,
On Thursday we ourselves will march. *Shakspeare.*

To put one's self into any state or posture of removal.—He, with forty of his galleys, in most warlike manner appointed, *set forward* with Solyman's ambassador towards Constantinople. *Knolles.*—To catch birds with a dog that *sets* them; that is, lies down and points them out; and with a large net.—When I go a hawking or *setting*, I think myself beholden to him that assures me, that in such a field there is a covey of partridges. *Boyle.*—To plant, not sow

In gard'ning ne'er this rule forget,
To sow dry, and *set* wet.

Old Proverb.

It is commonly used in conversation for *sit*, and, though barbarous, is sometimes found in good authors.

If they *set* down before's, 'fore they remove,
Bring up your army. *Shakspeare.*

To apply one's self.—If he *sets* industriously and sincerely to perform the commands of Christ, he can have no ground of doubting but it shall prove successful to him. *Hammond.*

To *SET about*. To fall to; to begin.—How preposterous is it, never to *set about* works of charity, whilst we ourselves can see them performed. *Atterbury.*

To *SET in*. To become settled in a particular state.—When the weather was *set in* to be very bad, I have taken a whole day's journey to see a gallery furnished by great masters. *Addison.*

To *SET off*. To set out on any pursuit; to set out from the barrier at a race; to start.

To *SET on* or *upon*. To begin a march, journey, or enterprise.

Be it your charge

To see perform'd the tenor of our word:
Set on.

Shakspeare.

He that would seriously *set upon* the search of truth, ought to prepare his mind with a love of it. *Locke.*

To *SET on*. To make an attack.

Hence every leader to his charge;
For on their answer we will *set on* them. *Shakspeare.*

To *SET out*. To have beginning.—If an invisible casualty there be, it is questionable whether its activity only *set out* at our nativity, and began not rather in the womb. *Brown.*

To *SET out*. To begin a journey or course.—These doctrines, laid down for the foundations of any science, were called principles, as the beginnings from which we must *set out*, and look no farther backwards. *Locke.*

To *SET out*. To begin the world.—He, at his first *setting out*, threw himself into court. *Addison.*—Eugenio *set out* from the same university, and about the same time with Corusodes. *Swift.*

To *SET to*. To apply himself to. I may appeal to some, who have made this their business, whether it go not against the hair with them to *set to* any thing else. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

To *SET up*. To begin a trade openly.—A man of a clear reputation, though his bark be split, yet he saves his cargo; has something left towards *setting up* again, and so is in capacity of receiving benefit not only from his own industry, but the friendship of others. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

To *SET up*. To begin a scheme in life.—A severe treatment might tempt them to *set up* for a republic. *Addison.*

To *SET up*. To profess publicly.

Scow'ring the watch grows out-of-fashion wit;
Now we *set up* for tilting in the pit. *Dryden.*

Those who have once made their court to those mistresses without portions, the muses, are never like to *set up* for fortunes. *Pope.*

SET, part. adj. Regular; not lax; made in consequence of some formal rule.

Rude am I in my speech,
And little bless'd with the *set* phrase of peace. *Shakspeare.*

The indictment of the good lord Hastings,
In a *set* hand fairly is ingross'd. *Shakspeare.*

Set speeches, and a formal tale,
With none but statesmen and grave fools prevail. *Dryden.*

In ten *set* battles have we driven back
These heathen Saxons, and regain'd our earth. *Dryden.*

SET, s. A number of things suited to each other; considered as related to each other; a number of things of

which one cannot conveniently be separated from the rest.—Sensations and passions seem to depend upon a particular *set* of motions. *Collier.*

'Tis not a *set* of features or complexion,
The tincture of a skin, that I admirè. *Addison.*

He must change his comrades;
In half the time he talks them round,
There must another *set* be found. *Swift.*

They refer to those critics who are partial to some particular *set* of writers to the prejudice of others. *Pope.*—Any thing not sown, but put in a state of some growth into the ground.—'Tis raised by *sets* or berries, like white thorn, and lies the same time in the ground. *Mortimer.*—The apparent fall of the sun, or other bodies of heaven, below the horizon.

When the battle's lost and won.
—That will be ere *set* of sun. *Shakspeare.*

A wager at dice.

That was but civil war, an equal *set*,
Where piles with piles, and eagles eagles fight. *Dryden.*

A game.

When we have match'd our rackets to these balls,
We will, in France, play a *set*
Shall strike his father's crown into the hazard. *Shakspeare.*

SET-OFF, s. [in Law.] To this head may be referred the practice of what is called a *set-off*, whereby the defendant acknowledges the justice of the plaintiff's demand on the one hand; but on the other sets up a demand of his own, to counterbalance that of the plaintiff, either on the whole or in part. *Blackstone.*—Any counterbalance.—A recommendation; a decoration. See *To SET off.*—Used chiefly in conversation.

SETACEOUS, adj. [seta, Latin.] Bristly; set with strong hairs; consisting of strong hairs.—The parent insect, with its stiff *setaceous* tail, terebrates the rib of the leaf when tender, and makes way for its egg into the very pith. *Derham.*

SETAH, a name used by the oldest writers for the acacia. It is an original Hebrew word, and is explained by the lexicographers, by a thorn growing in the desert.

SETAPORE, the name of several towns in Hindostan, but none of any consequence.

SETARIA, in Botany [from *seta*, a bristle], a name given by Acharius, in his *Prodromus Lichenographiæ Suecicæ*, to the 27th tribe of the great genus *Lichen*. It comprehends seven species, of what have usually been termed filamentous lichens, as *jubatus*, *chalybeiformis*, &c. See *LICHENES*.

SETBY, a village of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles from Wragby.

SETCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Koeitchoo. The surrounding district is full of mountains, which yield cinnamon and mercury. The inhabitants are rude in their manners, and almost wholly ignorant of the Chinese sciences. Lat. 27. 10. N. long. 108. E.

SETCHIN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quangsee. Lat. 22. 48. N. long. 136. 31. E.

SETCHING, a city of China, of the first rank, situated in a mountainous district of the province of Quangsee, bordering on Yunan. Lat. 24. 17. N. long. 105. 54. E.

SETCHLEY, a village of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles south of Lynn Regis.

SETCHUEN, a province of China, on the western frontier, bounded on the north by Chen-si, on the east and south by Houquang and Yunan, and on the west by Tibet. This province is mountainous, yet being traversed from west to east by the great river Yang-tse-kiang, it is highly fertile, and in a state of complete cultivation. It is particularly noted for its sugar cane, silk, orange and lemon trees, and its rhubarb is the best in China. The mountains produce

produce iron, tin, lead, excellent loadstone, and lapis lazuli. It has a breed of small but handsome and swift horses, which are highly esteemed; and it abounds with the animal that produces the musk. Among a variety of other birds is a species of hen, with wool like that of sheep, instead of feathers. Salt is procured by evaporation, from wells among the mountains. This province contains 10 cities of the first rank, with 88 of the second and third, besides a great number of fortified places. The population was stated to Sir George Staunton at 27 millions.

SETEEF, a town of Algiers, the ancient *Sitipha*, once the capital of a part of Mauritania, and distinguished by the obstinate resistance it made against the Saracens. The old city is now in a state of complete ruin, presenting scarcely one fragment of the Roman walls, pillars, or cisterns. The fountains, which continue to flow very plentifully near the centre of the city, are equally delightful and convenient; 50 miles south-west of Constantina.

SETEGANTI, a river of South America, in the province of Darien, which enters the river Cupe.

SETENIL, a small town in the south of Spain, in Granada, beautifully situated on a rocky eminence; 11 miles north of Ronda.

SETERRA, or SETRES, a small sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa.

SETFOIL, *s.* An herb: See *TORMENTILLA*.

SETHIAMS, SETHEDIANS; *Sethiani*, or *Sethimiani*, a branch of the ancient Gnostics, thus called, because of their pretending to deduce their origin from Seth, son of Adam, whom they called Jesus and Christ, from an opinion, that Seth and Jesus were the same person, who came down from heaven at two several times.

SETHRON, a village of Lower Egypt, on the southern bank of the Lake Menzaleh.

SETIA, or SETTIA, a small town on the north coast of the island of Candia or Crete, situated on a bay of the same name, with 4000 inhabitants. It was anciently called *Cythæum*, and is the see of a Greek archbishop; 44 miles east-south-east of Candia. Lat. 35. 3. N. long. 26. 3. E.

SETLE, a village of Turkish Armenia; 30 miles south-west of Akalzike.

SETMURTHY, a hamlet of England, above Derwent, in Cumberland; 4 miles east-north-east of Cockermouth.

SETON, a skein of silk or thread, introduced through a part of the flesh by means of a needle, and left there so as to keep up a continual discharge of matter, and a degree of counter-irritation, with a view of relieving or curing a variety of diseases.

SETRA-JETA, the name, in Hindoo romance, of the father of one of the favourite wives of the popular deity Krishna.

SETSCH, a small town of the east of Bohemia; 9 miles west-south-west of Chrudim.

SETSE, the name of a Chinese tree, called also *chitse*, and much esteemed by the people of that country for its beauty and for the goodness of its fruit. In the provinces of Cantong and Honan there are whole plains covered with these trees, many of which grow to the size of our walnut-trees. The fruit ripens every where in the east, where the tree grows, but it is of a much more delicious flavour in some places than in others. The leaves are of the colour and shape of those of the walnut-tree, only that they are more round at the ends. The fruit is sometimes round, sometimes pointed at one end, sometimes oval, sometimes flat, and not unfrequently composed of two pieces, as it were, and resembling two apples, cut and joined together. The rind is always green, never changing yellow or red, and the fruit keeps its freshness all the winter. They are about the size of the orange, the skin is very tender and thin, and the fruit has a mixed taste of the sharp and the luscious. It is very wholesome and good.

SETTALA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, situated between the river Adda and Milan.

SETTE, a country or district of Western Africa, in the

track of country between Benin and Loango. It is governed by a mani, or chief, who pays homage to the king of Loango. It is traversed by a river of the same name, on the banks of which is a town also of the same name, situated about 160 miles to the north of Loango. The river falls into the Atlantic, in Lat. 2. 15. S.

SETTE COMMUNI, or THE SEVEN COMMUNES, a district of Austrian Italy, situated between the Brenta and the Astico, and extending from the neighbourhood of Vicenza to the frontier of Tyrol. Its territorial extent is about 100 square miles, and it consists of lofty mountains and cliffs, intersected with narrow and sterile vales. The soil being throughout extremely poor, the pasture in the valleys and on the sides of the mountains is, with the exception of wood, the only valuable product of the district; the chief branch is the breeding of cattle, whom in the winter months it is necessary, to drive to the low country for food. The inhabitants amount to about 30,000.

SETTEE, *s.* A large long seat with a back to it.—A vessel, very common in the Mediterranean, with one deck, and a very long and sharp prow. *Chambers*.

SETTEE, in Sea Language, a vessel, very common in the Mediterranean, with one deck, and a very long and sharp prow. They carry, some two masts, some three, without top-masts. They have generally two masts, and are rigged and navigated like xebecs or galleys, with settee sails instead of lateen sails. The least of them are of sixty tons burden. They serve to transport cannon and provisions for ships of war, and the like. These vessels are peculiar to the Mediterranean sea, and are usually navigated by Italians, Greeks or Mahometans.

SETTER, *s.* One who sets.—When he was gone I cast this book away: I could not look upon it but with weeping eyes, in remembering him who was the only *setter* on to do it. *Aschan*.—One who sets forth; a proclaimer.—He seemeth to be a *setter* forth of strange gods. *Acts*.—A dog who beats the field, and points the bird for the sportsmen.—They point, as so many *setters* at a partridge. *Atterbury*.—Whatever sets off, decorates, or recommends.—They come as refiners of thy dross; or gilders, *setters off*, of thy graces. *Whitlock*.—One who adapts words to music.

Thy soule upon so sweet an organ plays,
As makes the parts she plays as sound, as sweet,
Which sounds the heavenly *setter's* and thy praise.

Davies.

SETTERWORT, *s.* An herb; a species of *VERATRUM*.

SETTIMO TORIN, a small town of Piedmont, province of Turin, situated on the river Sangal. Population 2300.

SETTIMO VITONE, another small town of Piedmont, with 1700 inhabitants.

SETTING, *s.* Apparent fall of the sun, or other heavenly bodies, below the horizon.—The *setting* of the pleiades and seven stars. *Brown*.—Enclosure.—Thou shalt set in it *settings* of stones, even four rows of stones. *Exod*.—In naval language, direction of the current or sea.

SETTING, in Seamanship. To set the land or the sun, by the compass, is to observe how the land bears on any point of the compass, or on what point of the compass the sun is; likewise the act of observing the situation of any distant object by the compass, in order to discover the angle which it makes with the nearest meridian: as at seven *post* meridian, we set the tower of Arabia near the port of Alexandria, and it bore south-south-east distant four leagues by estimation. When two ships sail in sight of one another, to mark on what point the chased bears, is termed *setting the chase by the compass*.

SETTING-DOG, *s.* A dog taught to find game, and point it out to the sportsman.—Will. obliges young heirs with a *setting-dog* he was made himself. *Addison*.

SETTLE, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, very pleasantly situated on the eastern bank of the river Ribble, at the bottom of an almost perpendicular rock of limestone, from the top of which is a fine prospect of an extensive vale, bounded on all sides by craggy mountains.

mountains. This vale, which, from being watered by the Ribble, has acquired the name of Ribblesdale, is not surpassed by any in England for richness of verdure. Like most of the other towns and villages in this district, Settle is mostly built of stone, brick being only used for the chimneys. The buildings are irregularly laid out, but there is a spacious market-place. The parish church is on the opposite side of the river at Giggleswick, in which parish the town is situated. The cotton mills here and in the vicinity employ a great many hands, especially in winter. Market on Tuesday, and also on every other Monday, for fat and lean cattle. Here are also various fairs, which are generally well attended, and are noted for large supplies of cattle. Population 1153; houses 274; 58 miles west-by-north of York, and 232 north-west-by-north of London. Lat. 54. 4. N. long. 2. 15. W.

SE'TTLE, *s.* [Goth. *sittls*; Sax. *siel setol*.] A seat; a bench; something to sit on.—From the bottom to the lower *settle* shall be two cubits. *Ezek.*

The man, their hearty welcome first express,
A common *settle* drew for either guest,
Inviting each his weary limbs to rest.

Dryden.

To SE'TTLE, *v. a.* [from the Sax. verb *siethlan*, *siethlan*, to compose, to reconcile; *siæte*, peace.] To place in any certain state after a time of fluctuation or disturbance.

In hope to find
Better abode, and my afflicted powers
To *settle* here.

Milton.

To fix in any way of life.
The father thought the time drew on
Of *settling* in the world his only son.

Dryden.

To fix in any place.
Yet as I swiftly sail'd the other day,
The *settled* rock seem'd from his seat removed. *P. Fletcher.*
Settled in his face I see
Sad resolution.

Milton.

To establish; to confirm.
Justice submitted to what Abra pleas'd:
Her will alone could *settle* or revoke.
And law was fix'd by what she latest spoke.

Prior.

To determine; to affirm; to free from ambiguity.—This exactness will be troublesome, and therefore men will think they may be excused from *settling* the complex ideas of mixed modes so precisely in their minds. *Locke.*—To make certain or unchangeable.—This, by a *settled* habit in things, whereof we have frequent experience, is performed so quick, that we take that for the perception of our sensation which is an idea formed by our judgment. *Locke.*—To fix; not to suffer to continue doubtful in opinion, or wavering in conduct.—A pamphlet that talks of slavery, France and the pretender; they desire no more: it will *settle* the wavering and confirm the doubtful. *Swift.*—To make close or compact.—Cover ant-hills up, that the rain may *settle* the turf before the Spring. *Mortimer.*—To fix unalienably by legal sanctions.—I have given him the parsonage of the parish, and, because I know his value, have *settled* upon him a good annuity for life. *Addison.*—To fix inseparably.—Exalt your passion by directing and *settling* it upon an object, the due contemplation of whose loveliness may cure perfectly all hurts received from mortal beauty. *Boyle.*—To affect so as that the dregs or impurities sink to the bottom.

So do the winds and thunders cleanse the air;
So working seas *settle* and purge the wine.

Davies.

To compose; to put in a state of calmness.—When thou art *settling* thyself to thy devotions, imagine thou hearest thy Saviour calling to thee, as he did to Martha, Why art thou so careful? *Duppa.*

To SE'TTLE, *v. n.* To subside; to sink to the bottom and repose there.—That country became a gained ground by

the mud brought down by the Nilus, which *settled* by degrees into a firm land. *Brown.*—To lose motion or fermentation; to depositæ faces at the bottom.

Your fury then boil'd upward to a foam;
But since this message came, you sink and *settle*,
As if cold water had been pour'd upon you.

Dryden.

A government, upon such occasions, is always thick before it *settles*. *Addison.*—To fix one's self; to establish a residence.—The Spinetæ, descended from the Pelasgi, *settled* at the mouth of the river Po. *Arbuthnot.*—To chuse a method of life; to establish a domestic state.

As people marry now, and *settle*,
Fierce love abates his usual mettle;
Worldly desires, and household cares,
Disturb the godhead's soft affairs.

Prior.

To become fixed so as not to change.—The wind came about and *settled* in the West, so as we could make no way. *Bacon.* To quit an irregular and desultory for a methodical life.—To take any lasting state.—According to laws established by the divine wisdom, it was wrought by degrees from one form into another, till it *settled* at length into an habitable earth. *Burnet.*—Chyle, before it circulates with the blood, is whitish: by the force of circulation it runs through all the intermediate colours, till it *settles* in an intense red. *Arbuthnot.*—To rest; to repose.—When time hath worn out their natural vanity, and taught them discretion, their fondness *settles* on its proper object. *Spectator.*

Warm'd in the brain the brazen weapon lies,
And shades eternal *settle* o'er his eyes.

Pope.

To grow calm.
'Till the fury of his highness *settle*,
Come not before him.

Shakspeare.

To make a jointure for a wife.—He sighs with most success that *settles* well. *Garth.*—To contract.—One part being moist, and the other dry, occasions its *settling* more in one place than another, which causes cracks and *settlings* in the wall. *Mortimer.*

SE'TTLEDNESS, *s.* The state of being settled; confirmed state.—We have attained to a *settledness* of disposition. *Bp. Hall.*

SE'TTLEMENT, *s.* The act of settling; the state of being settled. The act of giving possession by legal sanction.

My flocks, my fields, my woods, my pastures take,
With *settlement* as good as law can make.

Dryden.

A jointure granted to a wife.
Strephon sigh'd so loud and strong,
He blew a *settlement* along;
And bravely drove his rivals down
With coach and six, and house in town.

Swift.

Subsidence; dregs.—Fuller's earth left a thick *settlement*. *Mortimer.*—Act of quitting a roving for a domestic and methodical life.—Every man living has a design in his head upon wealth, power, or *settlement* in the world. *L'Estrange.*—A colony; a place where a colony is established.—Such were the clamours of his enemies, and the ingratitude of the court of Spain, that after discovering the continent, and making a *settlement* in the islands of America, he [Columbus] was treated like a criminal, and carried over to Europe in irons. *Guthrie.*

SE'TTLEMENT, ACT OF, in British History, a name given to the statute 12 and 13 W. III. cap. 2., by which the crown was limited to his present majesty's illustrious house; and some new provisions were added, at the same fortunate era, for better securing our religion, laws and liberties; which the statute declares to be the birth-right of the people of England, according to the ancient doctrine of the common law.

SE'TTLER, *s.* One who fixes in a place where a colony is established.

SETTLEWOOD,

SETTLEWOOD, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire, adjoining the town of Hawkesbury.

SETTLING, *s.* [ˈsetlɪŋ, Sax.] The act of making a settlement. Settlement; dregs.

'Tis but the lees,
And *settlings* of a melancholy blood.

Milton.

SETTRINGTON, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-by-south of New Malton. Population 729.

SETUBAL, or ST. UBES, a considerable town of Portugal, on a bay of the Atlantic, at the mouth of the river Sado; 16 miles south-south-east of Lisbon. In the dreadful earthquake of 1755, it was almost entirely levelled with the ground, but was soon rebuilt, and in a much better style, the limits of the old town being extended, and the whole fortified with a mound, a citadel called San Felipe, and several small forts. The streets are now paved, the harbour commodious, the quays broad and spacious. The town contains five churches, eleven monasteries, an hospital, and an arsenal. Its trade is active, consisting in the export of the products of Portugal, such as lemons, olives, oil, wine (particularly a species of muscadell), and, above all, in bay salt, of which no less than 200,000 tons are made annually here. It often happens that vessels, after discharging their cargoes in the ports of the Mediterranean, come here to take in a return cargo of this article. Population 12,000.

SETUNA, a small sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa.

SETWAL, *s.* An herb. See VALERIANA.

SETZDORF, a small town of Austrian Silesia, in the circle of Troppau, with 1600 inhabitants.

SEU, a river of Malacca, which falls into the sea of China. Lat. 6. 45. N. long. 10. 19. E.

SEVAJEE, a distinguished person in the history of Hindoostan, the founder of the modern Mahratta empire, was the son of Shawjee, who, from an humble situation, had raised himself by his talents to be guardian to a minor of the house of Nizam Shah. On a Mogul invasion of the country, being closely pursued by the troops of his father-in-law, Jadoo Row, with whom he was at enmity, Shawjee escaped with an infant son, and left a pregnant wife to fall into the hands of her father. She was kindly received, and was delivered of her second son, Sevajee, the subject of this article, in the month of May, 1626, and finally separated from her husband.

Sevajee, at the age of 17, placed himself at the head of a body of banditti, who pillaged all the neighbouring districts, which so affected the person who had been entrusted with the care of his education, that he put an end to his life. Upon this, Sevajee took possession of the property accumulated from his father's estate, and increased the number of his followers, so as to become a most formidable freebooter. His exploits soon rendered him dangerous to the government of Visiapour, which sent a powerful army against him, and brought him to submission. Sevajee asked pardon for his offences, and by the humility of his deportment, threw the general sent against him off his guard, till he found an opportunity to stab him to the heart with a concealed dagger; in consequence of which the army dispersed. Shawjee, the father of this desperate young man, was now high in office at Visiapour, and though he pretended entirely to have renounced his son, a correspondence between them was suspected, and a plan was formed for seizing his person, and putting him to death. He was, however, saved by the intercession of a patron, and at length restored to office. But he was resolved to have ample revenge for the affront, and caused Sevajee to murder the chief who had seized him, and his whole family. After this Shawjee paid a visit to his son at Poona in great state, and manifested much affection and respect for him.

Sevajee now proceeded in a career of successful predatory war, and in 1664 pillaged the rich city of Surat. Having, in 1672, laid the king of Golconda under a heavy contribution, he afterwards entered into an alliance with other potentates against the Mogul and the king of Visiapour, the object

of which was the expulsion of all the Mahometan powers from the Deccan; and marching with a great army, in 1677, towards Golconda, he took possession of many fortresses, and pillaged the whole country. His half-brother, Ecojee, was now king of Tanjore; and the different branches of the family were possessed of a large portion of India.

The principal dominions of Sevajee were in the tract called Concan, extending from the south of Surat to the south of Goa, which rendered him completely master of the western Gauts; from which he was, at all times, able to issue and ravage the plain country, while it was impossible to force him from his fastnesses: hence he was denominated by Aurungzebe, the mountain rat. Sevajee continued this course of action till his death, in 1680, when he was succeeded in his conquests by his son Sambajee.

SEVASTOPOL, a town of the south of European Russia, in the Crimea, on a small bay of the Euxine. This was one of the chief mercantile towns of the ancient kingdom of Colchis, but in modern times was known only as a petty Tartar village, called Achtiar, which has been erected into a town since the Crimea was seized by Russia. Its increase has been rapid; it now contains above 3000 inhabitants, is the station of a part of the Russian fleet, and has several good establishments, such as hospitals, docks and dock-yards, barracks, an arsenal, a lazaretto, a large market-place, &c. The harbour is excellent, and is compared to those of Malta and Port Mahon. The principal bay runs up between four and five miles into the land, is from 600 to 800 fathoms in width, and from 10 to 11 fathoms deep, is perfectly sheltered, and without a single shoal; 42 miles south of Eupatoria, and 42 south-west of Simferopol. Lat. 43. 41. 30. N. long. 34. 11. E.

SEUDRE, a river in the south-west of France, department of the Lower Charente, which falls into the sea opposite to the south point of the island of Oleron. It is navigable for ships of 200 tons, to 11 miles from its mouth.

SEVE, or SIEVE, a river of Tuscany, which rises among the Appennines, and falls into the Arno.

SEVE, a small river of Hanover, in the principality of Luneburg, which falls into the Elbe near Harburg.

SEVEN, a small river of England, in Yorkshire, which runs into the Derwent, between Cotehouse and Wickham.

SEVEN, *adj.* [ˈsevn, Saxon.] Four and three; or more than six. It is used in poetry as one long syllable, being one of the rare examples in our language of two *short* syllables.

Let ev'ry man be master of his time
Till *seven* at night.

Shakspeare.

'Sev'n bullocks, yet unyok'd, for Phœbus chuse;
And for Diana *sev'n* unspotted ewes.

Dryden.

SEVENAER, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Gelderland, with 900 inhabitants; 10 miles north of Cleves.

SEVEN AGES, rocks in the Carribean sea, near the south-east coast of the island of Blanca.

SEVENBECK, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of East Flanders, with 1400 inhabitants.

SEVENBERGEN, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of North Brabant, with 3200 inhabitants; 8 miles north-west of Breda.

SEVEN BROTHERS, a cluster of small islands near the north coast of Hispaniola. They lie opposite the mouth of Monte Christ river, or Grand Yaqui; they have occasioned several wrecks, and prove a shelter to privateers. Lat. 19. 53. N. long. 72. 35. W.

SEVENFOLD, *adj.* Repeated seven times.

Upon this dreadful beast with *sevenfold* head,
He set the false Duessa for more awe and dread.

Spenser.

The *sevenfold* shield of Ajax cannot keep
The battery from my heart.

Shakspeare.

SEVENFOLD, *adv.* In the proportion of seven to one.
U
—Whosoever

—Whosoever slayeth Cain, vengeance shall be taken on him *sevenfold*. *Gen.*

SEVENHAMPTON, a hamlet of England, in Wiltshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-east of Highworth.

SEVENHAMPTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 4 miles south-by-east of Winchcombe.

SEVEN HEADS, rocks on the south coast of Ireland, and county of Cork; 7 miles south-west from the Old Head of Kinsale.

SEVEN ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands on the north-west coast of France, department of the Cotes du Nord, opposite to Treguier, between Brest and St. Maloe. Lat. 48. 54. N. long. 3. 23. W.

SEVEN ISLANDS, a cluster of very small isles, in the Eastern seas, extending along the north coast of the island of Banca, from which they are separated by a navigable channel. Lat. 1. 10. S. long. 105. 20. E.

SEVEN ISLANDS, a cluster of islands near the west coast of Sumatra, lying off Padang.

SEVEN ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the English channel, near the coast of France. Lat. 48. 54. N. long. 3. 23. W.

SEVEN ISLANDS, small islands of Virginia, in James river. Lat. 37. 40. N. long. 78. 32. W.

SEVEN ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands near the coast of Canada, in the gulf of St. Lawrence. Lat. 50. 10. N. long. 66. 5. W.

SEVEN ISLANDS BAY, a bay of Canada, on the north side of the river St. Lawrence. Lat. 50. 5. N. long. 66. 25. W.

SEVENNES, a chain of mountains in the south of France, extending over the departments of the Upper Loire, Ardeche, and Gard, and connected with the mountains of the Vivarais and Gevandun. Though not so lofty as the mountains of Auvergne, they are as rugged, and almost as cold. They are remarkable in French history as the retreat of the Protestants in the end of the 17th and beginning of the 18th century.

SEVENNIGHT, *s.* A week.—Rome was either more grateful to the beholders, or more noble in itself, than just with the sword and lance, maintained for a *sevensnight* together. *Sidney*.—We use still the word *sevensnight* or *se'night* in computing time: as, it happened on Monday was *sevensnight*, that is, *on the Monday before last Monday*; it will be done on Monday *sevensnight*, that is, *on the Monday after next Monday*.—This comes from one of those untucker'd ladies whom you were so sharp upon on Monday was *se'night*. *Addison*.

SEVEN OAKS, a market town of England, in the county of Kent, so named from seven large oak trees which stood near it when it was first built. It is situated near the river Darent, and is a great thoroughfare on the road to Rye. The town consists chiefly of two wide streets, in one of which stands the ancient market-house, where the assizes were frequently held during the reign of Queen Elizabeth, and where the petty sessions for the lathe of Sutton-at-Hone are still held. The houses are well-built, and many of them are large and respectable mansions, inhabited by independent families. The principal public building is the church, which forms a conspicuous object for several miles round the country. Here is also a hospital for the maintenance of aged people, with a free-school, founded by William Seven Oaks, lord mayor of London, in 1418, who is said to have been a foundling, charitably educated by a person of this town. It possesses six exhibitions to either university. The school-house was re-built in 1727, at which period the hospital was also substantially repaired. The latter affords an asylum to 32 elderly trades-people, who have a weekly allowance in money. Seven Oaks town and parish constitute a liberty, governed by a warden or bailiff, and four assistants, who are not empowered, however, to hold any court of record for pleas. By the returns of 1811, this liberty contained 638 houses, and 3444 inhabitants, of whom about 1500 reside in town. Market on Saturday. Fairs July 10th and October 12th; 16 miles west-by-north

of Maidstone, and 33 south-east of London. Lat. 51. 16. N. long. 0. 11. E.

SEVEN PAGODAS, a collection of very large Hindoo temples on the Coromandel coast, situated near Sadras, about 30 miles south of Madras.

SEVENSCORE, *adj.* Seventimes twenty; an hundred and forty.—The old countess of Desmond, who lived till she was *sevenscore* years old, did dentize twice or thrice; casting her old teeth, and others coming in their place. *Bacon*.

SEVENTEEN, *adj.* [σεπτονεινε, Saxon.] Seven and ten; seven added to ten.

SEVENTEENTH, *adj.* [σεπτοντειθα, Saxon.] The seventh after the tenth; the ordinal of seventeen.—The conquest of Ireland was perfected by the king in the *seventeenth* year of his reign. *Judge Hale*.

SEVENTH, *adj.* [σεποθαν, Saxon.] The ordinal of seven; the first after the sixth.—The child born in the *seventh* month doth commonly well. *Bacon*.—Containing one part in *seven*.

SEVENTHLY, *adv.* In the seventh place; an ordinal adverb.—*Seventhly*, living bodies have sense, which plants have not. *Bacon*.

SEVENTIETH, *adj.* The tenth seven times repeated; the ordinal of seventy.

SEVENTY, *adj.* [ηανσεποντιζ, Saxon.] Seven times ten.

Worthy Marcius,

Had we no quarrel else to Rome, but that
Thou art thence banish'd, we would muster all,
From twelve to *seventy*. *Shakspeare*.

The weight of *seventy* winters prest him down,
He bent beneath the burthen of a crown. *Dryden*.

To SEVER, *v. a.* [severer, Fr., separo, Lat.] To part by violence from the rest.

Forgetful queen, who *sever'd* that bright head,
Which charm'd two mighty monarchs to her bed. *Granville*.

To divide; to part; to force asunder.

Our force by land
Hath nobly held; our *sever'd* navy too
Have knit again, and float. *Shakspeare*.

To separate; to segregate; to put in different orders or places.

He, with his guide, the farther fields attain'd;
Where *sever'd* from the rest the warrior souls remain'd. *Dryden*.

To separate by chemical operation. To divide by distinctions.—This axiom is of large extent, and would be *severed* and refined by trial. *Bacon*.—To disjoin; to disunite.

How stiff is my vile sense,
That I stand up and have ingenious feeling
Of my huge sorrows! better I were distract,
So should my thoughts be *sever'd* from my griefs;
And woes by wrong imaginations; lose
The knowledge of themselves. *Shakspeare*.

To keep distinct; to keep apart.
Three glorious suns, each one a perfect sun;
Not separated with the racking clouds,
But *sever'd* in a pale clear shining sky. *Shakspeare*.

I will *sever* Goshen, that no swarms of flies shall be there. *Exod*.

To SEVER, *v. n.* To make a separation; to make a partition.—Better from me thou *sever* not. *Milton*.—To suffer disjunction.

Fortune, divorce
Pomp from the bearer, 'tis a sufferance panging,
As soul and body's *severing*. *Shakspeare*.

SEVER, *Str.*, a considerable town in the south-west of France, the chief place of an arrondissement in the thinly peopled

peopled department of the Landes. It is not a sea-port, but stands on the Adour, has 9000 inhabitants, and carries on a considerable trade in the chief products of this part of France, viz., wine and brandy; 24 miles east of Dax, and 73 south-by-east of Bourdeaux.

SEVER, *Str.*, a small town of France, in Normandy, department of Calvados, near the forest of St. Sever. Population 1500; 6 miles west of Vire, and 31 south-west of Caen.

SEVERAC LE CHATEL, a small town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron. Population 1500; 21 miles east of Rhodéz.

SEVERAL, *adj.* [*several*, old French, divers, plusieurs, qui est séparé; Roq. from *severer*, separer.] Different; distinct from one another.—The conquest of Ireland was made piece and piece, by *several* attempts, in *several* ages. *Davies*.

Four *several* armies to the field are led,
Which high in equal hopes four princes head. *Dryden*.

Divers; many. It is used in any number not large, and more than two.—This country is large, having in it many people, and *several* kingdoms. *Abbot*.—Particular; single.

Each *several* ship a victory did gain,
As Rupert, or as Albemarle were there. *Dryden*.

Distinct; appropriate.

Each might his *several* province well command,
Would all but stoop to what they understand. *Pope*.

Separate; disjointed.

Be *several* at meat and lodging; let him have
Board-wages. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SEVERAL, *s.* A state of separation, or partition.

More profit is quieter found,
Where pastures in *several* be,
Of one silly aker of ground
Than champion maketh of three. *Tusser*.

Each particular singly taken.
There was not time enough to hear
The *severals*. *Shakspeare*.

That will appear to be a methodical successive observation of these *severals*, as degrees and steps preparative the one to the other. *Hammond*.—Any enclosed or separate place. *Unused*.—They had their *several* for heathen nations, their *several* for the people of their own nation, their *several* for men, their *several* for women, their *several* for their priests, and for the high priest alone their *several*. *Hooker*.—A piece of open land, adjoining to a common field; and a kind of joint property of the landholders of a parish.—Not to take and pale in the commons, to enlarge their *severalles*. *Holinshed*.—There is no beast, if you take him from the common, and put him into the *several*, but will wax fat. *Bacon*.

SEVERAL TAIL, or INHERITANCE, in Law. See INHERITANCE.

SEVERAL TENANCY, *Tenura separalis*, a plea, or exception taken to a writ that is laid against two persons as joint tenants, who are *several*.

SEVERALITY, *s.* Each particular singly taken; distinction.—The *severalities* of the degrees prohibited. *Bp. Hall*.

To SEVERALIZE, *v. a.* To distinguish. *Unused*.

SEVERALLY, *adv.* Distinctly; particularly; separately; apart from others.—We ought not so much to love likeness as beauty, and to cluse from the fairest bodies *severally* the fairest parts. *Dryden*.

SEVERALTY, Estates in. He that holds lands or tenements in *severalty*, or is sole tenant of them, is he who holds them in his own right only, without any other person being connected with him in point of interest, during his estate therein.

SEVERALTY, *s.* State of separation from the rest.—

The jointure or advancement of the lady was the third part of the principality of Wales, the dukedom of Cornwall, and earldom of Chester, to be set forth in *severalty*. *Bacon*.

SEVERANCE, *s.* Separation; partition.—Those rivers enclose a neck of land, in regard of his fruitfulness, not unworthy of a *severance*. *Carcw's Cornwall*.

SEVERANCE, in Law, the singling or severing two or more that join, or are joined, in the same writ or action.

As if two join in a writ, *de libertate probanda*, and the one be afterwards nonsuited; here *severance* is permitted, so as, notwithstanding the nonsuit of the one, the other may *severally* proceed.

SEVERE, *adj.* [*severus*, Lat.] Sharp; apt to punish; censorious; apt to blame; hard; rigorous.—Let your zeal, if it must be expressed in anger, be always more *severe* against thyself than against others. *Bp. Taylor*.—Rigid; austere; morose; harsh; not indulgent.

Am I upbraided? not enough *severe*
It seems, in thy restraint. *Milton*.

Cruel; inexorable.—His *severe* wrath shall he sharpen for a sword. *Wisdom*.—Regulated by rigid rules; strict.

Truth, wisdom, sanctitude, *severe* and pure,
Severe, but in true filial freedom plac'd. *Milton*.

Exempt from all levity of appearance; grave; sober; sedate.

His grave rebuke,
Severe in youthful beauty, added grace. *Milton*.

Taught by thy practice steadily to steer
From grave to gay, from lively to *severe*. *Pope*.

Not lax; not airy; close; strictly methodical; rigidly exact.—Their beauty, I leave it rather to the delicate wit of poets, than venture upon so nice a subject with my *severe* style. *More*.—Painful; afflictive.—These piercing fires as soft as now *severe*. *Milton*.—Close; concise; not luxuriant.—The Latin, a most *severe* and compendious language, often expresses that in one word, which modern tongues cannot in more. *Dryden*.

SEVERELY, *adv.* Painfully; afflictively.—We have wasted our strength to attain ends different from those for which we undertook the war, and often to effect others, which after a peace we may *severely* repent. *Swift*.—Ferociously; horridly.

More formidable Hydra stands within;
Whose jaws with iron teeth *severely* grin. *Dryden*.

Strictly; rigorously.—To be or fondly or *severely* kind. *Savage*.

SEVERIANS, or SEVERIANI, in Ecclesiastical History. There were two sects of heretics thus called: the first, who are as old as the beginning of the third century, were an impure branch of the Gnostics; thus called from their chief, Severus.

The second, by some called Severites, were a sect of Monophysites, or Eutychians. Severus was preferred to the see of Antioch in 513, where he did his utmost to set aside the council of Chalcedon.

SEUERIK, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 50 miles west of Diarbekir.

SEVERIN, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Croatia, to the west of Carlstadt, on the river Kulpa.

SEVERINA, *Str.*, a considerable town in the south part of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, situated on a rocky eminence near the Neto. It is tolerably built, is the see of an archbishop, and contains 6000 inhabitants; 18 miles south of Cosenza, and 93 north-east of Reggio.

SEVERINO, *Str.*, a town of the Popedom, in the marquisate of Ancona, on the small river Potenza. Though small, it is the see of a bishop; 30 miles south-south-west of Ancona, and 83 north-north-east of Rome.

SEVERINO, *Str.*, a small town in the south-west part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, with 2100 inhabitants; 5 miles north of Salerno.

SEVERINUS (Marcus Aurelius), a distinguished physician,

cian, was born at Tarsia, in Calabria, in the year 1580. His early inclination led him to the study of the law; but he subsequently abandoned that pursuit for the profession of medicine, and received the degree of doctor in the university of Naples. He became ultimately one of the most celebrated professors of that school, and taught anatomy and surgery with such reputation, as to attract a crowd of students to the university. His method of treating surgical subjects in his writings was highly commended by Bartholin. He was, however, a harsh practitioner, and censured the inertness of his contemporaries, for neglecting the cautery and the knife, as employed by the ancients, and himself carried the use of the actual cautery to a great extent. He died at Naples, on the 15th of July, 1656, at the age of seventy-six. He was a man of bold and original mind, but somewhat attached to paradox; and was the author of several publications, of which we have the following catalogue. "Historia Anatomica, Observatioque medica viscerati hominis;" 1629. "De recondita abscessuum naturâ Libri octo;" 1630; which passed through many editions. "Viperâ Pythiâ, id est, de Viperâ natura, veneno, et medicina;" 1643. "Zootomica Democritea, id est, Anatome generalis totius animantium, Lib. v." 1645; containing the result of his dissection of a great many animals. "De efficaci Medicina, Libri iii." 1646. In this work he extols the advantages of fire and steel in the cure of diseases. "De Lapide fungifero, de Lapide fungimappa, Epistolæ duæ;" 1649. "Therapeuta Neopolitana, sive curandarum Februm et Morborum internum Methodus;" 1653. "Tri-membris Chirurgia;" 1653. "Seilo-Phlebotome castigata, sive de Venâ Salvatellæ usu et abusu censura;" 1654. "De Aqua Pericardii, cordis adipe, poris choledocis;" 1654. At the time of his death, Severinus was preparing for publication some papers, which he meant to illustrate by engravings; they were published together, and entitled, "Antiperipatias, hoc est, adversus Aristoteleos de respiratione piscium Diatriba." "Commentarius, in Theophrastum de piscibus in sicco viventibus." "Phoca anatomicè spectatus;" 1661. A sort of extract or abridgment of his writings on surgery was also published in 1664, with the title of "Synopsis Chirurgicæ Libri vi." See Eloy. Dict. Hist.

SEVERITY, *s.* [*severité*, old Fr. *severitas*, Lat.] Cruel treatment; sharpness of punishment.—Never were so great rebellions expiated with so little blood, as for the *severity* used upon those taken in Kent, it was but upon a scum of people. *Bacon*.—Hardness; power of distressing.—Though nature hath given insects sagacity to avoid the winter cold, yet its *severity* finds them out. *Hale*.—Strictness; rigid accuracy.—Confining myself to the *severity* of truth I must pass over many instances of your military skill. *Dryden*.—Rigour; austerity; harshness; want of mildness; want of indulgence.

Strict age, and sour *severity*,

With their grave saws, in slumber lie.

Milton.

SEVERN, a large and important river of England, second only to the Thames, and also the principal river of Wales. It rises in Plinlimmon hill, on the borders of Montgomery and Cardigan shires, not far from the coast of Cardigan bay, and after a very circuitous course, passing through the counties of Montgomery, Shropshire, Worcester and Gloucester, loses itself in the Bristol channel. Descending from the mountains, it bears the name of the Haffen river, till it arrives at Llanidloes, and flowing towards Newtown, between hills pleasantly fringed with wood, it assumes its proper name of the Severn. From thence its course is almost due north, through the delightful vale of Montgomeryshire. Beyond Welchpool it enters the great plain of Shropshire, and after making a considerable compass, turns abruptly to the south-east. It then almost encircles the town of Shrewsbury, and continuing the same direction, passes Colebrookdale, soon after which it flows southward to Bridgenorth, Bewdley, Worcester and Gloucester, dividing near the latter city into two channels, which re-uniting soon afterwards, constitute a great tide river. Below Gloucester its course is chiefly to the

south-west. The character of this river does not much assimilate with its mountainous origin; it soon loses its native rapidity, forming large vales, and generally burying itself within deep banks. At Llanidloes it ceases to be a torrent, and forms a delightful valley, more like the extensive vales of England, than those stripes of cultivation which prevail within the mountains of Wales. Below Colebrookdale the scenery along the banks becomes very picturesque, but it soon relapses into its former sameness of appearance, till it reaches Bewdley. At Stourport it is joined by those numerous canals which bear all the commerce of Birmingham, Kidderminster, and the various trading towns of Warwick, Stafford, and Worcester shires; this being their principal port, and the outlet for their various productions. Crowded with barges, the river now rolls through a pleasant country, and is a broad and tranquil stream towards Worcester. After this it almost disappears between its banks, in the midst of the vast plain of Gloucestershire, until it again emerges, and gradually widens into the great estuary of the Bristol channel. From its source in Pimlimmon-hill to the sea, the Severn runs about 200 miles. It is navigable to Pool Quay, in Montgomeryshire, and by means of its numerous canals this navigation is extended into the very heart of the kingdom, being united with the Thames on the east, and with the Trent, the Humber and the Mersey towards the north; thus forming the grand outlet and channel for the commerce of the kingdom on the south-west. The navigation of the river itself, however, is in many parts very imperfect, being interrupted by shallows, and the great irregularities of the water; the inconveniences of which various plans have been proposed to remove. The vessels chiefly used in this navigation are barges, trows, wherries and boats. For further particulars regarding the Severn, see the different counties and towns through which it passes.

SEVERN, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into the Chesapeak, a little below Annapolis.

SEVERN, a river of North America, which runs into Hudson's Bay, with a settlement at the mouth, called Severn House. Lat. 56. N. long. 88. W.

SEVERN, a river of North America, which runs from Lake Simcoe to Lake Huron.

SEVERN, a river of the United States, in Virginia, which runs into the Chesapeak Bay. Lat. 37. 23. N. long. 76. 27. W.

SEVERN, VALE OF, an extensive and fertile vale in England, in the county of Gloucester, extending along the banks of the river Severn. It is the rich pasture of this vale which furnishes to the kingdom those quantities of cheese, for which this country is so famous. The air is so mild, even in winter, that the vale seems to enjoy a different climate from the adjoining Cotswold hills. See GLOUCESTER.

SEVERNDRUOG, a small rocky island of Hindostan, on the coast of the Concan. It is joined to the continent by a reef of rocks, which forms a safe bay for vessels on the south side. This place was taken by the Mahrattas from the king of Bejapore, in the 17th century, but during the reign of Sahoo Rajah, about the year 1730, Conajee Angria, his admiral, revolted, and established this place as the headquarters of a gang of pirates. It was taken by the British in 1756, by a small force under commodore James, and was then restored to the Mahrattas, but has probably been again taken during the late war. Lat. 17. 47. N. long. 73. 13. E.

SEVERNSTOKE, or STOKE-UPON-SEVERN, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 3 miles from Upton, and 112 from London. Population 600.

SEVERO, ST., a small town in the east part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Capitanata. It is the see of a bishop; 26 miles west-south-west of Manfredonia, and 77 north-east of Naples.

SEVERUS (Lucius-Septimius), a Roman emperor. See ROME.

SEVESE, a small town of Austrian Italy, on the river Luro; 8 miles north-north-west of Milan.

SEVIER, a county of the United States, in the east part of East Tennessee. Population 4495, including 294 slaves.

SEVIER-

SEVIERVILLE, a post town and capital of the United States, in Sevier county, Tennessee, on a branch of the French Broad; about 30 miles south-east of Knoxville.

SEVIGNAC, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Cotes-du-Nord. Population 2100.

SEVIGNE (Marie Rabutin), Marquise de, a distinguished lady, was born in 1626. Her father, baron of Chantal and Bourbilly, died while she was very young, leaving her heiress of the house of Bussy Rabutin. Her rank, and the graces of her person and conversation, procured her many admirers, and in 1644 she married the Marquis de Sevigné who in 1651 was killed in a duel. She from this time devoted herself to her children, and to the cultivation of her own mind. She had an extraordinary affection for her daughter, who, in 1669, married the Count de Grignan, and accompanied him to his government of Provence, and this separation gave rise to the greater part of the letters which have gained her so high a reputation, though she had many other correspondents. Many of M. de Sevigné's letters are of a domestic nature, but others are enlivened with court anecdotes, remarks on men and books, and topics of the period in which they were written, which render them very amusing; and in point of style, they are models of epistolary writing, which, perhaps, have never been surpassed. In her letters to her daughter, the reader sometimes is hurt with the excess of flattery on her talents and beauty, which latter quality appears to have been a principal source of her maternal tenderness, and the preservation of it the great object of her anxiety. This lady died in 1696, at the age of 70. Though endowed with much penetration, and, to a certain degree, with a cultivated understanding, she did not rise much above the level of her age and sex in taste and principles. She was attached to rank and splendour, loved admiration, and was apt to be taken with frivolous accomplishments in preference to solid worth. She had a deep sense of religion, but wished to conciliate it with the polite world, the manners and maxims of which, according to the rigid system of the Catholics, were entirely at variance with it. She has been censured for want of taste in her insensibility to the poetical merit of Racine, but this has been imputed to her prepossessions in favour of Corneille.

SEVIGNE, a small river in the south-west of France, which falls into the Charente.

SEVIGNE, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes. Population 800.

SEVILLA, a river of Cuba, which rises near the south coast, runs south, and enters the sea, forming a good port at its mouth.

SEVILLE, a province in the south-west of Spain, forming the western half of Andalusia, and still retaining the title of kingdom, from its having been a distinct and independent state in the time of the Moors. Its form, though irregular, is on the whole compact, containing an area of 9500 square miles, with a population, in 1800, of 750,000; a number which, considering the repeated attacks of a pestilential disease in the sea-ports, and the general indolence of the people, must have since experienced a very slow increase. The ecclesiastical division of this province is into two dioceses, the civil into ten districts. The chief towns are—

	Population.
Seville, the capital	100,000
Cadiz	70,000
Ecija	28,000
Xeres	20,000
Ossuna	15,000
St. Mary's, near Cadiz	12,000

Face of the Country, and Climate.—This province, particularly in the south, abounds with fine scenery, the surface being diversified, not only with lofty mountains, but with vines and the finest fruit trees. The principal mountain chains are the Sierra Morena, the Sierra de Ronda, the Sierra de Constantina; but none are of great elevation, and they consist in various places of hills, either bare or covered with cork-

trees. They are intersected in some parts by ravines, in others by fertile valleys. The chief rivers of this province are the Guadalquivir, the Guadiana, the Xenil, the Tinto and the Odiel. The climate is warm, and even hot; but the extremes are tempered by cool breezes from the sea or from the mountains, so that the heat is less intense than in the adjacent province of Granada. The *solano*, or hot African wind, though not so prevalent as in other provinces, is at times so scorching as to blight the crop on the ground in a few hours, and to produce injurious effects on the human constitution. Thunder storms are not frequent, and the chief hazards to the labours of the husbandmen arise from drought. The winter may be compared to a mild spring in the south of England, or the north of France.

Products.—Mines of gold and silver are said to have been formerly wrought in this province, but at present there is nothing of the kind; the basis of most of the mountains is limestone or marble. The soil differs greatly according to situation, being in some places hard and stony, in others a fine black mould. Agriculture is extremely backward; the spade and hoe being often used in situations where their place ought to be supplied by the plough and harrow. The pasturages are good in those situations where the frequency of rain, the height of the ground, or the use of irrigation, protect the soil from the intense heats. The climate is very favourable to vines; the environs of Xeres produce the well-known sherry wine; those of Rota, tent wine (*vino tinto*); those of St. Lucar, the wine called in Spain *mancinillo*. Large tracks in the southern districts are covered with the fruit trees of a warm climate, oranges, lemons, citrons, limes; but other tracks of equal extent are almost desolate; thus, on going from Algesiras to Chiclana, a distance of 40 miles, the traveller sees only a few villages and scattered cottages. This is in a great measure the consequence of the old provincial laws and usages, than which nothing could be more adverse to improvement. Thus, though the climate is well adapted to olives, the culture of them has as yet been comparatively insignificant, the privilege of extracting oil from that fruit having long been confined to certain individuals. The price of oxen in country parts is moderate, but the town dues on butcher's meat at Seville make it cost as much in that market as in London. The chief export of the province is the bay salt, prepared and shipped from Cadiz, and the neighbourhood.

Manufactures.—The silk manufacture is said to have been formerly flourishing in this part of Spain, but its extent was probably never greater than at present. The silk looms are chiefly in the capital. There are also in this province manufactures on a small scale of coarse woollen, linen, leather, soap, pottery and hats, all for home consumption. The export trade of the province is carried on at Cadiz, and consists chiefly in the export of wine to England, and of miscellaneous articles to Spanish America. The chief sea-port in the south of the province is Algesiras.

Inhabitants.—The national characteristics of the Andalusians (see that article), belong also to the inhabitants of the province of Seville. Less serious in their demeanour than the Castilians, and enjoying in a very scanty degree the advantage of education, the extent of their country has been such as to furnish one or two eminent men in almost every age. Among these were, in the time of the Romans, Balbus, the historian of Augustus, and Columella, the well-known writer on agriculture; in the Gothic ages, St. Isidore, bishop of Seville, in the 7th century; and, at a less remote date, Cervantes, Murillo, and the benevolent Las Casas. The general characteristic of the inhabitants is a kind of apathy, which was not roused to exertion even by the invasion of Buonaparte. Institutions for education are not wanting; but what benefit can be expected from them, in a country where the philosophy of Bacon and Newton is hardly yet introduced, or in nautical schools where the teachers are unacquainted with the method of finding the latitude by two observations of the sun's altitude. To the bad government and other drawbacks common to Spain in general, this province has to add causes of peculiar suffering; the disturbances since 1810, in the colo-

nies with which its trade is carried on; and the repeated occurrence of pestilential disease in Cadiz and the neighbouring ports.

SEVILLE, a large city in the south-west of Spain, in Andalusia, the capital of the preceding province. It stands in a fine plain on the left bank of the Guadalquivir (which is here a great river). It is surrounded by an old wall of considerable height, which is entered by 12 gates, and contains 166 turrets. The environs affording no stone, the wall was built of cement, which has long since acquired great hardness and solidity, without, however, being defensible against a modern army, its circuit being between 5 and 6 miles. The population of the town, not correctly ascertained, is commonly stated at 100,000. The interior is built in a great measure in the Moorish style, the streets being often so narrow that a person can touch the houses on either side by extending his arms. This closeness of building was adopted for the sake of coolness, and to prevent the rays of the sun from penetrating. The streets are in general badly paved; the squares are neither numerous nor spacious; most of them have a fountain in the centre; but as the water is seldom cool, the inhabitants are in a great measure supplied from stalls in different parts of the town, for the sale of filtered water. There are here several beautiful public walks, one in particular on the bank of the Guadalquivir, which is frequented by the higher classes. The suburbs are tolerably built; one situated on the west side of the river, called Triana, communicates with the city by a bridge of boats.

Edifices.—The houses of Seville generally cover a large space, there being in the middle of each a court with a fountain. On the side towards the streets they have often a mean appearance, the Moors being accustomed to confine their embellishments to the interior. There are here, however, a number of public edifices, no less than 30 churches, 84 convents, and 24 hospitals, great and small. The cathedral is a large and magnificent Gothic pile, built in the 15th century, and containing so many as 82 altars. Its tower, 250 feet in height, is reckoned the finest in Spain. Of the other churches and convents, several are elegant, but their chief attraction consists in their paintings. A convent called De Buenavista, situated on the opposite side of the Guadalquivir, is remarkable for its prospect, which, in this clear atmosphere, takes in an extent that is surprising to persons accustomed to a cloudy sky; the spectator being enabled to distinguish the mountains of Ronda at a distance of 70 miles to the east, and the Sierra Morena at nearly the same distance to the north-west.

Of the edifices not ecclesiastical, the most conspicuous are the Alcazar or palace, the Longa or exchange, the artillery school, and the mint. The Alcazar, a Moorish building, was extended by several Christian princes in the same style. Though the outside is mean, the inside is very different, containing several courts, with fountains, galleries and baths; the garden, said to have remained unchanged since the time of the Moors, has also its fountains, ever-greens and walks paved with marble. In one of the saloons is a collection of Roman antiquities, brought from the ancient town of Italica in the vicinity. The Lonja, a modern edifice, is of the Tuscan order, and finely situated in the centre of a square. It was built by the merchants for an exchange, but now serves chiefly as a deposit for the old official correspondence with America, distributed formerly in several public buildings. Here are collections of letters from Cortez, Pizarro, and other invaders of the new world.

Seville being one of the most ancient cities of Spain, contains several objects of interest to the antiquary. Water is brought from a distance of 8 miles by a Roman aqueduct of very old date. A large house, formerly the residence of a Moorish chief, is in complete preservation; the principal rooms are in the form of a double cube, being 60 feet in height, and about 30 in breadth and width. The walls are covered with a sort of net-work of exquisite workmanship, on a plaster which does not exhibit a single flaw, though above five centuries old.

Seminaries.—Seville had an academy and public library in the time of the Moors, and at present it has an academy for the physical sciences, another for the fine arts, and a medical society. To these is to be added a university founded in 1502, but almost as backward in science as at the time of its constitution, the teachers having little idea of the discoveries and improvements familiar to professors in British, French and German universities. The number of under graduates is about 200. A humbler institution called St. Elmo, is appropriated to the education of young men for the sea service, and was founded by the son of Christopher Columbus; but the teachers here are equally backward. There is a public library in the cathedral, and another in the archbishop's palace. Seville being the residence of provincial nobility and gentry, has a genteel society; and the Spanish manners are exhibited here more conspicuously than at a town of foreign intercourse like Cadiz.

Manufactures and Trade.—The silk manufactures of Seville are said to have been formerly considerable, but to have declined in the middle and end of the 17th century. In the 18th they recovered, and the number of looms at present at work varies from 2000 to 3000; the silk is brought chiefly from the provinces of Granada and Valencia. Woollens of the coarser kind are also made here, but from the awkwardness of the machinery, are dearer than English cloth. There is here a considerable manufactory of leather for private account, and a very conspicuous one of tobacco and snuff for account of government. The latter is carried on in one of the largest buildings in the city, a structure in the style of the age of Charles V., 200 yards in length, and 105 in breadth; the interior consists of no less than 28 courts, around which are arranged the different rooms for the processes. The mills, to the number, it is said, of 100, are all driven by horses and mules; and a similar want of mechanical power exists in a cannon foundry, carried on also for government account.

Seville was, after the discovery of America, invested with the monopoly of the trade between that country and Spain, but the difficulty of navigating the Guadalquivir with large vessels, led to its transfer to Cadiz. Vessels drawing more than 10 feet water are obliged to load and unload 8 miles below Seville; and the largest vessels stop at St. Lucar, at the mouth of the river. The navigation is limited partly from this cause, more from a want of industry in the inhabitants, who in general confine their exertions to the supply of their immediate wants. Among the exports are wool, the skins of goats and kids, fruit, and, in a small quantity, oil and silk. The imports are various manufactures from England, Nuremberg wares from Germany, iron from Bilbao, and colonial produce from America. It is not probable that the former trade of Seville, whatever may be the allegations of Spanish writers, was greater than at present. The adjacent country is of great fertility, and the markets plentifully supplied; but the lowness of the ground exposes it to inundations, and to vapours which engender agues and malignant fevers. The heat of summer and autumn is sometimes very oppressive, particularly on the occurrence of the solano, a scorching wind that blows from the sandy deserts of Africa.

History.—Seville stands on the site of the *Hispolis* of the Romans, the birth-place of the emperors Trajan, Adrian, and Theodosius. The date of its foundation is unknown; it opened its gates to the Moors in 711, soon after their invasion of Spain, and continued in their possession above five centuries, being the seat first of a regal, afterwards of an aristocratical government. It was taken from them by the Christians in 1247, after one of the most obstinate sieges mentioned in Spanish history. Since then it has seldom been the scene of military exploits. In 1729 a treaty was concluded here between Spain, England, France, and Holland. In 1755 the city felt the shock of the dreadful earthquake of Lisbon, its cathedral having sustained considerable injury. In the autumn of 1809, it was visited by the pestilential fever which caused such mortality at Cadiz; it was computed that between 12th August and 1st November of that

that year, Seville lost nearly a fourth of its inhabitants, but half the sufferers were Gitanos or gypsies, inhabiting the suburb of Triana. On the invasion of Spain by Buonaparte in 1808, Seville asserted the national independence, and received the junta, when driven from Madrid. It surrendered, however, to the French, on 1st February, 1810, and remained in their hands till 27th August, 1812, when they were compelled to leave it, in consequence, not of insurrection on the part of the inhabitants, but of the general evacuation of the south of Spain consequent on their defeat at Salamanca; 254 miles south-by-west of Madrid, and 45 north of Cadiz. Lat. 37. 24. 26. N. long. 5. 38. 37. W.

SEVILLE PLANTATION, a place on the north coast of Jamaica, a little to the west of Mammee bay. Here are the ruins of an ancient town called Sevilla Nueva, founded by Esquivel, on the spot where Columbus resided after his shipwreck in 1503.

SEVIN (Francis), a man of letters, born in the diocese of Sens, was educated at Paris, where he pursued, with great ardour, the study of the learned languages, in company with the abbé Fourmont, the elder. He became an associate of the Academy of Belles-Lettres in Paris, in 1714. He was sent in 1728, by the king's command, with the abbé Fourmont, the younger, to Constantinople, in search of MSS., of which he brought back a great number, and was, in 1737, presented with the place of keeper of MSS. in the king's library. His letters, descriptive of this journey, were published in 1801, in 1 vol. 8vo. These contain several interesting details concerning Turkey, Egypt, &c. Sevin died in 1741. Several of his papers are published in the "Mémoires de l'Acad. des Inscriptions."

SEVINGTON, a parish of England, in Kent, situated near the river Stour; 2 miles from Ashford.

SEVION, or SENTON, a small river of Wales, in Flintshire, which runs into the Cluyd near Ragland.

SEVIR, among the Romans, an officer who, according to Ptitiscus, commanded a whole wing of horse; though others make him only the commander of a troop, *turmis*, a division answering to our regiments.

SEVIRI were also magistrates in the colonies, so called, from their being six in number.

SEVOCA'TION, *s.* [*sevoco*, Lat.] The act of calling aside.

SEVRE NANTAISE, a small river in the north west of France, in the department of the Two Sevres, which falls into the Loire near Nantes. It is not navigable.

SEVRE NOIRTAISE, a river in the north-west of France, in the department of the Two Sevres, which falls into the sea; 7 miles west of Marance.

SEVRES, a small town in the north of France; 4 miles west-by-south of Paris. Population 2700. Its glass-works are in high repute, but are surpassed by its potteries, which are supposed to produce the finest porcelain in the world. It is remarkable both for the fineness of the materials, and for the beauty of the painting; 4 miles west-by-south of Paris.

SEVRES, DEPARTMENT OF THE TWO, a department in the north-west of France, comprising about a third of the old province of Poitou, and bounded by the departments of the Maine and Loire, the Charente, and the Vendee. Its superficial extent is 2450 square miles; its population 260,000, of whom above 32,000 are Protestants. The department is watered by the Two Sevres, the Dive, the Loire, the Thoue, and a number of inferior streams. Its surface is uneven, being intersected from north-east to south-west by a chain of lofty mountains covered with wood; in the south-west it is marshy, but in the rest of the department the soil is fertile, and the climate favourable. The products are wheat, barley, rye, oats, buck wheat and maize; hops grow wild, particularly in the neighbourhood of Niort. Tobacco is partially cultivated; chesnuts abound in different situations; and almonds in the warmer exposures. The tracks of pasture are considerable, the climate being more humid than in the interior of France; hence a larger proportion of horses, cattle and sheep. The mines in the high

grounds afford iron, antimony, saltpetre; here are also quarries of marble. The manufactures are on a small scale consisting of pottery, saltpetre, leather, woollens, cotton and paper. This department suffered severely in the Vendean war. It is divided into the four arrondissements of Niort the capital, Bressuire, Parthenay and Melle.

SEURRE, a small town in the east of France, department of the Cote d'Or, on the Saone. Population 2700. It has some trade in corn, wine and fruit; 25 miles south of Dijon.

SEVSK, a small town in the east of European Russia, situated near the river Seva and the lake of Moriza, with 2200 inhabitants; 63 miles south-south-west of Oriol.

SEVYNVEY, a river of Wales, in Pembrokehire, which runs into the Clethy, near Llanhadon.

To SEW, *v. a.* [*suivre*, Fr.] To follow; to pursue. *Sew* is the Cornish word for *follow*.—If me thou deign to serve and *sew*. *Spenser*.—It was a knight which now her *sewde*. *Spenser*.

To SEW, *v. n.* [*suo*, Lat.; *syc*, Su. Goth. and Danish; *siujan*, M. Goth.] To join any thing by the use of the needle.—A time to rent and a time to *sew*. *Eccl*.

To SEW, *v. a.* To join by threads drawn with a needle.—No man *seweth* a piece of new cloth on an old garment. *St. Mark*.

To SEW *up*. To enclose in any thing sewed.—If ever I said loose-bodied gown, *sew me up* in the skirts of it. *Shakspeare*.

To SEW, *v. a.* To drain a pond for the fish. *Ainsworth*. *Obsolete*.

SEW, in Sea Language, the situation of a ship when the water first leaves her resting on the ground, or blocks in a dock. Thus, if a ship runs a-ground on the tide of ebb, or by the reflux of the tide she rests on her blocks; and if it be required to know she has sewed, or how much she has sewed, the mark the water-line has made on her bottom when afloat is examined, and as much as is the difference above the surface of the water and this mark, so much she is said to have sewed.

SEWAD, an extensive district of Afghanistan, situated about the 34th degree of northern latitude, and in part bounded by the river Indus. This district formerly comprehended Bembher and Bijore. It consists of mountains covered with snow, and fertile valleys producing all the finest fruits of Europe, particularly grapes. Sewad proper is about 70 miles in length, by 40 in breadth, and contains 25 valleys, each watered by a separate stream. It is principally inhabited by the tribe of Yusufzies, who are a brave and independent people, fully capable of defending the strong territory, and paying little more than a nominal subjection to their sovereign; but ready to contribute their quota of troops for any plundering expedition, or in the general defence of the country.

SEWALIC, a range of mountains in Hindostan, which divide the province of Delhi from Serinagur. The elevation is trifling when compared to their northern neighbours the Himalaya mountains. It is, however, through the former that the majestic Ganges enters on the plains of Hindostan, at a place called Hurdwar. These hills rise with a moderate though unequal slope from the plains, and are skirted by deep forests abounding with valuable timber, only, inhabited by elephants, but which seldom exceed seven feet in height, and are not considered valuable, and therefore only pursued for the sake of their teeth, or to prevent their destroying the cultivation on the skirts of the mountains.

SEWAN, called also ALIGUNGE, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, district of Sarun. It is pleasantly situated on the eastern side of the Dar, which in the rainy season communicates both with the Ganges and Gundock rivers. It is celebrated for the manufacture of black crockery-ware, made in imitation of that of Staffordshire. Lat. 26. 11. N. long. 84. 25. E.

SEWARD (Thomas), an English divine of the Church of England, was born in 1708. He became rector of Eyam,

in Derbyshire, and prebendary of Litchfield, where he died in 1790. He was a man of taste and learning, and of considerable talents for poetry and polite literature. He published an edition of Beaumont and Fletcher's works, and was author of a treatise on the "Conformity between Popery and Paganism." Some of his poems are in Dodsley's collection.

SEWARD (Anna), daughter of the preceding, a poetess of distinguished elegance, was born about the year 1745. Her infant mind was nourished by her father with the vivid and sublime imagery of Milton, and her early education amidst the wild and alpine scenery of the Peak, enhanced the enthusiasm of feeling to which she was naturally disposed. In her seventh year, her father being appointed canon residentiary of Litchfield, she removed with the family to that city, which thenceforth became her residence during the whole of her life. The fruit of her father's instructions appeared in some early efforts at poetical composition, which, however, met with discouragement from her mother; and Mr. Seward was afterwards induced to withdraw the countenance he had given to her literary pursuits; so that several years of her youth elapsed with only stolen and interrupted attempts to cultivate an art of which she had so strongly imbibed the rudiments. As she advanced in life, she of course followed more freely the bent of her genius, and in 1780 she published an "Elegy on Captain Cook," a performance of great merit, as well from the harmony of its versification, as the beautiful and appropriate imagery with which it abounds, and the force and delicacy of its sentiments. The contrast between the different mourners on this event, queen Obera, and the wife of the great navigator, is peculiarly striking. In the following year she gave the world a "Monody on Major Andre." With this lamented young officer she was intimately acquainted: she accordingly wrote with peculiar pathos on the occasion, and expressed a glowing and just indignation against the actors in that tragedy: the laws of what are called civilized war do not and ought not to suppress the feelings of humanity. Miss Seward made herself known as a writer on many other topics: in 1790 she published "Llangollen Vale," with other poems; and, in 1804, she gave the public "Memoirs of the Life of Dr. Darwin." This is a desultory performance, but it contains much entertaining matter, enriched with some judicious criticism on Dr. Darwin's poetical character. Miss Seward died in March, 1809. A collection of her letters has been published since her decease, in 6 vols. 12mo. *Athenæum*.

SEWARD (William), was the son of a brewer in London, and born in 1797. He received his education at the Charter House, which he completed at Oxford; this place he left without taking a degree. Having a good fortune, he devoted his life to literary ease, and antiquarian researches. He is known as an author by five volumes of "Anecdotes of distinguished Persons," extracted from curious books, to which he added a supplement, in two volumes, under the title of "Biographiana."

SEWARDSTONE, a hamlet of England, in Essex; 2 miles south of Waltham Abbey. Population 580.

SEWDLEY, a village of England, in Gloucestershire, situated on a brook that runs into the Avon near Winchcomb.

SEWEE BAY, or BULL'S HARBOUR, a bay of the Atlantic, on the coast of South Carolina. Lat. 32. 58. N.

SEWEL, denotes any thing that is set or hung up, to keep deer out of any place.

SEWEL-CORONDE, a name given by the natives of Ceylon to a species of cinnamon, which, when chewed, is of a mucilaginous nature, like the cassia: this dries well, and is very firm and hard, and has the appearance of a very fine cinnamon; but it has very little taste, and a disagreeable smell. The natives take advantage of the handsome appearance of this kind of cinnamon, and are very apt to mix it with the good kind.

SE'WER, *s.* [*escuyer*, old Fr.] An officer who serves

up a feast.—Sir Fulke Grevil, being cup-bearer, gave it on his knee; Mr. Mildmay was carver; Captain Preston sometimes *sewer*. *Sir T. Herbert*.

Marshall'd feast,
Serv'd up in hall with *sewers* and seneshals;
The skill of artifice or office mean.

Milton.

A passage for water to run through, now corrupted to *shore*.—The fenmen hold that the *sewers* must be kept so, as the water may not stay too long in the spring till the weeds and sedge be grown up. *Bacon*.

As one who long in populous city pent,
Where houses thick, and *sewers* annoy the air,
Forth issuing on a summer's morn, to breathe
Among the pleasant villages and farms
Adjoin'd, from each thing met conceives delight. *Milton*.

He that uses a needle.

SEWERBY, a township of England, in the East Riding of Yorkshire, remarkable for the number of goats bred near it. It is situated between Bridlington and Flamborough Head, on the shore; 209 miles from London.

SEWICKLY, a river of the United States, in Pennsylvania, which runs west into the Youghiogauy; 9 miles above the Monongahela.

SEWICKLY, NEW, a township of the United States, in Beaver county, Pennsylvania. Population 788.

SEWICKLY, NORTH, a township of the United States, in Beaver county, Pennsylvania. Population 1321.

SEWIS, or SÆWIS, a large village in the east of Switzerland, canton of the Grisons; 6 miles east-by-south of Meyenfeld.

SEWL, provincially a plough. It is sometimes written *sule*.

SE'WSTER, *s.* A woman that sews or spins. *Obsoleto*.

At every twisted thrid my rock let fly
Unto the *sewster*, that did sit me nigh. *B. Jonson*.

SEWESTERN, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 10 miles east-north-east of Melton Mombay.

SEX, *s.* [*sexus*, Lat.] The property by which any animal is male or female.—These two great *sexes* animate the world. *Milton*.—Shame is hard to be overcome; but if the *sex* once get the better of it, it gives them afterwards no more trouble. *Garth*.

SEXA'GENARY, *adj.* [*sexagenaire*, Fr.; *sexagenarius*, Lat.] Threescore.—*Sexagenary* fair-ones, and upwards, whether they were handsome or not in the last century, ought at least in this to reduce themselves to a decency and gravity of dress suited to their years. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

SEXAGE'SIMA, *s.* [Latin.] The second Sunday before Lent.

SEXAGE'SIMAL, *adj.* [from *sexagesimus*, Lat.] Sixtieth; numbered by sixties.

SEXA'NGLED, or SEXA'NGULAR, *adj.* [from *sex*, Lat., and *angular*.] Having six corners or angles; hexagonal.

The grubs from their *sexangular* abode
Crawl out unfinish'd like the maggot's brood. *Dryden*.

SEXA'NGULARLY, *adv.* With six angles; hexagonally.

SEXE'NNIAL, *adj.* [*sex* and *annus*, Lat.] Lasting six years; happening once in six years.—This evil was not so much the vice of their constitution itself; as it must be in your new contrivance of *sexennial* elective judicatories. *Burke*.

SEXT, a small town of the Sardinian States, in Savoy, on the Isere; 2 miles south-east of Saint Morice.

SEXTAIN, *s.* [from *sextans*, *sex*, Lat.] A stanza of six lines.

SEXTANS, or SEXTANT, a sixth part of certain things. The Romans divided their *as*, which was a pound of brass,

brass, into twelve ounces: the ounce was called *uncia*, from *unum*; and two ounces *sextants*, as being the sixth part of a pound.

SEXTANS was also a measure which contained two ounces of liquor, or two cyathi. Hence,

"Sextantes, Caliste, duos infundi Falerni."

SEXTANS, the *Sextant*, in Astronomy, a constellation of the southern hemisphere, made by Hevelius out of unformed stars. In Hevelius's catalogue it contains 11, but in the Britannic catalogue 41 stars.

SEXTANT, *s.* [*sextant*, Fr.] The sixth part of a circle. An astronomical instrument made in that form.—At the beginning of the eclipse the moon was in the zenith, so that it was found most convenient to make use of the *sextant*. *Cook and King's Voyage*.

The use and application of the sextant is the same with that of the quadrant.

SEXTARIUS, an ancient Roman measure, containing two cotylæ, or two hemina.

SEXTARY, or SEXTRY, *s.* The same as sacristy. *Johnson*.

SEXTEN, a large village of Austria, in Tyrol, near the source of the Drave, with some well frequented mineral springs.

SEXTERY-LANDS, lands given to a church, &c., for maintenance of the sexton.

SEXTILE, *adj.* [*sextilis*, Lat.] Is such a position or aspect of two planets, when at 60 degrees distant or at the distance of two signs from one another, and is marked thus *.
Harris.

Planetary motions and aspects,
In *sextile*, square and trine.

Milton.

The moon receives the dusky light we discern in its *sextile* aspect from the earth's benignity. *Glanville*.

SEXTON, *s.* An under officer of the church, whose business is to dig graves.—A stool and cushion for the *sexton*. *Shakspeare*.—When any dies, then by tolling a bell, or bespeaking a grave of the *sexton*, the same is known to the searchers corresponding with the said *sexton*. *Graunt*.

The office of sexton in the pope's chapel, is appropriated to the order of the hermits of St. Augustine, and he is generally a bishop. When the pope is sick, he administers to him the sacrament of extreme unction, &c., and enters the conclave, in quality of first conclavist.

SEXTON'S RIVER, a river of the United States, in Vermont, which rises in Grafton, and runs into the Connecticut; 2 miles south of Bellows Falls.

SEXTONSHIP, *s.* The office of a sexton.

SEXTULA, a word used by some old pharmaceutic writers to express the sixth part of an ounce, that is, four scruples, or one drachm and one scruple.

SEXTUPLE, *adj.* [*sextuplus*, Lat.] Sixfold; six times told.—Man's length being a perpendicular from the vertex unto the sole of the foot, is *sextuple* unto his breadth, or a right line drawn from the ribs of one side to another. *Brown*.

SEXTUS, or SIXTH, in the Canon Law, denotes a collection of decretals, made by pope Boniface VIII., usually thus called from the title, which is "Liber Sextus;" as if it were a sixth book added to the five books of decretals, collected by Gregory IX.

SEXTUS (Empiricus), a Roman physician, of the *empiric* sect, who followed Heraclides and others in the adoption of that system which Serapion and Philinus begun. He is said to have been the pupil of Herodotus, the physician, and the preceptor of Saturninus. There are two works extant, with the name of Sextus attached to them; but Le Clerc believes, that they are not both the production of this physician, who only composed that which is entitled "Sexti Placiti."

SEXUAL, *adj.* [*sexuel*, Fr.] Distinguishing the sex; belonging to the sex.—There is a wonderful spirit of sociality in the brute creation, independent of *sexual* attachment. *Barrington*.

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SEXUAL SYSTEM. See BOTANY.

SEXUNX, in old Pharmacy, the weight of six ounces, or half a pound troy.

SEYCHELLES. See SECHELLES.

SEYEROE, a small island of Denmark, to the north-west of Zealand; 6 miles in length, and 1 in breadth.

SEYLAND, a considerable island on the north coast of Norwegian Lapland, in lat. 70. 30. N. long. 23. 0. E. It is covered with lofty mountains, and is scarcely inhabited.

SEYMAN, a small island in the Red Sea. Lat. 15. 20. N. long. 57. 30. E.

SEYMOUR'S CANAL, an inlet on the east coast of Admiralty island, extending in a north-west direction for about 29 miles.

SEYNE, a town in the south-east of France, department of the Var. It is well built, contains 5700 inhabitants, has a harbour with neat quays, and carries on an extensive sardel and tunny fishery; 3 miles south-west of Toulon.

SEYNE, a small town in the south-east of France, in the department of the Lower Alps. It has some cotton manufactures. Population 2500; 12 miles south-south-west of Barcelonetta, and 15 north of Digne.

SEYSSSEL (Claude de), an historical and political writer, who flourished in the beginning of the sixteenth century, was brought up to the law, which he practised with great applause at Turin. He obtained the places of master of requests and counsellor under Lewis XII. of France. He attended in the name of that prince at the council of Lateran, and was promoted to the bishopric of Marseilles in 1510, and to the archbishopric of Turin in 1517. He died in 1520, leaving behind him a great number of works, on theological, juridical, and historical subjects. He also translated into the French language Eusebius's Ecclesiastical History, Thucydides, Appian, Diodorus, Xenophon, Justin and Seneca. He is said to have been the first who alleged the Salic law as influencing the succession to the crown of France. His "Grand Monarchie de France," published in 1519, and translated by Sleidan into the Latin language, maintains that the French constitution is a mixed monarchy, and that the king is dependent on the parliament. In his "Histoire de Louis XII. Pere du Peuple," he is the perpetual panegyrist of that prince, but gives some curious facts respecting the reign of Lewis XI., whose vices are exposed by way of contrast.

SEYSSSEL, a town in the south-east of France, department of the Ain. The Rhone divides it into two parts, and here becomes navigable, which renders Seyssel the principal entrepot of the commodities exported from the south-east part of France to Switzerland. Population 2300; 13 miles north of Belley.

SEYSUMAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, district of Mundesor, belonging to the Mahrattas, situated on the eastern side of the river Chumbul. Lat. 24. 55. N. long. 75. 37. E.

SEY-SUR-SAONE, a small town in the east of France, on the river Saone.

SEZANE, or CEZANE, a small town of the Sardinian States, in Piedmont, on the Doria; 7 miles east of Briançon.

SEZANNE, a small but ancient town in the north-east of France, department of the Marne, situated on the small rivers Auges and Morin. It has some manufactures of woollens, caps and leather, and a considerable trade in wine, corn and wood. An action took place between the Austrians and French here, on the 14th of March, 1814. Population 4200; 30 miles south-west of Chalons-sur-Marne.

SEZENICZ, a small town in the east of Bohemia, on the Elbe, containing 1000 inhabitants; 10 miles north of Chrudim.

SEZYPE. See ZYPPE.

SEZZA. See SESSE.

SEZZE ET VILLA FRANCA, a small town in the east of the Sardinian States, province of Alessandria, on the Bormida, with a population of 2300.

Y

SFACCHIA,

SFACCHIA, a small town of European Turkey, in the island of Candia.

SFASACA, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 18 miles east of Amanguchi.

SFAX, a neat thriving city of Tunis, in Africa, surrounded with walls. A considerable trade in oil and cloth is here carried on; 45 miles south-south-east of Kairwan.

SFORZA (Giacomuzzo), named also Attendolo, founder of the illustrious house of Sforza, was born in 1369 at Cotignola, in Romagna. He is said to have been originally a peasant, and, according to a traditionary report, being one day at work, he was solicited to enlist for a soldier, when throwing his spade on a tree, he said he would enter if the spade did not fall down again, which proving to be the case, he immediately engaged in that military life which rendered him famous. He first served under general Alberic de Barbiano, and had for his comrade in arms the celebrated Braccio. These, in the early part of their career, were as intimate as brothers, but as they advanced in the profession, jealousy intervened, and they became at length such determined enemies, that when one engaged in the service of a prince or state, it was a sufficient motive for the other to engage on the opposite side. Sforza was soon distinguished for his bravery, and for a disposition to seize by force whatever booty fell in his way. Braccio and he perfectly agreed in selling their services as dearly as possible, and in considering war as a trade which was to be kept up for their benefit. From the command of 100 men he rose to that of 7000: he obtained the office of gonfalonier to the holy see, and by pope John XXIII, he was created count Cotignola, an honour that was given by way of payment of a sum of money due to him. He commanded in the kingdom of Naples against Alphonso of Arragon, and was made constable of the kingdom. In marching to the relief of Aquila, he was drowned in the passage of the river Aterno or Pescara, in the year 1424. He is represented to have been robust in body, and when elevated to his highest rank, that he preserved the peasant's disregard of luxury, and frankness of manners.

SFORZA (Francesco), first duke of Milan of that family, natural son of the preceding, was born in 1401. In 1421 he was viceroy to Louis, duke of Anjou, who had been adopted by queen Joan II. of Naples, and in 1424, he defeated the troops of Braccio; but his father, as we have seen, being drowned, he could make no advantage of his success. Although an illegitimate son, Joan conferred upon him all his father's estates, and he served successfully against the Aragonese commanders. He afterwards entered into the service of the duke of Milan, and defeated a fleet of the Venetians in the Po, in 1431. After the death of the queen, in 1435, he attached himself to her heir, René, duke of Anjou, and made himself master of several places in the Marche of Ancona. He even seized some of the pope's possessions, which brought on him an excommunication from Eugenius IV., whom he had formerly served. He had long wished to marry Bianca, the natural daughter of Philip-Maria Visconti, duke of Milan, and being in the Venetian service against that prince, he gained such advantages as induced Philip, who had often deceived him, to enter into a treaty in 1441, by which he made peace with the Venetians, and gave his daughter to Sforza, with Cremona and its territory for her portion.

The father and son-in-law did not long continue united, and Sforza commanded, as general, the troops of the pope, Venetians, and Florentines, in a war against Philip. He was, however, at length, induced to go over to the party of the duke of Milan, who, in 1447, died without legitimate issue. Sforza was now ambitious of succeeding him, and took a commission, as general of the troops of Milan, against the Venetians. But he soon made a treaty with the latter, and then led an allied army to the gates of Milan, to which he laid siege. The distress of the city occasioned a popular commotion, the leaders of which proposed the electing of Sforza for their duke. The majority concurred in the proposal, and in February, 1450, he was received with great ac-

clamations in that quality. Sforza remained in possession of the duchy, and in 1464 made himself master of Genoa, Lewis XI. of France having made over to him all the right of France to that city. Sforza died in 1466, and transmitted the sovereignty to his son. He had shewn himself a brave and skilful commander; but with several traits of grandeur in his character, he was not a man of principle, and was ready to change sides as suited his interest. *Mod. Univ. Hist.*

SFORZA (Catherine), an heroine of the same family, the natural daughter of Galeazzo Sforza, duke of Milan, who was assassinated in 1476. She married Jerome Riario, lord of Forli and of Imola, which was her own dowry; but she was left a widow at the age of twenty-two, with several children. In 1500 Forli was besieged by the duke of Valentinois, son of pope Alexander VI.; but she defended the fortress with the greatest bravery, though the besiegers threatened to put her children to death, who were in their hands. At length the place was taken, and Catherine sent prisoner to Rome, but she soon recovered her liberty, and was married to John de Medicis, to whose family she rendered very eminent services.

SFRONDATI (Francis), a senator of Milan, and counsellor of state to the emperor Charles V. On the death of his wife he entered into orders, and was elevated to the cardinalship. He died in 1550, aged 56. A poem of his, on the "Rape of Helen," was printed at Venice in 1559. His son Nicholas became pope by the name of Gregory XIV. There was another cardinal of this name and family, who wrote several works against the liberties of the Gallican church. He died in 1696.

SGIGATA, or STORA, a town of Algiers, in Africa, the ancient RUSICADA, situated near the Mediterranean. This city possessed anciently great splendour, which is now only attested by the ruins of a few cisterns.

To SHAB, *v. n.* To play mean tricks. *A low cant word.*

SHAB. See SHEB.

SHABAMOUSHWAN LAKE, a lake of Canada; 210 miles north-north-west of Quebec. Lat. 49. 10. N. long. 75. W.

SHA'BBILY, *adv.* Meanly; reproachfully; despicably; paltrily.

SHA'BBINESS, *s.* Meanness; paltriness.—He exchanged his gay *shabbiness* of clothes fit for a much younger man, to warm ones that would be decent for a much older one. *Spectator.*

SHABBINGTON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 12 miles west-south-west of Aylesbury

SHA'BBY, *adj.* [*Etymology unknown.*] Mean; paltry.—They were very *shabby* fellows, pitifully mounted, and worse armed. *Ld. Clarendon.*

The dean was so *shabby*, and look'd like a ninny, That the captain suppos'd he was curate of Jenny. *Swift.*

SHABOUR, in Persia. See SHAPOUR.

SHABOUR, a considerable town of Lower Egypt, situated in the district called Bahireh, on the western or Rosetta branch of the Nile. It is supposed to be the ancient Andropolis; 48 miles south-east of Alexandria.

SHABRAN, a village of Shirwan, in Persia; 40 miles north-east of Schamachie.

SHACK, in Ancient Customs, a liberty of winter-pasturage. In the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk, the lord of the manor has shack, i. e. a liberty of feeding his sheep at pleasure, in his tenants' lands, during the six winter months.

In Norfolk, shack also extends to the common for hogs, in all men's grounds, from the end of harvest till feeding-time. Whence to go a shack, is to feed at large.

SHACK, provincially, to shed as grain at harvest.

SHACKERSTONE, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 10 miles from Hinckley.

SHA'CKLE, *s.* Stubble. Herefordshire. *Pegge.*

To SHA'CKLE, *v. a.* [*schaeckelen*, Teut.] To chain; to

to fetter; to bind.—You must not *shackle* and tie him up with rules about indifferent matters. *Locke.*

So the stretch'd cord the *shackled* dancer tries,
As prone to fall as impotent to rise. *Smith*

SHACKLEFORD, a post village of the United States, in King and Queen county, Virginia.

SHACKLEWELL, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Hackney, Middlesex.

SHA'CKLES, *s.* wanting the singular. [*ŕceacul*, Sax., *schaekkel*, Teut.] Fetters; gyves; chains for prisoners.

Himself he frees by secret means unseen,
His *shackles* empty left, himself escaped clean. *Spenser.*

A servant commonly is less free in mind than in condition; his very will seems to be in bonds and *shackles*, and desire itself under durance and captivity. *South.*

The forge in fetters only is employed;
Our iron mines exhausted and destroyed
In *shackles*. *Dryden.*

SHACKLES, in Ship-Building, the small ring-bolts driven through the ports, or scuttles, and through which the lashings or an iron hook passes when the ports are barred in. There are also shackles put upon billow-bolts, for confining seamen, &c., who have deserved corporal punishment.

SHAD, *s.* A kind of fish. See CLUPEA.—She will cry strawberries; — nay, *shads* and mackarel. *B. Jonson.*

SHADDINGFIELD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4½ miles south of Beccles.

SHA'DDOCK, *s.* A kind of orange. *Chambers.*
SHADE, *s.* [*Sax.* *ŕcabu ŕcabð*; Dutch, *schade*. Said to be the past participle of *ŕceaban*, to separate, to divide. *H. Tooke.*—The cloud or opacity made by interception of the light.

Spring no obstacle found here nor *shade*,
But all sunshine. *Milton.*

Darkness; obscurity.
The weaker light unwillingly declin'd,
And to prevailing *shades* the murmuring world resign'd. *Roscommon.*

Coolness made by interception of the sun.—Antigonus, when told that the enemy had such volleys of arrows that hid the sun, said, "That falls out well; for this is hot weather, and so we shall fight in the *shade*." *Bacon.*—An obscure place, properly in a grove or close wood by which the light is excluded:

Let us seek out some desolate *shade*, and there
Weep our sad bosoms empty. *Shakspeare.*

Regions of sorrow, doleful *shades*. *Milton.*

The parts of a picture not brightly coloured.
'Tis every painter's art to hide from sight,
And cast in *shades* what seep would not delight. *Dryden.*

A colour; gradation of light.—White, red, yellow, blue, with their several degrees, or *shades* and mixtures, as green, come in only by the eyes. *Locke.*—The figure formed upon any surface corresponding to the body by which the light is intercepted; the shadow.—Envy will merit as its *shade* pursue. *Pope.*—The soul separated from the body; so called as supposed by the ancients to be perceptible to the sight, not to the touch. A spirit; a ghost; manes.

Ne'er to these chambers where the mighty rest,
Since their foundation, came a nobler guest;
Nor e'er was to the bow'rs of bliss convey'd
A fairer spirit or more welcome *shade*. *Tickell.*

To SHADE, *v. a.* [*ŕcaban*, *ŕceaban*, Sax.] To over-spread with opacity.

Thou *shad'st*
The full blaze of thy beams, and through a cloud
Thy skirts appear. *Milton.*

To cover from the light or heat; to overspread.

And after these, came arm'd with spear and shield
An host so great, as cover'd all the field;
And all their foreheads like the knights before,
With laurels ever-green were *shaded* o'er. *Dryden.*

To shelter; to hide.
Ere in our own house I do *shade* my head,
The good patricians must be visited. *Shakspeare.*

To protect; to cover; to screen.
Leave not the faithful side
That gave thee being, still *shades* thee and protects. *Milton.*

To mark with different gradations of colours.
The portals shone inimitable on earth
By model, or by *shading* pencil drawn. *Milton.*

To paint in obscure colours.
SHADE, a river of the United States, in the Ohio, which flows into the Ohio; 10 miles below the Hockhocking.
SHADE MOUNTAIN, a mountain of the United States, in Pennsylvania, north-east of Lewistown.

SHA'DER, *s.* Whoever or whatever obscures.—In every age virtue has its *shaders* or maligners. *Carleton.*

SHADFORTH, a township of England, county of Durham; 5 miles east-south-east of Durham.

SHA'DINESS, *s.* The state of being shady; umbrageousness.

SHADMAN, a town of Great Bucharia; 36 miles north-east of Termed.

SHA'DOW, *s.* [*ŕcabu*, Saxon; *schaduwe*, Dutch; a shade, *ŕcabepan*, to shadow.] The representation of a body by which the light is intercepted.—Poor Tom! proud of heart, to ride over four-inch'd bridges, to course his own *shadow* for a traitor. *Shakspeare.*

Life's but a walking *shadow*, a poor player,
That struts and frets his hour upon the stage,
And then is heard no more. *Shakspeare.*

Opacity; darkness; shade.
By the revolution of the skies
Night's sable *shadows* from the ocean rise. *Denham.*

Shelter made by any thing that intercepts the light, heat, or influence of the air.

In secret *shadow* from the sunny ray,
On a sweet bed of lilies softly laid. *Spenser.*

Obscure place.
To the secret *shadows* I retire,
To pay my penance till my years expire. *Dryden.*

Dark part of a picture.—A *shadow* is a diminution of the first and second light. The first light is that which proceeds immediately from a lightened body, as the beams of the sun. The second is an accidental light spreading itself into the air or medium proceeding from the other. *Shadows* are three-fold: the first is a single *shadow*, and the least of all; and is proper to the plain surface where it is not wholly possessed of the light. The second is the double *shadow*, and it is used when the surface begins once to forsake your eye, as in columns. The third *shadow* is made by crossing over your double *shadow* again, which darkeneth by a third part. It is used for the inmost *shadow*, and farthest from the light, as in gulfs, wells, and caves. *Peacham.*—After great lights there must be great *shadows*. *Dryden.*—Any thing perceptible only to the sight; a ghost; a spirit, or shade.

Hence, terrible *shadow!*
Unreal mockery, hence! *Shakspeare.*

An imperfect and faint representation; opposed to *substance*.—If substance might be call'd that *shadow* seem'd. *Milton.*—In the glorious lights of heaven we perceive a *shadow* of his divine countenance. *Raleigh.*—Inseparable companion.—Sin and her *shadow*, death. *Milton.*—Type; mystical representation.—Types and *shadows* of that destin'd seed. *Milton.*—Protection; shelter; favour.—Keep
me

me under the *shadow* of thy wings. *Psalms*.—For the laws of the distribution of shadows; see *OPTICS*.

To SHA'DOW, *v. a.* [*rcabepan*, Saxon.] To cover with opacity.

The warlike elf much wondered at this tree,
So fair and great, that *shadowed* all the ground. *Spenser*.

The Assyrian was a cedar with fair branches, and with a *shadowing* shroud. *Ezek.*—To cloud; to darken.

Mislike me not for my complexion;
The *shadow'd* livery of the burning sun
To whom I am a neighbour. *Shakspeare*.

Why sad? —

I must not see the face I love thus *shadowed*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

To conceal under cover; to hide; to screen.

Let every soldier hew him down a bough,
And bear't before him; thereby shall we *shadow*
The number of our host, and make discovery
Err in report of us. *Shakspeare*.

To protect; to screen from danger; to shroud.

God shall forgive your Cœur de Lion's death,
The rather, that you give his offspring life,
Shadowing their right under your wings of war. *Shakspeare*.

To mark with various gradations of colour, or light.—From a round globe of any uniform colour, the idea imprinted in our minds is of a flat circle, variously *shadowed* with different degrees of light coming to our eyes. *Locke*.—To paint in obscure colours.—If the parts be too much distant, so that there be void spaces which are deeply *shadowed*, then place in those voids some fold to make a joining of the parts. *Dryden*.—To represent imperfectly.

Whereat I wak'd and found
Before mine eyes all real, as the dream
Had lively *shadow'd*. *Milton*.

To represent typically.—The shield being to defend the body from weapons, aptly *shadows* out to us the continence of the emperor, which made him proof to all the attacks of pleasure. *Addison*.

SHA'DOWGRASS, *s.* A kind of grass.

SHADOWING, *s.* Shade in a picture; gradation of light or colour.—I like not praising, when 'tis too loud: a little is as *shadowings* to a well limned piece: it sets it off the better; but when it is too deep, it dulls the native life, and renders its air unpleasant. *Feltham*.

SHA'DOWY, *adj.* [*rcæbþɪɣ*, Sax.] Full of shade; gloomy.

This *shadowy* desert, unfrequented woods,
I better brook than flourishing peopled towns. *Shakspeare*.

Not brightly luminous.

More pleasant light
Shadowy sets off the face of things. *Milton*.

Faintly representative; typical; unsubstantial; unreal.—*Milton* has brought into his poems two actors of a *shadowy* and fictitious nature, in the persons of sin and death; by which he hath interwoven in his fable a very beautiful allegory. *Addison*.—Dark; opaque.

By command, ere yet dim night
Her *shadowy* cloud withdraws, I am to haste
Homeward. *Milton*.

SHADOXHURST, a parish of England, in Kent; 4 miles south-west of Ashford.

SHADWELL (Thomas), a dramatic writer, and poet-laureat to king William III., was descended of an ancient family in Staffordshire, and was born about the year 1640, at Lauton-hall, in Norfolk, a seat belonging to his father, who was bred to the law, but having an ample fortune did not practice, choosing rather to serve his country as a magistrate. He was in the commission for three counties, viz., Middlesex, Norfolk and Suffolk, and discharged the duties of the office with distinguished ability, and the most perfect in-

tegrity. In the civil wars he had been a considerable sufferer for the royal cause, so that having a numerous family, he was reduced to the necessity of selling and spending a considerable part of his estate to support it. In these circumstances he resolved to educate his son to his own profession. He was sent for preparatory studies to Caius college, Cambridge, and was afterwards entered at the Temple, but becoming acquainted with some of the wits of that time, he deserted his profession and devoted himself to literature. It was not long before he became eminent in dramatic poetry, and he appeared before the public as the writer of a comedy entitled "The sullen Lovers," or "The Impertinents," which was acted in the duke of York's theatre, and in 1668 it was printed. The success of this piece encouraged the author to proceed, and he from this period rapidly brought out plays, chiefly of the comic kind, till he had reached the number of seventeen. His model was Ben Jonson, whom he imitated in drawing humorous characters, rather from his own conceptions than from nature; and though his name has not been transmitted to posterity with much encomium, and his works have long since disappeared from the stage, yet some of his delineations are said to display much real humour. Lord Rochester has given him a respectable place among his contemporaries; he says,

"None seem to touch upon true comedy,
But hasty Shadwell and slow Wycherly."

As every one in those days was of necessity a party man, Shadwell ranked himself among the Whigs, and in consequence of this he was set up as a rival to Dryden. Hence there grew a mutual dislike between them, and upon the appearance of Dryden's tragedy, entitled the "Duke of Guise," in 1683, Shadwell was charged with having the principal hand in writing a piece, entitled "Some Reflections on the pretended Parallel in the Play, called the Duke of Guise, in a Letter to a Friend," which was printed the same year. Dryden wrote a vindication of the Parallel, and a considerable storm was raised both against Shadwell and his friend Hunt, who assisted him in it, and who, on this occasion, was forced to fly into Holland. Dryden, by way of revenge upon Shadwell, wrote the bitterest satire against him that ever was penned; this was the celebrated Mac-Flecknoe.

In 1688, Shadwell was appointed to succeed his rival Dryden in the laureatship, an honour which he did not enjoy many years. He died suddenly in the year 1692, in the fifty-second year of his age, at Chelsea, and was interred in the church there. Dr. Nicholas Brady preached his funeral sermon, in which he assures us, "that the subject of his discourse was a man of great honesty and integrity, and had a real love of truth and sincerity; an inviolable fidelity and strictness to his word; an unalterable friendship wherever he professed it; and a much deeper sense of religion, than many others have who pretend to it more openly." The titles of Shadwell's plays are given in the Biographia Dramatica. An edition of his works, consisting of those plays and miscellaneous poems, was printed in 1720, in four vols. 8vo. The earl of Rochester, in speaking of Shadwell, says, "If he had burnt all he had written, and printed all he spoke, he would have had more wit and humour than any other poet."

SHADWELL, a parish of England, in Middlesex; 2½ miles east-by-south of St. Paul's cathedral, London, and included within the bills of mortality. Here is a fine medicinal spring. The inhabitants are mostly employed in the sea-faring line. Population 9855.

SHADWELL, a village of England, in Salop, south-west of Bishop's Castle.

SHADWELL, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles north-north-east of Leeds.

SHADY, *adj.* [*rcæbþɪɣ*, Sax.] Full of shade; mildly gloomy.

The wakeful bird
Sings darkling, and in *shadiest* covert hid
Tunes her nocturnal note. *Milton*.

Secure

Secure from the glare of light, or sultriness of heat.—Cast at also that you may have rooms *shady* for summer, and warm for winter. *Bacon.*

To SHAFFLE, *v. n.* [perhaps a corruption of *shuffle*.] To move with an awkward or irregular gait; to hobble. *Used in the North.*

SHAFFLER, *s.* One who limps, or walks lamely. *Obsolete.—Huloet.*

SHAFT, *s.* [ꝛcept, Sax.] An arrow; a missive weapon.

To pierce pursuing shield

By parents train'd, the Tartars wild are taught,

With shafts shot out from their back-turned bow. *Sidney.*

[*Shaft*, Dutch.] A narrow, deep, perpendicular pit.—They sink a *shaft* or pit of six foot in length. *Carew.*—

Suppose a tube, or, as the miners call it, a *shaft*, were sunk from the surface of the earth to the centre. *Arbutnot.*—

Any thing strait; the spire of a church.—Practise to draw small and easy things, as a cherry with the leaf, the *shaft* of a steeple. *Peacham.*—[*schaft*, Germ.; *shaft*, Su. Goth.] Handle of a weapon.—Pole of a chaise.

SHAFTED, *adj.* Having a handle: a term of heraldry, applied to a spear-head, when there is a handle to it.

SHAFTESBURY, a township of the United States, in Bennington county, Vermont. It is flourishing, and contains an academy. Population 1973.

SHAFTMENT, *s.* [ꝛcept-mund, Sax.] Measure of about six inches with the hand; a span.

SHAFTOE, EAST and WEST, two hamlets of England, in Northumberland; 13 miles west-south-west of Morpeth.

SHAFTON, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-east of Barnesley.

SHAFTSBURY, a market town and Borough of England, in the county of Dorset, very pleasantly situated on a lofty eminence, which commands an extensive prospect over the three adjoining counties of Dorset, Somerset and Wilts. The air is pure, and healthy, but bleak, owing to the height of the place. The town has but an indifferent appearance, many of the buildings being mean, and the streets mostly irregular. The houses are chiefly built of a stone dug out of the neighbouring eminences. In ancient times, when its celebrated monastery was in a flourishing condition, it was of much more importance than at present. It contained, besides the abbey church, twelve other churches, several chantries and fraternities, and a priory or hospital of St. John the Baptist. Of these buildings, only four churches now remain, dedicated respectively to St. Peter, the Holy Trinity, St. James and St. Rumbold. Of these, St. Peter's is the principal. It is of considerable antiquity, and exhibits much elegance in its proportions and ornaments, but is greatly defaced by modern alterations. Shaftsbury abbey was founded by the great Alfred; and the charter of foundation creating his daughter Ethelgeda abbess, is still extant. It was originally dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and soon became one of the richest and best endowed nunneries in England. It occupied a great extent of ground, and contained a vast variety of offices and apartments within its precincts. The abbess was one of those that held of the king a whole barony, on which account she was liable to be called to parliament, but was excused on account of her sex. She had writs, however, directed to her, to send her quota of men into the field, according to her knights' fees. After the conquest, this convent was for some time neglected; but by the patronage of succeeding monarchs, it again rose to its former celebrity, and acquired extensive donations in land. Scarcely a vestige of the abbey is now visible, the whole having been demolished soon after the dissolution, except the high embattled wall, supported by buttresses, which formerly enclosed the park, and is still in part standing on the side next the town. Besides its churches, Shaftsbury contains meeting-houses for Presbyterians, methodists and quakers. The other public buildings of the town are the town-hall, a handsome edifice, built on five arches; a free-school, but moderately endowed; and two alms-houses. The town is but indifferently supplied with water, which has to be brought

from a distance on carts and horses. Shaftsbury is a very ancient borough by prescription, and its privileges have also been confirmed by charters of Elizabeth, James I. and Charles II. The government of the town is by these vested in a corporation, consisting of a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, a bailiff and common council men. The borough has sent two members to parliament since the 25th Edward I. They are elected by the inhabitants paying scot and lot, who are reckoned at 300 in number, and are returned by the mayor. Shaftsbury is a place of great antiquity, and much diversity of opinion prevails as to its origin, some ascribing its foundation to the ancient British kings previous to the birth of Christ, and others to Alfred the Great. That it was known to the Romans, is inferred from many coins of that people being found here, and from other circumstances. It is only, however, from the foundation of the monastery by Alfred, that the prosperity of the town is to be dated. The manor appears from Domesday Survey to have been very anciently divided between the crown and the abbey. The abbey manor was surrendered in the 30th of Henry VIII., whose successor granted it to Thomas Wriothesley, earl of Southampton, together with the town, borough and monastery. It afterwards passed to Sir Thomas Arundel, and from him to the earls of Pembroke, by one of whom, Philip, the royalty of the manor and borough manor were sold to Anthony Ashley Cowper, earl of Shaftsbury, in whose family they still continue. By the returns of 1811, Shaftsbury contained 515 houses, and 2159 inhabitants. Market on Saturday, and one annual fair; 28 miles east-north-east of Dorchester, and 101 west-south-west of London. Lat. 50. 59. N. long. 2. 9. W.

SHAG, *s.* [ꝛeaczga, Sax. Su. Goth. *shaeg*, barba.] Rough woolly hair.

Full often like a *shag*-hair'd crafty kern,

Hath he conversed with the enemy;

And given me notice of their villanies.

Shakspeare.

True Witney broad cloth, with its *shag* unshorn,

Be this the horseman's fence.

Gay.

A kind of cloth.—Loth we are to be under the yoke of restraint, though it be lined with velvet and *shag* of ease and innocence. *Waterhouse.*

SHAG, *adj.* Hairy; shaggy.

A well proportion'd steed,—

Round-hoof'd, short-jointed, fetlocks *shag* and long.

Shakspeare.

To SHAG, *v. a.* To make shaggy or rough; to deform.

Other scenes,

Of horrid prospect, *shag* the trackless plain.

Thomson.

SHAG, *s.* A sea bird.—Among the first sort we reckon *shags*, duck and mallard. *Carew.*—See PELICANUS GRACULUS.

SHAG ISLAND, an island in Christmas Sound, on the south coast of Terra del Fuego, so named by Captain Cook, from the numbers of shags which were observed to breed in the cliffs.

SHA'GGED, or SHA'GGY, *adj.* [ꝛeaczgeb, Sax. comatus; Dan. *skagged*, barbatus, *skag*, barba. Rugged; roughly; hairy.

A lion's hide he wears;

About his shoulders hangs the *shaggy* skin,

The teeth and gaping jaws severely grin.

Dryden.

From the frosty north

The early valiant Swede draws forth his wings,

In battailous array, while Volga's stream

Sends opposite, in *shaggy* armour clad,

Her borderers; on mutual slaughter bent.

Philips.

Rough; rugged.

They pluck'd the seated hills with all their load,

Rocks, waters, woods, and by the *shaggy* tops

Uplifting bore them in their hands.

Milton.

SHA'GGEDNESS, *s.* State of being shagged.—The inhabitants

inhabitants could not inform him of the colour, *shag-gedness*, and other qualities of the dog. *More*.

SHAGOMIGON, a large peninsula which projects into Lake Superior, upwards of 60 miles.

SHAGR, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo; 40 miles west of Aleppo.

SHAGRE'EN, *s.* [An eastern word, *sagri*, *soghre*, and *shagrain*.] The skin of a kind of fish, or skin made rough in imitation of it.

To SHAGRE'EN, *v. a.* [*chagriner*, Fr.] To irritate; to provoke. It should be written *chagrin*.

SHAGUM, a river of North America, which runs into Lake Erie.

SHAH, the Persian title corresponding to king, and superior to khan. The most absolute Persian monarchs, who have never assumed any other title than that of shah, have permitted the governors of provinces in their empire to take that of khan.

SHAHABAD, an extensive and fertile district of Hindostan, province of Bahar. It is most advantageously situated between the rivers Soane and Ganges, as they approach their confluence. It is estimated to contain more than a million of inhabitants, in the proportion of 19 Hindoos to one Mahometan. Its towns are Chunar, Boujepore and Arrah. It now constitutes one of the Bahar collectorships, and is governed by a judge, who is amenable to the court of circuit of Patnah. Its capital is Arrah.

SHAHABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude, and district of Kyrabad, situated on the eastern side of the Gurrah river. It was formerly a large place, but is now much fallen to decay. Lat. 27. 39. N. long. 79. 55. E.

SHAHABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, belonging to the Seiks, formerly a place of much more consequence than at present. Lat. 30. 12. N. long. 76. 28. E.

SHAHALA INDIANS. Indians of North America, on the rapids of the Columbia. Population 2000.

SHAIBAZPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, district of Corah. Lat. 26. N. long. 80. 46. E.

SHAHDORAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Saharunpore. Lat. 30. 26. N. long. 77. E.

SHAHGUNGE.—There are several places of this name in Hindostan: it signifies the King's Granary.

SHAHIGIAN. See MERU SHAH JEHAN.

SHAHISABI, a town of Korassin, in Persia, on the borders of Bucharia; 80 miles north of Meru.

SHAHJEHANABAD, the Mahometan name of Delhi, the former capital of Hindostan. See DELHI.

SHAHJEHANPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, district of Bareilly; situated on the east side of the Gurrah river. Lat. 27. 51. N. long. 79. 53. E.

SHAHJEHANPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas, situated on the banks of the Sagormuty river, and a place of considerable consequence, being the capital of a district. Lat. 23. 38. N. long. 76. 18. E.—Both these towns are called after the emperor Shah Jehan, who reigned in the middle of the 17th century; and there are several other places of the same name.

SHAHNOOR, SANORE or *Sevanoor*, an extensive district of Hindostan, province of Bejapore, belonging to the Mahrattas. It is situated between the rivers Kistna and Tungbudra, and about the 15th degree of northern latitude. The country is extremely fertile, and under a good government would be very productive. Its political history will be found in the description of its capital.

SHAHNOOR, SANORE or *Savanoor*, a city of Hindostan, and capital of the above mentioned district. It was formerly fortified, and contained a palace and many good buildings, the greater part of which are now in ruins. It is said now to have been taken by the Mahometans so early as the year 1397, and in the course of time became the capital of one of the innumerable nabobs who arose into power on the decline of the empire of Delhi. The first who is mentioned in our histories, is the person who attended the Nizam Nasir Jung, when he entered the Carnatic in 1749,

and in the following year took a part in mutiny or rebellion, which cost Nasir Jung his life; and in the year 1751 was himself killed in a second rebellion. The successor of this nabob seems to have sought protection from the Mahrattas against the viceroy; for in 1746 we find a French army in the service of the Nizam Salbut Jung, advancing to Savenore, to exact the tribute due from the nabob; but by the intrigues of Morari Row, this Mahratta chief, this object was frustrated.

In the year 1763, Hyder Aly sent an agent to Abdal Hakeem, nabob of Shalnoor, to solicit his alliance, and that of the two other Afghan nabobs of Cuddapah and Kurnoul, against the Mahrattas; but the former having rejected this overture, Hyder Aly invaded his dominions in the following year, totally defeated him in a general engagement, and compelled him to submit to very humiliating terms. The unfortunate situation of this little territory, lying between Mysore and the Mahratta states, involved the helpless nabob in continual difficulties, being always compelled to submit to, and join the strongest party. Subsequent to his defeat by Hyder, his country was invaded by the Mahrattas, who took permanent possession of one half his domains. In 1779 Hyder Aly compelled the nabob to enter into a double marriage with his family, the nabob taking Hyder's sister for wife, and giving his daughter to Kereem Sahib, the second son of Hyder, now a state prisoner in Calcutta. This alliance, however, could not save the nabob from the merciless treatment of Tippoo Sultan, who, in the year 1786, took Shalnoor, plundered it of every thing valuable, and forced the nabob to take refuge again with the Mahrattas. At the conclusion of the war between Tippoo Sultan and the allied powers in 1792, Shalnoor was included in the portion of territory assigned to the Mahrattas; but instead of restoring Abdal Hakeem to his authority, they settled a pension on him, which, however, was so badly paid, that the British ambassador at the court of Poonah in 1804 was obliged to intercede in his behalf, and succeeded in obtaining some relief for the distressed family. Shalnoor now forms one portion of the Mahratta territory added to the British dominions by the late events in India. Lat. 15. 1. N. long. 75. 22. E.

SHAHNUAZ, a town of Hindostan, province of Moultan, belonging to the Seiks. Lat. 30. 41. N. long. 72. 39. E.

SHAHPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwah, district of Singrowla. It is situated on the banks of the Rhair river, in the middle of a fertile plain. The town is about a mile in extent, and has a small citadel, built of stone and mud. Lat. 23. 34. N. long. 83. 23. E.

SHAHPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore. It is situated on the south-east side of the river Ravey, and belongs to the Seiks. Lat. 32. 19. N. long. 74. 45. E.—There are several other places of this name, which signifies *King's town*, in Hindostan, but none of any consequence.

SHAHPOORAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, and district of Harowty. It is a large town, surrounded by a strong stone wall and ditch, which can be filled at pleasure from a large reservoir. It contains some good houses, and a public college. This place, with the adjoining territory, belongs to a Hindoo chief, who is tributary to the Ranah of Odeypore. A division of the British forces was encamped at this place in February 1818. Lat. 25. 43. N. long. 75. 9. E.

SHAHR-E-VAN, a town of Irak Arabi, on the high road from Bagdad to Hamadam, on the site of the ancient Appolonia. It is a handsome little town, watered by two canals from the river Diala, on which it stands, and peopled by about 4000 Turks and Kurds; 50 miles south-east of Bagdad.

SHAHZADPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad. It was named after the late emperor of Delhi, when prince royal. It is situated on the western side of the Ganges, and was formerly surrounded by a brick wall, having round towers at the angles. Lat. 25. 42. N. long. 81. 41. E.

SHAH-

SHAHZADPORE, a town of Bengal, district of Nattore. Lat. 24. 12. N. long. 89. 43. E.

SHAIGI, a village of Nubia, situated on an island in the Nile; 130 miles east of Dongola.

SHAIGOL, a town of Korassan in Persia; 10 miles south-west of Meru.

To SHAIL, *v. n.* [Teut. *schaht*, obliquous.] To walk sideways: *A low word. Unused.*—Child, you must walk strait, without skiewing and *shailing* to every step you set. *L'Estrange.*

SHAIMA, a small sea-port of Mekran, in Persia; 200 miles west-south-west of Kej.

SHAINT, or HOLY ISLES, three small islands of the Hebrides, lying in the channel betwixt the isles of Lewis and Sky, and in the district of the former. One is called Hlan Moair, or St. Mary's island, and has a chapel on it, which was dedicated to the Virgin Mary. These islands are famous for pasturing sheep and black cattle. One family resides on the largest of them, for the purpose of tending the cattle.

SHAIRGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Bareilly. Lat. 28. 40. N. long. 79. 21. E.

SHAIZAK, a village of Syria, in the Orontes, in the pahalic of Damascus; 20 miles north of Hamah.

SHAK, a village of Shirvan, in Persia; 20 miles north-west of Schamachie.

To SHAKE, *v. a.* pret. *shook*; part. pass. *shaken*, or *shook*; and formerly *shaked*. [ꝑcacan, ꝑecacan, Sax. *schocken*, Teut.] To put into a vibrating motion; to move with quick returns backwards and forwards; to agitate.—I will *shake* mine hand upon them, and they shall be a spoil to their servants. *Ecch.*—The stars fell unto the earth, even as a fig-tree casteth her untimely figs when she is *shaken* of a mighty wind. *Rev.*

He *shook* the sacred honours of his head:
With terror trebled heav'n's subsiding hill,
And from his *shaken* curls ambrosial dews distil. *Dryden.*

To make to totter or tremble.

Wert thou some star, which from the ruin'd roof
Of *shak'd* Olympus by mischance didst fall? *Milton.*

The rapid wheels *shake* heaven's basis. *Milton.*—To throw down by a violent motion.

The tyrannous breathing of the North
Shakes all our buds from blowing. *Shakspeare.*

He looked at his book, and, holding out his right leg, put it into such a quivering notion, that I thought he would have *shaked* it off. *Tatler.*—To throw away; to drive off.

'Tis our first intent

To *shake* all cares and business from our age. *Shakspeare.*

To weaken; to put in danger.—When his doctrines grew too strong to be *shook* by his enemies, they persecuted his reputation. *Atterbury.*—To drive from resolution; to depress; to make afraid.—A sly and constant knave, not to be *shak'd*. *Shakspeare.*

Not my firm faith

Can by his fraud be *shaken* or seduc'd. *Milton.*

To SHAKE hands. This phrase, from the action used among friends at meeting and parting, sometimes signifies to *join with*, but commonly to *take leave of*.

With the slave,

He ne'er *shook* hands, nor bid farewell to him,
Till he unseam'd him from the navé to the chops. *Shakspeare.*

Nor can it be safe to a king to tarry among them who are *shaking* hands with their allegiance, under pretence of laying faster hold of their religion. *Icon Basilike.*

To SHAKE off. To rid himself of; to free from; to divest of.

Be pleas'd that I *shake off* these names you give me:
Antonio never yet was thief or pirate. *Shakspeare.*

If I could *shake off* but one seven years,
From these old arms and legs,
I'd with thee every foot. *Shakspeare.*

To SHAKE, *v. n.* To be agitated with a vibratory motion. To totter.

Under his burning wheels
The stedfast empyrean *shook* throughout. *Milton.*

To tremble; to be unable to keep the body still.

Thy sight, which should
Make our eyes flow with joy, hearts dance with comforts,
Constrains them weep, and *shake* with fear and sorrow. *Shakspeare.*

What said the wench, when he rose up again?
—Trembled and *shook*, for why, he stamp'd,
As if the vicar meant to cozen him. *Shakspeare.*

To be in terror; to be deprived of firmness.

He short of succours, and in deep despair,
Shook at the dismal prospect of the war. *Dryden.*

SHAKE, *s.* Concussion suffered.

But the great soldier's honour was compos'd
Of thicker stuff, which could endure a *shake*. *Herbert.*

Impulse; moving power.—The freeholder is the basis of all other titles: this is the substantial stock, without which they are no more than blossoms that would fall away with every *shake* of wind. *Addison.*—Vibratory motion.—Several of his countrymen probably lived within the *shake* of the earthquake, and the shadow of the eclipse, which are recorded by this author. *Addison.*—Motion given and received.—Our salutations were very hearty on both sides, consisting of many kind *shakes* of the hand. *Addison.*—In music the alternate prolation of two notes in juxtaposition to each other, with a close on the note immediately beneath the lower of them.—A Scottish song admits of no cadence; I mean by this, no fanciful or capricious descant upon the close of the tune. There is one embellishment, however, which a fine singer may easily acquire, that is, an easy *shake*. *Tytler.*

SHAKEFORK, *s.* A fork to toss hay about. *Unused.*

SHAKER, *s.* The person or thing that shakes.

Go then, the guilty at thy will chastise,
He said; the *shaker* of the earth replies. *Pope.*

SHAKER-PIGEON, a kind of pigeons of which there are two sorts, the broad-tailed, and the narrow-tailed. See COLUMBA.

SHAKERS, a sect which originated in Lancashire, with some deserters from the society of Quakers, or Friends, about the year 1747, and which continued for some time unconnected with every denomination of Christians. During this period, their testimony, derived, as they fancied and pretended, from what they saw by vision and revelation from God, was, "that the second appearing of Christ was at hand, and that the church was rising in her full and transcendent glory, which would effect the final downfall of Antichrist." From the shaking of their bodies in religious exercises, they were denominated Shakers, and by some persons they were called Shaking Quakers. The sect seems to have made no great progress until the year 1770, when the testimony originally announced was fully opened, according to the special gift and revelation of God through Ann Lee, who was born of obscure parentage, at Manchester, about the year 1736; and who, having joined the society in 1758, became afterwards a distinguished leader among them. Her exercises, both of body and of mind, were singularly trying and severe for about the term of nine years; but she was thus prepared for receiving the testimony of God, against the whole corruption of man, in its root and every branch. Accordingly, her testimony was in the power of God, attended with the word of prophecy, and such energy of the Spirit, as penetrated into the secrets of the heart, and was irresistible, especially in those with whom she was united.

In 1774, Ann Lee, with some of her followers, having been thought mad, and sorely persecuted, settled their temporal affairs in England, and set sail from Liverpool for New York. James Wardley and his wife remaining behind, were removed into an almshouse, and there died. The others, we are told, "being without leader or protection, lost their power, and fell into the common course and practice of the world!" Ann Lee and the brethren reached New York, after working a sort of miracle, for the ship sprung a leak on the voyage, and it is more than hinted, that had it not been for their exertions *at the pump*, the vessel would have gone down to the bottom of the ocean! She, however, left New York, and fixed her residence up the Hudson river, eight miles from the city of Albany. In this retired spot, her followers greatly multiplied, but she was not without bitter reproaches and manifold persecutions. She and the elders would delight in missionary journeys, being out for two or three years, and returning with wonderful accounts of their success.

Another tribe of these visionaries collected together at Water-Vliet, where they were visited by great numbers from distant parts of the state of New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Hampshire, and the district of Maine, who received faith; and through the power and gifts of God, which were abundantly manifested for the destruction of sin, and the salvation of souls, many were filled with joy unspeakable and full of glory, and increased in their understanding of the way and work of God.

Ann Lee died on the eighth day of the ninth month 1784. From the year 1780 to 1787, the credit of this sect revived in America, and the number of its adherents considerably increased.

The creed of the Shakers is very obscurely and mystically expressed. They seem to be believers neither of the Trinity nor of the Satisfaction. They deny also the imputation of Adam's sin to his posterity, as well as the eternity of future punishment. The tenets on which they most dwell are those of human depravity, and of the miraculous effusion of the Holy Ghost! Their leading practical tenet is the abolition of marriage, or indeed the total separation of the sexes. This circumstance of course attracts great attention, and they pride themselves on their superior purity. The essence of their argument is, that the resurrection spoken of in the New Testament means nothing more than conversion; our Saviour declares that in the resurrection they neither marry nor are given in marriage, therefore, on conversion or the resurrection of the individual, marriage ceases!!! To speak more plainly, the single must continue single, and the married must separate. Every passage in the gospel and in the epistles is interpreted according to this strange and unnatural hypothesis.

The system of the Shakers is pretty plainly described by themselves; and they make no scruple of attributing to Ann Lee, the same authority as Christ was possessed of.

SHAKERSTONE, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Market Bosworth.

SHAKERSTOWN, a township of the United States, in Mercer county, Kentucky. Population 298.

SHAKER TOWN, a township of the United States, in Knox county, Indiana, a little east of the Wabash; about 15 miles north of Vincennes.

SHAKES, in Ship-Building, a name given to the cracks or rents in a plank, &c., occasioned by the sun or weather.

SHA'KING, *s.* Vibratory motion.—There was a noise, and behold, a *shaking*; and the bones came together, bone to his bone. *Ezek.*—Concussion.—There shall be a great *shaking* in the land of Israel. *Ezek.*—State of trembling.

A *shaking* through the limbs they find,
Like leaves saluted by the wind.

Waller.

SHAKING, a disease in sheep, consisting of a weakness in their hind quarters, so that they cannot rise up

when they are down. There has not hitherto been found any remedy for this disease. It is probably of the nature of palsy, and to be removed by strong nervous stimulant remedies.

SHAKRA, a village of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 120 miles north-east of Faid.

SHAKSPEARE (William), the poet, was born on the 23d of April, 1564, at Stratford-upon-Avon. His father John; was, according to some, a butcher; according to others, a woolstapler; but these accounts are not contradictory, since the two trades were, formerly, often united. It is said that his family were in respectable circumstances, and that he was sent to a free-school; but these facts rest only on the traditions collected some years after his death by Aubrey and others. Aubrey says, moreover, that he killed a calf in high style, and on such an occasion always made a speech over it to the surrounding country-folk; and (on the authority of a Mr. Beeston) that he was for some short time a country-schoolmaster. Let us add that his frequent and correct use of law-terms has induced some to think that Shakspeare spent some time in an attorney's office, and we have stated all that is to be gathered from any source concerning his education.

About the age of 18, he married Ann Hathaway, who bore him a son and two daughters, and soon after he left Stratford for London. It is reported that he was obliged to fly the place, on account of his having engaged in stealing venison from the park of Sir Thomas Lucy, and afterwards lampooning that gentleman. But there is no authority for this fact. The presumption that the character of Justice Shallow in Henry the Fourth was intended to represent Sir Thomas is weakened by the circumstances, that that character is simply foolish and impotent, and not at all imperious or harsh, as we may suppose the persecutor would have been represented by the oppressed; and that no deer-stealing incident, or any thing like it is introduced. This derogatory aspersion is still further rendered improbable by the fact, that *robbers* are never drawn by Shakspeare in the favourable light so many other authors have delighted to portray them. He disgraces and destroys Pistol, Bardolph, &c., and never for a moment encourages an idea that a thief of any sort can be a fit or decent member of society. This is important, because with his powers he might have drawn the picture entirely in his own favour: offences against the game-laws never were, nor will be held disgraceful, except by those who have game to lose. He might have so favourably depicted the boldness and independence of the deer-stealer, and so contrasted it with the petty and legal oppression of the knight, that public admiration, as well as laughter, would have been on his own side. And can it be supposed for a moment, that a poet, a man of quick feelings, driven from his home and family, secure by time, distance and circumstances from his opponent, would not have indulged the natural rancour of his pen, and lavished his hatred and indignation on a character intended to represent his early and bitter foe?

It is surmised with more probability, that the infidelity of his wife disgusted Shakspeare with his home, and determined him to go to London, where he had a relative established, named Thomas Green, a famous comedian; through whose means he, no doubt, obtained an introduction to the stage. The slight manner in which his wife is mentioned in his will, the fact that he did not live with her after 1684, and that an entry occurs in the Stratford parish register of the burial of a child named Thomas Green, *alias Shakspeare*, render it highly probable that a domestic injury of this kind was the cause of his departure. Circumstances had already occurred to render the stage a desirable situation. Travelling companies of players had visited Stratford on more than twenty occasions, between 1569 (when our poet was under six years of age,) and 1587, and Burbage and Green, two celebrated London actors, were his townsmen, so that even from childhood, his attention must have been attracted to the stage. When, therefore, his views in life were



J. Pass sc.

SHAKSPEARE.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

were unavoidably altered; it was natural that the Theatre should present itself to his mind, as his best asylum; he directed his steps to the metropolis, he became a player, and in the end, a writer for the stage. The tale of Shakspeare's attending at the Globe, on his first arrival in London, to take charge of gentlemen's horses, during the performance, is absurd; but it seems likely that the first office he held in the Theatre, was that of *call-boy*, or prompter's attendant. He did not long continue in that capacity, being soon admitted to perform minor parts. Shakspeare followed the profession of an actor upwards of seventeen years, and till within about thirteen years of his death; but we have good reason to suppose that *six shillings and eight pence a week* was the highest reward of his dramatic efforts. Of his merit as an actor, we have no positive data on which to found an opinion. From some satirical passages in the writings of his contemporaries, we may fairly suppose that he was not a favourite performer with the public. His instructions to the players in Hamlet, however, bespeak so deep a study of the art, that it is possible his unpopularity may be attributed as much to the bad taste of his auditors, as to a deficiency in his own powers. The only characters which we know with certainty to have been personated by Shakspeare, are the Ghost in Hamlet, and Adam in As You Like it: his name appears in the list of Players attached to Ben Jonson's Sejanus, and Every Man in his Humour; but it is sufficiently evident that he never sustained any very important part. His first attempts at authorship were confined to the adaptation of the older dramas to the stage, and hence probably arose that habit of borrowing plots and incidents which so remarkably characterizes him. No portion of his history is more obscure than the period at which he first ventured to rely on the resources of his own mind, and produce an original drama on the stage, which he had so often trod unnoticed. Every attempt to select from the long list of his wonderful productions the one which paved his way to future eminence, has ended in uncertainty. The Comedy of Errors, and The Two Gentlemen of Verona, have each been pitched upon as the first, but any other might have been named with an equal probability. Our bard, however, was well known as a dramatic writer in 1592, and there is reason to suppose that all his compositions for the stage were written between 1590 and 1613, a period of about twenty-three years, and when it is considered that we possess thirty of his plays which are indisputably genuine, besides several, the authenticity of which is doubtful, the marvellous power and range of his intellect will be sufficiently evident. According to the chronological order in which the critics have placed his dramas, his genius appears in full vigour from its first flight to its last. A Midsummer Night's Dream is said to have been his second production. It is a mortifying fact that of Shakspeare's method of writing we know nothing. The story that is related of his telling Ben Jonson that he had "never blotted out a line," seems to show that he wrote with astonishing facility, and of this indeed there is strong internal evidence in all his writings. Yet it is also probable that many of his far extended puns, quibbles and plays on words were the result of some toil, and that his finer speeches must have undergone many retouchings. This, however, is mere conjecture. Of his art, or the order of his productions, nothing certain has been discovered.

The following, however, is the order his plays were written in, according to the surmises of Malone and Chalmers:—

	According to Malone.	According to Chalmers.
The Third Part of Henry VI. was written in	1591	1595
A Midsummer Night's Dream	1592	1598
Comedy of Errors	1593	1591
Taming of the Shrew	1594	1598
Love's Labour's Lost	1594	1592
Two Gentlemen of Verona	1595	1595
Romeo and Juliet	1595	1592
Hamlet	1596	1597
King John	1596	1598

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	According to Malone.	According to Chalmers.
King Richard II.	1597	1596
King Richard III.	1597	1595
First Part of Henry IV.	1597	1596
Second Part of Henry IV.	1598	1597
Merchant of Venice.	1598	1597
All's Well that Ends Well.	1598	1599
King Henry V.	1599	1597
Much ado about Nothing.	1600	1599
As You Like it	1600	1599
Merry Wives of Windsor	1601	1596
King Henry VIII.	1601	1613
Troilus and Cressida	1602	1600
Measure for Measure	1603	1604
The Winter's Tale	1604	1601
King Lear	1605	1605
Cymbeline	1605	1606
Macheth.	1606	1606
Julius Cæsar	1607	1607
Antony and Cleopatra.	1608	1608
Timon of Athens.	1609	1601
Coriolanus	1610	1609
Othello	1611	1614
The Tempest	1612	1613
Twelfth Night	1614	1613

Shakspeare, like most men of pre-eminent talents, is said to have been much assailed by the attacks of envious rivals, notwithstanding that gentleness and good nature were the peculiar characteristics of his personal deportment. Among those who are said to have treated him with hostility was the celebrated Ben Jonson; but though Jonson was arrogant of his scholarship, and publicly professed a rivalry of Shakspeare, he was in private his friend and associate.

The opposition or rivalry of Shakspeare and Jonson produced, as might naturally be expected, much contention, concerning their relative merits, between their respective friends and admirers; and it is not a little remarkable, that Jonson seems to have maintained a higher place in the estimation of the public in general than our poet, for more than a century after the death of the latter. Within that period Jonson's works are said to have passed through several editions, and to have been read with avidity, while Shakspeare's were comparatively neglected till the time of Rowe. This circumstance is in a great measure to be accounted for on the principle that classical literature and collegiate learning were regarded in those days as the chief criteria of merit. Accordingly Jonson's charge against Shakspeare was the want of that species of knowledge, that "he knew little Latin and less Greek;" and upon his own proficiency in these languages, he arrogated to himself a superiority over him. That all classical scholars, however, did not sanction Jonson's pretensions, is certain; for among the greatest admirers of Shakspeare, was one of the most learned men of his age, Hales. On one occasion, the latter, after listening in silence to a warm debate between Sir John Suckling and Jonson, is reported to have interposed by observing, "that if Shakspeare had not read the ancients, he had likewise not stolen any thing from them; and that if he (Jonson) would produce any one topic finely treated by any one of them, he would undertake to shew something on the same subject, at least as well written, by Shakspeare; which of course could very easily be done."

Shakspeare, unlike most authors of his time, became wealthy. He combined author and actor in his own person; this in some degree alleviated his pecuniary difficulties, and his superlative merits as a poet soon advanced him in the regard of the great and the noble. The players in his time were constantly denominated and treated as servants; and wherever the actor visited his patron's mansion, the only place he expected admittance to, was the *buttery*. On the contrary, the friendship of the poet was frequently sought by the opulent: even noblemen made him their companions, and chose him at once as the object of their bounty and esteem. In this manner, Shakspeare became the bosom associate of

the accomplished Lord Southampton. That nobleman's father-in-law, Sir Thomas Heminge, was treasurer of the queen's chamber, in which capacity it was his duty to reward the actors employed at court; thus plays and players were almost forced upon the notice of Lord Southampton, and the hold theatrical amusements had on his mind, is evident, even at a late period of his life, from his shunning the court for a diurnal attendance at the Globe; his entertainment of Cecil with "plaies;" and his ordering Richard the Second to be performed on the night previous to the rebellion of the Earl of Essex. Shakspeare's intimacy with Southampton commenced when the latter was about twenty years of age, and from the dedication prefixed to *Venus and Adonis* in 1593, it is apparent that their friendship was cemented by great liberality on the part of the patron; for Rowe tells us, on the authority of Davenant, that in order to enable Shakspeare to complete a purchase, Southampton at one time presented him with a thousand pounds, a gift very exorbitant. The tradition derives credit from the wealth which the dramatist is known to have possessed in a few years subsequently to his arrival in London; for it is contrary to probability, that his opulence could have arisen from his emoluments either as actor or author, since all his original productions were sold absolutely to the theatre, and he did not publish his plays; for though some of his dramas were printed in his life-time, this was done surreptitiously, and was at once a fraud on the author and the reader. Of Shakspeare's comparative opulence, however, there can be no doubt: in 1597, he purchased the most respectable mansion in his native Stratford, and went to considerable expence in alterations and repairs.

Several of the nobility, particularly the Earls of Pembroke and Montgomery, vied with Southampton in conferring favours on Shakspeare, and he was distinguished in a most flattering manner by the favour of two successive sovereigns. We are told that the Merry Wives of Windsor (the first draught of which was finished in a fortnight) was written expressly at the command of the *Virgin Queen*, who being highly delighted with Falstaff's humour in Henry the Fourth, wished him to be exhibited under the influence of love. The author's reputation was no doubt increased by the approbation of his royal mistress, which in all likelihood was the only advantage he obtained from her notice. Rowe celebrates "the many gracious marks of her favour" which Shakspeare received; but no traces of any pecuniary reward from her munificence is to be found. In James the First the stage found a warm and generous supporter. In 1599 he gave protection to a company of English comedians in his Scottish capital; and he had no sooner ascended the British throne, than he effected an absolute change in the theatrical world. In the first year of his reign an act of Parliament passed, which took from the nobility the privilege of licensing comedians, and all the smaller companies then existing were immediately united into three regular establishments patronized by the royal family. Though Elizabeth and James were particularly fond of dramatic representations, it does not appear that they ever visited the public theatres; they gratified their taste by commanding the comedians to perform plays at court. These entertainments were usually given at night, an arrangement which suited the actors, as the theatres were generally open in the morning. The ordinary fee for such a performance in London was 6*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, and an additional 3*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* was sometimes added by the royal bounty.

In 1603 Shakspeare, together with Fleteher, Burley and others obtained a licence for the enacting of plays at the Globe Theatre, and he soon became important in the management. It is impossible to estimate his income from this source: we are ignorant into how many shares this theatrical property was divided, nor can we tell what portion was enjoyed by the poet. If, however, he was equal with Hemings, who is joined with him in the licence, we are authorized by his partner to assert that it produced "a good yearly income." This worldly elevation soon induced him to quit the drudgery of an actor, an employment which he

mentions in his sonnets with disgust, and henceforth he seems to have yielded all the powers of his comprehensive mind to the improvement of dramatic literature. The affectionate wish which Shakspeare formed in early life, to return after his brilliant career, to his native Stratford, and die at home, induced him to purchase New Place in 1597. In the pleasure ground of that unassuming mansion, he planted, with his own hand, a mulberry tree, which flourished for many years, and was regarded with reverence. To this favourite spot, in 1613 or 14, he retired from the applauses and the bustle of the world, to the genuine repose and unsophisticated pleasures of a country life. Aubrey informs us that it was our bard's custom to visit Stratford yearly; but, previous to 1596, the place of his residence in London has not been discovered. He then lodged near the Bear Garden in Southwark, and it is not improbable that he remained there till his final retirement from the metropolis.

Shakspeare retired from the metropolis at a period a little past the prime of life. He executed his will, yet extant in the Prerogative Office, on the 25th of March, 1616, and died on the 23d of April, being the 52d anniversary of his birth.

His body was buried on the north of the chancel of the great church at Stratford, and over his remains was erected a flat stone bearing this inscription, supposed, on account of the *my* in the last line, to have been written by himself:—

"Good friend, for Jesus' sake forbear
To dig the dust enclosed here!
Blest be the man that spares these stones,
And curst be he that moves *my* bones."

Many anecdotes of the drunken frolics, and the witticisms of Shakspeare have been handed down by loose tradition. As they are not entertaining, and the evidence they rest on insufficient, we have abstained from inserting them. Our remarks on the general merits of Shakspeare, and on his particular works, are contained in the article *POETRY*.

It would occupy some pages to give even a list of the editions that have been published of this author. His plays have probably had a larger circulation than any book in the world, if we except the Bible, and the demand progressively increases. Yet it is remarkable that we still want a good edition of his works. There are certainly many things in Shakspeare, that require clearing up and explaining, and many others which give scope for interesting and amusing remarks. So that mere reprints of the text, (of which so many have lately been produced) is obviously not enough for enlightened readers. On the other hand the bulky accumulations of the commentators are tedious to all readers, and are too expensive for many. It is astonishing what a deal of obscurity has been created by making difficulties of very obvious things. A printer of the name of Zackariah Jackson, published in 1818, proposals for publishing Seven hundred Errors in Shakspeare, and it is really amusing to see how often by transposing a letter, and dividing two words differently (matters that his business naturally rendered him expert at), he clears up in the simplest manner, points long disputed, or quite unsettled; and there is no doubt that a man of plain sense, proceeding in this way and selecting also from Johnson, Pope, &c., their best remarks, might edit a very desirable edition of Shakspeare at a cheap rate.

SHAKY, *adj.* An appellation given by builders to timber, which is cracked either with the heat of the sun or the drought of the wind. *Chambers*.

SHAL, a district of Balochistan, in Persia, to the south of Kelat. It is remarkable for its fruits, which are very fine, and sold amazingly cheap. The climate is warmer, and the soil more sandy than that of Kelat.

SHALBOURN, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 4 miles south-by-west of Hungerford. Population 807.

SHALBOURN, WEST, a hamlet of England, in Berkshire; within half a mile of the foregoing.

SHALDEN, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 2½ miles north-west of Alton.

SHALE, *s.* [Sax. *scala*, *gluma*.]—A husk; the case of seeds in siliqueous plants.

Behold yon poor and starved hand,
And your fair shew shall suck away their souls,
Leaving them but the *shales* and husks of men. *Shakspeare.*

A black slaty substance, or a clay hardened into a stony consistence, and so much impregnated with bitumen, that it becomes somewhat like a coal. It forms large strata in Derbyshire. *Chambers.*—Coals and aluminous earths, or *shale*. *Philos. Trans.*

To SHALE, *v. a.* To peel; to shell: a northern word. *Grose.*

SHALES, a village of England, situated on the Barbeck, west of Orton.

SHALFLEET, a parish of England, in the Isle of Wight, Southamptonshire. The church is large, and of Norman architecture, with some painted glass in the windows; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-by-south of Yarmouth. Population 709.

SHALFORD, a parish of England, in Essex, situated on the Blackwater; 5 miles north-north-west of Braintree. Population 539.

SHALFORD, a parish of England, in Surrey; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-south-east of Guildford. Population 620.

SHALL, *v. defective.* [*scéal*, Sax. is originally *I owe*, or *I ought*. In Chaucer, the faith *I shall* to God, means, the faith *I owe* to God: thence it became a sign of the future tense. The French use *devoir, dois, doit*, in the same manner, with a kind of future signification; and the Swedes have *skall*, and the Icelanders *skal*, in the same sense. It has no tenses but *shall* future, and *should* imperfect.—The explanation of *shall*, which foreigners and provincials confound with *will*, is not easy.

I SHALL love. It will so be that I must love; I am resolved to love.

SHALL I love? Will it be permitted me to love? will you permit me to love? will it be that I must love?

Thou SHALT love. I command thee to love; it is permitted thee to love: [in poetry or solemn diction] it will be that thou must love.

SHALT thou love? Will it be that thou must love? Will it be permitted to thee to love.

He SHALL love. It will be that he must love; it is commanded him that he love.

It is a mind, that *shall* remain.

——— *Shall* remain!

Hear you this triton of the minnows? Mark you His absolute *shall*? *Shakspeare.*

See Romulus the great:
This prince a priestess of your blood *shall* bear,
And like his sire in arms he shall appear. *Dryden.*

SHALL he love? Is it permitted him to love? In solemn language, will it be that he must love? The plural persons follow the signification of the singulars.

SHALLOON, *s.* [from *Chalons*, a town in Champagne, where this kind of stuff was made.] A slight woollen stuff.

In blue *shalloon* shall Hannibal be clad,
And Scipio trail an Irish purple plaid. *Swift.*

SHALLOP, *s.* [*chaloupe*, Fr.] A small boat.
Our hero set

In a small *shallop*, fortune in his debt. *Waller.*

SHALLOT, *s.* An *eschalot*.

SHALLOT CREEK, a river of North Carolina, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 33. 53. N. long. 78. 28. W.

SHALLOW, *adj.* [this word is probably compounded of *shoal* and *low*. *Dr. Johnson.*] Not deep; having the bottom at no great distance from the surface or edge.—I had been drowned, but that the shore was shelvy and *shallow*; a death that I abhor. *Shakspeare.*—In *shallow* furrows vines securely grow. *Dryden.*—Not intellectually deep; not profound; not very knowing or wise; empty; trifling; futile; silly.

I'll shew my mind,
According to my *shallow* simple skill. *Shakspeare.*

One would no more wonder to see the most *shallow* nation of Europe the most vain, than to find the most empty fellows in every nation more conceited than the rest. *Addison.*—Not deep of sound.—If a virginal were made with a double concave, the one all the length of the virginal, and the other at the end of the strings, as the harp hath, it must make the sound perfecter, and not so *shallow* and jarring. *Bacon.*

SHALLOW, *s.* A shelf; a sand; a flat; a shoal; a place where the water is not deep.

I should not see the sandy hour-glass run,
But I should think of *shallows* and of flats;
And see my wealthy Andrew dock'd in sand,
Veiling her high top lower than her ribs,
To kiss her burial. *Shakspeare*

To SHALLOW, *v. a.* To make shallow.

That thought alone thy state impairs,
Thy lofty sinks, and *shallows* thy profound. *Young.*

SHALLOW WATER, POINT, a cape on the west coast of North America. Lat. 63. N. long. 197. 8. E.

SHALLOW-BRAINED, *adj.* Foolish; futile; trifling; empty.—It cannot but be matter of just indignation to all good men to see a company of lewd *shallow-brained* buffs making atheism, and contempt of religion, the sole badge of wit. *South.*

SHALLOWLY, *adv.* With no great depth.—The load lieth open on the grass, or but *shallowly* covered. *Carew.*—Simply; foolishly.

Most *shallowly* did you these arms commence,
Fondly brought here, and foolishly sent hence. *Shakspeare.*

Want of depth; want of thought; want of understanding; futility; silliness; emptiness.

By it do all things live their measur'd hour:

We cannot ask the thing which is not there,
Blaming the *shallowness* of our request. *Herbert.*

SHALM, *s.* [*scahlmey*, Teut., *chalemie* or *chalemelle*, old Fr., from *calamus*, Lat. Our word is also written and pronounced *shawn*.] A kind of musical pipe.—Every captain was commanded to have his soldiers in readiness to set forward upon the sign given, which was by the sound of a *shalm* or hoboy. *Knolles.*

SHALSTONE, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 4 miles north-west of Buckingham.

SHALT. Second person of *shall*.

To SHAM, *v. a.* [*shommi*, Welsh, to cheat. *Dr. Johnson.*—Or from the Teut., *schimpen*, to jeer, to scoff; *schimp*, joke, sport.] To trick; to cheat; to fool with a fraud; to delude with false pretences. *A low word.*—Men tender in point of honour, and yet with little regard to truth, are sooner wrought upon by shame than by conscience, when they find themselves fooled and *shammed* into a conviction. *L'Estrange.*—To obtrude by fraud or folly.—We must have a care that we do not, for want of laying things and things together, *sham* fallacies upon the world, for current reason. *L'Estrange.*

To SHAM, *v. n.* To make mocks.

Then all your wits that flee and *sham*,
Down from Don Quixote to Tom Tram,
From whom I jests and puns purloin,
And slyly put them off for mine,
Fond to be thought a country wit. *Prior.*

SHAM, *s.* Fraud; trick; delusion; false pretence; imposture. *A low word.*

That in the sacred temple needs would try
Without a fire the unheated gums to fry,
Believe who will the solemn *sham*, not I. *Addison.*

SHAM, *adj.* False; counterfeit; fictitious; pretended.

Never join the fray,
Where the *sham* quarrel interrupts the way. *Gay.*

SHAMBE, a small river of West Florida, which empties into

into Pensacola Bay. It admits shallows some miles up, and boats upwards of 50 miles.

SHA'MBLES, *s.* [from the Sax., *rcamel*, a bench or table, on which the meat is laid.] The place where butchers kill or sell their meat; a butchery.—He warned a flock of sheep, that were driving to the *shambles*, of their danger; and, upon uttering some sounds, they all fled. *Arbuthnot.*

SHA'MBLING, *s.* Act of moving awkwardly and irregularly. *A low bad word.*—By that *shambling* in his walk, it should be my rich banker, Gomez, whom I knew at Barcelona. *Dryden.*

SHA'MBLING, *adj.* Moving awkwardly and irregularly. So when nurse Nokes to act young Ammon tries, With *shambling* legs, long chin, and foolish eyes, With dangling hands he strokes th' imperial robe, And with a cuckold's air commands the globe. *Smith.*

SHAMBURG, a township of the United States, in Washington county, Mississippi.

SHAME, *s.* [*rceam rcama*, Sax., *skam*, Su Goth., from *skaman*, M. Goth., *erubescere*, to blush. *Serenius.*]—The passion felt when reputation is supposed to be lost; the passion expressed sometimes by blushes.—In the schools men are allowed, without *shame*, to deny the agreement of ideas; or out of the schools, from thence have learned, without *shame*, to deny the connection of ideas. *Locke.*—The cause or reason of shame; disgrace; ignominy.

O *shame* to manhood! shall one daring boy
The scheme of all our happiness destroy? *Pope.*

Reproach; infliction of shame.—A foul *shame* is upon the thief. *Ecclus.*

Applause

Turn'd to exploding hiss, triumph to *shame*,
Cast on themselves from their own mouths. *Milton.*

To SHAME, *v. a.* To make ashamed; to fill with shame. Who *shames* a scribbler, breaks a cobweb through; He spins the slight self-pleasing thread a-new. *Pope.*

To disgrace.

Certes, sir knight, ye been too much to blame,
Thus for to blot the honour of the dead,
And with foul cowardice his carcass *shame*. *Spenser.*

To SHAME, *v. n.* To be ashamed.

Great shame it is, thing so divine in view,
Made for to be the world's most ornament,
To make the bait her gazers to embrew;
Good *shames* to be to ill an instrument. *Spenser.*

SHA'MEFACED, *adj.* [*rcamfært*, Sax. And so our word was anciently *shamfast* and *shamefastness*.] Modest; bashful; easily put out of countenance.—Conscience is a blushing *shamefaced* spirit, that mutinies in a man's bosom; it fills one full of obstacles. *Shakspeare.*

SHA'MEFACEDLY, *adv.* Modestly; bashfully.—He would have us live soberly, that is to say, honestly, *shamefastly*, chastely, temperately and frugally. *Woolton.*

SHA'MEFACEDNESS, *s.* Modesty; bashfulness; timidity.—None but fools out of *shamefacedness*, hide their ulcers, which, if shown, might be healed. *Dryden.*

SHA'MEFUL, *adj.* Disgraceful; ignominious; infamous; reproachful.

The knave of diamonds tries his wily arts,
And wins, O *shameful* chance! the queen of hearts. *Pope.*

Full of indignity or indecency; raising shame in another.

Phœbus flying so most *shameful* sight,
His blushing face in foggy cloud implies,
And hides for shame. *Spenser.*

SHA'MEFULLY, *adv.* Disgracefully; ignominiously; infamously; reproachfully.—Those who are ready enough to confess him, both in judgment and profession, are, for the most part, very prone to deny him *shamefully* in their

doings. *South.*—With indignity; with indecency; so as ought to cause shame.

None but that saw, quoth he, would ween for truth,
How *shamefully* that maid he did torment. *Spenser.*

SHA'MELESS, *adj.* [*rcamleas*, Sax.] Wanting shame; wanting modesty; impudent; frontless; immodest; audacious.

Such *shameless* bards we have; and yet 'tis true,
There are as mad abandon'd critics too. *Pope.*

SHA'MELESSLY, *adv.* Impudently; audaciously; without shame.—He must needs be *shamelessly* wicked that abhors not this licentiousness. *Hale.*

SHA'MELESSNESS, *s.* [*rcamleagneffe*, Sax.] Impudence; want of shame; immodesty.—He that blushes not at his crime, but add *shamelessness* to his shame, hath nothing left to restore him to virtue. *Bp. Taylor.*

SHA'MER, *s.* Whoever or whatever makes ashamed. My means and my condition are no *shamers*
Of him that owes 'em. *Bœaum.*

SHAMLY, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Saharunpore. This place is nearly two miles in circumference, and was formerly of considerable consequence. It still contains some good houses. The bazars are well stocked. The streets are regular, and have gates at their entrances, which are shut at night to defend the inhabitants against robbers, with which the neighbouring country was, till it came into the British possession, much infested. Lat. 29. 33. N. long. 77. 10. E.

SHA'MMER, *s.* A cheat; an impostor. *A low word.*

SHA'MOIS, *s.* [*chamois*, Fr.] A kind of wild goat. See CHAMOIS.

I'll bring thee
To clustering filberds, and sometimes I'll get thee
Young *shamois* from the rocks. *Shakspeare.*

SHAMOKIN, a Moravian settlement in Pennsylvania, near Sunbury.

SHAMOKIN, CREEK, a river of Pennsylvania, which runs into the Susquehanna. Lat. 40. 51. N. long. 76. 53. W.

SHA'MROCK, *s.* The Irish name for three-leaved grass.—If they found a plot of watercresses or *shamrocks*, there they flocked as to a feast for the time. *Spenser.*

SHANDAKIN, a township of the United States, in Ulster county, New York; 20 miles west of Kingston. Population 1602.

SHANEDI, a village of Nubia, on the right bank of the Nile.

SHANESVILLE, a village of the United States, in Tuscarawas county, Ohio, on Sugar creek, recently laid out.

SHANGALLA, a race of savage negroes, inhabiting the northern frontier of Abyssinia, particularly on the lower part of the Mareb and the Tacazze. The track which they occupy consists of a belt varying in breadth, though averaging about 40 miles. Numberless streams, descending from the high country, water and inundate it, producing a rank excess of vegetation, which unfits it for the production of any useful vegetable. It is entirely covered with deep and almost impenetrable forests, fit only for the production of wild animals, and still wilder men. The Shangalla are complete savages, who go naked, neither sow nor plant, and have no fixed habitations. During the dry half of the year, they live under the shade of trees, the lowest branches of which they cut near the stem, on the upper part, planting the ends of the branches in the earth. Having then covered them with the skins of wild beasts, and cut away the superfluous interior branches, they form a spacious pavilion, which at a distance appears like a tent, the trunk serving for the pole, and the large top overshadowing it, so as to make a very picturesque appearance. During this season, every tree is a house, peopled by a family of black inhabitants. In the time of the rainy season, the soil dissolves so completely into mire, that it is no longer possible to live above

above ground. The Shangalla then seek their winter quarters in caves dug in the heart of the mountains, from a soft gritty sandstone, easily excavated, and formed into different apartments. Here they make their abode during the rainy months, living upon the flesh which they have dried and prepared during the more favourable season. Their food is procured by hunting. The elephant is taken and killed by various devices, as is the rhinoceros, and the other large animals. Those who reside where water abounds, kill the hippopotami or river horses, which are exceedingly numerous in the pools of the stagnant rivers. In sandy tracks, ostriches, and a beautiful species of lizard, form the principal food. Some feed chiefly upon locusts; others live in districts abounding with a considerably greater variety of game. These various tribes have been correctly described by Ptolemy, according to their food, under the titles of Rhizophagi, Elephantophagi, Acridophagi, &c. The meat thus caught in the fair season is cut into thongs as thick as a man's thumb, like so many ropes, and hung up on the surrounding trees. The sun dries and hardens it almost to the consistence of leather, or the hardest Newfoundland fish. In winter, when preparing it for use, they first beat it with a wooden mallet, then boil it, and then roast it upon the embers. The Shangalla are subject to little subordination, though there is an union of families and tribes for common defence in danger. They are continually exposed to a most serious calamity during the dry season; this being the only part of Abyssinia favourable for hunting, the princes undertake expeditions on a great scale for that purpose. Along with the elephant and rhinoceros, they hunt also the Shangalla, for the purpose of carrying them off as slaves. These unfortunate savages, destitute both of horses and fire-arms, maintain a very unequal warfare; yet by their native valour they often prevail, and have even invaded and occupied the neighbouring provinces of Tigre.

SHANK, *s.* [*œcanc*, *œcanc*, *Sax.*, *schink*, *Germ.*, *sehenkel*, *Dutch.*] The middle joint of the leg; that part which reaches from the ankle to the knee.—A stag says, if these pitiful *shanks* of mine were but answerable to this branching head, I can't but think how I should defy all my enemies. *L'Estrange*.—The bone of the leg.

Shut me nightly in a charnel-house,
O'er cover'd quite with dead men's rattling bones,
With reeky *shanks*, and yellow chapless skulls. *Shakspeare*.

Leg or support of any thing.—In Somersetshire they have a way of setting their mows of corn on a frame, standing upon four stones cut with a *shank*. *Ray*.—The long part of any instrument.—The *shank* of a key, or some such long hole, the punch cannot strike, because the *shank* is not forged with substance sufficient. *Moxon*.—[*bryonia*, *Lat.*] An herb.

SHANK, the Shanscrit name of that species of shell, which gives its name in Europe to this branch of natural history. French and foreign writers spell the word *chank*. The easy substitution of a hard for a soft initial, has led to a supposition that *conch* may, by early writers, have been taken from the same source as *shank*, or even derived from it. The *shank*, or *chank*, or *conch*, is the large buccinum, and is often seen beautifully coloured like a pheasant's breast.

The shells in question are articles of commerce in India, to no inconsiderable extent. A *chank* fishery on the island of Ceylon is noticed by Mr. Cordiner. It is in the neighbourhood of Manaar (see MANAAR), and yields, Mr. Cordiner says, a considerable revenue to government. The shells, he says, are brought from the depth of two fathoms by divers, who in a calm day can, from a boat, see them crawling at the bottom. Such as are of a spiral form, are chiefly exported to Bengal, where they are sawed into rings of various sizes, and worn on the arms, legs, fingers and toes of the Hindoos, both male and female. A *chank* opening to the right, that is, with its spiral line contrary to its usual direction, is rarely met with, and is highly valued by mystics and zealots.

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SHANK, or SHANK-PAINTER, in a Ship, is a short chain fastened under the foremast-shrouds, by a bolt, to the ship's sides, having at the other end a rope fastened to it. On this shank-painter the whole weight of the aft-part of the anchor rests, when it lies by the ship's side. The rope by which it is hauled up, is made fast about a timber-head.

SHANK, SHEEP, a sort of knot made on backstays, &c., to shorten them.

SHANK'S ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, about 15 miles from east to west, and 18 from north to south; discovered in 1802. Lat. 28. S. long. 163. E.

SHA'NKED, *adj.* Having a shank.

SHA'NKER, or CHA'NCRE. A venereal excrescence.

SHANKLIN, a parish of England, in the Isle of Wight, Southamptonshire; 7 miles south-east of Newport.

SHANNON, the chief river in Ireland, which takes its rise from Lough Clean, and pursuing a south and south-west direction, divides the provinces of Leinster and Munster from Connaught. It passes Limerick, where it turns nearly to the west, and 60 miles below this city, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, between Kerry Head and Cape Lean, after a course of 200 miles. It is navigable nearly to Limerick for ships of the greatest burden, and for smaller vessels throughout the whole extent of its course. It traverses several large lakes, and forms many extensive bays and estuaries, interspersed with beautiful islands. The largest lakes through which it passes, are Lough Boffin, Lough Ree or Regith, and Lough Derg or Dergart. The first, which is about 10 square miles in extent, is situated at the confines of the counties of Leitrim, Longford and Roscommon. Lough Ree extends nearly from Lanesborough to Athlone, a distance of about 16 miles, and is from two to five miles in breadth: it contains above fifty islands, many of which are covered with wood and good pasture. Lough Derg is 18 miles long, and from 2 to 7 broad: it is diversified with about sixty islands, one of which, called Innismore, contains above a hundred acres of good land; and on another, called the Holy Island, are the ruins of seven churches, and a round tower. This lake extends nearly from Portumna to Killaloe. There is also below Limerick, at the confluence of the Fergus river, an immense estuary or frith, of many square miles in extent, interspersed with several rich and romantic islands. The Shannon receives above thirty other rivers in its course, and diffuses verdure and fertility over the banks of ten counties, namely, Leitrim, Roscommon, Galway and Clare, on the right; and on the left Longford, Westmeath, King's County, Tipperary, Limerick and Kerry. The principal rivers that fall in from the right bank, or Connaught side, are the Key, Suck, Scariff and Fergus. The confluence of the Key is at Carrick, and the Suck, which divides the counties of Roscommon and Galway, flows in at Clonfert, above Banagher. Several smaller rivers fall in from the county of Galway; and from Clare flow the Scariff and Fergus; but the great weight of water comes from the other side, by rivers running from east to west. The Inny is the first great river on the left bank: it is the boundary between the counties of Longford and Westmeath, and falls into Lough Ree, where it forms a large estuary. The second river on this side is the Great Brosna, which forms a fine confluence with the Shannon above Banagher; and the Lesser Brosna, united with the Birr river, falls in a few miles below that town. From hence to Limerick many smaller rivers flow in on the Ormond side, and below that city there are some larger ones: the principal are the Maig, Deel, Ovan, Cummage, Feale, Gale and Cashin. Several of the above are navigable to a considerable distance from the Shannon. From such an accumulation of rivers, lakes and springs, the mouth of the Shannon is increased to an immense magnitude, being nearly 10 miles in breadth for the last 15 miles, and from 20 to 30 fathoms deep. The principal towns situated on its banks are Leitrim, Carrick, Jamestown, Lanesborough, Athlone, Banagher, Portumna, Killaloe, Castleconnel, Tarbert and Kilrush; besides the city of Limerick, which it encompasses by different branches, and in some measure insulates. The tides in the mouth of the Shannon rise from 9 to 14 feet perpendicular

pendicular height; and they increase as the river becomes narrower, insomuch that at the pool of Limerick they are from 12 to 20 feet high. The current of the tide varies considerably in different parts of the stream, running at the rate of from two to five miles an hour. It is not, however, perceptible far above the city, owing to several cataracts. There are many fine bays on the Clare side, which afford safe anchorage and good shelter for shipping. The principal are Kilbahan, Carigahault, Clonderlaw and Labisheda, besides the commodious harbour of Poolanishary, near Kilrush, and Tarbert bay on the Kerry side. The navigation between the Upper and Lower Shannon was formerly impeded by the noted cataract near Castleconnel, called the Salmon Leap; but of late years canals have been drawn round this rock, as well as others called the Falls. An important communication has been likewise opened between the Shannon and Dublin, by means of the Grand Canal, which forms its junction above Banagher. The Shannon nearly insulates Connaught with the county of Clare; and if a canal of about four miles in length were cut from Lough Clare to the river Bonnet, which falls into Sligo Bay, the insular boundary would be complete, and the Shannon rendered navigable from sea to sea. The bridges over this river are chiefly at the forementioned towns, but there are none below Limerick. In this city there are three, one of which, called Thomond bridge, contains 14 arches; and about 10 miles higher is O'Brian's bridge, which has 19 arches. The fisheries on the Shannon are numerous and productive, particularly for salmon, which is of the finest flavour. Pikes are also numerous, and rise to the weight of 50lbs. each; trout, bream, eel, gillaroos, &c., are large and abundant; and perch are plentiful.

SHANNON, a small river of Upper Canada, which falls into the bay of Quinti, in Lake Ontario.

SHANSCRIT, SANSKRIT, *Samskrit*, *Samscretam*, or *Hanscrit language*, is the original language of the Hindoos or Gentoos.

The grand source of Indian literature, the parent of almost every dialect, from the Persian gulf to the China seas, says the learned Halhed, in the Preface to his Grammar of the Bengal Language, is the Shanscrit; a language of the most venerable and unfathomable antiquity, which, although at present shut up in the libraries of Bramins, and appropriated solely to the records of their religion, appears to have been current over most part of the oriental world; and traces of its original extent may still be discovered in almost every district of Asia. It is astonishing to find the similitude of Shanscrit words with those of Persian and Arabic, and even of Latin and Greek; and those not in technical and metaphorical terms, which the fluctuation of refined arts and improved manners might have occasionally introduced; but in the main ground-work of language, in monosyllables, in the names of numbers, and in the appellations of such things as would be first discriminated in the immediate dawn of civilization. The coins of Assam, Napaul, Cashmere, and many other kingdoms, are all stamped with Shanscrit letters, and mostly contain allusions to the old Shanscrit mythology: the same conformity is also observable in the impressions of seals from Bootan and Thibet. Besides, the arrangement of the Shanscrit alphabet is very different from that of any other quarter of the world. This extraordinary mode of combination still exists in the greatest part of the East, from the Indus to Pergu, in dialects now apparently unconnected, and in characters completely dissimilar; and affords a forcible argument that they are all derived from the same source. Moreover, the names of persons and places, of titles and dignities, which are open to general notice, and which are found even to the furthest limits of Asia, present manifest traces of the Shanscrit.

Shanscrita is the passive participle of a compound verb, formed by prefixing the preposition *sam* to the crude verb *cri*, and by interposing the letter *s*, when this compound is used in the sense of embellishment. Its literal meaning then is "adorned;" and when applied to a language, it signifies "polished." *Pracrita* is a similar derivative from the same

crude verb, with *pra* prefixed: the most common acceptation of this word is "outcast, or man of the lowest class:" as applied to a language, it signifies "vulgar." *Apabhhransa* is derived from *bhras*, to fall down: it signifies a word, or dialect, which falls off from correct etymology. Grammarians use the *Sanscrita* as signifying "duly formed or regularly inflected;" and *Apabhhransa* for false grammar.

The languages of India are all comprehended in these three classes. The first contains Shanscrit, a most polished tongue, which was gradually refined until it became fixed in the classic writings of many elegant poets, most of whom are supposed to have flourished in the century preceding the Christian era. It is cultivated by learned Hindoos throughout India, as the language of science and of literature, and as the repository of their law, civil and religious. It evidently draws its origin (and some steps of its progress may even now be traced) from a primeval tongue, which was gradually refined in various climates, and became Shanscrit in India; Pahlavi in Persia; and Greek on the shores of the Mediterranean. Like other very ancient languages, Shanscrit abounds in inflexions, which are, however, more anomalous in this, than in the other languages here alluded to; and which are even more so in the obsolete dialect of the Vedas, than in the polished speech of the classic poets. It has nearly shared the fate of other tongues, and is now become almost a dead language; but there seems no good reason for doubting, that it was once universally spoken in India. Its name, and the reputed difficulty of its grammar, have led many persons to imagine, that it has been refined by the concerted efforts of a few priests, who set themselves about inventing a new language; not like all other tongues, by the gradually improved practice of good writers and polite speakers. The exquisitely refined system by which the grammar of Shanscrit is taught, has been mistaken for the refinement of the language itself. The rules have been supposed to be anterior to the practice, but this supposition is gratuitous. In Shanscrit, as in every other known tongue, grammarians have not invented etymology, but have only contrived rules to teach what was already established by approved practice.

There is one peculiarity of Shanscrit compositions which may also have suggested the opinion, that it could never be a spoken language. Mr. Colebrooke alludes to what might be termed the euphonical orthography of Shanscrit. It consists in extending to syntax the rules for the permutation of letters in etymology. Similar rules for avoiding incompatible sounds in compound terms exist in all languages; this is sometimes effected by a deviation from orthography in the pronunciation of words, sometimes by altering one or more letters to make the spelling correspond with the pronunciation. These rules have been more profoundly investigated by Hindoo grammarians than by those of any other nation, and they have completed a system of orthography, which may be justly termed euphonical. They require all compound terms to be reduced to this standard, and Shanscrit authors, it may be observed, delight in compounds of inordinate length; the whole sentence too, or even whole periods, may, at the pleasure of the author, be combined like the elements of a single word, and good writers generally do so. In common speech this could never have been practised. None but well-known compounds would be used by any speaker who wished to be understood, and each word would be distinctly articulated, independently of the terms which precede and follow it. Such indeed is the present practice of those who still speak the Shanscrit language; and they deliver themselves with such fluency as is sufficient to prove, that Shanscrit may have been spoken in former times with as much facility as the contemporary dialects of the Greek language, or the more modern dialects of the Arabic tongue.

The father of Shanscrit grammar, who first composed those grammatical institutes in which this language is formed, or by which words are correctly formed or inflected, was Panini, who lived in so remote an age, that he ranks among those ancient sages, whose fabulous history occupies a conspicuous place

place in the "Puranas," or Indian theogonies. According to the Puranica legends, Panini was the grandson of Devala, an inspired legislator; but whatever may be his history, to him the Sutras, or succinct aphorisms of grammar, are attributed by universal consent.

His system is grounded on a profound investigation of the analogies in both the regular and the anomalous inflexions of the Shanscrit language. He has combined those analogies in a very artificial manner; and has thus compressed a most copious etymology into a very narrow compass. His precepts are indeed numerous, but they have been framed with the utmost conciseness; and this great brevity is the result of very ingenious methods which have been contrived for this end, and for the purpose of assisting the student's memory. In Panini's system the mutual relation of all the parts marks that it must have been completed by its author; it certainly bears internal evidence of its having been accomplished by a single effort, and even the corrections, which are needed, cannot be interwoven with the text. It must not be hence inferred, that Panini was unaided by the labours of earlier grammarians; in many of his precepts he cites the authority of his predecessors, sometimes for a deviation from a general rule, often for a grammatical canon which has universal cogency. He has even employed some technical terms without defining them, because, as his commentators remark, those terms were already introduced by earlier grammarians. None of the more ancient works, however, seem to be now extant; being superseded by his, they have probably been disused for ages, and are now perhaps totally lost.

The inaccuracies of the Paniniya grammar were corrected by Catyayana, an inspired saint and lawgiver, whose history is involved in the impenetrable darkness of mythology. The amended rules of grammar have been formed into memorial verses by Bhartri-hari, whose metrical aphorisms, entitled "Carica," have almost equal authority with the precepts of Panini, and emendations of Catyayana. Bhartri-hari is said to have lived in the century preceding the Christian era. The text of Panini being concise and ambiguous, many commentaries were composed to elucidate it, of the chief of which Mr. Colebrooke has given an account. The best and most concise commentary now extant, is entitled the "Casica vritti," or commentary composed at Varanasi. Within a few centuries past, a grammar, well adapted for aiding the student in acquiring a critical knowledge of the Shanscrit tongue, has been compiled by Ramachandra, entitled "Pracriyacaumudi."

When Shanscrit was the language of Indian courts, and was cultivated not only by persons who devoted themselves to religion and literature; but also by princes, lawyers, soldiers, physicians and scribes; in short, by the first three tribes, and by many classes included in the fourth; an easy and popular grammar must have been needed by persons who could not waste the best years of their lives in the study of words. Such grammars must always have been in use; those, however, which are now studied are not, we believe, of very ancient date. The most esteemed is the "Saraswata," together with its commentary named "Chandrica." It seems to have been formed on one of the Caumudis, by translating Panini's rules into language that is intelligible, independently of the gloss, and without the necessity of adverting to a different context.

Another popular grammar, which is in high repute in Bengal, is entitled "Mugd'habod'ha," and is accompanied by a commentary. It is the work of Vopadeva, and proceeds upon a plan grounded on that of the Caumudis; but the author has not been content to translate the rules of Panini, and to adopt his technical terms. He has, on the contrary, invented new terms, and contrived new abbreviations. The same author likewise composed a metrical catalogue of verbs alphabetically arranged. It is named "Cavicalpadruma," and is inteded as a substitute for the "D'hatupata."

The best and most esteemed vocabulary of the Shanscrit is the "Amera cosha," which, like most other Shanscrit

dictionaries, is arranged in verse to aid the memory. Numerous commentaries have been written on this vocabulary; the chief object of which is to explain the derivations of the nouns, and to supply the principal deficiencies of the text. Shanscrit etymologists scarcely acknowledge a single primitive amongst the nouns. When unable to trace an etymology which may be consistent with the acceptation of the word, they are content to derive it according to grammatical rules from some root to which the word has no affinity in sense. At other times they adopt fanciful etymologies from Puranas or from Tantras. But in general the derivations are accurate and instructive.

Amera's dictionary does not contain more than ten thousand different words. Yet the Shanscrit language is very copious. The insertion of derivatives, that do not at all deviate from their regular and obvious import, has been very properly deemed superfluous. Compound epithets, and other compound terms, in which the Shanscrit language is peculiarly rich, are likewise omitted; excepting such as are especially appropriated, by a limited acceptation, either as titles of deities, or as names of plants, animals, &c. In fact, compound terms are formed at pleasure, according to the rules of grammar; and must generally be interpreted in strict conformity with those rules. Technical terms too are mostly excluded from general dictionaries, and consigned to separate nomenclatures. The "Ameracosh" then is less defective than might be inferred from the small number of words explained in it. Still, however, it needs a supplement. The remaining deficiencies of the Ameracosh are supplied by consulting other dictionaries and vocabularies, which are very numerous.

The Shanscrit language is very copious and nervous; but the style of the best authors wonderfully concise. It far exceeds the Greek and Arabic in the variety of its etymology, and, like them, has a prodigious number of derivatives from each primary root. The grammatical rules are also numerous and difficult, though there are not many anomalies. "The Shanscrit language," says Sir William Jones, (Asiat. Res. vol. i. p. 422.) "whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure, more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin, and more exquisitely refined than either; yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs, and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong, indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perhaps, no longer exists. There is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic, though blended with a very different idiom, had the same origin with the Shanscrit, and the old Persian might be added to the same family."

The fundamental part of the Shanscrit language is divided into three classes; viz., *dhaat*, or roots of verbs, *shabd*, or original nouns, and *evya*, or particles. The latter are always indeclinable, as in other nations; but the words comprehended in the two former classes must be prepared by certain additions and inflexions to fit them for a place in composition. Here the art of the grammarian interposes, as not a syllable, nor a letter, can be added or altered but by regimen, nor the most trifling variation of the sense in the minutest subdivision of declension or conjugation can be effected without the application of several rules; and all the different forms for every change of gender, number, case, person, tense, mood or degree, are methodically arranged for the assistance of the memory; resembling, though on an infinitely more extensive scale, the compilations of *propria que maribus* and *as in present*.

In the Shanscrit language, the three distinctions of genders, viz., masculine, feminine, and neuter, are preserved in their common number and order. A Shanscrit noun, in its first formation from the general root, exists equally independent of case as of gender. It is neither nominative, nor genitive, nor accusative, nor is impressed with any of those modifications, which mark the relation and connexion between the several members of a sentence. In this state it is called an *imperfect*

imperfect, or *crude* noun. To make a nominative to any noun, the termination must be changed, and a new form supplied. Thus we see that, in the Shanscrit at least, the nominative has an equal right with any other inflexion to be called case. The Shanscrit has seven declensions of nouns, which are all used in the singular, dual and plural number, and differently formed, as they terminate with a consonant, and with a long or short vowel; and also as they are of different genders. The seven changes of inflexion are exclusive of the vocative, and therefore the Shanscrit comprehends two more than even those of the Latin: they are as follow, viz.:—1. The nominative, or *agent* in a sentence. 2. The passive case, or *subject* of the action. 3. The *causal* case, pointing out the cause *by* which a thing is done; or the instrument *with* which it is done; or the subject *in* or *by* which it is suffered. 4. The dative, with the sign *to* or *for*. 5. The ablative, implying the subject *from* whence any thing proceeds. 6. The *possessive* case, called by us the genitive. 7. The *locative* case, definitive of situation, and generally known by the sign *in*. The vocative is excluded from the number of cases, as no inflexion is employed in its formation.

The Shanscrit, the Arabic, the Greek, and the Latin verbs are furnished with a set of inflexions and terminations so comprehensive, and so complete, that by their form alone they can express all the different distinctions both of person and time. Three separate qualities are in them perfectly blended and united. Thus by their root, they denote a particular act; and by their inflexion, both point out the time when it takes place, and number of the agents. Every Shanscrit verb has a form equivalent to the middle voice of the Greek, used through all the tenses with a reflective sense; and the former is even the most extensive of the two in its use and offices; for in Greek the reflective idea can only be adopted intransitively, when the action of the verb descends to no extraneous subject; but in Shanscrit the verb is both reciprocal and transitive at the same time. The verb substantive of the Shanscrit very nearly resembles those of the Greek and Latin; but perhaps it would not be suspected that all the verbs in *mi* are formed exactly upon the same principle with the Shanscrit conjugations, even in the minutest particulars. All the terms which serve to qualify, to distinguish, or to augment either *substance* or *action*, are classed by the Shanscrit grammarians under a head, literally signifying *increase* or *addition*. According to this arrangement, a simple sentence consists of three numbers: the agent, the action, and the subject; which, in a grammatical sense, are reduced to two, viz., the noun (whether agent or subject) and the verb. All such words as tend to specificate or to amplify the noun, are denominated by a term which signifies *adjectives* or *epithets*; and such as are applied to denote relation or connexion, are called *connectives of nouns*, and by European grammarians, *prepositions*; those particles which in any manner affect the verb are denominated *attributes of verbs*.

The Shanscrit alphabet contains fifty letters; and it is one boast of the Bramins, that it exceeds all other alphabets in this respect. But when we consider that of their thirty-four consonants, nearly half are combined sounds, and that six of their vowels are merely the correspondent long ones to as many which are short, the advantage seems to be little more than imaginary. The Shanscrit character, used in Upper Hindoostan, is said to be the same original letter that was first delivered to the people by Brihma, and is called *Diewnagur*, or the language of angels; whereas the character used by the Bramins of Bengal is by no means so ancient, and is evidently a corruption of the former. In the four beids, or *vedas*, which constitute the original and sacred text of the great Hindoo creator and legislator Brihma, the length of the vowels is expressed by a musical note or sign placed over every word; and in reading the beids, these distinctions of tone and time must be nicely observed; so that they produce all the effect of a laboured recitative. It is remarkable, that the Jews in their synagogues chant the Pentateuch in the same kind of melody, and it is supposed that this usage has descended to them from the remotest ages. Some

writers have erroneously asserted, that the four beids are *in* verse; whereas they are written in a kind of measured prose; and they are now scarcely intelligible to the most learned pundits or lawyers; they are also scarce, and difficult to be found. However, comments have been written upon them from the earliest periods; of which one of the most ancient and approved was composed by Bishesht Mahamomè, or the Most Wise, a great writer and prophet, who is said to have lived in the suttee jogue, or first age of the world. See Halhed's Preface to his translation of the Code of Gentoo Laws, printed in 1776.

Dr. Leyden, in his account of the languages and literature of the Indo-Chinese nations, (*Asiatic Researches*, vol. x.) has shewn, that the "Pali," as it is generally written, or "Bali" language, as it is commonly pronounced, occupies the same place among the Indo-Chinese nations, which Shanscrit holds among the Hindoos, or Arabic among the followers of Islam. Throughout the greater part of the maritime countries, which lie between India and China, it is the language of religion, law, literature and science, and has had an extensive influence in modifying the vernacular language of those regions. La Loubere, on the authority of d'Herbelot, has stated that the ancient Persic language was termed *Pahalevi* (*Pahlavi*), and that the Persians do not distinguish in writing between *Pahali* and *Bahali*. P. Paulinus, however, applies this term *Bali* inaccurately to the square *Bali* character, instead of the language. This language, notwithstanding its extensive use among so many nations, and the degree of cultivation which it has received from the different tribes by whom it is employed, has hitherto attracted little attention among Europeans. The *Bali* alphabet, according to Dr. Leyden, seems, in its origin, to be a derivative from the *Deva-nagari*, though it has not only acquired considerable difference of form, but has been also modified to a certain degree, in the power of the letters, by the monosyllabic pronunciation of the Indo-Chinese nations. The form of the *Bali* character varies essentially among the different nations by whom it is used.

The *Bali* is an ancient dialect of Shanscrit, which sometimes approaches very near the original. When allowance is made for the regular interchange of certain letters, the elision of harsh consonants, and the contraction of similar syllables, all the vocables which occur in its ancient books, seem to be purely Shanscrit. In *Cheritas* and later compositions, however, some words of the popular languages of the country sometimes insinuate themselves, in the same manner as *Tamul*, *Telinga*, and *Canara* vocables occasionally occur, in the latter Shanscrit compositions of the *Dekhin*. The *Bali*, while it retains almost the whole extent of Shanscrit flexions, both in nouns and verbs, nevertheless employs this variety rather sparingly in composition, and affects the frequent introduction of the preterite participle, and the use of impersonal verbs. It also uses the cases of nouns in a more indeterminate manner than the Shanscrit, and often confounds the active, neuter, and passive tenses of verbs. Like other derivative dialects, it occasionally uses Shanscrit nouns and particles in an oblique sense; but notwithstanding all these circumstances, it approaches much nearer the pure Shanscrit, than any other dialect, and exhibits a close affinity to the *Prakrit*, and the *Zend*.

These three dialects, the *Prakrit*, the *Bali*, and the *Zend*, are probably the most ancient derivatives from the Shanscrit. The great mass of vocables in all the three, and even the forms of flexions, both in verbs and nouns, are derived from the Shanscrit, according to regular laws of elision, contraction, and permutation of letters. Sometimes they differ considerably, sometimes one, and sometimes another of them approaches nearest to the original Shanscrit. Their connection with this parent language was perceived, and pointed out by Sir W. Jones, and has also been alluded to by P. Paulinus, who derives his information, concerning the *Bali*, from *Carpanius*, and *Mantegatius*. The fate of these three languages is also, in some degree, similar. The *Prakrit* is the language which contains the greater part of the sacred books of the *Jainas*; the *Bali* is equally revered among the followers

Followers of Budd'ha; while the Zend, or sacred language of ancient Iran, has long enjoyed a similar rank among the Parsis, or worshippers of fire, and been the depository of the sacred books of Zoroaster. It is perhaps, however, more accurate to consider all the three, rather as different dialects of the same derivative language, than as different languages; and conformably to this idea, the Bali itself may be reckoned a dialect of Prakrit. The term Prakrit, both in books, and in common use among the Bramins, is employed with some degree of latitude. Sometimes the term is confined to a particular dialect employed by the Jains, as the language of religion and science, and appropriated to females, and respectable characters of an inferior class, in dramas. Sometimes it includes all the dialects derived immediately from the Shanscrit, whether denominated Prakrit, Magad'hi, Suraseni, Paisachi, or Apabbransa; and sometimes it is even extended to the Desa-b'hashas, or popular tongues of India, as Mahrasht or Mahratta, Canara, Telinga, Udia and Bengali. According to the extended use of the term Prakrit, it may certainly include both Bali and Zend; and if more extensive research should justify the idea derived from an imperfect investigation, Dr. Leyden apprehends that the Bali may be identified with the Magad'hi, and the Zend with the Suraseni; of Shanscrit authors.

These three dialects, the Prakrit, Bali and Zend, have been regularly cultivated and fixed by composition. The same laws of derivation are applicable to the formation of all the three; but yet there is often considerable diversity in the forms which particular words assume, as appears from the comparative specimen given by Dr. Leyden.

The learned Mr. Colebrooke has published in the 10th volume of the Asiatic Researches, an elaborate essay on Shanscrit and Prakrit poetry. He observes, that the prosody of Shanscrit will be found, from the examples which he has adduced, to be richer than that of any other known language, in variations of metre, regulated either by quantity or by number of syllables, both with and without rhyme, and subject to laws imposing in some instances rigid restrictions, in others allowing ample latitude. The rules relative to Prakrit prosody, are applicable, for the most part, to Shanscrit prosody also; since the laws of versification in both languages are nearly the same.

Shanscrit prosody admits of two sorts of metre; one governed by the number of syllables; and which is mostly uniform or monoschematic in profane poetry, but altogether arbitrary in various metrical passages of the Vedas. The other is in fact measured by feet, like the hexameters of the Greek and Latin; but only one sort of this metre, which is denominated *Arya*, is acknowledged to be so regulated; while another sort is governed by the number of syllabic instants or *matras*.

The most common Shanscrit metre is the stanza of four verses, containing eight syllables each; and denominated from the name of the class "Anushtubh," for an account of which, and of other kinds of metres, we refer *ubi supra*.

The Shanscrit writers notice different species of prose. They discriminate three and even four sorts, under distinct names. 1. Simple prose, admitting no compound terms. It is denominated "Muctaca." This is little used in polished compositions; unless in the familiar dialogue of dramas. It must undoubtedly have been the colloquial style, at the period when Shanscrit was a spoken language. 2. Prose, in which compound terms are sparingly admitted. It is called "Culaca." This and the preceding sort are by some considered as varieties of a single species named Churnica. It is of course a common style of composition; and, when polished, is the most elegant as it is the chastest. But it does not command the admiration of Hindoo readers. 3. Prose abounding in compound words. It bears the appellation of "Utalica praya." Examples of it exhibit compounds of the most inordinate length: and a single word exceeding a hundred syllables is not unprecedented. This extravagant style of composition, being suitable to the taste of the Indian learned, is common in the most elaborate works of their favourite authors. 4. Prose modulated so as fre-

quently to exhibit portions of verse. It is named "Vrittangand'hi." It will occur without study, and even against design, in elevated compositions; and may be expected in the works of the best writers.

Some of the most elegant and highly wrought works in prose are reckoned among poems, as already intimated, in like manner as the "Telemache" of Fenelon. The most celebrated are the "Vasavadatta" of Suband'hu, the "Dasa Cumara" of Dandi, and the "Cadambari" of Vana.

SHANTY, *adj.* [perhaps a corruption of *janty*.] Showy; gay. *Used in the north of England.*

SHAOSUMRE, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 25 miles north of Calaat-el-Moilah.

SHAOWN, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 45 miles south of Yambo.

To SHAPE, *v. a.* preter. *shaped*; part. pass. *shaped* and *shapen*; anciently *shope*. [recepian, rcapan, Sax. *scheppen*, Teut., *skapa*, Su. Goth., *creare*, formare: vox antiquissima, omnibusque lingu. Septentr. usitatissima. *Serenius*.] To form; to mould with respect to external dimensions.

I that am not *shap'd* for sportive tricks,
Nor made to court an amorous looking-glass;
I, that am rudely stamp'd, and want love's majesty,
To strut before a wanton ambling nymph. *Shakspeare.*

Mature the virgin was, of Egypt's race;
Grace *shap'd* her limbs, and beauty deck'd her face. *Prior.*

To mould; to cast; to regulate; to adjust.
Drag the villain hither by the hair,
Nor age nor honour shall *shape* privilege. *Titus Andronicus.*

Charm'd by their eyes, their manners I acquire,
And *shape* my foolishness to their desire. *Prior*

To imagine; to conceive.—When fancy hath formed and *shaped* the perfected ideas of blessedness, our own more happy experiences of greater must disabuse us. *Boyle*.—To make; to create. *Obsolete*.—I was *shapen* in iniquity, and in sin did my mother conceive me. *Ps.*

To SHAPE, *v. n.* To square; to suit.

Their dear loss,
The more of you 'twas felt, the more it *shap'd*
Unto my end of stealing them. *Shakspeare.*

SHAPE, *s.* Form; external appearance.

The other *shape*,
If *shape* it may be call'd that *shape* had none,
Distinguishable in member, joint or limb. *Milton.*

In vegetables and animals the *shape* we most fix on, and are most led by. *Locke*.—Make of the trunk of the body.—Fathers and mothers, friends and relations, seem to have no other wish towards the little girl, but that she may have a fair skin, a fine *shape*, dress well, and dance to admiration. *Law*.—Being; as moulded into form.

Before the gates there sat,
On either side a formidable *shape*. *Milton.*
Idea; pattern.

Thy heart
Contains of good, wise, just, the perfect *shape*. *Milton.*

SHAPE, *Inflammation of the*, among neat cattle, an affection in cows, arising in hot weather, and which is shewn by a swelling of the parts with boils or eruptions. It is analogous to pseudo-syphilis in men.

SHA'PELESS, *adj.* Wanting regularity of form; wanting symmetry of dimensions.

You are born
To set a form upon that indigest,
Which he hath left so *shapeless* and so rude. *Shakspeare.*

SHA'PESMITH, *s.* One who undertakes to improve the form of the body. *A burlesque and obsolete word.*

No *shapessmith* yet set up and drove a trade,
To mend the work that providence had made. *Garth.*

SHAPELINESS, *s.* Beauty or proportion of form.

SHAPELY, *adj.* Symmetrical; well formed.—*Shapelich* or to ben an alderman. *Chaucer*.—The *shapely* column. *Dr. Warton*.

SHAPINSHAY, one of the Orkney islands, about 3 miles north from the Mainland. It is about 7 miles long and 5 broad, somewhat in the form of a cross, and contains in all about 10 square miles of surface. All around the shore, which, from the many indentations of the sea, is very extensive, the land is pretty level to a considerable distance inland, and bears rich crops of grass and corn. Towards the interior the land rises high, and never having been under culture, is in its present state only fit for the pasture of sheep. Of this useful animal, there were formerly about 3000 kept on the island, and thence it is thought to have derived its name; but from extremely harsh treatment, they are now reduced to half that number. The cattle amount to 800, the horses to 250, and the swine to a number unknown. The state of agriculture is wretched, exhausting the soil by alternate crops of oats and barley, and denying it the advantage of rest or summer fallow. The Standing Stone of Shapinshay, and the Black Stone of Odin, are supposed to be the remains of places of Scandinavian worship. A small bay bears the name of Grucula, which tradition reports is owing to a Roman vessel, one of Agricola's ships, in his celebrated voyage round the island of Britain, being here stranded in a violent storm. This tradition is rendered more probable, from some Roman coins having been found lately near the place. There are several of those subterraneous habitations called Picts' houses. The harbour of Elwick is the only one of the island. About 120 tons of kelp are annually burnt on the shores. Shapinshay forms a parochial district of itself, which contained, in 1801, 744 inhabitants; in 1811, 726.

SHAPLEIGH, a post township of the United States, in York county, Maine, on the Piscataqua; 108 miles north-east of Boston. Population 2362.

SHAPOUR, **RUINS OF**, are situated at the end of the valley of Kazeroon, in the province of Fars, in Persia. The city is said to have existed prior to Alexander the Great, and to have been destroyed by him, but was rebuilt with augmented splendour by Sapor, who made it the capital of his dominions, and erected there a magnificent palace. Though entirely deserted, yet the breadth and circumference of the ramparts, and the remains of some public buildings, shew it to have been a city of great extent and magnificence. It is situated immediately under a range of mountains, on the banks of a small but rapid river, and in a wild romantic spot, amidst rocks and precipices, many of which are decorated with pieces of sculpture similar to those near Persepolis. The most remarkable of these are small groupes of figures, cut into compartments, and tolerably well executed. The hero of the piece is mounted on horseback, and crowned with a tiara. The hills in the immediate vicinity of these ruins appear to have been formerly fortified, and an extraordinary cavern farther up the river, has given rise to many fabulous stories; 18 miles west of Kazeroon.

SHAPWICH, a parish, formerly a market town of England, on the river Stour, Dorsetshire; 5 miles south-east of Blandford Forum. Population 395.

SHAPWICH, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 6 miles west-by-south of Glastonbury. Population 418.

SHARAF BENI GATEI, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 25 miles north of Madian.

SHARBASHI, a village of Turkish Armenia; 18 miles south-east of Moush.

SHARBIN, a village of Lower Egypt; 16 miles south-south-west of Damietta.

SHARD, *s.* [The past participle of the Sax. *rcipan*, to cut; to divide; to separate.] "*Shards*, pieces of stones broken and scattered." *Huloet*.—A fragment of an earthen vessel, or of any brittle substance.

For charitable prayers,
Shards, flints and pebbles should be thrown on her;
Yet here she is allow'd her virgin crants,
Her maiden strewments.

Shakespeare.

The splinters and *shards* of so violent a jousting. *Milton*.
SHARD, or **SHERD**, is our ancient word for a *scale* or outward covering, a case or sheath.

— A dragon—

Whose *scherdes* shynen as the sunne.

Gower.

[*Chard*.] A plant.

Shards or mallows for the pot,
Keep the loosen'd body sound.

Dryden.

It seems in Spenser to signify a frith or strait. It is used, says Upton, in the west, for a *gap*, as it is in some parts of the north for a *prospect through an avenue*.

Upon that shore he spied Atin stand,
There by his master left, when late he far'd
In Phedria's fleet bark, over that perl'ous *shard*.

Spenser.

A sort of fish.

SHA'RDBORNE, *adj.* Borne along the air by shards or sheathed wings.

Ere to black Hecat's summons
The *shardborne* beetle with his drowsy hums
Hath rung night's yawning peal, there shall be done
A deed of dreadful note.

Shakespeare.

SHA'RDED, *adj.* Having a scaly covering; sheath-winged.

With his sword, and with his spere,
He might not the serpent dere (i. e. hurt),
He was so *sherded* all about,
It held all edge toole withoute.

Gower.

Often shall we find
The *sharded* beetle in a safer hold,
Than is the full-wing'd eagle.

Shakespeare.

SHARDLOW, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 7 miles south-east of Derby.

To SHARE, *v. a.* [reapan, rcipan, Sax. Serenius considers it, in all its significations, as derived from the Su. Gothl. *skaera*, to divide; to separate; to cut.] To divide; to part among many.

Good fellows all,
The latest of my wealth I'll *share* amongst you.

Shakespeare.

Any man may make trial of his fortune, provided he acknowledge the lord's right, by *sharing* out unto him a toll. *Carew*.—To partake with others; to seize or possess jointly with another.

In vain does valour bleed,
While avarice and rapine *share* the land.

Milton.

Go, silently enjoy your part of grief,
And *share* the sad inheritance with me.

Dryden.

To cut; to separate; to sheer.

Scalp, face and shoulders the keen steel divides,
And the *shar'd* visage hangs on equal sides.

Dryden.

To SHARE, *v. n.* To have part; to have a dividend.

Had greater haste these sacred rites prepar'd,
Some guilty mouths had in your triumphs *shar'd*,
But this untainted year is all your own.

Dryden.

SHARE, *s.* Part; allotment; dividend obtained.

If every just man, that now pines with want,
Had but a moderate and beseeching *share*,

Of that which lewdly-pamper'd luxury
Now heaps upon some few with vast excess.

Milton.

To go shares; to partake.—By being desirous that every one should have their full *share* of the favours of God, they would not only be content, but glad to see one another happy in the little enjoyments of this transitory life. *Law*.—A part contributed.—These, although they bear a *share* in the discharge, yet have different offices in the composition. *Brown*.—[reap, Sax.] The blade of the plow that cuts the ground.

Nor laws they knew, nor manners, nor the care
Of labouring oxen, nor the shining *share*.

Dryden.

SHA'REBONE, *s.* The os pubis; the bone that divides the

the

the trunk from the limbs.—The cartilage bracing together the two ossa pubis, or *sharebones*, Bartholine saith, is twice thicker and laxer in women than men. *Derham*.

SHARMAN'S CREEK, a river of Pennsylvania, which runs into the Susquehanna. Lat. 40. 20. N. long. 77. 5. W.

SHA'RER, *s.* One who divides or apports to others; a divider; a partaker; one who participates any thing with others.

Most it seem'd the French king to import,
As *sharer* in his daughter's injury.

Daniel.

People not allowed to be *sharers* with their companions in good fortune, will hardly agree to be *sharers* in bad. *L'Estrange*.

SHARESHILL, a village of England, in Staffordshire, near the entrance of which are traces of several Roman encampments; 5 miles north-north east of Wolverhampton.

SHA'RING, *s.* Participation.—By good means of some great ones, and privy *sharings* with the officers of other some, he receiveth his debt. *Spenser*.

SHARINGTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles west-south-west of Holt.

SHARK, *s.* A voracious sea-fish. See SQUALUS.

His jaws horrific arm'd with threefold fate,
The direful *shark*.

Thomson.

A greedy artful fellow; one who fills his pockets by sly tricks. [Su Goth. *skurk*, *skurka*, homo nequissimus. *Serenius*.]—A low word.—Parasites, jugglers, delators, cheaters, *sharks* and shifting companions. *Bp. Reynolds*.—Trick; fraud; petty rapine. A low word.—Wretches who live upon the *shark*, and other men's sins, the common poisoners of youth, equally desperate in their fortunes and their manners, and getting their very bread by the damnation of souls. *South*.

To SHARK, *v. a.* To pick up hastily or slyly.

Young Fontinbras,
Of unimproved mettle, hot and full,
Hath in the skirts of Norway, here and there,
Shark'd up a list of landless resolute.

Shakespeare.

To SHARK, *v. n.* To play the petty thief; to practise cheats; to live by fraud. A low word.—The *sharking* officer that receives bribes, and spares neither the king nor the subject. *Dr. White*.—Prove to day, who shall *shark* best. *B. Jonson*.—To fawn for a dinner; to beg.—Gayton lived afterwards in London in a *sharking* condition, and wrote trite things merely to get bread to sustain him and his wife. *Wood*.

SHARK, hammer-headed: see SQUALUS ZYGÆNA, a fish called also the *balance-fish*.—SHARK, long-tailed: see SQUALUS VULPES.—SHARK, spotted: see SQUALUS CATULUS.—SHARK, lesser spotted: see SQUALUS CATULUS.—SHARK, smooth: see SQUALUS MUSTELUS.—SHARK, the tope: see SQUALUS GALEUS.—SHARK, the angel, or monk-fish: see SQUALUS SQUATINA.

SHARK RIVER, a river of New Jersey, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 40. 10. N. long. 74. 4. W.

SHA'RKER, *s.* One who lives upon the shark; an artful fellow.—A hungry renegado, a dirty *sharker* about the Romish court, who only scribbles that he may dine. *Sir H. Wotton*.

SHA'RKING, *s.* Petty rapine; trick.—Thou wouldst never be thus covetous, thou wouldst never use this *sharking*, nor these dishonest tricks, if thou didst believe. *Dr. Westfield*.

SHARLESTON, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles east-by-south of Wakefield.

SHARM EL KIMAN, a harbour in the Red Sea, on the coast of Egypt. Lat. 24. 44. N.

SHARMA, a small sea-port of Hadramaut, in Arabia; 30 miles east-north-east of Sahar.

SHARMAGOL, a village of Korassan, in Persia; 12 miles south of Nesa.

SHARMALIC, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 15 miles south-west of Orfa.

SHARNBROOK, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 8½ miles north-west of Bedford. Population 644.

SHARNFORD, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles south-east of Hinckley. Population 394.

SHARON, New, a post township of the United States, in Kennebeck county, Maine; 27 miles north-north-west of Augusta. Population 944.

SHARON, a township of the United States, in Hillsborough county, New Hampshire; 18 miles west-south-west of Amherst. Population 446.

SHARON, a township of the United States, in Windsor county, Vermont. Population 1363.

SHARON, a township of the United States, in Norfolk county, Massachusetts; 17 miles south-south-west of Boston. Population 1000.

SHARON, a township of the United States, in Litchfield county, Connecticut. Population 2606.

SHARON, a township of the United States, in Schoharie county, New York; 16 miles west of Schoharie. Population 3751.

SHARON, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Ohio. Population 450.

SHARP, *adj.* [Jceapp, Sax.; *scherpe*, Dutch.] Keen; piercing; having a keen edge; having an acute point; not blunt.

She hath tied

Sharp tooth'd unkindness like a vulture here. *Shakespeare.*

With edged grooving tools they cut down and smoothen away the extuberances left by the *sharp* pointed grooving tools, and bring the work into a perfect shape. *Mozon*.—Terminating in a point or edge; not obtuse.—To come near the point, and draw unto a *sharper* angle, they do not 'only speak and practice truth, but really desire its enlargement. *Brown*.

Their embryon atoms

Light arm'd or heavy, *sharp*, smooth, light or slow.

Milton.

Acute of mind; witty; ingenious; inventive.—Now as fine in his apparel as if he would make me in love with a cloak, and verse for verse with the *sharpest* witted lover in Arcadia. *Sidney*.—Quick, as of sight or hearing.

As the *sharpest* eye discerneth nought,
Except the sun-beams in the air do shine;
So the best soul, with her reflecting thought,
Sees not herself, without some light divine.

Davies.

To *sharp-eyed* Reason this would seem untrue;
But reason I through love's false optics view.

Dryden.

Sour without astringency; sour, but not austere; acid.

So we, if children young diseased we find,
Anoint with sweets the vessel's foremost parts,
To make them taste the potions *sharp* we give;
They drink deceiv'd, and so deceiv'd they live.

Spenser.

Shrill; piercing the ear with a quick noise; not flat.—For the various modulation of the voice, the upper end of the windpipe is endued with several cartilages to contract or dilate it, as we would have our voice flat or *sharp*. *Ray*.—Severe; harsh; biting; sarcastic.—How often may we meet with those who are one while courteous, but within a small time after are so supercilious, *sharp*, troublesome, fierce and exceptional, that they are not only short of the true character of friendship, but become the very sores and burdens of society! *South*.—Severe; quick to punish; cruel; severely rigid.

There, gentle *Hermia*, may I marry thee;
And to that place the *sharp* Athenian law
Cannot pursue us.

Shakespeare.

Eager; hungry; keen upon a quest.

My falcon now is *sharp* and passing empty,
And 'till she stoop, she must not be full gorg'd;
For then she never looks upon her lure.

Shakespeare.

The *sharp* desire I had
Of tasting.

Milton.

Painful;

Painful; afflictive.

That she may feel
How *sharper* than a serpent's tooth it is,
To have a thankless child.

Shakspeare.

Fierce; ardent; fiery.

Their piety feign'd,
In *sharp* contest of battle found no aid.

Milton.

A *sharp* assault already is begun;
Their murdering guns play fiercely on the walls.

Dryden.

Attentive; vigilant.

Sharp at her utmost ken she cast her eyes
And somewhat floating from afar descries.

Dryden.

Acrid; biting; pinching; piercing, as the cold.—The windpipe is continually moistened with a glutinous humour, issuing out of small glandules in its inner coat, to fence it against the *sharp* air. *Ray*.—Subtile; nice; witty; acute:—*Sharp* and subtile discourses procure very great applause; but being laid in the balance with that which sound experience plainly delivereth, they are overweighed. *Hooker*.—[Among workmen.] Hard.—They make use of the *sharpest* sand, that being best for mortar, to lay bricks and tiles in. *Moron*.—Emaciated; lean.—His visage drawn he felt to *sharp* and spare. *Milton*.

SHARP, *s.* A sharp or acute sound.

It is the lark that sings so out of tune,
Straining harsh discords and displeasing *sharps*.

Shakspeare.

A pointed weapon; small sword; rapier. *Low word*.—If butchers had but the manners to go to *sharps*, gentlemen would be contented with a rubber at cuffs. *Collier*.

To SHARP, *v. a.* To make keen.

Whom the whetstone *sharps* to eat,
They cry millstones are good meat.

B. Jonson.

To render quick.

Much more me needs—

To *sharp* my sense with sundry beauties' view,
And steal from each some part of ornament.

Spenser.

To SHARP, *v. n.* To play thievish tricks.—I live upon what's my own; whereas your scandalous life is only cheating or *sharping* one half of the year, and starving the other. *L'Estrange*.

SHARP (Abraham), an eminent mathematician, mechanist and astronomer, was descended from a family of Little Horton, near Bradford, in Yorkshire, where he was born about 1651. After he had received a good education, he was put apprentice at Manchester, but being steadily attached to mathematical pursuits, he quitted business and removed to Liverpool. Here he applied with great diligence to his favourite study, and to procure a subsistence he opened a school, where he taught writing and the elements of arithmetic. He next went to London, with the view of associating with Mr. Flamstead, by whose interest he obtained a profitable employment in the dock-yard at Chatham, where he remained till he was invited to become the assistant of Flamstead at the Royal Observatory at Greenwich. In this situation he continued to make observations, and had a large share in forming a catalogue of 3000 fixed stars, with their longitudes and magnitudes; their right ascension and polar distance, and the variations of the same, while they change their longitude by one degree. In this employment he injured his health, and was obliged to retire to his native air, at Horton, where he fitted up an observatory of his own, having constructed a very curious machine for turning all kinds of work in wood and brass. He constructed most of the tools used by joiners, clock-makers, opticians, and mathematical instrument-makers. He manufactured entirely his own telescopes and other astronomical instruments.

He next materially assisted Mr. Flamstead in calculating most of the tables in the second volume of his "Historia Celestis," and made curious drawings of the constellations, which were sent to Amsterdam to be engraved, and though

executed by a masterly hand, the originals were said to have exceeded the engravings in beauty and accuracy. In 1689 Mr. Flamstead completed his mural arc at Greenwich, in which he had been greatly assisted by his friend Mr. Sharp, who had been some time in the observatory as his amanuensis. Mr. Smeaton, in a paper published in the philosophical Transactions for the year 1786, speaking of this mural arc, says, it may be considered as the first good instrument of the kind, and that Mr. Sharp was the first person who cut accurate and delicate divisions upon astronomical instruments.

In 1717, Mr. Sharp published a work entitled "Geometry Improved," in which he engraved the figures as well as composed the work. This treatise contains, 1. A large and accurate table of segments of circles, with the method of its construction, and various uses in the solution of difficult problems. 2. A concise treatise of polyhedra, or solid bodies of many bases, both the regular and irregular ones, to which are added twelve new ones, with various methods of forming them, and their exact dimensions in words or species, and also in numbers. In the year 1699, he undertook, for his own private amusement, the quadrature of the circle, deduced from two different series, by which the truth of it was demonstrated to 72 places of figures. Mr. Sharp maintained an epistolary correspondence with the most eminent mathematicians and astronomers of the day; among these were the illustrious Newton, Dr. Halley and Dr. Wallis. It appears from a great variety of letters which remained after his death, written to him by these celebrated men, that he spared neither pains nor time to promote the interests of real science. Being justly reckoned one of the ablest calculators of his time, his assistance was required by, and freely given to Flamstead, Sir Josias Moore, Dr. Halley and others, in all difficult calculations. When he quitted Mr. Flamstead, he retired to Little Horton, in Yorkshire, where he spent the remainder of his days, and where he died in July 1742, in the 91st year of his age. He was of very retired habits, and admitted few visitors, excepting two gentlemen, at Bradford, one a mathematician, and the other an ingenious apothecary. Many of his singularities are recorded in the General Biography, and also in Hutton's Mathematical Dictionary, to which the reader is referred.

SHARP (John), archbishop of York, a celebrated divine of the church of England, was the son of a respectable tradesman at Bradford, in Yorkshire, where he was born in 1644. He was admitted of Christ's college, Cambridge, in 1660, and in 1667 he commenced master of arts, and was ordained. He was now appointed private tutor to the four sons of Sir Heneage Finch, a station which he occupied about five years, when he obtained, through his patron's recommendation, the archdeaconry of Berkshire. When Sir Heneage was raised to the post of keeper of the great seal, he manifested such confidence in the fidelity and judgment of his friend, as to commit to him the scrutiny of the characters of applicants for church livings in the gift of the crown. A sermon which he preached in 1674, reflecting upon those who dissented from the church, gave rise to a controversy, in which Dodwell, Baxter and others engaged. In 1677 he was instituted to the rectory of St. Giles-in-the-Fields, in which parish he resided ten years. Among his parishioners was Richard Baxter, who, though he was himself a preacher on Sunday evenings, was a constant hearer of the rector in the mornings; and these two excellent men, notwithstanding their differences in some points, lived together upon the most friendly terms. In 1679 Mr. Sharp commenced D. D., and in 1681 he was promoted to the deanery of Norwich. On the death of Charles II., to whom he had been a chaplain, he drew up the address of the grand-jury of London to his successor, to whom he was also nominally chaplain. After this he preached against popery, and thus exciting the royal displeasure, he was obliged to quit the metropolis, and reside altogether at his deanery. He employed himself in forming a cabinet of coins, chiefly British, Saxon and English. Being wearied with his exclusion from his function at London,



J. Pass sc

GRANVILLE SHARP.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

don, he presented a very humble petition to the king, in consequence of which, he was allowed to return to his duty in the metropolis, and he was extremely careful never after to give offence, as he had done before. After the abdication of the monarch, Dr. Sharp irritated the adherents to William, by some offensive passages in a prayer and sermon, which he delivered before the house of commons, who at first refused him their accustomed thanks, which, however, were voted afterwards. In 1689, Dr. Sharp was appointed the successor to Dr. Tillotson in the deanery of Canterbury, and he was nominated one of the commissioners for revising the liturgy. At this period several bishops had been deprived of their fees for refusing to take the oaths to William and Mary, and Dr. Sharp might have succeeded to almost any of them, but he refused, not through any scruple of conscience, but on account of his friendship for the persons deprived. When, however, the archbishopric of York became vacant in a different way, he readily accepted the high office, and he was consecrated in July 1691. He filled this exalted station in a manner, which has caused him to be represented as a model of prelatial virtues, and which procured him general respect and esteem. He died at Bath in 1714, in the 69th year of his age. His only writings were sermons, of which were published two volumes, consisting of such occasional discourses as he had printed during his life time, and five others, that were selected after his decease. He was reckoned an excellent preacher, and his style and doctrine are said to be equally of the standard purity. *Biog. Brit.*

SHARP (Thomas), younger son of the preceding, was born in Yorkshire, and admitted of Trinity college, Cambridge, about 1703, when he was of the age of 15. He obtained a fellowship in 1729, and took his doctor's degree the same year. Archbishop Dawes appointed him his chaplain, and in 1720, he was collated to the rectory of Rothbury, in Northumberland. He was afterwards preferred to a prebend in Durham cathedral, and also to the archdeaconry of Northumberland. He died in 1758. Dr. Sharp wrote two dissertations concerning the etymology of the Hebrew words Elohim and Berith.—“Discourses on the Antiquity of the Hebrew Tongue and Character.”

SHARP (Granville), son of the preceding, a most distinguished philanthropist and friend to the liberties of mankind, was born in the year 1734. He was educated for the bar, but did not practise at it. When he quitted the legal profession, he obtained a place in the ordnance office, which he resigned at the commencement of the American war; the principles of which were abhorrent from his mind. He now took chambers in the Temple, and devoted himself to a life of study; at the same time, laying himself out for public utility. He first became known to the public in the case of a poor and friendless Negro, of the name of Somerset. This person had been brought from the West Indies to England by a master, whose name we should gladly hand down to the execration of posterity; if it were in our power; and falling into bad health, was abandoned by him as a useless article of property, and turned into the streets, either to die, or to gain a miserable support by precarious charity. In this destitute state, almost, it is said, on the point of expiring on the pavement of one of the public streets of London, Mr. Sharp chanced to see him. He instantly had him removed to St. Bartholomew's hospital, attended personally to his wants, and in a short time had the happiness to see him restored to health. Mr. Sharp now clothed him, and procured him comfortable employment in the service of a lady. Two years had elapsed, and the circumstance almost, and the name of the poor Negro, had escaped the memory of his benefactor, when Mr. Sharp received a letter from a person, signing himself Somerset, confined in the Poultry Compter, stating no cause for his commitment, but entreating his interference to save him from a greater calamity even than the death from which he had rescued him. Mr. Sharp instantly went to the prison, and found the Negro, who in sickness and

misery had been discarded by his master, sent to prison as a runaway slave. The excellent patriot went immediately to the lord mayor, William Nash, Esq., who caused the parties to be brought before him; when, after a long hearing, the upright magistrate decided that the master had no property in the person of the Negro, in this country, and gave the Negro his liberty. The master instantly collared him, in the presence of Mr. Sharp and the lord mayor, and insisted on his right to keep him as his property. Mr. Sharp now claimed the protection of the English law, caused the master to be taken into custody, and exhibited articles of peace against him for an assault and battery. After various legal proceedings, supported by him with most undaunted spirit, the twelve judges unanimously concurred in an opinion that the master had acted criminally. Thus did Mr. Sharp emancipate for ever the race of blacks from a state of slavery, while on British ground, and in fact banished slavery from Great Britain. Such an incident could not fail deeply to impress a benevolent mind; and slavery, in every shape and country, became the object of his unceasing hostility. In 1769 he published a work, entitled “A Representation of the Injustice and dangerous Tendency of Tolerating Slavery, or of admitting the least Claim of private Property in the Persons of Men in England.” Having succeeded in the case of an individual Negro, he interested himself in the condition of the many others, who were seen wandering about the streets of London, and at his own expense collected a number of them, whom he sent back to Africa, where they formed a colony on the river Sierra Leone. He performed a still more essential service to humanity, by becoming the institutor of the “Society for the Abolition of the Slave Trade;” which, after contending against a vast mass of opposition, at length (1807) gloriously succeeded, as far as this country was concerned in the horrible traffic.

Mr. Granville Sharp is mentioned in connection with this business, in terms of the highest commendation, by Mr. Clarkson, in his “History of the Abolition of the Slave Trade.” The following short account of him is extracted from the Edinburgh Review, vol. xii.

“We think it a duty to mention the name of Mr. Granville Sharp. Regardless of the dangers to which he exposed himself, both in his person and his fortune, Mr. Sharp stood forward in every case as the courageous friend of the poor Africans in England, in direct opposition to an opinion of York and Talbot, the attorney and solicitor-general for the time being. This opinion had been acted upon; and so high was its authority, that, after it had been made public, it was held as the settled law of the land, that a slave, neither by baptism, or arrival in Great Britain or Ireland, acquires freedom, but may be legally forced back to the plantations. Discouraged by judge Blackstone, and several other eminent lawyers, Mr. Sharp devoted three years of his life to the English law, that he might render himself the more effectual advocate of these friendless strangers. In his work, entitled ‘A Representation of the Injustice and dangerous Tendency of tolerating Slavery in England,’ published in the year 1769, and afterwards in his learned and laborious ‘Inquiry into the Principles of Villenages,’ he refuted the opinion of York and Talbot by unanswerable arguments, and neutralized their authority by the counter opinion of the great lord chief justice. Holt, who many years before had decided, that as force could be used against no man in England without legal process, every slave coming into England became free, inasmuch as the laws of England recognized the distinction between person and property as perpetual and sacred. Finally, in the great case of Somerset, which was argued at three different sittings, in January, in February, and in May, of the year 1772, (the opinion of the judges having been taken up on the pleadings), it was at last ascertained and declared to be the law of the land, that as soon as ever any slave set his foot upon English territory, he became free. Among the heroes and sages of British story, we can think of few whom we should feel a greater glow of honest pride in claiming as an

ancestor, than the man to whom we owe our power of repeating with truth,

' Slaves cannot breathe in England ; if their lungs
Receive our air, that moment they are free :
They touch our country and their shackles fall.' "

Similar principles led Mr. Sharp to use his endeavours to restrain the arbitrary practice of marine impressment ; and a citizen of London having been carried off by a press-warrant, Mr. Sharp obtained a *habeas corpus* from the court of king's bench, to bring him back from a vessel at the Nore ; and by his arguments obliged the court to liberate him. In his political principles he was always the ardent and zealous friend to liberty, and he neglected no opportunity to defend its principles, and assert the rights of the people. He was the warm advocate of "parliamentary reform," and published, in 1778, the second edition of an excellent little work, full of constitutional knowledge and sound reasoning, entitled "A Declaration of the People's natural Right to a Share in the Legislature, which is the fundamental Principle of the British Constitution of State." He was, in 1794, as zealously attached to the cause as he had been twenty years before ; though, perhaps, he did not feel himself sufficiently active to engage in it as a partizan, when it was a subject of obloquy. He was not, however, an unconcerned spectator of the dreadful tyranny, which, but for the intervention of an honest English jury, would have overwhelmed the land. He sent, to one of the persons at that time confined in the Tower of London, a copy of the work referred to, with assurances of a readiness to do any thing in his power to stem the torrent setting in against the liberties of the country.

Mr. Sharp's plan of reform recommended to the public, was founded on the earliest principles and practices of the British constitution. He proposed to restore the ancient *tythings*, *hundreds*, &c. ; and the whole body of the people were to form a national militia, each thousand to constitute a regiment, the alderman or magistrate to be the colonel ; and each hundred to constitute a company, the constable of each for the time being to be their captain. So many of the thousands to be summoned once in every year, by their magistrate, as would have a right to vote in their respective hundreds, before the constable, in the choice of their part of the representative legislature. Mr. Sharp has shewn that the division of this kingdom into *tythings* and hundreds was instituted by the immortal Alfred ; that such a division is consistent with the most perfect state of liberty that man is capable of enjoying, and yet fully competent to answer all the purposes of mutual defence, to secure the due execution of the laws, and maintain public peace.

Mr. Sharp was educated in the principles of the established church, and through life shewed a warm attachment to them. He always, even at the close of life, had a thorough dread of Popery, but was candid and liberal to Protestant dissenters of all parties. His zeal for the established religion of the country, led him to recommend an episcopal church in America ; and he introduced the first bishops from that country to the archbishop of Canterbury for consecration.

Mr. Sharp died in July, 1813, and, like Cato, though advanced to the age of 79, he pursued his studies with all the ardour of youth. He was an able linguist, deeply read in theology, and was well acquainted with the scriptures in the original tongues. He was pious and devout, without gloom, strictly moral and temperate, a great lover of music, and cheerful in conversation. His services to humanity were very distinguished, and few persons in private life have deserved a higher or more honourable commemoration.

As a writer, his pieces are very numerous. From these we learn that he was a believer in the doctrines as set forth in the articles of the church, as that of original sin, the existence and operations of the devil on the human mind, and of the Athanasian mystery of the Trinity. He also, from studying the book of Revelation, fully expected the commencement of the *Millenium*, or personal reign of Christ on earth, in the spring of 1811 ; but he lived long enough

to see his error. He possessed a very extensive library, in which the theologian, lawyer, classical scholar, politician, antiquary, and orientalist, might find almost every thing of which they could stand in need ; and his collection of bibles was esteemed the best in the kingdom.

The principal works of Mr. Sharp, besides those already mentioned, are "Remarks on several very important Prophecies ;" "Remarks on the Uses of the definitive Article in the Greek of the New Testament, containing many new Proofs of the Divinity of Christ," &c. This occasioned "Six more Letters" to be addressed to him, in vindication of his theory ; and also "Six more Letters, &c." by Gregory Blunt, Esq., which is a work of great talent, profound learning, and masterly wit. It has long since been out of print, and the author is probably known only to two or three persons ; the designation Blunt being assumed to conceal the real name. Mr. Sharp's last work was entitled "Remarks on the 68th Psalm, addressed to the Consideration of the House of Israel."—*Clarkson's Hist. of the Abolition of the Slave Trade.*

SHARP (Samuel), an able and distinguished surgeon in the middle of the last century, was a pupil of the celebrated Cheselden, and afterwards studied his profession with great zeal at the hospitals of Paris. He is said to have commenced his profession rather late in life ; nevertheless, after settling in London, and obtaining an appointment as surgeon of Guy's hospital, his genius and assiduity soon obtained for him a high degree of celebrity, and extensive practice. He was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and a foreign member of the Academy of Surgery at Paris ; and he contributed to the improvement of his art by two valuable publications, which passed through many editions, and were translated into several foreign languages. The first of these was "A Treatise on the Operations of Surgery, with a Description and Representation of the Instruments ; and an Introduction on the Nature and Treatment of Wounds, Abscesses, and Ulcers ;" first printed in 1739. Our edition, printed in 1751, is the sixth. The second work was entitled "A critical Inquiry into the present State of Surgery ;" first printed, we believe, in 1750. Our edition of 1761 is the fourth. See *Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Méd., and Sharp's Works.*

SHARPE (Gregory), a learned divine, was born in Yorkshire, in the year 1713. He received his education first at Westminster school, and afterwards at Aberdeen, under the learned Blackwell. Upon his entering orders, he became minister of St. Margaret's chapel, Westminster ; after this, he was appointed chaplain to the king, and master of the Temple. He was also elected a fellow of the Royal and Antiquarian Societies ; and died in 1771. He united to great learning a taste for the fine arts, and etched several plates in the edition of Dr. Hyde's *Syntagma*. His own works are:—1. A Review of the Controversy about the Meaning of the Demoniacs in the New Testament. 2. A Defence of Dr. Clarke against Leibnitz. 3. Two Dissertations upon the Origin of Languages, and the Power of Letters ; with a Hebrew Lexicon. 4. A Dissertation on the Origin and Structure of the Latin Language. 5. Two Arguments in Defence of Christianity. 6. Translation of Holberg's Introduction to Universal History. 7. Sermons.

To SHA'RPEN, *v. a.* [rceappan, rceppan, Sax.] To make keen ; to edge ; to point.—The grating of a saw, when *sharpen'd*, offends so much as it setteth the teeth on edge. *Bacon.*

The squadron bright, *sharpening* in mooned horns
Their phalanx.

Milton.

To make quick, ingenious, or acute.—Overmuch quickness of wit, either given by nature, or *sharpen'd* by study, doth not commonly bring greatest learning, best manners, or happiest life in the end. *Ascham.*—To make quicker of sense.

The air—*sharpen'd* his visual ray
To objects distant far.

Milton.

To

To make eager or hungry.—Such an assurance as will *sharpen* men's desires, and quicken their endeavours for obtaining a lesser good, ought to inspire men with more vigour in pursuit of what is greater. *Tillotson*.—To make fierce or angry.—Mine enemy *sharpeneth* his eyes upon me. *Job*.—To make biting, sarcastic or severe.

My haughty soul would swell;
Sharpen each word, and threaten in my eyes. *Smith*.

To make less flat; more piercing to the ears.—Enclosures not only preserve sound, but increase and *sharpen* it. *Bacon*.—To make sour.

To SHARPEN, *v. n.* To grow sharp.—Now she *sharpens*; well said, whetstone. *Shakspeare*.

SHARPENHOE, a hamlet of England, in Bedfordshire; 4 miles south-south-west of Silsoe.

SHARPER, *s.* A tricking fellow; a petty thief; a rascal.—*Sharppers*, as pikes, prey upon their own kind. *L'Estrange*.

—He should retrench what he lost to *sharppers*, and spent upon puppet-plays, to apply it to that use. *Arbutnot*.

SHARPERTON, a township of England, in Northumberland; 16½ miles west-south-west of Alnwick.

SHARPLES, a township of England, in Lancashire; 3 miles north of Great Bolton. Population 1374.

SHARPLING, the English name of the *GASTEROSTEUS*.

SHARPLY, *adv.* [*reappple*, Sax.] With keenness; with good edge or point. Severely; rigorously; roughly.

—They are more *sharply* to be chastised and reformed than the rude Irish, which being very wild at the first, are now become more civil. *Spenser*.—Keenly; acutely; vigorously.

—The mind and memory are more *sharply* exercised in comprehending another man's things than our own. *B. Jonson*.—Afflictively; painfully.—At the arrival of the English ambassadors, the soldiers were *sharply* assailed with wants. *Hayward*.—With quickness.—You contract your eye when you would see *sharply*; and erect your ear when you would hear attentively. *Bacon*.—Judiciously; acutely; wittily.

SHARPNESS, *s.* [*reapppere*, Sax.] Keeness of edge or point.—Palladius neither suffering us nor himself to take in hand the party till the afternoon; when we were to fight in troops, not differing otherwise from earnest, but that the *sharpness* of the weapons was taken away. *Sidney*.

—Not obtuseness.—Force consisteth in the roundings and raisings of the work, according as the limbs do more or less require it; so as the beholder shall spy no *sharpness* in the bordering lines. *Wotton*.—Sourness without austereness. Severity of language; satirical sarcasm.

There's gold for thee,
Thou must not take my former *sharpness* ill,
I will employ thee back again. *Shakspeare*.

Painfulness; afflictiveness.

At this time
We sweat and bleed; the friend hath lost his friend;
And the best quarrels in the heat are curst
By those that feel their *sharpness*. *Shakspeare*.

Intellectual acuteness; ingenuity; wit.—Till Arianism had made it a matter of great *sharpness* and subtility of wit to be a sound believing Christian, men were not curious what syllables or particles of speech they used. *Hooker*.—Quickness of senses.—If the understanding or faculty of the soul be like unto bodily sight, not of equal *sharpness* in all; what can be more convenient than that, even as the dark-sighted man is directed by the clear about things visible, so likewise in matters of deeper discourse the wise in heart doth shew the simple where his way lieth. *Hooker*.

SHARPS, an island of the United States, in Dorchester county, Maryland, in the Chesapeake.

SHARP-SET, *adj.* Hungry; ravenous.

The seely dove
Two *sharp-set* hawks do her on each side hem,
And she knows not which way to fly from them. *Brown*.

Eager; vehemently desirous.—Basilus forced her to stay, tho' with much ado, she being *sharp-set* upon the fulfilling of a shrewd office, in overlooking Philoclea. *Sidney*.

SHARP-SIGHTED, *adj.* Having quick sight.

If she were the body's quality,
Then would she be with it sick, maim'd, and blind;
But we perceive where these privations be,
An healthy, perfect, and *sharp-sighted* mind. *Davies*.

SHARP-VISAGED, *adj.* Having a sharp countenance.—The Welsh that inhabit the mountains are commonly *sharp-visaged*. *Hale*.

SHARP-WITTED, *adj.* Having an acute mind.—I have known a number of dull-sighted, very *sharp-witted* men. *Wotton*.

SHARPSBURG, a post township of the United States, in Washington county, Maryland, about 2 miles from the Potomac. Population 1500.

SHARPTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Salem county, New Jersey.

SHARROW, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 1½ mile east-by-north of Rippon.

SHARUM, a village of Hadramaut, in Arabia; 15 miles south-west of Keschim.

SHASH. See SASH.

SHASSAIR, a village of the Bled-el-Jereede, bordering on the south-western extremity of the territory of Algiers; 7 miles north-west of Fighig.

SHASTAH, SHASTER, or SASTRA, which latter is said to be the correct spelling and pronunciation, the name of a sacred book, in high estimation among the idolaters of Hindoostan, containing all the dogmas of the religion of the Bramins, and all the ceremonies of their worship, and serving as a commentary on the Vedam.—The Banians deliver, that this booke called by them the *shaster*, or the booke of their written word, consisted of these three tracts. The first whereof contained their moral law:—the second unrolled their ceremonial law:—the third distinguished them into certain casts or tribes, &c. *Lord*.

SHASUMAN, a village of Mazanderan, in Persia; 30 miles east of Astrabad.

SHAT-EL-FRAATE, a name given by the Arabs to the Euphrates.

SHAT-KRATU, in Mythology, one of the names of the Hindoo Indra, regent of the firmament. It means the hundred sacrifices; that is, he to whom a hundred sacrifices are offered; or rather, perhaps, he who has offered them.

SHAT-UL-ARAB, a large river, or rather canal, formed by the united streams of the Euphrates and Tigris, before entering the Persian gulf. It forms a most noble stream, and is navigable as far as Bassora, 70 miles from its mouth, for vessels of 500 tons burden. In all this space it is bordered by large plantations of date trees. It has been generally supposed that this river entered the Persian gulf by several mouths; but Mr. Kinneir seems to have ascertained, that it enters by one channel only, and that the other estuaries are formed by branches of the river Karoon.

SHATNUF, a village of Lower Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 9 miles north of Cairo.

To SHATTER, *v. a.* [*reapetan*, Sax.; *schetteren*, Teut.] To break at once into many pieces; to break so as to scatter the parts.

He rais'd a sigh so piteous and profound,
That it did seem to *shatter* all his bulk,
And rend his being. *Shakspeare*.

Black from the stroke above, the smouldering pine,
Stands as a *shatter'd* trunk. *Thomson*.

To dissipate; to make incapable of close and continued attention.—A man of a loose, volatile, and *shattered* humour, thinks only by fits and starts. *Norris*.

To SHATTER, *v. n.* To be broken, or to fall, by any force applied, into fragments.—Of bodies some are fragil; and

and some are tough and not fragil; and in the breaking, some fragil bodies break: but where the force is; some *shatter* and fly in many places. *Bacon.*

SHATTER, s. One part of many into which any thing is broken at once.—Stick the candle so loose, that it will fall upon the glass of the sconce, and break it into *shatters*. *Swift.*

SHATTERBRAINED, OF SHATTERPATED, adj. Inattentive; not consistent. *A low word.*—You cannot, without doing violence to your discretion, but conclude, that religion and devotion are far from being the mere effects of ignorance and imposture, whatever some *shatterbrained* and debauched persons would fain persuade themselves and others. *Goodman.*

SHATTERY, adj. Easily broken into many parts; loose of texture.—A brittle *shattery* sort of spar, found in form of a white sand chiefly in the perpendicular fissures amongst the ores of metal. *Woodward.*

SHATTON, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 6 miles north-east of Tideswell.

SHAVAKAT, a town of independent Tartary, on the Silon or Jaxartes; 20 miles south of Taschkent.

SHAUBAKO, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 16 miles south of Cairo.

To SHAVE, v. a. preterite *shaved*, part. *shaved* or *shaven*. [*ꝛaꝑau, ꝛaꝑan, Saxon; schaeven, Dutch.*] To pare off; as with a razor.—Zelim was the first of the Ottomans that did *shave* his beard: a bashaw ask'd, why he alter'd the custom of his predecessors? He answered, Because you bashaws may not lead me by the beard, as you did them. *Bacon.*

The bending scythe
Shaves all the surface of the waving green.

Gay.

To skim by passing near, or slightly touching.

He *shaves* with level wing the deep; then soars
Up to the fiery concave towering high.

Milton.

To cut in thin slices.—Make some medley of earth, with some other plants bruised or *shaven* in leaf or root. *Bacon.*—To strip; to oppress by extortion; to pillage.

SHAVE GRASS, s. An herb.

SHA'VELING, s. A man shaved; a friar, or religious. Used in contempt; and introduced into the language about the time of the Reformation by the protestants, in order to designate a Romish priest.—*Shavelynges* of prodigious beastliness. *Bale.*—Of elves, there be no such things; only by bald friars and knavish *shavelings* so feigned. *Spenser.*

SHA'VEY, s. [*Sax. ꝛaꝑeꝛe.*] A man that practises the art of shaving.—The *shaver* might easily have cut his [*Sampson's*] throat, being asleep. *Bp. Richardson.*—A man closely attentive to his own interest.

My lord
Was now dispos'd to crack a jest,
And bid friend Lewis go in quest;
This Lewis is a cunning *shaver*.

Swift.

A robber; a plunderer.—They fell all into the hands of the cruel mountain-people, living for the most part by theft, and waiting for wrecks, as hawks for their prey: by these *shavers* the Turks were stript of all they had. *Knolles.*

SHAUGH, a hamlet of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles north of Plympton Earls. Population 485.

SHA'VING, s. A thin slice pared off from any body.—By electrick bodies I do not conceive only such as take up *shavings*, straws, and light bodies, but such as attract all bodies palpable whatsoever. *Brown.*

SHAVINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 4½ miles east of Nantwich.

SHAVINGTON, a village of England, in Salop, north-west of Drayton.

SHAVOYA, or SHAWIA, an inland province of Morocco, having Temsena on the west, Morocco Proper on the

south, Fez on the north, and Tedla on the east. It is very fertile in corn and cattle; but a great part of it consists of mountains, inhabited by a rude and lawless race, who subsist chiefly by robbery and violence.

SHAUR, a small island in the Red Sea. Lat. 27. 20. N. long. 34. 58. E.

SHAW, s. [*ꝛcua, Sax. a shade: schawe, Dutch; skugga, Icel.*] A small shady wood in a valley: an old word, and still common in many parts of England, especially in Kent and Surrey.—I will abide under the *shawe*. *Gower.*—Whither ridest thou under this grene *shaw*? *Chaucer.*—When *shaws* been sheene. *Old Ballad of Robin Hood.*

SHAW, a parish of England, in Berkshire, near the river Lamborn; 1 mile north-east of Speenhamland. Population 480.

SHAW (Thomas), was born at Kendal, in or about the year 1692. He was educated at the grammar-school of that town, and, in 1711, was admitted of Queen's college, Oxford. Soon after he had taken orders, he was appointed chaplain to the English factory at Algiers, in which station he remained several years, making use of the opportunity which it afforded of travelling into various parts of Barbary, and into Egypt. In 1727, he was elected fellow of his college; in 1733, he commenced D.D., and, in the following year, he was elected a member of the Royal Society in London. In 1738, he published his "Travels, or Observations on several Parts of Barbary and the Levant," to which a supplement was added in 1746; and about ten years afterwards the whole appeared in a second edition, with considerable improvements. Few books of the kind stand higher in reputation than Dr. Shaw's Travels, which contain many learned dissertations respecting the countries which he had visited, with divers remarks on their manners and customs, and valuable observations in natural history. They have been regarded as particularly useful in illustrating the scriptures by comparisons between the ancient and modern state of the eastern regions. Dr. Shaw, on his return from his travels, brought back a large collection of dried plants. He presented to the university of Oxford some relics of antiquity which he had collected, of three of which engravings were made in the "Marmora Oxoniensis." In the year 1740, he was chosen principal of St. Edmund's Hall, and was at the same time presented to the vicarage of Bramley, in Hampshire. Soon after, the regius professorship was conferred upon him, which he held till his death, in 1751. His travels have been translated into various modern languages. An attack was made on them by Dr. Pocock, which led the author to defend them in his supplement, and in a letter of Dr. Clayton, bishop of Clogher.

SHAW (Peter), a physician, and contemporary of the former, was the author of several works, which enjoyed a considerable reputation in their day. His first publication was entitled "New Practice of Physic," in two volumes, and first printed in 1726: it contained a brief description of diseases and the methods of treating them. His next work was an "Enquiry into the Virtues of Scarborough Spaw Waters," which he visited during the season; it was printed in 1734. In the same year he published also "Chymical Lectures publicly read in London 1731, 1732, and Scarborough 1733." This was deemed a scientific and valuable work, and was translated into French. He published some minor works, "A Portable Laboratory," 1731; "On Scurvy," 1736; "Essays in Artificial Philosophy," 1731; "On the Juice of the Grape," 1724; and he edited the "Dispensary of the College of Physicians of Edinburgh," in 1727. See *Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Med.*

SHAW (George), the younger of two sons of the reverend Timothy Shaw, was born December 16th, 1751, at Berton, in Buckinghamshire, of which place his father was vicar. He shewed, at a very early age, a great propensity to study, and when he was only four years old, instead of following the amusements common to young children, he usually entertained himself with books, or by the side of ditches

ditches and rivulets catching insects, and taking them home, and would spend all his leisure time in watching their motions and examining their structure. He was educated entirely by his father, and before he was fourteen years of age, his proficiency was such as allowed him to enter with great advantage upon a course of college studies. In 1765 he was entered at Magdalen-hall, Oxford, where he was no less distinguished by the regularity of his conduct, than by an uncommonly diligent application to his studies. In 1769 he was admitted to the degree of B.A. and in May 1772 to that of M.A. In order that he might assist his father in his clerical duties, he took orders, and was ordained deacon in 1774, at Buckden, by Dr. Green, bishop of Lincoln, and regularly performed the duty at Stoke and Buckland, two chapels, each three miles apart from the mother church. As soon as an opportunity offered, he laid aside his theological career, which was never quite congenial to his mind, and went to Edinburgh, to qualify himself for the profession of physic. Having attended the lectures of Black, Cullen, and other eminent professors for three years, he returned to Oxford, where he was appointed deputy botanical lecturer. In this office he acquired much celebrity. He had been appointed to his office by Dr. Sibthorp, the botanical professor, who was then upon the eve of setting out upon his travels into Greece. Upon the death of this gentleman, Dr. Shaw became candidate for the vacant professorship, in which he would unquestionably have been successful, had not an old statute been found, which prohibits a person in orders from filling the office. In 1787 he was admitted to the degrees of bachelor and doctor of medicine: it appears that at this time he had removed from Magdalen-hall to Magdalen college. In the same year he removed to London, where he practised as a physician. Shortly after this, several gentlemen, distinguished for their attachment to the study of, and eminent for their acquirements in natural history, established a society for the advancement of this science, under the denomination of the Linnæan Society. Dr. (now Sir James) Smith was elevated to the presidency, and Dr. Shaw was nominated one of the vice-presidents. To the Transactions of this Society Dr. Shaw contributed the following papers:—"Description of the *STYLEPHORUS Cordatus*;" "Description of the *CANCER Stagnalis*;" "Remarks on the *SCOLOPENDRA Electrica* and *SCOLOPENDRA Subterranea*;" "A Note to Mr. Kirby's Description of the new Species of *Hirudo*;" "Account of a minute *Ichneumon*;" "Description of the Species of *Mycteria*;" "Description of the *Mus Bursarius*, and *Tubularia Magnifica*."

Dr. Shaw at this period delivered a course of lectures at the Leverian Museum, and never failed, as well before, as after, that rich and magnificent collection was removed from Leicester Fields, to attract very large and scientific audiences. In 1789 Dr. Shaw began to publish "The Naturalist's Miscellany," which came out in monthly numbers, and continued till his decease, when 286 parts had been published, and, according to the biography of the author given in the Gentleman's Magazine, a posthumous number, with an index, was to terminate the work, which is described as a most beautiful and extensive production, comprising, in 1064 plates, figures of the more curious and remarkable productions of the three kingdoms of nature, more particularly of the animal kingdom, with descriptions in Latin and English. In this year Dr. Shaw was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and in 1790 he projected a work in 4to. entitled "Speculum Linnæum; or Linnæan Zoology," but it probably did not promise success, as a single number only appeared. In 1791 Dr. Shaw became a candidate for the office of a librarian in the British Museum, and his qualifications, which were of the first order, procured him the appointment of assistant keeper of the natural history. He now quitted the duties of physician, and devoted himself entirely to researches in natural science. Between the years 1792—6, appeared the following work: "Musæi Leveriani explicatio Anglicæ et Latine, opera et studio Georgii Shaw, M.D. F. R. S. Adduntur figure elegantè sculptæ et

coloratæ. Impensis Jacobi Parkinson. In 1794 Dr. Shaw, in conjunction with Dr. Smith and Mr. Sowerby, engaged in a splendid publication, illustrative of the accessions which had been made to natural science on the shores of New Holland. The animals peculiar to that country were described by Dr. Shaw in a work entitled "The Zoology of New Holland;" the figures were delineated by Mr. Sowerby; and the botanical part was written by Dr. Smith, and published under the title of "The Botany of New Holland."

Sixty large plates published by Miller, the editor of the Gardener's Dictionary, under the title of "Various Subjects in Natural History, wherein are delineated Birds, Animals, and many curious Plants," being judged defective from want of letter-press, Dr. Shaw supplied the deficiency in a work entitled "Cimelia Physica: Figures of rare and curious Quadrupeds, Birds, &c., together with several most elegant Plants, engraved and coloured from the Subjects themselves: with Descriptions by George Shaw, M.D. F. R. S."

In the year 1800, Dr. Shaw began his great work, entitled "General Zoology, or Natural History, with Plates from the best Authorities, and most select Specimens." This work had proceeded to the eighth volume during the life-time of the author, and a ninth was left ready for the press. In this work he intended to comprise the whole of the history of the animal world. It began with quadrupeds, and had proceeded through fishes, amphibia, insects, and part of the birds. The Linnæan arrangement, with occasional variations, has been pursued throughout.

In the years 1806 and 1807, Dr. Shaw delivered a course of zoological lectures, which were published in 1809 in two large volumes 8vo. In the first nine lectures the author has compressed the substance of what he had delivered in the General Zoology, and in the three remaining lectures is a sketch of what, had his life been spared, he intended to accomplish in completing the General Zoology. In 1807, upon the death of Dr. Gray, keeper of Natural History in the British Museum, Dr. Shaw was promoted to that office. An abridgment of the Transactions of the Royal Society was begun in 1809, of which the department of natural history fell to the lot of Dr. Shaw. It is said he abridged 1500 distinct articles, which he rendered still more interesting than the originals, by the insertion of Linnæan and specific names, and by occasional annotations, and considerable references to subsequent authors of much celebrity, who had treated on these subjects. This was the last work in which he engaged. His time was wholly occupied upon the "Naturalist's Miscellany" and the "General Zoology," when death terminated his active and very useful life on the 22d of July, 1813, in the 62d year of his age. His illness was but of a few days' continuance: his senses and his recollection only forsook him with his breath. He died, as he had lived, with philosophic composure and serenity of mind, which neither the acute pains which he endured, nor the awful change which he was well aware he was about to experience, could in any degree disturb.

"As few men have left behind them a character more estimable, his name will be transmitted to posterity among those who give lustre to their age and country, who do honour to human nature by their virtues, and who contribute to the advancement of science, and the interests of literature, by their superior talents. Endowed by nature with considerable intellectual parts, and these improved by assiduous cultivation, he acquired a vast stock of general knowledge. His extensive information was treasured up without confusion, applied in his works with discernment, and communicated to every enquirer with cheerfulness and freedom." *Gentleman's Magazine*, 1813.

SHAWIA [so named by Forster, in memory of Thomas Shaw, D. D., who published travels into Barbary and the Levant], in Botany, a genus of the classsyngenesia, order polygamia segregata.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth imbricate, cylindrical: scales five or six, oblong; three inner longer, almost equal. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form,

short: border five-cleft, linear, spreading. Stamina: filaments five, capillary. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil: germ oblong. Style filiform, longer than the corolla. Stigma bifid, spreading. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged, perivious. Seed solitary, oblong. Down capillary, pubescent at the base. Receptacle naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate, with five or six scales, three interior, longer. Corolla five-cleft. Seed one, oblong.

Shawia paniculata.—Native of New Zealand.

SHAW'S ISLAND, a small island in the North Pacific Ocean, at the entrance of Cook's inlet. Lat. 59. N. long. 207. 16. E.

SHAWANESE, Indians inhabiting on the river Au Glaize, and west of the Mississippi. Number 1600.

SHAWANGUNK, a post township of the United States, in Ulster county, New York. Population 3062.

SHAWANGUNK, a mountain of the United States, in New York; 25 miles south-west of Kingston.

SHAWANNEE. See CUMBERLAND.

SHAWANNETOWN, a village of the United States, in the state of the Illinois, on the Ohio, 9 miles below the mouth of the Wabash. It contains 30 or 40 log buildings. The inhabitants live by the profits of the salt trade. The growth of the town has been greatly retarded in consequence of the United States having reserved to themselves the property of the site of this place, the salt licks, as well as the intermediate track between this and Saline river, nine miles distant. It is a place of great resort for boats, and in time will, no doubt, become a place of consequence, as the lands in its vicinity are of a good quality. Here formerly stood an Indian village of the Shawanne nation.

SHAWBURY, a parish of England, in Salop; 7 miles north-east of Shrewsbury. Population 1364.

SHAWBURY, a village of England, in Salop; 3 miles from Ellesmere.

SHAWDON, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 8 miles west of Alnwick.

SHAWELL, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 3 miles south of Lutterworth.

SHAWFORD, a village of England, in Southamptonshire, situated on the Itching; 2 miles below Winchester.

SHA'WFOWL, *s.* An artificial fowl made by fowlers on purpose to shoot at.

SHAWL, *s.* A part of modern female dress, brought from India into this country; a kind of cloak.—Negro nymphs in linsey-wolsey shawls. *Boswell.*

SHA'WM, *s.* [*schalmei*, Teut.] A hautboy; a cornet: written likewise *shalm*.—With trumpets also and shawms. *Comm. Prayer.*

SHAWS, a village of England, in Cumberland. It is noted for a medicinal fountain called Holywell, impregnated with sulphur, issuing from the foot of a rock, near Naworth.

SHAWSHEEN, a river in the United States, in Massachusetts, which runs north-east into the Merrimack, in the north part of Andover.

SHE, *pronoun.* In oblique cases *her*. [Norman, *sche*; Sax. *ſcæ*, *ſcœ*. Lye. The ancient Eng. word is *scho*; and *shoo*, according to Grose, is continued in some parts of the north.]—The female pronoun demonstrative; the woman; the woman before mentioned.

She, of whom the ancients seem'd to prophesy,
When they call'd virtues by the name of *she*;
She, in whom virtue was so much refin'd,
That for allay unto so pure a mind
She took the weaker sex.

Donne.

It is sometimes used for a woman absolutely, with some degree of contempt.

The *shes* of Italy shall not betray
Mine interest, and his honour.

Shakspeare.

The female; not the male.—He-lions are hirsute, and have great manes, the *shes* are smooth like cats. *Bacon.*

SHEAF, *s.* *sheaves*, plural. [*ſceap*, Sax. *ſchoof* Dutch; from *ſceopan*, to shove or thrust together. *Junius.*]—A

bundle of stalks of corn bound together, that the ears may dry.

These be the *sheaves* that honour's harvest bears,
The seed thy valiant acts, the world the field. *Fairfar.*

Any bundle or collection held together.—In the knowledge of bodies, we must glean what we can; since we cannot, from a discovery of their real essences, grasp at a time whole *sheaves*; and in bundles comprehend the nature of whole species. *Locke.*

To SHEAF, *v. n.* To make sheaves.—They that reap, must *sheaf* and bind. *Shakspeare.*

To SHEAL, *v. a.* To shell. See SHALE.—That's a *shealed* peasecod. *Shakspeare.*

SHEALLINGS, in Rural Economy, the portions of rich grass-land in the more hilly and mountainous parts of the country, which were fixed upon, and taken possession of, by the farming inhabitants at an early period of society, for the purpose of retiring to, and grazing their cattle-stock upon, at certain seasons of the year.

To SHEAR, *preter. shored*, or *sheared*; *part. pass. shorn*. [*ſceapan*, *ſcipan*, Sax. See To SHARE.—*Potshare* was anciently *potſcar*. *Ray.*—This word is more frequently written *sheer*].—To cut between two blades.—The sharp and toothed edge of the nether chap strikes into a canal cut into the bone of the upper; and the toothed protuberance of the upper into a canal in the nether: by which means he easily *sheers* the grass whereon he feeds. *Grew.*—To cut down as by the sickle; to reap. *North.*—[*Skaera*, Su. Goth.] This is also old in our language.

She pulleth up some [herbs] by the roote,
And many with a knife she *shereth*.

Gower.

To SHEAR, *v. n.* To make an indirect course. To pierce.—As a *sheering* wind, it killeth all in the bud. *Sir E. Sandys.*

SHEARD, *s.* [*ſceapþ*, Sax.] A fragment. It is now commonly written *shard*, and applied chiefly to fragments of earthen ware.—There shall not be found in the bursting of it a *sheard* to take fire from the hearth, or to take water without of the pit. *Isa.*

SHEA'RER, *s.* One that clips with shears; particularly one that fleeces sheep.

Of other care they little reckoning make,
Than how to scramble at the *shearers'* feast,
And shove away the worthy bidden guest.

Milton.

In the north of England, a reaper.

SHEA'RMAN, *s.* He that shears.

Thy father was a plaisterer,

And thou thyself a *shearman*.

Shakspeare

SHEARS, *s. pl.* The denomination of the age of sheep.—When sheep is one *shear*, they will have two broad teeth before; when two *shear*, four; when three, six; when four, eight; and after that, their mouths break. *Mortimer.*—An instrument to cut, consisting of two blades moving on a pin, between which the thing cut is intercepted.—*Shears* are a larger, and *scissors* a smaller instrument of the same kind. Pope used *shears* for *scissors*.

Why do you bend such solemn brows on me?

Think you I bear the *shears* of destiny?

Have I commandment on the pulse of life? *Shakspeare.*

The fates prepar'd their sharpen'd *sheers*. *Dryden.*

That people live and die, I knew

An hour ago, as well as you;

And if fate spins us longer years,

Or is in haste to take the *shears*,

I know, we must both fortunes try,

And bear our evils, wet or dry.

Prior.

Any thing in the form of the blades of *shears*.—Wings, in Spenser.

Two sharp-wing'd *sheers*
Deck'd with divers plumes, like painted jays,
Were fix'd at his back to cut his airy ways.

Spenser.

SHEARSBY,

SHEARSBY, or **SHERESBY**, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 7 miles north-east of Lutterworth.

SHEARWATER, *s.* A fowl. See **PROCELLARIA**.

SHEAT, or **SHEET**, a name by which some call a young hog.

SHEAT, or **SHEATS**, in a Ship. See **SHEET**.

SHEATS, in a Ship, also, are those planks under water which come along her run, and are closed into the sternpost: so also that part within board, in the run of the ship, is called the stern-sheets.

SHEAT OF A PLOUGH, in Agriculture, that part of the plough which passes through the beam, and is fastened to the share. It is sometimes called sheath.

SHEATH, *s.* [*ſcæðe*, Sax., *schede*, Teut., *scheyd*, Germ. from *scheiden*; to separate; *ſcæðan*, Sax. the same. Wachter, and Mr. H. Tooke.] The case of any thing; the scabbard of a weapon.

The dead knight's sword out of his *sheath* he drew,
With which he cut a lock off all their hair. *Spenser*.

Doth not each look a flash of light'ning feel,
Which spares the body's *sheath*, yet melts the steel?

Cleveland.

SHEATH, in Botany, is synonymous with spathe, perichætiæ and vagina. In the first instance it belongs to the single-leaved covering, bursting longitudinally, which Linnaeus reckons a kind of calyx, differing from a perianthium in being more or less remote from the flower. Such occurs in galanthus, narcissus, allium, and others of the hexandrous class; as also in arum; and more especially in the natural order of palmæ. The **PERICHÆTIUM**, see that article, is the scaly sheath, or calyx of Mosses. Vagina, which will be further explained in its place, is the sheathing part of a leaf.

To SHEATH, or **To SHEATHE**, *v. a.* To inclose in a sheath or scabbard; to inclose in any case.

Is this her hate to him, his love to me!
'Tis in my breast she *sheaths* her dagger now. *Dryden*.

The left foot naked, when they march to fight,
But in a bull's raw hide they *sheath* the right. *Dryden*.

The leopard, and all of this kind as goes, keeps the claws of his forefeet turned up from the ground and *sheathed* in the skin of his toes, whereby he preserves them sharp for rapine, extending them only when he leaps at the prey. *Grew*.—To obtund any acrid particles.—Those active parts of a body are of differing natures when *sheath'd* up, or wedged in amongst others in the texture of a concrete; and when extricated from these impediments. *Boyle*.—To fit with a sheath.

There was no link to colour Peter's hat,
Walter's dagger was not come from *sheathing*. *Shakspeare*.

To defend the main body by an outward covering.—It were to be wished that the whole navy throughout were *sheathed* as some are. *Raleigh*.

SHEATHING OF A SHIP, is the casing that part of her hull which is to be under water with something to keep the worms from eating into her planks.

It is usually done by laying tar and hair, mixed together, all over the old plank, and then nailing on thin new boards. The sheathing with copper is a still later invention, and answers better than any other.

SHEATHLESS, *adj.* Without a sheath.

The fatal cause was now at last explor'd,
Her veil she knew, and saw his *sheathless* sword. *Eusden*.

SHEATHWINGED, *adj.* Having hard cases which are folded over the wings.—Some insects fly with four wings, as all vaginipennis, or *sheathwinged* insects, as beetles and dorrs. *Brown*.

SHEATHY, *adj.* Forming a sheath.—With a needle put aside the short and *sheathy* cases on earwig's backs, and you may draw forth two wings. *Brown*.

SHEAVE, a cylindrical wheel, made of hard wood or metal, moveable round a pin as its axis in a mortise, as being

used to raise or increase the mechanical powers as a pulley, applied to remove or lift weighty bodies:

SHEA'VED, *adj.* Made of straw.

Her hair, nor loose nor ty'd in formal plait,
Proclaim'd in her a careless hand of pride;
For some, untuck'd, descended her *sheav'd* hat,
Hanging her pale and pined cheek beside. *Shakspeare*.

SHEB, a watering place in the extensive desert of Nubia, to the west of the Nile, through which the caravans pass on the route from Cairo to Darfur. The water is indifferent, but is found at the depth of a few feet. A large quantity of native alum is here produced; 175 miles north of Charje.

SHEBBEAR, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 7½ miles west-north-west of Hatherleigh. Population 738.

SHEBSHIR, a village of Egypt; 9 miles south of Amrus.

SHECATICA, a bay of very irregular shape and breadth, on the coast of Labrador, in North America, having an island of its name at its mouth. It is situated between Lat. 51. 14. and 51. 28. N. and between long. 58. 16. and 58. 22. W.

SHECHALLION, a mountain of Scotland, in Perthshire which rises in a conical form from a broad and circular base, to the height of 3564 feet.

SHECHARY, a lake of New North Wales, formed like a bow. It receives Churchill river from the south-west, and at its north-east end has communication with Berbazon lake, which lies due north and south. At the south end of the latter, the waters of both lakes run east, under the name of Seal river, which empties into Hudson's bay at Churchill fort, between Button's bay on the North, and Cape Churchill on the south-east. Both lakes are long and narrow.

SHE'CKLATON, *s.* A corruption of the Fr. *cyclaton*, which originally signified a circular robe of state, from the low Lat. *cyclas*; and afterwards the cloth of gold, of which such robes were generally made. Spenser was therefore perhaps mistaken in his notion that the quilted Irish jacket had any resemblance to this robe in which Chaucer had dressed Sir Thopas.—He went to fight against the giant in his robe of *shecklaton*, which is that kind of gilded leather with which they use to embroider the Irish jackets. *Spenser*.

To SHED, *v. a.* [*ſcæban*, Sax.] To effuse; to pour out; to spill.

The painful service, and the drops of blood
Shed for my thankless country, are required
But with that surname of Coriolanus. *Shakspeare*.

Cromwell, I did not think to *shed* a tear
In all my miseries. *Shakspeare*.

Some think one general soul fills ev'ry brain,
As the bright sun *sheds* light in ev'ry star. *Davies*.

To scatter; to let fall.—Trees that bring forth their leaves late, and cast them late, are more lasting than those that sprout their leaves early, or *shed* them betimes. *Bacon*.

To SHED, *v. n.* To let fall its parts.—White oats are apt to *shed* most as they lie, and black as they stand. *Mortimer*.

SHED, *s.* [*ſcæb*, Sax. a shade.] A slight temporary covering.

Though he his house of polish'd marble build,
With jasper floor'd, and carved cedar ceil'd;
Yet shall it ruin like the moth's frail cell,
Or *sheds* of reeds, with summer's heat repel. *Sandys*.

In composition; effusion; as blood-*shed*.
SHE'DDER, *s.* A spiller, one who sheds.—A *shedder* of blood shall surely die. *Ezek*.

SHEDIAC, a harbour on the eastern coast of New Brunswick, and on the west side of the gulf of St. Lawrence; 53 miles south-east of Miramichi bay.

SHEDVAN. See **SCHEDUAN**.

SHEE, or **BLACKWATER**, a river of Scotland, in Perthshire, which rises from the union of three small streams at Spittal of Glenshee, the Lochty, Tatnich, and Beg, from the

the mountains on the borders of Aberdeenshire, and after a southerly course of several miles, unites with the Ardlie at Rochalzie, in forming the Ericht.

SHEEN, or **SHEE'NY**, *adj.* [Fr.; the Sax. *ſcen*, *ſcene*, bright, clear, shining; and anciently written *shene*.] Bright; glittering; shewy; fair. *A word used only in poetry.*

When he was all dight, he took his way
Into the forest, that he might be seen
Of the wild beasts, in his new glory *sheen*.

Spenser.

Now they never meet in grove or green,
By fountain clear or spangled star-light *sheen*.

Shakspeare.

Up rose each warrior bold and brave,
Glistering in filed steel and armour *shéén*.

Fairfax.

Or did of late earth's sons besiege the wall
Of *sheeny* heaven?

Milton.

SHEEN, *s.* Brightness; splendour. *A poetical word.*

Mercy will sit between;
Throned in celestial *sheen*.

Milton.

Far above, in spangled *sheen*,
Celestial Cupid, her fam'd son advanc'd,
Holds his dear Psyche sweet entranc'd.

Milton.

SHEEN, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 8 miles east-north-east of Leeke. Population 414.

SHEEN, EAST, a hamlet of England, in Surrey, seated on an eminence near the Thames, between Richmond and Roehampton.

SHEEP, *s.* plural likewise *sheep*. [*ſceap*, Saxon; of which the plural was *ſcep*.] The animal that bears wool.

Fire the brambles, snare the birds, and steep
In wholesome water-falls the fleecy *sheep*.

Dryden.

Of substances there are two sorts of ideas; one of single substances, as they exist separately, as a man or *sheep*. *Locke*.—[In contempt.] A foolish silly fellow. *Ainsworth*.—For a full description of Sheep, see *Ovis*; their diseases, *ibid.* p. 100 to 103; their varieties, breeding and general management, see *HUSBANDRY*, pp. 497 to 502, and 522 to 525.

SHEEP ISLAND, an island near the north coast of Ireland; 6 miles west-north-west of Fairhead. Lat. 55. 15. N. long. 6. 11. W.

To **SHEE'PBITE**, *v. n.* To use petty thefts.—Shew your knave's visage, with a pox to you; shew your *sheep-biting* face, and be hanged. *Shakspeare*.

SHEE'PBITER, *s.* A petty thief.—His gate like a *sheepbiter* fleeing aside. *Tusser*.—There are political *sheepbiters*, as well as pastoral: betrayers of publick trusts, as well as of private. *L'Estrange*.

SHEEPCADE, *s.* A name provincially applied to the large sheep-louse.

SHEE'COT, *s.* A little inclosure for sheep.

Up to a hill anon his steps he rear'd,
From whose high top to ken the prospect round,
If cottage were in view, *sheepcot* or herd;
But cottage, herd, or *sheepeot* none he saw.

Milton.

SHEEP-FESCUE GRASS, in Agriculture. See *FESTUCA OVINA*.

SHEE'PFOLD, *s.* The place where sheep are enclosed.

The bear, the lion, terrors of the plain,
The *sheepfold* scatter'd and the shepherd slain.

Prior.

SHEEPHALL, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 2 miles south-east of Stevenage.

SHEEPHAVEN, a bay on the north coast of Ireland, to the east of Hornhead. Lat. 55. 12. N. long. 7. 45. W.

SHEE'PHOOK, *s.* A hook fastened to a pole by which shepherds lay hold of their sheep.—The one carried a crosier of balm-wood, the other a pastoral staff of cedar like a *sheep-hook*. *Bacon*.

SHEE'PISH, *adj.* Relating to sheep. *Not in use*.—

How to chuse the best tar; to bring in the idle stragglers; how to excell in *sheepish* surgery; how to please Pan, and enchant the rural gods with your melodie. *Stafford's Niobe*.—Bashful; over-modest; timorously and meanly diffident.—Wanting change of company, he will, when he comes abroad, be a *sheepish* or conceited creature. *Locke*.

SHEE'PISHLY, *adv.* Timorously; with mean diffidence.—It is the part of a good-natured man, neither so rigidly to insist upon the punctilios of his liberty and property, as to refuse a glass recommended to him by civility; nor yet on the other side *sheepishly* submit himself to be taxed in his drink. *Goodman*.

SHEE'PISHNESS, *s.* Bashfulness; mean and timorous diffidence.—*Sheepishness* and ignorance of the world, are not consequences of being bred at home. *Locke*.—Without success, let a man be never so hardy, he will have some degree of *sheepishness*. *Grew*.

SHEE'PMASTER, *s.* A feeder of sheep.—A nobleman was a great grazier, and *sheepmaster*. *Bacon*.

SHEEP-NOSE-WORMS, a species of fly-worm, found in the noses of sheep, goats and stags, and produced there from the egg of a large two-winged fly.

SHEEP-SCABIOUS, in Botany. See *JASIONE*.

SHEEPSCOT, a river of the United States, in Lincoln county, Maine, which runs into the Atlantic, on the east side of Wiscasset, forming a bay at its mouth.

SHEEPSHOT, a post village of the United States, in Lincoln county, Maine.

SHEEP'S EYE, *s.* A kind of leer, a wishfull glance.—Cast a *sheep's eye* behind you: in, before me. *Dryden*.

Hard is our lot, who, seldom doom'd to eat,

Cast a *sheep's eye* on this forbidden meat.

Warton.

SHEEP-SHANK, in Sea Language, is a sort of knot, or hitch, cast on a rope, to shorten it as occasion requires; particularly to increase the sweep or length of a tackle, by contracting its runner. By this contrivance the body, to which the tackle is applied, may be hoisted much higher, or removed much farther, in a shorter time. *Falconer*.

SHEEPSHEAD, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 3 miles from Loughborough. Population 3026.

SHEEPSHEAD, a cape on the south coast of Ireland, between Bantry bay and Dunmannus bay. Lat. 51. 29. N. long. 9. 45. W.

SHEEP'SHEARER, *s.* One who shears sheep.—Judah went up unto his *sheepshearers* to Timnah. *Gen*.

SHEEPSHEA'RING, *s.* The time of shearing sheep; also a feast made when sheep are shorn.—There happening a great and solemn festivity, such as the *sheepshearings* used to be. *South*.

SHEEP'STEALER, *s.* A thief who takes away sheep.—A *sheepstealer* is hanged for stealing. *Burton*.

SHEEP'S TOR, a hamlet of England, in Devonshire; 7 miles south-east of Tavistock.

SHEEP'S-TROTTERS, a refuse material procured from fell-mongers, which is made use of in some places as a manure to be turned into the land.

SHEE'PWALK, *s.* Pasture for sheep.

He beheld a field,

Part arable and tilth; whereon were sheaves

New reap'd; the other part *sheepwalks* and folds.

Milton.

SHEEPWASH, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4 miles west-north-west Hatherleigh. Population 378.

SHEEPWASH, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 4½ miles east of Morpeth.

SHEEPY, GREAT and LITTLE, two small villages of England, in Leicestershire; 5½ miles west-by-south of Market Bosworth. Population 455.

SHEER, *adj.* [*ſcipe*, *ſcep*, Sax. *sehier*, Germ.] Pure; clear; unmingled.

Having viewed in a fountain *sheer*

His face.

Spenser.

Thou *sheer*, immaculate, and silver fountain. *Shakspeare*.—*Sheer* argument is not the talent of the man; little wrested

wrested sentences are the bladders which bear him up, and he sinks downright, when he once pretends to swim about them. *Atterbury.*

SHEER, *adv.* Clean; quick; at once. *Not now in use.*

Thrown by angry Jove

Sheer o'er the crystal battlements; from morn
To noon he fell, from noon to dewy eve,
A summer's day; and with the setting sun,
Drop'd from the zenith, like a falling star,
On Lemnos.

Milton.

Due entrance he disdain'd, and in contempt
At one slight bound high overleap'd all bound
Of hill or highest wall, and *sheer* within
Lights on his feet.

Milton.

To **SHEER**, *v. a.* See **SHEAR**.

I keep my birth-day: send me Phillis home
At *sheering*-time.

Dryden.

SHEER, in Ship-Building, the fore and aft curve or hang of a ship's sides or decks.

SHEER-DRAUGHT, the plan of elevation of a ship, on which is described the out-board works, as the sheer-rails, wales, ports, drifts, head, quarter, post, and stern, &c. The hang or sheer of each deck inside, the height of the water-lines, &c.

SHEER-HOOKS, are large iron hooks used when a ship designs to board another.

SHEER-HULK, is an old ship of war of 74 guns, cut down to the lower deck, or nearly so, and fitted up so as to fix or take out the lower masts of ships in the royal navy, as occasion requires.

SHEER-STRAKE, the upper strake or strakes on the topside in midships. It forms the chief strength of the topside, and is therefore thicker, and continued the whole length parallel to the top timber-line and scarfs at the butts between the drifts.

SHEER-WALES, those strakes of thick stuff in the topside of three-decked ships, which are wrought between the middle and lower deck ports. Sometimes they are called middle-wales.

To **SHEAR OFF**, *v. n.* To steal away; to slip off clandestinely.

SHEERGOTTA, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar. It stands at the foot of a steep and narrow pass cut through the Ramgur hills, being part of the great military road leading from Calcutta to Benares. It takes its name from the number of tigers which formerly infested this route. Lat. 24. 32. N. long. 84. 55. E.

SHEERGUR. There are several towns of this name in Hindostan, which signifies *the resort of tigers*.

SHEERHORN, a very lofty mountain of the Swiss canton of Uri; 10 miles south-east of Altorf. It rises to the height of 10,700 feet, and at the top is divided into two parts, from which it probably derives its name. It is covered with glaciers of great extent. Lat. 46. 49. 50. N. long. 8. 40. 5. E.

SHEERING, or **SHEARING**, in Sea Language, a term used for the motion of a ship, when she deviates from the line of the course, either to the right or left.—To sheer off, is to remove to a greater distance.

SHEERING, a parish of England, in Essex; 8 miles from Epping.

SHEERLY, *adv.* At once; quite; absolutely. *Unused.*

Search through all the memories of mankind,
And find me such a friend; he has outdone all,
Outstrip them *sheerly*.

Beaumont and Fl.

SHEERNESS, a market town of England, and sea-port, in the county of Kent, situated on the isle of Sheppey, at the mouth of the river Medway, and noted for its strong and commanding fortress. This work was begun in the reign of Charles II. when it was deemed advisable to form a fort here, to protect the entrance of the river. Subsequent to this, the Dutch attacked this point, destroyed the fortifications, and sailed with their fleet up the Medway, as far as

Upnor castle. The spot, however, being deemed of importance, government after this directed some strong works to be formed here. A regular fortress was soon constructed, and mounted with a line of large and heavy cannon; several smaller forts, being at the same time built at different stations, on the banks of the river. Since that period, the fort has been greatly enlarged and strengthened, new works have been added, and such improvements made as to command effectually the entrance of the river. It now also constitutes a regular garrison commanded by a governor, lieutenant-governor, a fort major, and other inferior officers. The ordnance establishment is under the controul of a store-keeper, a clerk of the cheque, and a clerk of the survey. Adjoining the fort is the king's yard or dock, which is chiefly used for repairing ships that have been slightly damaged. A resident commissioner, with two clerks, a master ship-wright, and other officers, with labourers, are stationed here. A modern chapel has been erected at Sheerness, at the expense of government: but the town is subordinate in ecclesiastical rites and privileges, to the parish church of Minster. Several old ships of war have been stationed on the shore as breakwaters; their hulls are occupied by 70 or 80 families; and the chimnies, being raised of brick from the lower gun decks, they have altogether a very singular appearance. The fort and inhabitants of the town having for a long period experienced a great scarcity of fresh water, the chief supply being brought from Chatham, it was at length determined by the board of ordnance, to attempt to sink a well within the fort. This work was attended with many difficulties, but was at last completely successful, and furnishes at the same time a curious fact in the natural history of springs, and of the mineral strata of the earth. Having dug to the vast depth of 328 feet, the augur with which the workmen were boring suddenly dropt down, and the water immediately rushed up with such violence, that the men could hardly be drawn up in time to escape with their lives. In a few days, it stood within eight feet of the top, and has ever since produced a constant supply. The quality of the water is fine and soft; and it supplies not only the garrison and inhabitants, but also the shipping in the Medway. By the return of 1811, Sheerness contained 134 inhabited houses, and 96 uninhabited, with 1685 inhabitants, including the convicts in the hulks, but independent of the garrison. Market on Saturday; 3 miles north of Queenborough, and 46 east of London. Lat. 51. 26. N. long. 0. 46. E.

SHEERPORE. There are several towns of this name, which signifies *abounding with tigers*, in Hindostan.

SHEERS, *s.* See **SHEARS**.

SHEERS, in Ship-Building, are two masts or spars, set across at the upper end of each other, and there lashed together with tackles depending from the intersection; and they are kept upright by guys extending each way from the heads. By this contrivance very heavy bodies are raised, such as the stem, stern, stern-frame, and the frame-timbers of ships: likewise ships are masted by sheers, or have their masts taken out where there is no sheer-hulk.

SHEET, *s.* [ʃeæt, ʃeet, ʃeýt, Sax. (sicut Angl. *sheet*,) propriè est lodix, vel linteum planum atque *expansum*: postea tamen translata est vox ad plures alias res in *latum effusas*; ut, a *sheet* of lead, paper, &c. *Lyc.* edit. Manning. *Sheet*, (whether a *sheet* for a bed, a *sheet* of water, a *sheet* of lightning, a *sheet* anchor, &c.) is the participle ʃeæt of ʃeýtan, to cast forth, to throw out. Horne Tooke.] A broad and large piece of linen.—He saw heaven opened, and a vessel descending unto him, as a great *sheet*, knit at the four corners. *Acts*.—The linen of a bed.

If I die before thee, shroud me
In one of these same *sheets*.

Shakspeare.

[*Ecoutes*, Fr. *echoten*, Dutch.] In a ship are ropes bent to the clews of the sails, which serve in all the lower sails to hale or round off the clew of the sail; but in topsails they draw the sail close to the yard arms. *Dict*.—The little row behind the back, and undoing whisper, like pulling

off a *sheet*-rope at sea, slackens the sail. *Suckling*.—As much paper as is made in one body.

As much love in rhyme,
As could be cramm'd up in a *sheet* of paper,
Writ on both sides the leaf, margin and all. *Shakspeare*.

A single complication or fold of paper in a book.—Any thing expanded.

Such *sheets* of fire, such bursts of horrid thunder
I never remember to have heard. *Shakspeare*.

Rowling thunder roars,
And *sheets* of lightning blast the standing field. *Dryden*.
An azure *sheet* it rushes broad,
And from the loud resounding rock below,
Dash'd in a cloud of foam. *Thomson*.

Sheets in the plural is taken for a book.—To this the following *sheets* are intended for a full and distinct answer. *Waterland*.

SHEET, in Sea Language, a rope fastened to one or both the lower corners of a sail, to extend and retain it in a particular station. When a ship sails with a lateral wind, the lower corner of the main and fore-sail are fastened by a tack and a sheet; the former being to windward, and the latter to leeward; the tack, however, is entirely disused with a stern wind, whereas the sail is never spread without the assistance of one or both of the sheets. The stay-sails and studding-sails have only one tack, and one sheet each; the stay-sail tacks are always fastened forward, and the sheet drawn aft; but the studding-sail tack draws the under clue of the sail to the extremity of the boom, whereas the sheet is employed to extend the inmost. *Falconer*.

SHEET, a hamlet of England, in Southamptonshire, adjacent to Petersfield.

To **SHEET**, *v. a.* To furnish with sheets. To unfold in a sheet.

The *sheeted* dead
Did squeak and gibber in the Roman streets. *Shakspeare*.
To cover as with a sheet.

Like the stag when snow the pasture *sheets*,
The barks of trees thou browsed'st. *Shakspeare*.

SHEET-ANCHOR, *s.* [Formerly *shoot-anchor*, as Mr. H. Tooke has observed; which continued to be in use much later than he has stated.] In a ship is the largest anchor; which, in stress or weather, is the mariners' last refuge, when an extraordinary stiff gale of wind happens. *Bailey*. See **SHEET**.—This saying they make their *shootanker*. *Abp. Cranmer*.—His majesty did ever seeke to settle his establishment upon the faith of protestants in generalitie, as the most assured *shoote-ancr*. *Proceed. against Garnet*.

SHEETING, *s.* Cloth for making sheets.—Diapers were made in one town or district, damasks in another, *sheeting* in a third. *Bp. Berkeley*.

SHEETING, a term signifying the flooring of jointed planks, under the lock-gates of a canal, and at the tail of every lock and sluice, &c.

SHEFFIELD (John), Duke of Buckinghamshire, son of the earl of Mulgrave, was born in the year 1649. At the death of his father he succeeded to his title: this was in the year 1658. At an early age he dismissed his governor, but supplying the want by his own industry, he acquired a considerable proficiency in literature. His martial ardour broke out at the age of seventeen, when he engaged in the first Dutch war as a volunteer. The indications which he gave of the love of pleasure, united with literary talents, which had a peculiar value in the reign of Charles II., rendered him a favourite at court, and he materially assisted in the obtaining for Dryden the appointment to the post of laureat. At the commencement of the second Dutch war, he was a volunteer in the fleet commanded by the Duke of York, and was present at the battle of Solebay, in which he behaved with so much gallantry, that on his return he was made captain of a second-rate ship of war. In the follow-

ing year he was appointed colonel of a regiment of foot under general Schomberg. In 1674, he was decorated with the order of the Garter. He was, in 1679, appointed lord-lieutenant of Yorkshire, and governor of Hull, in which year he wrote a piece, entitled "The Character of a Tory, in answer to that of a Trimmer." In this we have an avowal of his political principles, which were those of the party in whose name he wrote, and to which he adhered during life. In 1680, he went out with a force to the relief of Tangier, then invested by the Moors. In this expedition he completely succeeded, and with it ended the military services of lord Mulgrave. On the accession of James II. he was chosen of the privy-council, and made lord-chamberlain of the household. He returned these favours by a zealous attachment to his master, which led him to take a seat in the ecclesiastical commission; but in this he opposed those measures of the priests which brought on the speedy ruin of that infatuated prince. Though inimical to the revolution, yet he voted for the conjunct sovereignty of king William with Mary. In 1694, he was made marquis of Normanby; notwithstanding this, and his admission into the cabinet, with a pension, yet he still had a great dislike to the king. On the accession, however, of queen Anne, his former attachment to the court was revived, and he experienced her favour by an appointment to the privy-seal, and by other honours, which were terminated in 1703, by a nomination to the dukedom of Buckinghamshire. Jealous of the influence of the duke of Marlborough, he resigned the office of privy-seal, and remained out of office several years, during which he built the house in St. James's Park, on the site of which his present Majesty's new palace is now erecting. At the great change of the ministry in 1710, he was again introduced, first as steward of the household, and then as president of the council. After the death of queen Anne, he was an opponent of the court, and employed his time chiefly in literary pursuits, till his death, in 1721.

The duke had been thrice married, and each time to a widow: his last wife was a natural daughter of James II., by whom he had a son that survived him. Following the example of the court of Charles II., he freely indulged in licentious amours; nevertheless, it has been said that he had occasionally serious thoughts of religion, though probably not restricted to any particular party. The following is the epitaph which he composed for himself: "Dubius sed non improbus vixi: incertus morior, sed inturbatus: humanum est nescire et errare. Christum adveneror: Deo confido omnipotenti, benevolentissimo: Ens entium miserere mei." This was inscribed on his magnificent monument in Westminster Abbey, with the exception of the clause respecting Christ, which bishop Atterbury rejected, thinking simple veneration a derogatory expression applied to the second person in the Trinity.

In the capacity of poet, the duke of Buckinghamshire does not rank very high; his compositions are on a variety of topics, of which, however, the chief is "An Essay on Poetry," which, according to Dr. Johnson, contains judicious precepts, which are sometimes new, and often happily expressed, but with many weak lines, and some strange instances of negligence. In his "Essay on Satire," he is supposed to have been assisted by Dryden, who, for some peculiarities in it, had the misfortune to be taken as the real author.

The duke of Buckinghamshire composed two tragedies, entitled "Julius Cæsar," and the "Death of Brutus;" for the latter of which, at his request, Pope wrote two chorusses: of these Warburton says, that they have the usual effect of ill-placed ornaments,—they make the meanness of the piece more conspicuous.

SHEFFIELD, a large and populous manufacturing town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It is beautifully situated on an eminence, at the confluence of the rivers Sheaf and Don, the former, from which the town takes its name, bounding it on the east, and the latter on the north. It is surrounded by hills of considerable height, which command fine prospects of the town and vicinity, and add greatly

greatly to the romantic situation of the place. Over the Don is a stone bridge of five arches, called Lady's bridge, built in 1485, and repaired in 1762; and over the Sheaf is another of one arch. The town extends about a mile from north to south, and above three quarters from east to west. Few places can boast of more handsome and regular streets. The houses are well built, and many of them elegant: they are now mostly of brick; but stone was at one time the only building material in use. Though the smoke of the numerous manufactories tends to give the town a sombre appearance, it is yet far from being dull, and is abundantly furnished with all the conveniences and elegances of life. The public buildings are not particularly remarkable for architectural beauty, and are rather calculated for utility than show. The principal of these are the churches belonging to the establishment, the town-hall, cutlers'-hall, the general infirmary, and assembly-room, and the theatre. The churches are four in number, viz., St. Peter's church, St. Paul's, St. James's and the chapel of the duke of Norfolk's hospital. St. Peter's, the parish church of Sheffield, stands near the centre of the town, and was erected in the reign of Henry I. It is a Gothic building, with a spire rising from the middle. On the south side of the chancel is the Shrewsbury chapel, which contains four monuments to the memory of the earls of Shrewsbury, of the family of Talbot. At the entrance to the chancel are deposited the remains of William Walker of Darnal, in this parish, supposed to have been the executioner of Charles I.; "but," says the recent historian of Sheffield, the reverend J. Hunter, "with better reason supposed to have been the translator of the *Vindicia contra Tyrannos*. St. Paul's church is an elegant modern building, in the Grecian style. It was begun in 1720, but not finished till 1771. St. James's church is a more modern structure; it was built by subscription, and opened about the year 1790. The chapel at the duke of Norfolk's hospital was opened in 1777. It is of an octagonal form, and calculated to contain a large congregation. Besides the churches, the town contains seven meeting-houses for Protestant dissenters, one for Unitarians, two for Methodists, one for Quakers, and a Roman Catholic chapel. The town-hall is a handsome new edifice, built of stone, and situated near the fish market-place in Castle-street. The cutlers'-hall is on the south side of St. Peter's church-yard, and was built in the year 1726. The general infirmary is situated about half a mile to the west of the town. It is a large and commodious building, begun in 1793, and finished in a few years, the expence being defrayed by subscriptions and legacies. The situation is healthy, and the plan of the building well adapted to promote the recovery of patients. Indeed in these points, as well as in the provision for medical aid, and the comfortable treatment of the patients, this institution is universally allowed to equal any establishment of a similar kind in the kingdom. The assembly-room and the theatre comprise an elegant building in Norfolk-street, in the south part of the town. This was first erected in 1762, but has been since taken down, and rebuilt on a larger scale. The town contains several other buildings deserving of notice. The duke of Norfolk's hospital stands on the eastern bank of the Sheaf. It was founded and endowed in 1670, by Henry earl of Norwich, and received a considerable accession of property by Edward duke of Norfolk, in 1770. On the north side of the town is an hospital, founded by Mr. Thomas Hollis, merchant in London, in 1703, for poor cutlers' widows. On the north-east of the town, and near the banks of the Don, are the military barracks, which were built about the same time with the general infirmary. They form a noble pile of building, with a fine esplanade in front. The rooms are of a proper size, and conveniently arranged; and the whole structure is well adapted for the accommodation of troops. The free grammar-school was erected in 1649. Near it is a writing school for poor boys; and here are also two charity schools, one for boys and another for girls. A large market-place, with extensive and commodious shambles, and other accommodations, was formed

and finished in 1786. The works of the Sheffield gas-light Company, erected in 1819, form a highly creditable addition to the public buildings of Sheffield. They stand near the Sheaf bridge; and not far from them, the basin, warehouse, and wharfs of the new canal from Tinsley, opened in 1819, present a further example of the public spirit of the inhabitants of Sheffield, having been finished at an immense expence. Sheffield can also boast of two of the first schools in the kingdom, on Bell and Lancaster's systems. The former provides instruction for 450 boys and 450 girls; the latter for 700 boys and 600 girls.

Sheffield has been long noted for its manufactures, for which it is well adapted by its situation, the neighbourhood abounding in coals and iron, and the river Don affording an extensive navigation through different parts of the kingdom. The staple manufactures are those of hardware, which are very various and extensive, and constitute indeed the chief support of the town, and the great source of its opulence and prosperity. They comprise two great divisions, viz., those of cutlery and plated goods; and these branch out into numerous ramifications, each of which constitutes a distinct business, though some manufacturers carry on several of them together. To the first division belong the trades of making edge-tools, combs, cases, buttons, fenders, files, anvils, joiners' tools, lancets, forks, hafts, ink-stands, nails, pocket-knives, pen-knives, razors, snuffers, common scissors, fine scissors, saws, scythes, and hay and straw knives, sickles, sheers, awl-blades, bellows, &c.; and also the refining of steel. The trade of plated goods comprises an endless variety of articles, such as tea-urns, coffee-pots, sauce-pans, tankards, cups, candlesticks, and other pieces of table furniture, &c. The latter manufactures are wholly confined within the town, but those of cutlery goods are also carried on in all the villages and hamlets in the neighbourhood, to the distance of seven miles. Besides these manufactures, there are in the town and its vicinity, several extensive foundries for iron, brass, and white metal. In 1625, the master manufacturers of Sheffield were incorporated under the title of the "Company of Cutlers of Hallamshire," the name of the district or liberty in which the town is situated. This corporation is governed by a master elected annually, six searchers, and 24 assistants, and is the only body of tradesmen incorporated in the town. It contains at present about 600 members. Sheffield appears to have been noted so early as in the 13th century, as a staple for iron manufactures; and Chaucer, who wrote in the reign of Edward III. mentions the "Sheffield whittle" in one of his poems. For several centuries, however, its trade was inconsiderable, consisting almost entirely of sheath knives, scissors, sickles, and scythes; and it was not till the year 1750, that the town began to make any great figure as a manufacturing place. In that year, Mr. Joseph Broadbent opened a direct trade with the continent, the business of the town having been previously confined entirely to Great Britain; and in 1751, the Don was rendered navigable to within three miles of the town, which gave new facilities both to foreign and domestic intercourse. The navigation, as already intimated, is now complete to the verge of the town. Soon after this, Mr. Thomas Bolsover began to plate brass and copper buttons with silver; and in 1758, the silver plating manufactory was begun on an extensive scale, by Mr. Joseph Hancock. Since that time the town has advanced rapidly in population and wealth, and the progress of luxury and improvement has kept pace with its increasing prosperity. In 1760, a stage coach to London was set up, and a coffee-room was begun in 1765. A bank was opened in 1770. About the year 1786, the first steam-engine grinding wheel was opened. In 1793, the first hackney coach was set up.

The origin and remote history of Sheffield are unknown: in former times it was distinguished for its castle, a strong fortress, situated on the north-east of the town, near the confluence of the two rivers, and supposed to have been built during the reign of Henry III. This castle descended from the

the Lovetots to the Nevils, lords Furnival, and passed from them to the Talbots, earls of Shrewsbury, and subsequently to the Howards, dukes of Norfolk, in whose family the lordship of the manor is still vested. During the civil wars in the time of Charles I., Sheffield castle sustained a long siege for the king, but at last surrendered upon honourable terms, and was soon afterwards ordered to be demolished, and scarcely a vestige of it can now be discerned. Population 50,012. Market on Tuesday and Saturday; 36 miles south of Leeds, and 162 north-north-west of London. Lat. 53. 22. N. long 1. 29. W.

SHEFFIELD, a post township of the United States, in Caledonia county, Vermont. Population 388.

SHEFFIELD, a post township of the United States, in Berkshire county, Massachusetts; 125 miles west-south-west of Boston. It is watered by the Housatonic. Population 2439.

SHEFFIELDIA [so called by Forster in honour of the Rev. Mr. Sheffield, whom he designates as the chief botanist at Oxford], in Botany, a genus of plants. The genus in question is now sunk in *SAMOLUS*: see that article.

SHEFFORD, a township of England, in Bedfordshire; 5 miles south-west of Biggleswade. Population 536.

SHEFFORD, WEST, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 5 miles north-east of Hungerford. Population 421.

SHEFFORD, EAST, a parish in the same county, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

SHEFFORD, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Richlieu. Population 500.

SHEHERON, a village of Irak, in Persia, 15 miles east of Kermanshaw.

SHEHERVERD, a village of Irak, in Persia; 30 miles south-west of Sultania.

SHEHOLA, a post township of the United States, in Wayne county, Pennsylvania.

SHEHOUN, a small town of Syria, under the jurisdiction of an independent Aga, called anciently *CAPPAREAS*; 18 miles north of Hamah.

SHEHRIDGHERD, a village of Irak, in Persia; 33 miles west-south-west of Koom.

SHEHRISTAN, a village of Korassan, in Persia; 210 miles west of Herat.

SHEHRISTAN, a village of Khusistan, in Persia; 50 miles north-west of Shiras.

SHEHRZOUR, a town of Persia, in the eastern part of Koordistan, capital of a district; 150 miles north of Bagdad.

SHEIB, a lake of Egypt; 48 miles east-north-east of Cairo.

SHEIK, or **SCHEIK**, the person who has the care of the mosques in Egypt: his duty is the same as that of the imams at Constantinople. There are more or fewer of these to every mosque, according to its size or revenues. One of these is head over the rest, and answers to a parish-priest with us, and has under him, in large mosques, the readers and people who cry out to go to prayers; but in small mosques the sheik is obliged to do all this himself. In such it is their business to open the mosque, to cry to prayers, and to begin their short devotions at the head of the congregation, who stand rank and file in great order, and make all their motions together. Every Friday the sheik makes an harangue to his congregation.

SHEIK-BELLET, the name of an officer in the oriental nations.

In Egypt the sheik-bellet is the head of a city, and is appointed by the pacha. The business of this officer is to take care that no innovation be made, which may be prejudicial to the Porte, and that they send no orders which may hurt the liberties of the people. But all this authority depends on his credit and interest, not his office: for the government of Egypt is of such a kind, that often the people of the least power by their posts have the greatest influence; and a caia of the janizaries or Arabs, and some-

times one of their meanest officers, an oda-basha, finds means, by his parts and abilities, to govern all things.

SHEIKPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Babar. Lat. 25. 8. N. long. 85. 4. E.

SHEIKH-UL-JEBAL, Dominions of, or lord of the mountains (commonly called the Old Man of the Mountain) comprised the whole of that elevated tract in the province of Azerbaijan in the Persian empire, which runs parallel with the course of the Kizilozain and the greater part of Ghilan. When destroyed by Holaku, the Housseines or Assassins, possessed upwards of 100 strong-holds; but the residence of the prince was generally confined to the castles Roudbar and Allah Ahmaut, both of which are situated in the Kohr Caucasian, near Kazween.

SHEK ABDALLAH, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo; 20 miles south-east of Aleppo.

SHEK ABU ENNUR, a village of Upper Egypt; 7 miles south of Benisuef.

SHEK AMMER, a village of Upper Egypt, on the Nile; 17 miles north of Syene.

SHEK EMBADE, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 16 miles south-south-east of Girge.

SHEK EREDI, or **HARADI**, a village of Upper Egypt, on the eastern bank of the Nile, distinguished by the tomb of a Turkish saint; 8 miles north-north-east of Achmim.

SHEK FADLE, a village of Upper Egypt, on the Nile 10 miles south of Abu Girge.

SHEK IL ETMAN, a village of Egypt, on the Nile; 7 miles south-south-west of Cairo.

SHEK ZEINEDDIN, a village of Upper Egypt, on the Nile; 3 miles north of Tahta.

SHEKARPORE, a town of Afghanistan, province of Sewistan, on the Indus. This place has never been visited by a European; but it is described as a large and fortified town, having seven gates. It is governed by a Mahometan chief, who pays tribute both to the Afghans and Ameers of Sinde. Lat. 28. 47. N. long. 69. 40. E.

SHEKEL, **SHEKLE**, **SHECKLE**, or **SICLUS**, an ancient Hebrew silver coin, which was originally a didrachm, but, after the Maccabees, about the value of the Greek tetradrachm, or four Attic drachmas, or four Roman denarii, allowing the drachma and denarius to be of the same value; and according to Mr. Raper's valuation of the drachma at 9d. 286, equal to 37d. 144.

In the Bible, the shekel is sometimes also rendered *solidus* and sometimes *stater*.

The Jewish doctors are in great doubt about the weight of the shekel; and it is only by conjecture, and by the weight of the modern shekel, that the ancient one is judged equal to four Attic drachmas.

SHEKKA, a village of the Bled el Jereede, bordering on Tunis, the *Cerbeia* of Ptolemy; 18 leagues west-south-west of Gafsa.

SHEKOABAD, a considerable town of Hindostan, province of Agra, and district of Etawah. It was formerly fortified, and a place of considerable consequence. The vicinity produces very fine indigo; with which, and cotton, it carries on a considerable trade. This town is said to have been founded by the unfortunate Dara Sheko, the elder brother of Aurungzebe. Lat. 27. 6. N. long. 78. 38. E.

SHEKY MOUNTAINS, mountains of Ireland in the county of Cork; 15 miles west of Bandonbridge.

SHELBROOK, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles from Doncaster.

SHELBURN BAY, a bay on the north coast of New Holland, between Oxfordness and Cape Grenville.

SHELBURNE, a post township of the United States, in Chitterdon county, Vermont, on Lake Champlain. Population 987.

SHELBURNE, a township of the United States, in Coos county, New Hampshire, on the Androscoggin. Population 176.

SHELBURNE, a township of the United States, in Franklin

Franklin county, Massachusetts; 100 miles west of Boston. Population 961.

SHELBY, a township of the United States, in Bath county, Kentucky.

SHELBY, a county of the United States, in the north part of Kentucky, bounded north by Henry, west by Bullet, east by Franklin, and south by Nelson. It is fertile, and copiously watered by several creeks running into Salt river. Population 14,778, including 3114 slaves.

SHELBYVILLE, the principal town of Shelby county, in the United States, situated on Brashan's creek; 12 miles above its junction with Salt river. It contains a court-house, a bank, and a meeting-house. Population 424.

SHELBYVILLE, a post township of the United States, and capital of Bedford county, Tennessee, on Duck river. It is flourishing, and contains a court-house.

SHELDAFLE, *s.* [*sheld*, speckled: An old Suffolk word. Ray.] The chaffinch.

SHELDERTON, a hamlet of England, in Salop; 8 miles west-north-west of Ludlow.

SHELDESLEY, BEAUCHAMP and KING'S, two hamlets of England, in Worcestershire, on opposite sides of the river Teme, north-west of Clitheroe.

SHELDON, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire; 3½ miles west-by-north of Bakewell.

SHELDON, a village of England, in Devonshire; 6½ miles east-north-east of Columpton.

SHELDON, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 4½ miles south-west of Coleshill. Population 388.

SHELDON, formerly HUNGERFORD, a post township of the United States, in Franklin county, Vermont, on the Michiscoui; 16 miles east of Lake Champlain. Population 883.

SHELDON, a township of the United States, in Genesee county, New York; 270 miles west of Albany. Population 1415.

SHELDRAKE, *s.* A bird that preys on fishes; a kind of wild duck.—Teals, *sheldrakes*, and speckled fowls, that come hither in winter out of Scandia, Muscovy, &c. *Burton.*

SHELDUCK, *s.* A kind of wild duck. See SHELDRAKE.—To preserve wild ducks, and *shelducks*, have a place walled in with a pond. *Mortimer.*

SHELDWICK, a parish of England, in Kent; 2½ miles south-by-west of Feversham. Population 449.

SHELE, a small river of England, which runs into the Tyne, near its head.

SHELF, *s. pl.* *Shelves.* [*ʃɛl*; *ʃɛlf*, Sax.] A board fixed against a supporter, so that any thing may be placed upon it. Bind fast, or from their *shelves*
Your books will come and right themselves. *Swift.*

A sand bank in the sea; a rock under shallow water.—Our transported souls shall congratulate each other on their having now fully escaped the numerous rocks, *shelves*, and quick-sands. *Boyle.*

SHELF, a term used by the miners in many parts of England, to express a distinction of the inner structure of the earth, so little known to philosophers, that they have no word to express it by. These workmen sometimes also express it by the term fast ground or fast country. What they mean by this is, that part of the earth, which they find lying even, and in an orderly manner, and evidently having retained its primitive form and situation.

SHELFANGER, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2½ miles north of Diss. Population 398.

SHELFE, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-east of Halifax. Population 1553.

SHELFORD, a small town of England, in Bedfordshire, lying between two rivulets, which, uniting their streams, fall into the Ouse. Market on Friday; 9 miles south of Bedford, and 41 north of London.

SHELFORD, a parish of England in Nottinghamshire; 6 miles east-north-east of Nottingham. Population 366.

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SHELFORD, GREAT, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 3 miles south-by-east of Cambridge. Population 593.

SHELFORD, LITTLE, another parish in the same county, about a mile distant from the foregoing. Population 357.

SHELIFY, *adj.* Full of hidden rocks or banks; full of dangerous shallows.

Glides by the syren's cliffs a *shelify* coast,
Long infamous for ships and sailors lost,
And white with bones.

Dryden.

In this passage, stony.—The tillable fields are in some places so tough, that the plough will scarcely cut them; and in some so *shelify* that the corn hath much ado to fasten its root. *Carew.*

SHELL, *s.* [*ʃɛl*, *ʃɛll*, Sax. *schale*, *schelle*, Teut. *schale*, Germ., *skal*, Icel., *skalja*, M. Goth., a shell, a scale. See also SHALE.] The hard covering of any thing; the external crust.—Whatever we fetch from under ground is only what is lodged in the *shell* of the earth. *Locke.*—The covering of a testaceous or crustaceous animal.

Her women wear

The spoils of nations in an ear;
Chang'd for the treasure of a *shell*,
And in their loose attires do swell.

B. Jonson.

The covering of the seeds of siliquous plants.—Some fruits are contained within a hard *shell*, being the seeds of the plants. *Arbuthnot.*—The covering of kernels.

Chang'd loves are but chang'd sorts of meat;
And when he hath the kernel eat,
Who doth not throw away the *shell*?

Donne.

The covering of an egg.

Think him as a serpent's egg,
Which, hatch'd, would, as his kind, grow mischievous,
And kill him in the *shell*.

Shakspeare.

The outer part of an house.—The marquis of Medina Sidonia made the *shell* of a house, that would have been a very noble building, had he brought it to perfection. *Addison.*—It is used for a musical instrument in poetry, from *testudo*, Latin; the first lyre being said to have been made by straining strings over the shell of a tortoise.

Less than a god they thought there could not dwell
Within the hollow of that *shell*,
That spoke so sweetly, and so well.

Dryden.

The superficial part.—So devout are the Romanists about this outward *shell* of religion, that if any altar be moved, or a stone of it broken, it ought to be reconsecrated. *Ayliffe.*—In artillery, a bomb.

SHELLS, *Collecting and cleaning of.* See CONCHOLOGY.

SHELLS, *Figures and Colours, &c. of.* It is observed, that river-shells have not so agreeable or diversified a colour as the land and sea-shells; but the variety in the figure, colours, and other characters of sea-shells, is almost infinite. The number of distinct species we find in the cabinets of the curious is very great; and doubtless the deep bottoms of the sea, and the yet unsearched shores, contain multitudes more, yet unknown to us. Even the same species differ in some degree in almost every individual, so that it is rare to find any two shells which are alike in all respects. *Bonan. Recreat. Ment. et Ocul.*

This wonderful variety, however, is not all the produce of one sea, or one country; the different parts of the world afford us their different beauties. Bonani observes, that the most beautiful shells we are acquainted with come from the East Indies, and from the Red sea. This is in some degree countenanced by what is found to this day; from the general observations of the curious, it seems that the sun, by the great heat that it gives to the countries near the line, exalts the colours of the shells produced there, and gives them

them a lustre and brilliancy, that those of colder climates always want; and it may be, that the waters of those vast seas, which are not subject to be weakened by fresh rivers, give a nourishment to the fish, that may add to the brilliancy of their shells.

The shores of Asia furnish us with the pearl oysters and scallops in great perfection. About Amboyna are found the most beautiful specimens of the cabbage-shell, the arrosoir, the ducal mantle, and the coral oysters, or echinated oysters. Here also are found a great variety of extremely beautiful muscles, tellinæ, and volutæ; some fine buccinums, and the shell called the *Ethiopian crown*, in its greatest perfection.

The dolia, the murices, and the cassandræ, are also found on these coasts in great beauty. Many elegant snails and screw-shells are also brought from thence; and finally the serapion and spider-shells. *Hist. Nat. Eclairc.*

The Maldivæ, and Philippine islands, Bengal, and the coast of Malabar, abound with the most elegant of all the species of snails, and furnish many other kinds of shells in great abundance and perfection.

China abounds in the finest species of porcelain shells, and has also a great variety of beautiful snails.

Japan furnishes us with all the thicker and larger bivalves; and the isle of Cyprus is famous above all other parts of the world, for the beauty and variety of the patella, or limpet, found there.

America affords many very elegant shells, but neither in so great abundance nor beauty as the shores of Asia.

Panama is famous for the cylinders or rhombi, and we have beside, from the same place, some good porcelains, and a very fine species of dolium, or *concha globosa*, called from this place the *Panama purple shell*. One of the most beautiful of the cylinders is also known among our naturalists under the name of the *Panama shell*.

SHELL, *Arabian*, a name given by some to a species of porcelain shell, not because it is found on the coast of Arabia, but because its lines and variegations are supposed to represent the figures of Arabic characters.

SHELL, *Aurora*, a very remarkable species of shell-fish, found in cabinets of the curious. It is of the figure of a bird, having a head, wings and tail, and is of a flame-colour; it owes much of its beauty, however, to art and accident; the shell is an oyster of a peculiar variation of figure from the common one; the head of the bird is the cardo or hinge; the wings are the body of the shells; and the tail is a peculiar process, like that of the marteau, only single.

It is naturally of a dusky brown on the outside, and pearly within, but when its rough coat is taken off, it appears of this beautiful flame-colour.

SHELL, *Caterpillar*: see TURBO.—SHELL, *Centre*: a name given to the *balanus marinus*.—SHELL, *Chalice*, or *Cup-shell*: a species of the *balanus*.—SHELL, *China-letter*: a name given by many to the *chama Arabica*. It is of a pale brownish ground, and is variegated with a great number of black lines, which are as slender as the strokes of a pen, and are of such odd figures, that they represent some of the Arabic, or, as others fancy, Chinese characters.—SHELL, *Crown Imperial*: a species of the *voluta*.—SHELL, *Dog-tooth*: a species of *dentalis*.—SHELL, *Guinea*: the English name for a very beautiful variegated species of *voluta*.—SHELL, *Helmet*: the name of a kind of *murex*, of which there are several species. They all approach somewhat towards a triangular figure, and are free from any long spines.—SHELL, *Leopard*: the English name of the *pardus*, a kind of *voluta*, so called from its resembling those of a leopard.—SHELL, *Lightning*: a name given by some authors to a species of *murex*, with variegations on its body, resembling the pictures we commonly see of flashes of lightning.—SHELL, *Map*: the name given by some to a peculiar species of porcelain shell, the figures on which represent the lines on a map.—SHELL, *Old Wife*: the name given by some to a species of *chama*, which the French also have called *vielle ridce*.—SHELL, *Saddle*: the name of a species

of oyster, which in some degree represents a saddle in its shape.—SHELL, *Scorpion*: the name of a species of *murex*.—SHELL, *Small-pox*, a name given to a remarkable kind of *concha venerea*, or porcelain shell.—SHELL, *Strawberry*: a name given by collectors of shells to a very beautiful species of *cordiformis*.—SHELL, *Swallow*: a name given by authors to a species of *ostrea*, which in some degree represents the figure of a small bird flying.—SHELL, *Tiger*: the name of a species of *concha venerea*.—SHELL, *Turtle*: the name of two species of shells.

SHELL-APPLE, in Ornithology, an English name for the *loxia* or cross bill, given from his manner of splitting an apple, and feeding on the kernels, leaving the shell of the pulp untouched.

SHELL-DRAKE, a common English name for the *tadorna*.

SHELL-FISH, a collective name for fishes naturally inclosed in shells. These animals are in general oviparous, very few instances having been found of such as are viviparous.

SHELL-TOOTHED, an appellation given to a horse that from four years old to old age, naturally, and without any artifice, still keeps in all his fore-teeth that hollow place with the black mark, which is called in French *germe de feve*, i. e. *the eye of a bean*, inasmuch, that at twelve or fifteen he appears with the mark of a horse that is not yet six; for in the nippers of other horses, the hollow place is filled, and the mark disappears towards the sixth year, by reason of the wearing of the tooth. About the same age it is half worn out in the middling teeth, and towards the eighth year it disappears in the corner teeth, but after a shell-toothed horse has marked, he marks still equally in the nippers, the middling and the corner teeth; which proceeds from this, that having harder teeth than other horses, his teeth do not wear, and so he does not lose the black spot.

Among the Polish, Hungarian and Croatian horses, we find a great many of them hollow-toothed, and generally the mares are more apt to be so than the horses.

SHELLS, MESSAGE, are howitz-shells, within which are inclosed a letter, or other papers; the fuze-hole is stopped up with wood or cork, and the shells are fired into a garrison or camp.

SHELL of a Block, in Mechanics, is the outer frame or case, in which the sheave or wheel is contained, and traverses about its axis.

SHELL-ROOM, in Ship-Building, a compartment in a bomb-vessel, fitted up with strong shelves, excavated so as to receive the bomb-shells when charged; it is therefore built as secure as possible, to prevent accident from fire.

To SHELL, *v. a.* [Sax. *arcealian*, *arçilian*, to peel.] To take out of the shell; to stripe of the shell.

To SHELL, *v. n.* To fall off as broken shells.—The ulcers were cured, and the scabs *shelled off*. *Wiseman*.—To cast the shell.

SHELL ISLAND, a small island near the coast of Carolina, in Pamlico sound. Lat. 34. 50. N. long. 76. 30. W.

SHELL KEY, a small island or rock in the gulf of Mexico. Lat. 29. 48. N. long. 89. 15. W.

SHELLA, a small ruined town of Morocco, in the province of Benihassen, about four miles to the east of Rabat. It is supposed to have been anciently the capital of all the Carthaginian colonies on the western coast of Africa. Many Roman and ancient African coins are still found there. It is considered also by the Moors as a sacred asylum, and contains many tombs held by them in great veneration.

SHELLAM, a district in the south of India, province of the Upper Carnatic, between Lat. 11. and 12. N. It is now inclosed in the collectorship of Kistnaghery.

SHELLAM, the capital of the abovementioned district, generally called Great Shellam. It was formerly fortified. Lat. 11. 39. N. long. 78. 23. E.—There are two other towns of this name in the Carnatic, but neither of consequence.

SHELLAND,

SHELLAND, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles west-north-west of Stow Market.

SHELLDRAKE RIVER, a river of Canada, which runs into the river St. Lawrence. Lat. 50. 20. N. long. 64. 50. W.

SHELLDUCK. See SHELDUCK.

SHELLEY (Percy Bysshe), a poet of considerable eminence. No biography of this author has at present been published, though it is still expected from one of his friends. It seems that he received his school education at Harrow, where he was one of the associates of Lord Byron. In early life he visited the most beautiful scenes of England and Ireland, and here probably imbibed that passionate love for, and minute acquaintance with, nature, which constitute the peculiarity and charm of his writings. He afterwards travelled through Switzerland and Italy, and in the latter, on account of his ill health, made a long sojourn. He was drowned in the Mediterranean, as he was returning from Leghorn to Spezzia, in the year 1823. Of his private life, some scandalous stories were insinuated in the Quarterly Review, which received, however, the unqualified contradiction of his friends; and, indeed, they seem to have been merely the result of party malice.

His works consist of so many fragments, detached pieces, &c., that we cannot enumerate them.

His poetry displays great depth of feeling, alternating with puerile conceit and common-place declamation. His command of language was great, but either carelessness or want of sustained power, continually plunged his ideas into impenetrable obscurities of expression. He seems, in many instances, to have had a most refined ear for the music of versification, and yet many of his poems might be read as prose. His most prevalent fault is a want of accuracy and clearness in his ideas. But there is a charm not easily described about his writings, which redeems the errors more obvious to criticism, and which will render him long a favourite and profitable study for the poet, though he may never become generally admired; for the public cannot cull flowers, and select the riper from the cruder fruits. They must have all the sweets of poetry served up in order, and adorned with art.

SHELLEY, a parish of England, in Essex; 1½ mile north of Chipping Ongar.

SHELLEY, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles north-east of Stoke.

SHELLEY, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles south-west of Huddersfield. Population 1057.

SHELLFISH, *s.* [ʃɛl-ʃɪʃ, Sax.] Fish invested with a hard covering, either testaceous, as oysters, or crustaceous, as lobsters.—The shells, being sound, were so like those they saw upon their shores, that they never questioned but that they were the exuviae of shellfish, and once belonged to the sea. Woodward.

SHELLIFF, a river of Algiers, the most considerable in that kingdom, and the *Chinalaph* of the ancient geography. It rises among the mountains of Atlas, in a place called the Seventy Fountains. It flows north during the first part of its course, then turns west, and runs nearly parallel to the sea. Its whole length is about 200 miles. In its early course it forms the lake of Titterie.

SHELLINGFORD, a parish of England, in Berkshire, near Farringdon.

SHELLMEAT, *s.* Food consisting of shellfish. *Un-used.*—*Shellmeats* may be eaten after foul hands, without any harm. Fuller.

SHELLOW BOWELLS, a parish of England, in Essex; 5 miles north-east of Chipping Ongar.

SHELLY, *adj.* Abounding with shells.

The ocean rolling, and the shelly shore,
Beautiful objects, shall delight no more.

Prior.

Consisting of shells.

The snail, whose tender horns being hit,
Shrinks backward in his shelly cave with pain.

Shakspeare.

SHELLWORK, *s.* Work made of or trimmed with shells.

SHELLEY WALSH, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 10 miles north-west of Worcester.

SHELTER, *s.* [Of this word the etymology is unknown: Skinner deduces it from *shell*, Davies from *ʃɛlb*, a shield, Saxon. Dr. Johnson.—Serenius also refers to the Saxon word. The Icel. *skioldr*, a shield, is still nearer to our *shelter*.]—A cover from any external injury or violence.

They wish the mountains now might be again

Thrown on them, as a shelter from his ire.

Milton.

The healing plant shall aid,

From storms a shelter, and from heat a shade.

Pope.

A protector; a defender; one that gives security.—Thou hast been a shelter for me, and a strong tower from the enemy. *Ps.*—The state of being covered; protection; security.

Low at his foot a spacious plain is plac'd,
Between the mountain and the stream embrac'd;

Which shade and shelter from the hill der^v23

While the kind river wealth and beauty gives. Denham.

To SHELTER, *v. a.* To cover from external violence.—We besought the deep to shelter us. Milton.—To defend; to protect; to succour with refuge; to harbour.

What endless honour shall you gain,

To save and shelter Troy's unhappy train.

Dryden.

To betake to cover.—They sheltered themselves under a rock. *Abbot.*—To cover from notice. *Inproper.*

In vain I strove to check my growing flame,
Or shelter passion under friendship's name;
You saw my heart.

Prior.

To SHELTER, *v. n.* To take shelter.

There the Indian herdsman, shunning heat,
Shelters in cool.

Milton.

To give shelter.

Then seeks the farthest ooze, the sheltering weed,

The cavern'd bank, his old secure abode.

Thomson.

SHELTER ISLAND, an island of the United States, near the east end of Long Island; 100 miles east of New York. Population 329. It is 7 miles long, and 5 broad. This island, united with Great-Hog-Neck island, constitutes a township.

SHELTERLESS, *adj.* Harbourless; without home or refuge.

Now sad and shelterless, perhaps, she lies,

Where piercing winds blow sharp.

Rowe.

SHELTERY, *adj.* Affording shelter.—They spend their winters under the warm and shelterly shores of Gibraltar and Barbary. *White's Selborne.*

SHELTIE, *s.* A small horse, so called in Scotland.—*Shetland* produces little horses, commonly called *shelties*; and they are very sprightly, though the least of the kind to be seen any where. *Martin.*

SHELTON, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 13½ miles north-by-west of Bedford.

SHELTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles south-east of St. Mary Stratton.

SHELTON, a parish of England, county of Nottingham; 6 miles south-by-west of Newark.

SHELTONBOROUGH, a post village of the United States, in Pittsylvania county, Virginia.

To SHELVE, *v. a.* To place on shelves.—Here he glanceth wittily at the delicacy of this scholar; from whence he descendeth to the too accurate disposing or shelving of his books. *Comment. on Chaucer.*

SHELVE, a parish of England, in Salop; 7 miles north-by-east of Bishop's Castle.

SHELIVING, *adj.* Sloping; inclining; having declivity.

Amidst

Amidst the brake a hollow den was found,
With rocks and shelving arches vaulted round. *Addison.*

SHELVINGS, a name applied to the moveable side-rails of a waggon or cart, which are occasionally put on for top loads.

SHELVY, *adj.* Shallow; rocky; full of banks.—I had been drowned, but that the shore was *shelvy* and shallow. *Shakspeare.*

SHELWICK, a township of England, in Herefordshire; 2½ miles north-north-east of Hereford.

SHENANDOAH, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded north by Frederick county, south-east by Culpeper and Maddison counties, south-west by Rockingham county, and west by Hardy county. Population 13,646, including 1038 slaves. Chief town Woodstock.

SHENANDOAH, a river of the United States, in Virginia, which rises in Augusta county, and after a course of 200 miles, joins the Potomac, in Lat. 38. 4. N. just before the latter bursts through the Blue Ridge. It is composed of four branches, South, Middle, and North rivers, and Shenandoah. It waters a fertile country, and is navigable for boats 100 miles.

SHENANDOAH FORK, a post village of the United States, in Shenandoah county, Virginia.

SHENANGO, a township of the United States, in Beaver county, Pennsylvania. Population 679.—2d. Of Crawford county, Pennsylvania. Population 727.—2d. Of Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 634.

To **SHEND**, *v. a.* preter. and part. pass. *shent* [Jenban, Saxon; *schenden*, Dutch.]—To ruin; to spoil.

Provide for thy wife, or else look to be *shent*,
Good milch-cow for winter, another for Lent. *Tusser.*

Such a dream I had of dire portent,
That much I fear my body will be *shent* ;
It bodes I shall have wars. *Dryden.*

To disgrace; to degrade; to blame; to reproach. *Unused.*

Debateful strife, and cruel enmity,
The famous name of knighthood foully *shend*. *Spenser.*

Sore bruised with the fall, he slow uprose,
And all enraged him loudly *shent* ;
Disleal knight, whose coward courage chose
To wreak itself on beast. *Spenser.*

To overpower; to crush; to surpass. *Unused.*

She pass'd the rest as Cynthia doth *shend*
The lesser stars. *Spenser.*

SHENEVAS CREEK, a river of the United States, in New York, in Otsego county, which runs south-west 25 miles, and joins the Susquehanna.

SHENFIELD, a parish of England, in Essex; 1 mile north-east of Brentwood. Population 555.

SHENLEY, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 5 miles north-west of Chipping Barnet. Population 990.

SHENLEY, a parish of England, county of Buckingham; 3 miles west-north-west of Fenny Stratford.

SHENLEY, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham.

SHENNINGTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 6½ miles west-north-west of Banbury.

SHENSHILL, a village of Upper Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 2 miles north of Achmim.

SHENSTONE (William), a poet of celebrity, was born at Hales Owen, in Shropshire, in the year 1714. His father was an uneducated gentleman farmer, who cultivated an estate of his own called the Leasowes, which the son afterwards rendered celebrated. William received the elements of instruction from a village dame, whom he finely described in one of his poems. After this he was sent to the grammar-school at Hales Owen, whence he was removed to that of a clergyman at Solihull, from whom he not only acquired

solid learning in classical knowledge, but a cultivated taste. In 1732 he was entered of Pembroke College, Oxford, where he did not make a large acquaintance, but he was one of a few who met at each other's rooms to read and examine the best works in English literature. Here it was he discovered his poetical genius, and produced some compositions of considerable merit, and he had thoughts of taking his degrees, and proceeding to study for a profession, but coming, by the death of his father, into the full possession of his paternal property, he gave himself up to literary ease, and rural retirement, abandoning at once all intentions of active pursuits; hence his biographer justly remarks, "that nothing is more unfavourable to the exertion of those energies which lead to a useful and honourable station in society, than the early possession of a fortune just sufficient to gratify present wishes, and preclude the necessity of immediate entrance into any vigorous course of action." An acquaintance which Shenstone formed with Mr. Graves, of Mickleton, in Gloucestershire, inspired him with an affection for that gentleman's sister; but the passion of love, which, in some minds, operates as a stimulus to enterprize, seems in him to have wasted its force on plaintive elegies, and other effusions of sentimental poetry. To one species of employment, he was probably animated by his visit to Mr. Graves,—that of rural embellishment,—which he afterwards bestowed on his favourite place of the Leasowes, with a taste that conduced more to his celebrity than to his comfort.

In 1737 he printed, but without his name, a small volume of juvenile poems, which obtained scarcely any notice. In 1740 he came to London, and was introduced to Dodsley, who printed his poem of "The Judgment of Hercules," dedicated to Lord Littleton. This was followed by "The School-mistress," of which the heroine was the village-dame already referred to. This is thought, by some very respectable critics, to stand at the head of Shenstone's compositions.

Shenstone, from this time, devoted himself to improving the picturesque beauties of the Leasowes, and sometimes exercising his pen in effusions of verse and prose. The celebrity of this place led him into expenses which his fortune was unequal to, and he was perpetually under the pressure of poverty; which, with the deficiency of regular employment, and the perpetual desire of doing more, and appearing better off, than his means admitted, preyed on his spirits, and rendered him the miserable inhabitant of the Eden which his taste and genius had created. Grey has described him in the following sentence, which may in some respects be rather a caricature likeness. "Poor man! he was always wishing for money, for fame, and for other distinctions; and his whole philosophy consisted in living against his will in retirement, and in a place which his taste had adorned, but which he only enjoyed when people of note came to see and commend it." It has been thought a matter of surprise, considering his connections, that nothing was done to place him in easier circumstances. An application was said to have been made to Lord Bute to procure him a pension from the privy purse, but before the wishes of his friends could be realized he died. This event took place in February, 1763, when he was in the 50th year of his age: he was interred in the churchyard of Hales Owen.

Of his poetical compositions many were inserted in Dodsley's collection of original pieces; and after his death, his "Works in Verse and Prose," were published in two vols. 8vo. in 1764, and a third volume, consisting of "Letters," was published in 1769. "Of his poetry," says the critic, "the general opinion was almost uniform; it is regarded as commonly elegant, melodious, tender, and correct in sentiment, and often pleasing and natural in description, but verging to the languid and feeble, and never exhibiting either the powers of the imagination, or the energy and splendour of diction, that characterize compositions of the higher order. His prose writings display good sense and a cultivated taste, and contain just and sometimes new and acute observations on mankind." *Gen. Biog.*

SHENSTONE,

SHENSTONE, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 3 miles south of Lichfield. Population 1378.

SHENTON, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 2½ miles south-west of Market Bosworth.

SHENTON, a parish of England, in Salop, near Bridgenorth.

SHEPARDINE, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; near Thornbury.

SHEPAUG, a river of the United States, in Connecticut, which runs south into the Quinebaug, in the west part of Southbury.

SHEPARD'S ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the South Pacific Ocean, belonging to the New Hebrides. Lat. 17. S. long. 168. 40. E.

SHE'PHERD, *s.* [*ŕceap*, sheep, and *hýrð*, a keeper, Saxon, *ŕceapahýrð*.] One who tends sheep in the pasture.

I am *shepherd* to another man,
And do not shear the fleeces that I graze. *Shakspeare.*

A swain; a rural lover.

If that the world and love were young,
And truth in every *shepherd's* tongue,
These pretty pleasures might me move
To live with thee, and be thy love. *Raleigh.*

SHEPHERDS OF EGYPT, **SHEPHERD KINGS**, or **ROYAL SHEPHERDS**, in Ancient History, the denomination of a class of inhabitants of a part of Egypt, concerning whose origin, place of abode, and migration, ancient and modern writers have entertained different opinions. See **EGYPT**.

SHEPHERD'S CREEK, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri; 83 miles west of Mississippi.

SHEPHERDESS, *s.* A woman that tends sheep; a rural lass.

She like some *shepherdess* did shew,
Who sat to bathe her by a river's side. *Dryden.*

His doric dialect has incomparable sweetness in its clownishness, like a fair *shepherdess* in country russet. *Dryden.*

SHEPHERD'S Needle, *s.* Venus' comb. An herb.— See **SCANDIX**.

SHEPHERD'S, *Purse*, or *Pouch*, *s.* A common weed. See **THLASPUS**.

To him, that hath a flux, of *shepherd's-purse* he gives,
And mouse-ear unto him whom some sharp rupture grieves. *Drayton.*

SHEPHERD'S Rod, *s.* Teasel, of which plant it is a variety.

SHEPHERDISH, *adj.* Resembling a shepherd; suiting a shepherd; pastoral; rustic. *Not in use.*—He would have drawn her eldest sister, esteemed her match for beauty, in her *shepherdish* attire. *Sidney.*

SHEPHERDLY, *adj.* Pastoral; rustic.—We read Rebekah, in the primitive plainness and *shepherdly* simplicity of those times, accepted bracelets and other ornaments, without any disparagement to her virgin modesty. *Bp. Taylor.*

SHEPHERDSTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Jefferson county, Virginia, on the Potomac. Population 1033, mostly of German descent.

SHEPHERDSVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Bullet county, Kentucky, on Salt river, 14 miles from its junction with the Ohio. Population 100.

SHEPLEY, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles south-south-east of Huddersfield. Population 793.

SHEPOORY, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra, belonging to the Mahrattas, district of Narwar. Lat. 25. 25. N. long. 77. 10. E.

SHEPPERTON, a village and parish of England, in the county of Middlesex, situated on the banks of the Thames. Vol. XXIII. No. 1558.

From the Thames having altered its course, a detached part of the parish remains in Surrey, and the river now passes over the foundation of its ancient church. Near the bridge over the river at Walton are Cowey stakes, supposed to be the remains of those drove into the river by the Britons, to prevent Cæsar's army from fording it. One of them is preserved in the British Museum. It is recorded that the learned Erasmus passed much of his time in the parsonage house here, his preceptor being rector of the parish. Population 751; 4 miles from Staines.

SHEPPEY ISLE or, an island of England, in the county of Kent, situated at the mouth of the Thames and Medway, and separated from the mainland of the county by an arm of the sea called the Swale, which is navigable for vessels of 200 tons burden. It extends about 11 miles in length and 8 in breadth. About four-fifths of the island consist of marsh and pasture lands; the remainder is arable. The prevailing soil is a deep strong clay of great stiffness. The marshes have also a thick clay beneath, but are covered with a rich black vegetable mould, arising from the quantities of sheep which have been regularly fed on them for many years. The arable lands are in a high state of cultivation, and have been greatly improved by the manure of cockle-shells, great quantities of which are continually thrown on the shores by the sea. Beans and wheat are grown alternately on these lands, a fallow being occasionally substituted for the bean crop. The wheat is excellent, and frequently weighs 64 pounds the Winchester bushel. Much clover is also grown here, and on the few gravelly tracks on the higher ground, oats and barley are sown. The clover is generally mown twice, once for hay, and a second time for seed. The upland pastures are applied to the feeding of lambs and young lean sheep. The sheep are mostly of the Romney Marsh breed, and the cattle almost wholly of the Welsh sort. The horses are somewhat smaller than those of the other parts of Kent. They are of a kind that has been bred in the island from time immemorial. The cliffs which skirt the north and north-east sides of the island are frequently undermined by the sea. These cliffs contain an abundance of extraneous fossils and petrifications, as well as pyrite or copperas stone, which last are collected by some people on the shore, till a sufficient quantity is obtained to load a vessel. The principal towns in the island are Sheerness and Queenborough.

SHEPRETH, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 5½ miles north-by-west of Royston.

SHEPREVE (John), an English poet, was born in Berkshire, and educated at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, where he took his degrees in arts, and became Hebrew professor about the year 1538. He had a most surprising memory, and was one of the most learned men in his time. He died in the year 1542. His works are "Summa et Synopsis Novi Test." &c.; "Hippolytus Ovidianæ Phædræ respondens," &c. *Wood.*

SHEPTON BEAUCHAMP, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3½ miles north-east of Ilminster. Population 559.

SHEPTON GEORGE, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire; 3 miles east-by-south of Bridport.

SHEPTON MALLET, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Somerset, situated in a low valley, well-watered with rivulets. It consists of about 20 streets and lanes, most of which are narrow and dirty. The church, which stands on the east side of the market-place, is a large and handsome building, in the pointed style of architecture, having a tower at the west end, surmounted by a spire. The pulpit and font are each cut out of one solid stone. The market-cross is a very curious structure, consisting of five arches supported by pentagonal columns. In the centre is a large hexagonal pillar, standing on two rows of steps, and supporting a flat roof, over which rises a lofty pyramidal spire, adorned with Gothic arches, and crowned with an oblong entablature, on which is a figure of Christ on the cross, between two malefactors. The cross, according to an inscription on it, was erected in the year 1500, "by Walter Bucklord and Agnes his wyff;" and considerable

lands are appropriated to keep it in repair. Besides the church, here are places of worship for Methodists, Presbyterians, and Quakers. Shepton Mallet has long been famous for its manufactures of woollen cloth and knit stockings. These now afford employment to upwards of 2000 persons in the town and vicinity. The town is governed by a constable. Shepton Mallet in ancient times formed part of the manor of Pilton, which King Ina gave to the abbey of Glastonbury, A. D. 705. Soon after the conquest, it came into the possession of the barons Mallett, from whom it derived the latter part of its name. After various changes, the manor was divided into two moities, one of which came to the crown, and the other was annexed to the duchy of Cornwall, to which it still belongs. This town is noted as the birthplace of Hugh Inge, D. D., archbishop of Dublin, and chancellor of Ireland; Dr. Walter Charleton, and Simon Browne. The parish contains 1129 houses, and 4638 inhabitants. Market on Friday, and an annual fair on 8th August; 5 miles east of Wells, and 115 west-by-south of London. Lat. 51. 12. N. long. 2. 38. W.

SHEPTON MONTAGUE, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 2½ miles south of Bruton. Population 371.

SHER, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 58. N. long. 76. 55. E.

SHERARD (William), a very learned and munificent botanist, on whom the titles of prince and Mœccnas of botany have been, more justly than usual, bestowed, was the son of George Sherwood, (for so it seems the name was written by the father,) of Bushby, in Leicestershire. He was born in 1659; educated first at Merchant Taylors' School, and then at St. John's College, Oxford. He cultivated the friendship and correspondence of the most able men on the continent, such as Boerhaave, Hermann, Tournefort, Vaillant, Micheli, &c. He is universally believed to have been the author of a 12mo. volume, entitled "Schola Botanica," published at Amsterdam in 1689, and reprinted in 1691 and 1699. This is a systematic catalogue of the Paris garden. Its preface, dated London, Nov. 1688, is signed S. W. A., which the French writers have interpreted Samuel Wharton, Anglus, under which name the book occurs in Hailer's "Bibliotheca Botanica," vol. i. 643. But as no one ever heard of such a botanist as Wharton; and the preface in question displays the objects and acquisitions of one of the first rank, who could certainly not long remain in obscurity, the above initials are presumed to mean William Sherard, to whom alone indeed, with or without a signature, that preface could belong. Its writer is described as having attended three courses of Tournefort's botanical lectures, in 1686, 87, and 88, all which years, he says, he spent at Paris. In the summer of 1688 he describes himself as having passed some time in Holland, collecting specimens of plants from the rich gardens of that country and getting them named by Professor Hermann himself, who allowed him to peruse the manuscript rudiment of his "Paradisus Batavus," to examine his herbarium, and to compose a Prodomus of that work, which is subjoined to the little volume now under our consideration. All this can apply to Sherard only, who became the editor of Hermann's book itself, and who in its preface, dated from Geneva in 1697, appears under his own name, and speaks of himself as having long enjoyed the friendship and the communications of that eminent man, whose judgment and talents he justly commemorates, and of whose various literary performances, as well as of his botanical principles, he gives an account.

Sherard communicated to the Royal Society, in 1700, a paper relative to the making of Chinese or Japan varnishes, which is printed in the Philosophical Transactions, vol. xxii. The information which it contains was sent by the Jesuits to the Grand Duke of Tuscany, and probably obtained by our author at Florence.

The most ostensible and splendid service to botany, though it for a long time yielded but little fruit, was rendered by the will of Dr. William Sherard, who left 3000*l.* to found and support a botanical professorship at Oxford.

The herbarium of Sherard is perhaps, except that of Lin-

næus, the most ample, authentic, and valuable botanical record in the world. In it may be seen original specimens from Tournefort, and all the writers of that day, named by themselves, accompanied by remarks, or by queries scarcely less instructive. He collected also copies of original drawings, from botanists whose specimens were not to be had, such as Plumier. The most rare, and even unique, books are to be found in his library, as the first volume of Rudbeck's *Campi Elysii*. All these precious collections are still in good preservation, though the noble stone building, originally constructed to receive them, was sacrificed a few years since to public convenience, that the adjoining street might be widened.

SHERARDIA [so named by Dillenius, in honour of his patron William Sherard, LL. D. consul at Smyrna], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of stellatæ; rubiaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth small, six-toothed, superior, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form; tube cylindrical, long; border four-parted, flat, acute. Stamina: filaments four, placed at the top of the tube. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ twin, oblong, inferior. Style filiform, bifid at top. Stigmas headed. Pericarp none. Fruit oblong, crowned, separable longitudinally into two seeds. Seeds two, oblong, marked at the apex with three points, convex on one side, flat on the other.—*Essential Character*. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form, superior. Seeds two, three-toothed.

1. *Sherardia arvensis*, field or blue sherardia, or little field madder.—All the leaves in whorls; flowers terminating. Root annual, with many reddish-brown fibres. The whole plant branched, diffused, rough and hairy, from four to seven inches high.—Native of many parts of Europe, among corn and on fallows: flowering during the greatest part of the summer.

2. *Sherardia muralis*, or wall sherardia.—Root annual. Stems decumbent. Leaves ovate-lanceolate, six in the lower, four in the middle whorls, two only together at top. Flowers in pairs on their proper peduncles, pale, flat. Fruits oblong, hispid. Seeds bowed a little, with little or no crown.—Native of Italy.

3. *Sherardia fruticosa*, or shrubby sherardia.—Leaves in fours, equal; stem shrubby.—It is one of the very few plants which the island of Ascension affords.

SHERATON, a hamlet of England, county of Durham; 11 miles north of Stockton-on-Tees.

SHERAVEND, a town of Ghilan, in Persia, on the Caspian.

SHERBET, or **SHERBIT**, a compound drink, first brought into England from Turkey and Persia, consisting of fair water, lemon-juice, sugar, amber, and other ingredients.

Another kind of it is made of violets, honey, juice of raisins, &c.

The word sherbet, in the Persian language, signifies pleasant liquor.

SHERBORNE, or **SHERBOURNE**, a market-town and parish of England, in the county of Dorset, pleasantly situated, partly on the acclivity of a hill, and partly in the fertile vale of Blackmore. It is a place of great antiquity, and is supposed by some to have been a station of the Romans, but more probably arose from a religious house founded here soon after the conversion of the Saxons to Christianity. It was anciently distinguished as the seat of an episcopal see, having been constituted such A. D. 704. Herman, the 26th bishop, attempted, without success, to remove its seat to Malmesbury; but succeeded, in 1075, in transferring it to Old Sarum. About this time the place had declined in importance, but in the time of Lleland it seems to have considerably recovered, as he describes it as the most frequented town in the county, and that in which the woollen trade was turned to the best account. This branch of business, however, afterwards declined, and the manufacture of buttons, haberdashery goods, and bone lace, was introduced in its stead. These trades have also decreased, and the silk and linen manufactures form now the chief occupation

occupation of the inhabitants. The church of Sherborne, which is the only public building of any importance in the town, is a magnificent pile of building, and, from its magnitude and ornamental architecture, resembles a cathedral. It is built entirely of freestone, and in the form of a cross. It was originally built by Bishop Aldhelm, but afterwards underwent great alterations, and was almost wholly renewed in the time of King Henry VI. It displays various styles of architecture, but chiefly the pointed style of the latter age. The pillars supporting the tower, the south porch, and the chapel of Our Lady, are all of early Norman origin, and the large lancet window at the eastern end of the chapel, with some smaller fragments in other parts, seem to be of the same date with Salisbury cathedral, viz., 1220. All the later parts of the church are richly ornamented with tracery work, vine leaves, and flowers. The interior is light, lofty, and spacious. The piers between the windows on each side are supported by light flying buttresses, stretching over the side aisles. The roof is of stone, and is supported by numerous groins springing from the side aisles; and between the tracery work is a number of shields, bearing different arms, with roses, portullises, and cut devices. Within the church are the ashes of many persons of distinction, among whom are Ethelbald, King of Wessex, and his brother Ethelbert. The only modern monuments of note are those of John, Earl of Bristol, who died in 1698, and of a son and daughter of William Lord Digby, on the latter of which are inscribed some beautiful lines by Pope. Sherborne church was made parochial after the dissolution of the abbey. Besides the church, here were formerly two meeting-houses for dissenters, but there is now only one in Long-street. The other public buildings are the market-house, the work-house, an alms-house, and a free grammar-school. The alms-house was formerly an hospital of St. Augustine, and has a chapel attached to it, which seems to have been erected in the 15th century. It contains a curious ancient painting in oak, in high preservation. The free grammar-school was founded and endowed by Edward VI., and the government of it vested by charter in 20 principal inhabitants of Sherborne. At present there are two masters belonging to this school, who must be clergymen and graduates of one or other of the universities. The buildings occupy the site of part of the ancient abbey, some parts of which still remain. This school has been governed by able teachers, and has produced eminent characters. The plan of education is similar to that adopted at Eton. The town contains, besides, two charity-schools on a small scale, three benefit societies, two for men and one for women, and a peculiar kind of society called the Green Girls' Society, in which the members pay a small sum weekly till they are of a certain age, and wear also a green dress, with straw hats. At the age of 18 they are at liberty to leave the society, and if any of the girls be married before 25, she receives 12*l.* on the wedding-day. If she continues unmarried till 25, and has not been imprudent in her conduct, she then receives the same sum. Sherborne, though no borough, sent on one occasion members to parliament in the reign of Edward III. At that time the assizes were regularly held here, though the practice was afterwards discontinued. The general quarter sessions for the peace are still held here once a year, on Tuesday after the close of Easter. Sherborne parish extends about 3½ miles in length, and 2½ in breadth, and contains, according to the returns of 1811, 597 houses, and 3370 inhabitants, of whom above 2000 reside in the town. Market on Saturday, and four annual fairs; 18 miles north-by-west of Dorchester, and 117 west-south-west of London. Lat. 50. 56. N. long. 2. 30. W.

SHERBORNE, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 2½ miles south-west of Warwick.

SHERBORNE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 5 miles east of North Leach. Population 506.

SHERBORNE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 7 miles from Burnham.

SHERBORNE, ST. JOHN, a parish of England, in South-

amptonshire; 2½ miles north-west of Basingstoke. Population 515.

SHERBORNE, MONKS, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 3 miles north-north-west of Basingstoke. Population 313.

SHERBOURNE, a township of England, county of Durham; 3½ miles east by-south of Durlham.

SHERBRO, a county of Western Africa, at the northern extremity of what is called the Grain or Pepper coast of Guinea. It is situated on a river of the same name, with a large island at its mouth. It is navigable 20 leagues up, for ships of burden, and vessels of 70 or 80 tons may ascend 250 miles from its mouth. The channel, however, is much enumbered with rushes, and the navigation-interrupted by frequent tornados. The country abounds in grain, fruits, and poultry, and the banks contain a species of pearl oyster, which, however, is dangerous to come at.

SHERBURN, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, pleasantly situated on the road from Doncaster to York. It was formerly a place of much more importance than at present, and had at one time a palace of the archbishop of York, no vestige of which, however, now remains. Here is a good stone church, and a free school founded by Robert Hungate. This place is noted for its cherry orchards, and also for a particular species of plum, called the winesour, which grows in the neighbourhood. The town contains 188 houses, and 958 inhabitants. Market on Friday, but little frequented; and one annual fair: 14 miles south-west of York.

SHERBURN, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 12½ miles east-north-east of New Malton.

SHERBURNE (Edward), an ingenious writer, was born in London in 1618, and educated under Farnaby; after which he went abroad, but returned in 1641, and succeeded, on the death of his father, to the office of clerk of the ordinance. He was imprisoned for some time by the parliament, and, on recovering his liberty, joined the king, whom he served with fidelity and great bravery, by which he suffered considerably in his estate. After the battle of Edgehill he went to Oxford, where he was created master of arts. At the restoration he recovered his situation under government, was knighted, and made commissary-general of the artillery. He died in 1702. He translated Seneca's tragedies, the Sphere of Marcus Manilius, and other works, into the English language, and was author of a volume of poems.

SHERBURNE, formerly KILLINGTON, a township of the United States, in Rutland county, Vermont. Population 116.—2*d.* Of Middlesex county, Massachusetts; 22 miles south-west of Boston. Population 770.—3*d.* Of Chenango county, New York; 98 miles west of Albany. It is watered by the Chenango, and contains a handsome village.

SHERBURNE. See NANTUCKET.

SHERBURNE MILLS, a post village of the United States, in Fleming county, Kentucky.

SHERD, *s.* [ʃeəpəð, Saxon. A fragment of broken earthenware. See SHARD.

The trivet-table of a foot was lame;

She thrust beneath the limping leg a *sherd*. *Dryden.*

SHEREBATOF (Prince), a learned Russian nobleman, who published several works in his own language, the chief of which is "The History of Russia from the earliest Times," which is said to be well arranged, and faithfully drawn up. Mr. Coxe, in speaking of this writer, says several persons have published collections of state-papers and other documents, but the honour of composing a complete history of Russia is probably reserved for Prince Sherebatof; who, if we except Mr. Muller, has contributed more than any other person towards illustrating the Russian annals. This learned nobleman is editor of "A Journal of Peter the Great," in 2 vols. 4*to.*, which he found in the archives, and published by order of the Empress; of "The Russian History, by an ancient Annalist, from the Beginning of the Reign of Vladimir

mir Monomaca in 1114 to 1472;" "The Life of Peter the Great," in the Russian language, first published at Venice, which the Prince reprinted in 1774, and, according to his usual custom, enriched with many historical observations. Of his History, already referred to, our author says, "I have read the German translation of this performance, which appears to me a most valuable addition to the history of the North. The author has had access to the imperial archives; he draws his information from the most ancient and unquestionable sources, is particularly exact in quoting his authorities, and ranges the events in a chronological series with great perspicuity." *Coxe's Travels.*

SHEREFORD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles west-by-south of Fakenham.

SHEREGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Moulton, belonging to the Seiks. Lat. 30. 55. N. long. 73. 24. E.

SHERFIELD, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 3½ miles north-east of Basingstoke. Population 520.

SHERFIELD, ENGLISH, a parish in the above county; 5 miles west-north-west of Romsey.

SHERFORD, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3 miles east of Knightsbridge. Population 366.

SHERFORD, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire, near Coventry.

SHERIDAN (Thomas), was born probably about the year 1684, in the county of Cavan, where his parents lived in such a state of indigence, as not to be able to afford him the advantages of a liberal education; but being observed to give early indications of genius, he attracted the notice of a friend to his family, who sent him to the college of Dublin, and contributed towards his support, while he remained there. Afterwards he proceeded to a doctor's degree, and took orders, and set up a school in Dublin, which long maintained a very high degree of reputation, as well for the attention bestowed on the morals of the scholars, as for their proficiency in literature. He does not appear to have had any considerable preferment; but his intimacy with Swift procured for him, in 1725, a living in the south of Ireland, worth about 150*l.* per annum, which he went to take possession of; and, by an act of inadvertence, it is said, destroyed all his future expectations of rising in the church: for being at Cork on the 1st of August, the anniversary of the king's birth-day, he preached from the text "Sufficient for the day is the evil thereof." The report of the fact was spread abroad: he was struck out of the list of chaplains to the lord-lieutenant, and forbidden the castle. He afterwards changed his living for that of Dunboyno, which by the knavery of the farmers, and power of the gentlemen in the neighbourhood, fell in value to 80*l.* per annum. He willingly resigned it for the free-school of Cavan, where he might have lived well; but the air being moist, and as he thought unhealthy, and being disgusted with some of his parishioners, he sold the school for about 400*l.*; and having spent the money, he fell into ill health, and died September 10th, 1758, in the 55th year of his age. He is thus characterized by lord Corke: "Dr. Sheridan was a schoolmaster, and in many instances perfectly adapted to that station. He was deeply versed in the Greek and Roman languages, and in their customs and antiquities. He had that kind of good nature, which absence of mind, indolence of body, and carelessness of fortune, produce; and though not over-strict in his own conduct, yet he took care of the morals of his scholars, whom he sent to the university remarkably well grounded in all kinds of classical learning, and not ill instructed in the social duties of life. He was slovenly, indigent, and cheerful. He knew books much better than men, but he knew the value of money least of all. In this situation, and with this disposition, Swift fastened upon him as upon a prey, with which he intended to regale himself, whenever his appetite should prompt him." Dr. Sheridan published a prose translation of Persius, to which he added the best notes of former editors, together with some very judicious ones of his own. He also translated the *Philoctetes* of Sophocles.

SHERIDAN (Thomas), son of the preceding, was born at Quilea, in the county of Cavan, in Ireland; and he had for his god-father Dean Swift. The early part of his education he received from his father, who afterwards sent him to Westminster School, and at a time when he could very ill afford it. Here, upon examination, he attracted notice; and although a mere stranger, he was elected a king's scholar, on account of his merit. But their maintenance sometimes running short, the doctor was so poor that he could not add fourteen pounds, to enable his son to finish the year; which if he had been able to have done, he would have been removed to a higher class, and in another year would have been sent off to a fellowship at college. Being thus recalled to Dublin, he was sent to the university, where he obtained an exhibition, and in 1738 he took his degree of M.A. Having no interest in the church, nor the means of preparing himself for one of the liberal professions, he resolved to seek a support on the stage. He was received with great applause, and in a short time became manager of the Dublin theatre; in which capacity he successfully understood the curbing of that licentiousness, which had long reigned with an almost unlimited empire behind the scenes, and the putting a stop to the liberties daily taken by the young men with the female actresses. During eight years Mr. Sheridan possessed this important office of manager of the Dublin theatre with all the success, both with respect to fame and fortune, that could well be expected, when an unfortunate circumstance led him to oppose the wishes of the public, which obliged him to withdraw from the management of the theatre, and even to quit the country. He continued in England till the year 1756, when he returned to Dublin, and was again received on the stage with the highest applause; but he did not continue long in that situation, being opposed and ruined by rival actors.

In 1757 he published a plan, in which he proposed to the Irish the establishment of an academy, for the accomplishment of youth in every qualification necessary for a gentleman. In the formation of this design he included oratory, as one of the essentials; and in order to give a stronger idea of the utility of that art, he opened his plan to the public in some orations, which were so well written, and so admirably delivered, as to give the highest proofs of the ability of the proposer, and his fitness for the office of superintendent of such an institution, for which post he had offered himself. Nevertheless, though the plan was, in a measure, carried into execution, Mr. Sheridan was excluded from any share in the conduct of it. He now came again to England, and delivered lectures on elocution and oratory in the theatres of Oxford and Cambridge, to very numerous audiences, and with the highest reputation. From thence he again came to London, where he was engaged as an actor and a lecturer. In 1778 he published "A pronouncing Dictionary of the English Language;" and after this he became a manager of the Drury-lane theatre, under his son, Brinsley Sheridan, who was then one of the patentees. He died in August, 1788. His works are as follow:—1. "A Dictionary of the English Language." 2. "Lectures on the Art of Reading." 3. "British Education, or the Source of the Disorders of Great Britain." 4. "A Dissertation on the Causes of the Difficulties which occur in learning the English Tongue." 5. "A Course of Lectures on Elocution." 6. "The Life of Swift," prefixed to an edition of his works, edited by Mr. Sheridan. 7. "Elements of English." His wife Frances, whose maiden name was Chamberlaine, was a very ingenious woman, and was author of a novel, entitled "Sidney Biddulph;" a moral romance, entitled "Nour-jahad;" "The Discovery," a comedy; and another, entitled "The Dupe."

SHERIDAN (Richard Brinsley), the excellent comic writer and famous orator, was the second son of the subject of the preceding article. He was born in Dublin, in October, 1751. His earliest education he received in common with his brother Charles, from his accomplished mother. She

She soon, however, consigned her sons as two of the "most impenetrable dunces" she had ever met with, to the care of Mr. Samuel Whyte, a man of considerable abilities; but under whose tuition the boys attained little more progress than they had done under their mother. In 1762, Brinsley was removed to Harrow. Dr. Sumner, then master of the school, seems to have had no great opinion of his scholar; and though Dr. Parr stated, after Sheridan's exaltation in after-life, that he had discovered and assisted his latent genius, it does not appear that our hero was distinguished at all as a classic. Nor is this surprising. It is scarcely possible to conceive, that any one who had much of the vivacity of wit in his composition, could see any thing very meritorious in mastering the tedious translations, exercises and nonsense verses of a grammar school; and, with respect to idleness, there is no probability that Sheridan ever laboured very hard in after-life, and, therefore, nothing to render marvellous the inertness of his youth. There is an anecdote related of him, however, during this period of his life which, if true, is a greater honour to him than all the praises of all the pedagogues that ever flagellated the boys of Harrow. Unfortunately this, as most school-boy stories, is not very well authenticated, and bears a suspicious similitude to a hundred others of the same class. It runs, however, as follows:—

"A schoolmaster had been presumptuous enough to open a classical seminary within a short distance of the ancient established public school at Harrow. The boys broke the windows, and did considerable mischief to the premises. Panting after revenge, he had recourse to an unworthy stratagem to discover the offenders. With this view he invited some of the delinquents to his house, and, after solemnly promising an amnesty, and treating them with great apparent hospitality, he demanded the names of his new friends. This request was immediately complied with by all but 'knowing Dick,' who from a suspicion of guile, or some other motive, either declined a discovery, or gave a false appellation. Immediately on their departure, a letter was transmitted to Dr. Sumner, enclosing a list of the culprits, and all but Sheridan were called out, for the express purpose of experiencing the classical ceremony of a flagellation, as regulated *more majorem*, by the enlightened practice of Monkish times. When every thing was ready, and the sentence about to be executed, in the presence of the whole school, young Sheridan stepped forward and demanded, if his name was included in the catalogue? He then addressed the head master, as follows:—'You perceive, Dr. Sumner, that I cannot possibly be actuated by the base motive of fear, for I am not liable to punishment; yet, I am to the full as guilty as the others, and desire to share their fate, if they should be condemned; but let it be recollected, Sir, that an act of oblivion took place on the part of the school-master; that we entered his house on conditions, and that he extorted the names of my companions, amidst the rights of hospitality, and under the sacred promise of forgiveness. I trust, therefore, Dr., that you will not give the sanction of your respectable name to such a complicated act of baseness and treachery.' It is almost unnecessary to add, that the boys were all forgiven, in consequence of this timely and generous interposition."

Having quitted Harrow, at the age of eighteen, the next step, of course, was a removal to Oxford, or Cambridge; but his father's circumstances denied this gratification. A considerable interval now occurred in the life of Mr. Richard Sheridan, which is difficult to be accounted for on the part of a biographer. It has been suggested, that he made a visit of considerable duration to a friend at Bristol; that he was employed by his own father in declaiming at Bath; that he was partly occupied in translating the Epistles of Aristænetus from the Greek; and that he consumed a large portion of this period in courting his future wife.

But, from 1769, when he left school, to the 6th of April, 1773, when he entered himself of the Middle Temple, there is a lapse of two or three years; and, when the "RES ANGSTA DOMI" is considered, it may be difficult to point out the mode in which he obtained the means of support. It has been suggested, that he occa-

sionally wrote for the papers; and, indeed, it is a well-known fact, that he kept up a close and constant intercourse with the editors and publishers of our diurnal prints during the whole of his life, and that he advocated their cause, with effect, in the House of Commons, when one of them was most unjustly refused admission into the Society of Lincoln's Inn.

It appears, also, from Moore's remarks, that he had, during this period of his life, projected a volume of "*Crazy Tales*," which are supposed to have been of a licentious character (these, however, are fortunately lost); and that among his early essays, was a scheme which for wildness of the ideas, and the extravagance of the language, is a perfect curiosity. It is a letter to the queen, recommending the establishment of an Institution for the instruction and maintenance of young females in the better classes of life; her majesty was to be the chancellor of the College; some of the first ladies in the kingdom sub-chancellors; the professors, except for the languages were to be women; the practical parts of the sciences were to be taught; the ladies were to read history in order to discover that there were other passions in man besides love, and some novels were to be recommended, but romances infinitely more. The most wonderful part of the scheme, however, was, that the king was to give up Hampton Court or some other palace for the College. The writer was in his 23d year. We give the passages:—

"The dispute about the proper sphere of women is idle. That men should have attempted to draw a line for their own orbit, shows that God meant them for comets, and above our jurisdiction. With them the enthusiasm of poetry and the idolatry of love is the simple voice of nature." He next proceeds to remark to her Majesty, that in those countries where "man is scarce better than a brute, he shows his degeneracy by his treatment of women," and that "the influence that women have over us is as the medium through which the finer arts act upon us. The incense of our love and respect for them creates the atmosphere of our souls, which corrects and meliorates the beams of knowledge."

In showing how much less women are able to struggle against adversity than men, he says,—"As for us, we are born in a state of warfare with poverty and distress. The sea of adversity is our natural element, and he that will not buffet with the billows deserves to sink. But you, oh you, by nature formed of gentler kind, can you endure the biting storm? shall you be turned to the nipping blast, and not a door be open to give you shelter?"

After describing, with evident seriousness, the nature of the institution of Madame de Maintenon, at St. Cyr, he adds the following strange romantic allusion:—"Had such a charity as I have been speaking of existed here, the mild *Parthenia* and my poor *Laura* would not have fallen into untimely graves."

The practical details of his plan, in which it is equally evident that he means to be serious, exhibit the same flightiness of language and notions. The King, he supposes, would have no objection to "grant Hampton-court, or some other palace for the purpose," and "as it is (he continues, still addressing the queen) to be immediately under your Majesty's patronage, so should your Majesty be the first member of it. Let the constitution of it be like that of a University—your Majesty, Chancellor; some of the first ladies of the kingdom, sub-chancellors; whose care it shall be to provide instructors of real merit. The classes are to be distinguished by age,—none by degree. For, as their qualification should be gentility, they are all on a level. The instructors should be women, except for the languages. Latin and Greek should not be learned—the frown of pedantry destroys the blush of humility. The practical part of the sciences, as of astronomy, &c., should be taught. In history they would find that there are other passions in man than love. As for novels, there are some I would strongly recommend; but romances infinitely more. The one is a representation of the effects of the passions as they should be, though extravagant; the other as they are. The latter is falsely called nature, and is a picture of depraved and corrupted

rupted society; the other is the glow of nature. I would, therefore, exclude all novels that show human nature depraved; however well executed, the design will disgust."

It is well remarked by a writer in the Westminster Review, that "Sheridan was extremely ignorant, and these were the visions of a fasting mind; in the provinces of wit and fancy he contrived to do without knowledge, but whenever we find him committing himself to paper argumentatively on grave subjects, we observe a lamentable crudity and a lack of bottom. It may be objected, that it is unfair to found any opinion on performances not published by the writer, and perhaps not intended for publication; we cannot but think, however, that such rough sketches as those to which we allude, furnish indications of the furniture of a mind."

But from the abovementioned source, "Moore's Life of Sheridan," we learn that, in an early essay of Chesterfield's Letters, a passage exists from the pen of our author that deserves to be written in letters of gold. He says, "His (Lord Chesterfield's) frequent directions for constant employment are entirely ill-founded: a wise man is formed more by the action of his own thoughts than by continually feeding it. 'Hurry,' he (lord C.) says, 'from play to study; never be doing nothing.' *I say, frequently be unemployed; sit and think.* There are, on every subject, but a few leading and fixed ideas; their tracks may be traced by our own genius, as well as by reading: a man of deep thought, who shall have accustomed himself to support or attack all he has read, will soon find nothing new." It is remarkable, that this profound remark has been made, in a work just now quoted with praise (The Westminster Review), the subject of an attack on Sheridan. It is assumed there, however, that Sheridan deemed information might be thus easily acquired; but the passage bears no such interpretation. It can be held only to apply to reflexion; and here it is most undeniably true. *Facts* cannot be discovered by sitting still and thinking; but these, once acquired, we dare to assert with Sheridan, that a man may advance more safely and rapidly by sitting unemployed, and reflecting upon them, than by filling up his time with hunting out the conclusions of other people. Let us add, that such a proposition from one so young and so uninstructed in philosophy, is strong evidence of a powerful and original mind.

In 1775, he projected and partly accomplished a reply to Johnson's slavish book "Taxation no Tyranny." Such a work might of course easily have been blown to atoms; but this task was not performed by our author.

We must return to Sheridan's private affairs.

In consequence of his father's residence for a time at Bath, Mr. Sheridan saw, and had become enamoured with Eliza, the daughter of Mr. Charles Linley, a celebrated musician and composer, who had been bred up under Mr. Chilcot, the organist of the Abbey Church. She was born in 1754, and, like the rest of the family, evinced, at a very early age, both a talent and a passion for the art in which her father excelled. After two duels with Mr. Matthews, the latter of which is said to have been of a desperate nature, Mr. Richard Sheridan triumphed over all his rivals, among whom was included his elder brother, Charles Francis, by obtaining possession of the heart of "the Syren," as this lady was then usually termed. But marriage was a measure that could not receive the countenance of either family; however, as prudence is seldom to be found in the catalogue of good qualities appertaining to fond lovers, an elopement to France took place. Old Linley instantly pursued the fugitives thither, and gladly brought back his daughter, on whose voice and talents so much of his present prosperity depended. Notwithstanding this, the ceremony soon after took place in due form, on the 13th of April, 1773, Richard being in his twenty-second, and she in her nineteenth year.

Such was the exquisite delicacy of the young husband, that it was not without great difficulty he permitted his bride to fulfil her antecedent engagement to sing at the Worcester musical meeting; and, when this was over, he immediately

returned the money. He refused, nearly at the same time, the sum of one thousand pounds, with a benefit valued at the same amount, at the Pantheon; but his determination to seclude her entirely, and for ever, from the public gaze, appears to have nowhere found either countenance or support, except from the great lexicographer, who exclaimed, "He is a brave man! he has resolved wisely and nobly! I know not if I should not prepare myself for a public singer as readily as let my wife be one."

This, however, was at least a bold and daring undertaking; for all that Mr. Sheridan now possessed in the world, was the sum of one thousand pounds, being the amount of an award paid by a Mr. Long, a rich old gentleman, then resident at Bath, for a breach of promise of marriage to Miss Eliza Linley. However trifling this dowry may be considered, it was the first large sum that had ever come into possession of the subject of this memoir; and certain it is, that he acted as if it had been an inexhaustible treasure! When this was dissipated, which occurred in the course of a few months, some other fund was to be recurred to. The law presented an equivocal and uncertain aspect; temporary and fugitive essays for the periodical press could afford but a scanty and inadequate supply: the theatre alone held out a golden prospect of speedy and immediate supply. Accordingly, the comedy of "The Rivals" was brought out at Covent Garden, in January 1775, about eighteen months after this union, and, although at first but badly received, it gave a promise of superior talents. "The Duenna," which followed soon after, was ushered in with such a long-continued and uninterrupted burst of applause, that, in point of success, it rivalled, if it did not surpass, "The Beggar's Opera."

Mr. Sheridan now began to be considered as a man of extraordinary talents, and seems to have occupied a situation in society somewhat similar to that of Sir Richard Steele, or rather, perhaps, one of the great wits in Charles the Second's day. His conversation was full of point; his dialogue attic; his manners fascinating. Those who could not bear the father, loved the son; and two men, who appear to have in some measure regulated the taste of the town, partly on his own account, and partly on that of his most amiable and excellent mother, took great delight in serving him.—Dr. Johnson, who had quarrelled with the elder Sheridan, introduced him to the literary club; while Garrick, who was also on bad terms with him, afforded a far more substantial proof of his favour. Being at length resolved to retire not only from the stage, but also from the management of Drury-Lane, he smoothed the way, at least, for the introduction of his young friend, who actually became one of the joint patentees, along with Messrs. Linley and Ford, by means of borrowed money, secured by mortgage on the property.

Mr. Richard Sheridan, who had acted hitherto only as a dramatic writer, now presided over the theatre, and soon after brought forward the "School for Scandal:" the best and the most popular of his productions. It is justly esteemed the first genteel comedy we have; alike remarkable for the conciseness and polish of the language, the refinement of the thoughts, the easy conduct of the plot, and the natural pourtraiture of the characters. The morality of the piece has been much objected to by critics, because, like Tom Jones, this production tends to place licentiousness of conduct in too favourable a light. But we cannot think this censure well grounded, for great care is shewn to distinguish the errors of Charles from any thing like gross sensual indulgence; and since such a distinction is true in experience, where is the harm of describing it. It is no argument to say that we afford an excuse to vice, because we depict it in moderate instead of outrageous hues of darkness. The reverse might rather be maintained. Besides, it cannot be expected that a play is to satirise all vices at once. The object of the School for Scandal is to shew that censoriousness, malignant detraction and hypocrisy are deeper grades of iniquity than sensual indulgencies which *may* arise from mere thoughtlessness,

and

and that while a character prone to the latter failings may frequently be reformed, there is little hope of amendment in calculating and sentimental rogues. Who will deny that this object is accomplished?

This play, like all our author's productions, seems to have been the result of considerable pains taking. Every thought was committed to paper in several different modes, the best methods of setting it observed. Much wit was stolen, but rarely without an improvement that rendered it original. The characters of Tom Jones and Blifil are said to have served as the prototypes of Charles and Joseph Surface, yet the difference is most striking. Moliere's "Misanthrope" seems to have furnished materials for the famous scandal-scene at Lady Sneerwell's, and the incidents of Sir Oliver's return from India are obviously borrowed from "Sidney Biddulph," his mother's novel.

The following are Moore's judicious remarks on the School for Scandal:—"With but little interest in the plot, with no very profound or ingenious development of character, and with a group of personages, not one of whom has any legitimate claims upon either our affection or esteem, it yet, by the admirable skill with which its materials are managed; the happy contrivance of the situations, at once both natural and striking; the fine feeling of the ridiculous that smiles throughout, and that perpetual play of wit which never tires, but seems, like running water, to be kept fresh by its own flow; by all this general animation and effect, combined with a finish of the details, almost faultless, it unites the suffrages, at once, of the refined and the simple, and is not less successful in ministering to the natural enjoyment of the latter, than in satisfying and delighting the most fastidious tastes among the former. And this is the true triumph of genius in all the arts, whether in painting, sculpture, music, or literature, those works which have pleased the greatest number of people of all classes, for the longest space of time, may without hesitation be pronounced the best; and, however mediocrity may enshrine itself in the admiration of the select few, the palm of excellence can only be awarded by the many."

The "modern Congreve," as he was now called, reaped both fame and profit from this sprightly effort of his dramatic muse; and in 1778, by the purchase of Mr. Lacy's moiety of the patent, which appears to have been merely the transfer of a mortgage, burdened with two additional annuities, he obtained a most valuable property.

As he was but an indifferent manager, although an admirable writer of comedies, he now resigned the sceptre of old Drury to his own father; but, after his reign of a few months, as has been already stated, he abdicated in disgust; and the royal treasury, notwithstanding the boasted success of this triple monarchy, seemed to be emptied, rather than filled by long-continued prosperity.

Indifferent to wealth, and even to ruin, Mr. Sheridan gladly averted his eyes from his own concerns to those of the state. He now aspired to be a senator, and possessing an ample qualification for a seat in Parliament, in consequence of his rent-charge on Drury-lane, through the friendship of Lord John Townshend, he was introduced to Mr. Fox, and in 1780, being elected for the borough of Stafford, entered on his parliamentary career. His first appearance before the public as a political character was in conjunction with Mr. Fox at the beginning of the year 1780, when the famous Resolutions on the State of the Representation, signed by Mr. Fox as chairman of the Westminster Committee, together with a Report on the same subject from the Subcommittee, signed by Sheridan, were laid before the public. Annual Parliaments and Universal Suffrage were the professed objects of this meeting; and the first of the Resolutions, subscribed by Mr. Fox, stated, that, "Annual Parliaments are the undoubted right of the people of England."

Notwithstanding this strong declaration, it may be doubted whether Sheridan was, any more than Mr. Fox, a very sincere friend to the principle of Reform. Deeming the scheme of Cartwright and others, which these Resolutions recommended, impracticable, he always took refuge in it

when pressed upon the subject, and would laughingly advise his political friends to do the same:—"Whenever any one," he would say, "proposes to you a specific plan of Reform, always answer that you are for nothing short of Annual Parliaments and Universal Suffrage; there you are safe." He also had evident delight, when talking on this question, in referring to a jest of Burke, who said that there had arisen a new party of Reformers, still more orthodox than the rest, who thought Annual Parliaments far from being sufficiently frequent; and who, founding themselves upon the latter words of the statute of Edward III., that "a parliament shall be holden every year once, and more often if need be," were known by the denomination of the "Oftener-if-need-be." "For my part," he would add, in relating this, "I am an Oftener-if-need-be."

During the busy interval that passed between his first appearance and his appointment under the Rockingham administration in 1782, Sheridan rarely took part in the debates. The impeachment of Hastings raised Sheridan to the summit of fame as an orator. Against the former, the first two charges had been made. The third was brought forward by Sheridan on the 7th of February, 1787, in the most famous speech ever delivered in Parliament. The reader of that speech finds in it, however, a sad prolixity; a display of oriental knowledge, not necessary, and not bearing on the point in question; more unsupported invective than intelligent men, even of that age, might *a priori* have been supposed likely to admire; and some similes, that instead of illustrating the orator's ideas, must have distracted the attention of his audience. Yet the Commons thought so highly of this oration, that they adjourned, because they deemed it unjust to proceed to vote under its overwhelming impression. It had occupied all the family, and Mrs. Sheridan in particular had laboured so much at it, as materially to have injured her health. Another speech was made on the Renaus charge, on the 2d of April, and on the 15th, Sheridan began his famous summing up of the charge concerning the Begums of Oude, which occupied the house five days, and was still more prolix but nearly as effectual as the one he had delivered the preceding year.

When the king was taken ill, and the whigs so far forgot in their private friendship their public principles, as to talk of the prince of Wales's right to the regency, Sheridan fell into the same servile course. At the period of the French Revolution, Burke quarrelled with Fox and Sheridan, a circumstance which called forth a famous sarcastic speech from the last. He continued tolerably attentive to his duties, and on the occasions of the public reporters being excluded from Lincoln's Inn, by his defence of them; and of the mutiny in the fleet, when he supported a ministry he hated, manifested his liberality of feeling and his conscientiousness.

The last great epoch in his life, was the time when a negotiation was carried on with Lords Grey and Grenville, in 1811, to bring them into the ministry. At this time, Sheridan seems to have felt little affection towards his whig friends, and to have been wholly bent on inveigling himself into the Prince's good graces. He accordingly proceeded to satirize his old party, and to his great dishonour, suppressed a most important communication, that he had been charged to make them. Lords Grey and Grenville had refused to accept office, unless the Prince's household should go out. Lord Yarmouth requested Sheridan to inform those noblemen, that the household would resign. He not only suppressed this message, but when Mr. Tierney asked him a question on the subject, offered to bet five hundred guineas no such resignation was contemplated.

Sheridan had long laboured under pecuniary difficulties, and the dissolution of parliament in 1812, deprived him at once of his political consequence and of a protection from his duns. He failed in his attempt to get elected for Stafford, and thereby increased his distress. At this period his royal master did not desert him, but transmitted 3 or 4000 pounds to him through Lord Moira's hands, to purchase a seat for Wootton Bassett. The negotiation was all but concluded.

nothing

nothing being wanting but Sheridan's presence on the spot. On three successive evenings, Mr. Cocker, with whom the money had been deposited by his lordship, dined with Sheridan at a hotel in Albemarle-street, a chaise being on each night waiting at the door to convey them down to Wootton Bassett: on each night Sheridan, after his wine, postponed the journey to the next day, and on the fourth day, he altogether abandoned the project of purchasing a seat in Parliament, received the four thousand pounds, and applied them, as he was warranted to do by the permission of the donor, to his private uses. This did not save him long from distress: his irregular habits, his pride not to reduce his expenditure, involved him still further in embarrassments, and drove him to many miserable tricks to relieve himself. The regent either disgusted with his faults or considering that every thing had been done that honour could require towards a mere boon companion, withdrew from him his countenance; his other great friends betrayed the same coldness, and at length, apparently deserted by all but Rogers, Moore and a few others, he fell sick and died on the 7th of July, 1816.

He was a charming companion, social not only in the common meaning of the word, but in the finer relations of life. And his irregularities may be considered rather as the result of bad habits and the evil society he had fallen into, than of any other cause. Gambling, drinking, running into debt, were vices common enough among his theatrical acquaintance, and not quite unknown among his genteel and noble friends. Could it be expected that the son of the actor, not educated in solid knowledge, and confident in the resources of his genius, should grow a little giddy at his unparalleled elevation? He is no example for imitation either as a parliamentarian, for he knew nothing; nor as a man, for he lived dishonourably; but he may be pitied. He was worth all the fair-famed place-hunters that lived in his time under the shade of obscurity; and morality must rejoice in his existence were it only for his writing the *School for Scandal*.

SHERIF, in Egypt, the relations of Mahomet, the same tribe of persons called emir by the Turks.

The word is Persian, and signifies great or noble; and these persons have the privilege of being exempt from appearing before any judge but their own head; and if any of the military orders are obliged to punish them for any misdemeanor, they first take off their green turban, in respect to their character; and the same is done even when they are punished by their own magistrate.

SHERIFABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi.

SHERIFF, *s.* [шѣрефеѣра, Saxon, from шѣре, a shire, and шеѣ, a steward. It is sometimes pronounced *shrieve*, which some poets have injudiciously adopted. An officer to whom is intrusted in each county the execution of the laws.

He is called in Latin *vice-comes*, as being the deputy of the earl or comes, to whom the custody of the shire is said to have been committed at the first division of this kingdom into counties: but the earls being afterwards unable, by reason of their high employments, and attendance on the king's person, to transact the business of the county, the labour was committed to the sheriff; who now performs all the king's business in the county; and though he be still called *vice-comes*, yet he is entirely independent of, and not subject to, the earl: the king, by his letters patent, committing *custodiam comitatus* to the sheriff.

Sheriffs were formerly chosen by the inhabitants of the several counties; in confirmation of which, it was ordained by 28 Edw. I. c. 8. that the people should have election of sheriffs in every shire, where the sheriffalty is not of inheritance; for anciently in some counties the sheriffs were hereditary, as judge Blackstone apprehends they were in Scotland, till the statute 20 Geo. II. c. 43. and still continue in the county of Westmoreland to this day: the city of London having also the inheritance of the sheriffalty of Middlesex vested in their body by charter. This election, says the same author, was, in all probability, not absolutely vested in the commons, but required the royal approbation. For

in the Gothic constitution, the judges of their county-courts (which office is executed by our sheriff) were elected by the people, but confirmed by the king; and the form of their election was thus managed: the people, or *incolæ territorii*, chose twelve electors, and they nominated three persons, *ex quibus rex unum confirmabat*. But with us in England, these popular elections growing tumultuous, were put an end to by the statute 9 Edw. II. st. 2. which enacted, that the sheriffs should from thenceforth be assigned by the chancellor, treasurer, and the judges, as being persons in whom the same trust might with confidence be reposed. By statutes 14 Edw. III. c. 7, 23 Hen. VI. c. 8, and 21 Hen. VIII. c. 20, the chancellor, treasurer, president of the king's council, chief justices, and chief baron, are to make this election on the morrow of All-Souls in the exchequer: and the king's letters patent, appointing the new sheriffs, used commonly to bear date the sixth day of November. 12 Edw. IV. c. 1.

And the custom now is, which has obtained since the time of Henry VI. that all the judges, together with the other great officers, meet in the exchequer chamber on the morrow of All-Souls yearly (which day is now altered to the morrow of St. Martin, by the last act for abbreviating Michaelmas term), and then and there propose three persons to the king, who afterwards appoints one of them to be sheriff.

This custom of the twelve judges proposing three persons, seems borrowed from the Gothic constitution before-mentioned; with this difference, that among the Goths the twelve nominees were first elected by the people themselves: which usage of our's was probably founded upon some statute, though not now to be found among our printed laws. But notwithstanding an unanimous resolution of all the judges of England to this purpose, entered in the council-book of 3d March, 34 Hen. VI. and the statute 34 and 35 Hen. VIII. cap. 26. sect. 61., which expressly recognizes this to be the law of the land; some of our writers have affirmed, that the king, by his prerogative, may name whom he pleases to be sheriff, whether chosen by the judges or not. This is grounded on a very particular case in the fifth year of queen Elizabeth, when, by reason of the plague, there was no Michaelmas term kept at Westminster, so that the judges could not meet there in *crastino animarum*, to nominate the sheriffs; upon which the queen named them herself, without such previous assembly, appointing for the most part one of the two remaining in the last year's list. And this case, so circumstanced, is the only authority in our books for making these extraordinary sheriffs.

However, it must be acknowledged, that the practice of occasionally naming what are called pocket-sheriffs, by the sole authority of the crown, hath uniformly continued to the reign of his late Majesty George III., in which, says Blackstone, few, if any, instances have occurred.

By four several statutes it is enacted, that no one shall be sheriff, except he was sufficient land within the shire to answer the king and the people in any manner of complaint. 9 Edw. II. st. 2. 4 Edw. III. c. 9. 5 Edw. III. c. 4. 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 21.

SHERIFF POINT, a cape in Columbia river, on the west coast of North America. Lat. 46. 5. N. long. 237. 11. E.

SHERIFFALTY, **SHERIFFDOM**, **SHERIFFSHIP**, or **SHERIFFWICK**, *s.* The office or jurisdiction of a sheriff.—There was a resumption of patents of gaols, and reannexing to them *sheriffwicks*; privileged officers being no less an interruption of justice than privileged places. *Bacon*.—Holding by patent the inheritance of the *sheriffdom*. *Selden*.

SHERIFFHALES, a parish of England, in Salop and Staffordshire; 2 miles north-by-east of Shiffnal. Population 809.

SHERIFF HUTTON. See **HUTTON**, **SHERIFF**.

SHERIFF-MUIR, or **SHERIFF-MOOR**, a plain of Scotland, near the Grampian mountains, in the county of Perth, where a battle was fought between the army of George I. and the rebels under the Earl of Marr.

SHERING, a parish of England, in Essex; 3 miles north-east-by-east of Harlow.

SHERINGHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk, near the sea-shore; 5 miles west of Cromer. Population 539.

SHERINGTON, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4½ miles north-east of Hindon.

SHERIPORAM, a town of Hindostan, in the Northern Circars, and district of Rajamundry. Lat. not ascertained.

SHERLOCK (William), an eminent divine in the English church, was born in London in 1641. He was educated at Eton, and thence he went to Peter-house, Cambridge, when he published "A Discourse concerning the Knowledge of Christ, and our Communion with Him," being intended as a confutation of the Antinomian doctrine, which brought upon him several antagonists, against whom he vindicated himself with judgment and zeal. In 1680 he took the degree of D.D., and in the following year he obtained a prebend in the cathedral of St. Paul's. The discovery of what was called the Rye-house plot, having called forth the spirit of loyalty, Dr. Sherlock appeared as an assessor of the doctrine of non-resistance, in a work entitled "The Case of Resistance to the supreme Powers stated, and resolved according to the Doctrines of the Holy Scriptures." In this piece he maintained that the authority of the sovereign was in his person, and not in the law:—that he does not receive his authority from the laws, but that the laws receive their power from him;—and that it does not become a man who can reason to all to talk of the authority of the laws in derogation to the authority of the sovereign power. From these slavish principles he did not in the least swerve, even after the accession of James II. had still more endangered the public liberties and religion of the country.

After the revolution, Dr. Sherlock for some time remained firm in his high monarchical principles; and refusing to take the oaths to the new government, was suspended from all his preferments, among which was the mastership of the Temple. It was during this suspension from his labours as a preacher, that he published the treatise on "Death," to which he is chiefly indebted for celebrity as an author.

Not long after the publication of this work, Dr. Sherlock's scruples with respect to government gave way; he took the oaths, and was reinstated in all his preferments. This step of course exposed him to the censure of the party with whom he had long acted, and to vindicate himself he published a piece, entitled "The Case of the Allegiance due to sovereign Powers stated and resolved." In 1690 he published his "Vindication of the Doctrine of the Holy and Ever-blessed Trinity;" and in 1704 "Discourse on the Immortality of the Soul," in which he made an attack on Locke's opinion concerning innate ideas. He died in 1707, in the 67th year of his age.

SHERLOCK (Thomas), a distinguished prelate, and son of the preceding, was born in London in 1678. He received his classical education at Eton, and from thence he removed to Catharine-hall, Cambridge. Being promoted to the deanery of Chichester in 1726, he soon after made his first appearance in print, as a champion of the establishment, in "A Vindication of the Corporation and Test Acts, in answer to the Bishop of Bangor's Reasons for the Repeal of them." This was replied to by the worthy prelate, and supported in a rejoinder by the dean.

Dr. Sherlock's next work was entitled "The Use and Intent of Prophecy in the several Ages of the World," which was the substance of some sermons preached in the Temple church, occasioned by the controversy between Collins and several divines on the subject of prophecy. In 1728 he was promoted to the see of Bangor, in which he succeeded his antagonist Hoadly. As a member of the upper house, he took an active part in its debates, and was always a supporter of the interests of the crown and the church. He accepted the see of London in 1749; in 1753 resigned the mastership of the Temple, and was very soon

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after incapacitated for any very active service. The bishop died in 1761, in the 84th year of his age.

SHERMA, a small province of Morocco, to the south of Morocco proper, and east of Duquella, abounding in cattle, particularly goats.

SHERMAN, a township of the United States, in Fairfield county, Connecticut. Population 949.

SHERMANBURY, a parish of England, in Sussex; 6 miles north-east of Staying.

SHERONA, a village of Upper Egypt, on the Nile; 8 miles north of Abu Girge.

SHERARDS, a hamlet of England, in Worcestershire; 7 miles south-west of Worcester.

SHERRINGHAM, a composer of songs in parts during the reign of Henry VII., which have been preserved with those of other contemporary composers in the Fairfax MS.

SHERRINGTON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 2 miles north-north-east of Newport Pagnell. Population 773.

SHERRINGTON, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Huntingdon.

SHERRIS, SHERRIS Sack, or SHERRY, s. [from Xeres, a town of Andalusia in Spain.] A kind of Spanish wine.—Your *sherris* warms the blood, which before, cold and settled, left the liver white, which is the badge of pusillanimity; but the *sherris* makes its course from the inwards to the parts extreme. *Shakspeare*.—Good *sherris sack* ascends me into the brain, dries me there all the foolish dull vapours, and makes it apprehensive. *Shakspeare*.

While the tinker did dine, he had plenty of wine,
Rich canary with *sherry*, and tent superfine.

Old Ballad, Percy's Rel.

SHERSHELL, a considerable town of Algiers, in Africa, situated in a most fertile and delightful country. It is generally supposed to be the city anciently called *Jol*, and to which the younger Juba gave the name of *Cæsarea*, in compliment to Augustus. The ruins here are not inferior to those of Carthage; and fine pillars, capitals, spacious cisterns, and beautiful Mosaic pavements, give the highest idea of its ancient magnificence. The city is said to have been anciently destroyed by an earthquake; and the port, formerly large and commodious, to have been ruined in consequence of the arsenal and other contiguous buildings being precipitated into it. This tradition seems confirmed by the present aspect of the cothon or artificial harbour; for when the sea is calm, and the water low, its area appears covered over with massy pillars and fragments of walls, which could only, it would appear, have been transported thither by such a concussion. The port is nearly of a circular form, 200 yards in diameter; but the securest part of it, which, till of late, was towards the cothon, is now filled up with a daily increasing bank of sand. However, there still lies in the mouth of it a small rocky island, which is the main shelter and defence against the northern tempest. In 1730, when Dr. Shaw visited this place, it was in great reputation for the manufacture of steel, earthen vessels, and such iron tools as are wanted in the neighbourhood. In 1738, it was seriously injured by an earthquake. Lat. 36. 35. N. long. 2. 30. E.

SHERSTON, GREAT and LITTLE, two adjoining villages in Wiltshire; 6½ miles west-by-south of Malmesbury. Population 1141.

SHERVEND, a village of Irak, in Persia; 32 miles north of Consar.

SHERWELL, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 2 miles north-east of Barnstaple. Population 533.

SHESEBQUIN, a post village of the United States, in Bradford county, Pennsylvania.

SHETE, a small river of England, in Kent, which runs into the Medway, at Twyford bridge.

SHETLAND, or ZETLAND ISLES, the north-east division of the Scottish Northern isles, about 15 leagues north-

east of the Orkneys. The nearest part of the continent of Europe is Bergen in Norway, from which they lie 44 leagues west. The southern promontory of the Mainland (as the largest of the Shetland islands is termed), lies in 59. 48 $\frac{1}{2}$. of north latitude, and the northern extremity of Unst, the most remote of them all, in the latitude of 60. 52. north. The meridian of London passes through this last island. The islands belonging to this division are about 86 in number, of which 40 are inhabited, and the others small holms or rocky islets, used only for pasturage. The principal inhabited islands are the Mainland, Yell, Unst, Whalsay, Bressay, Burray, House, Trondray, Fetlar, Papa Stour, Mickle and Little Rhoe, Skerries, Noss, &c., with the small islands of Foula and Fair Isle, which lie in the strait between the clusters of Orkney and Shetland. The climate of these islands cannot be said to be agreeable. The longest day in the island of Unst, is 18 hours and 35 minutes; and, of consequence, the shortest day is 5 hours and 25 minutes. The weather is humid and variable, though by no means hurtful to the health of those who have been accustomed to it. In the months of February and March, cold northerly and easterly winds generally prevail, and there is hardly the smallest appearance of spring till the end of April, and little genial warmth sooner than the middle of June. In autumn, the weather, four years in five, is extremely uncertain; and winter generally commences about the middle of October, and may be said to occupy six months in the year. Snow, however, seldom lies long, nor is frost ever very intense. The changes are sudden, the winds tempestuous, and the rains heavy. The sea swells and rages in such a manner, that for five or six months their ports are almost inaccessible, and of course, during that space, the people have very little communication with the rest of the world. That gloomy season, however, as in other countries in high northern latitudes, is frequently enlivened by the corruscations of the aurora borealis. In favourable seasons, the harvest is all over in September, though that does not often happen. At other times, the harvest is not finished before the middle of November; in which case, that part of the crop then abroad is often so much damaged, that it does not afford wholesome food either for man or beast. This, however, is sometimes the case in other districts of the British isles, as well as in Shetland. Seed-time commences at different times in different parts of the country, but commonly begins about the middle of March; though, in some districts, through prejudice, the farmers will not sow oats till the middle of April. It is earliest in the parishes of Tingwall and Dunrossness, where the surface is dry, and a good deal of the land incumbent on a limestone bottom. In such a high latitude as that of Shetland, the seed process, however, should always commence as early as possible, taking advantage of the dry weather as soon as March sets in. In these islands there is great diversity of soil; often deep moss on a bottom of sand, and sometimes the moss or peat is only a foot thick on a bed of clay. Those tracks which have been longest under cultivation, chiefly consist of a mixture of clay and small stones. The general appearance is a scene of ruggedness and sterility. Some patches of miserably cultivated soil relieve the eye of a traveller; but no tree nor shrub is to be seen. The western parts are peculiarly wild, dreary and desolate; consisting of grey rocks, stagnant marshes and pools, broken and precipitous coasts, excavated into vast natural arches and deep caverns. There are, it is computed, 25,000 English acres of arable land, and about 23,000 of good meadow and pasture in Shetland. There are sometimes, for miles together, pleasant flat spots, very fertile both in pasture and corn. A greater proportion of the country might easily be cultivated; but agriculture is here at a very low ebb, and is generally neglected for the fishery. The implements of husbandry are of the rudest construction, the farm-houses for the most part wretched hovels, and the roads in general are footpaths. The little fields of the inhabitants are, however, tolerably fertile, even under the worst practice of husbandry. In the kitchen gardens, red cabbage, savoy, leeks, with artichokes,

thrive exceedingly. In the whole country there is scarce the vestige of a tree, and hardly any shrubs, except juniper; but it is probable that the country was formerly overgrown with woods, as roots of large trees have been, and still are, dug up in many parts; and in some, and those too almost inaccessible places, the mountain ash is still found growing wild. That this defect, viz., the want of wood, does not arise entirely either from the soil or climate, appears from several late experiments; some gentlemen having raised ash, maple, horse-chesnuts, &c., in their gardens on the Mainland. There is plenty of peat and turf for fuel. Great numbers of horses are bred in Shetland, though they are of very small size, the ordinary height being from nine to ten hands, whilst the largest do not exceed eleven hands. These little animals, however, are full of spirit, and bear fatigue much better in proportion to their size, than larger horses, and evidently proceed from the Norway horse, though reduced in size, perhaps in some degree, by scanty fare. The cattle of Shetland are also of a small size, though in point of shape perhaps inferior to the west Highland cattle only, of all our native breeds. When fat, some of the cows will weigh from two to three hundred weight, and the oxen from three hundred weight to four; though the common run be much lighter. The quantity of milk which these little cows yield is inconsiderable, not exceeding one and a half Scots pints, or three English quarts, per day, at the utmost, on the common pastures of the country, though on good pasture they give twice that quantity and more. The Shetland sheep is the *ovis cauda brevi* common to Norway, Sweden and Russia, and which, till within the last forty years, was the only breed of sheep of the interior Highlands of Scotland. It is still found there, and in several other districts of Scotland, in small flocks. The number of sheep in all the Shetland islands, is calculated to be between 70,000 and 80,000, though this is probably considerably above the real number at present. If the wool of the present breed of Shetland sheep ever prove of much value, it will probably be when attached to the skin of the animal, and that dressed as a species of fur; for the quantity is very small, even for the small carcase of the animal; and, though some of it be fine, it is of a quality unfit for any general purpose of manufacture, and the price low in manufacturing districts, or it is rather almost unsaleable there. The breed is debased by almost every possible means of maltreatment, instead of being carefully improved; and it is wonderful that the wool, which is only partially coarse and hairy, has not become long ago as shaggy as the coat of a Welsh goat. Of game, there is neither grouse nor partridge, but the corn-rail is frequently heard; and there are multitudes of the aquatic birds, such as snipe, plover, curlew, duck, swan, goose, heron; also wild pigeons. The birds of prey are eagles (extremely destructive to the lambs), hawks, ravens and crows. The lakes, which generally have a pretty direct communication with the sea, afford trout and flounder; the surrounding ocean a vast variety of fish, and which are well attended to by the inhabitants. All the islands are well supplied with water. They have indeed no rivers, but many pleasant rivulets, which are sufficient to drive their corn-mills, and contain a few trout and salmon. The inhabitants are a hardy, robust and laborious race, and hospitable to strangers. They have few manufactures. They make a coarse cloth for their own use, and a little linen; they likewise export great quantities of stockings wrought upon wires, manufactured from their own wool; some of which are so fine, that they equal silk in price, and can be drawn through a finger ring. Their chief trade is to Leith, London, Dublin and Barcelona, but they also deal some little by barter with the Dutch fishermen who visit their islands. They export annually 1000 tons of cod, tusk and ling, and 500 tons of kelp, and about 5000*l.* worth of stockings and mittens. Their whole exports may be estimated at 35,000*l.* They have ten vessels of 768 tons, navigated by 53 men. Granite, freestone and limestone are abundant, as well as a beautiful and comparatively rare kind of stone, named diallage

lage rock. There are several varieties of schist, which answer for roofing-slate. A copper mine was formerly worked at Sandlodge, near the southern extremity of the Mainland; but from the expense exceeding the returns, the undertaking was necessarily discontinued.³ At Dunrossness there is a thick bed of iron-pyrites, and another of micaceous iron-ore. Bog iron-ore abounds over the whole of the country. Very recently the chromate of iron has been found in Unst. This rare and valuable substance has been usually obtained at a considerable expense from America. It is employed by the manufacturing chemists of London and elsewhere, for the purpose of extracting the chrome, which forms the principal ingredient in a yellow pigment used by coach-makers and house-painters. At Unst and at Fetlar there are slight indications of copper. In other parts of the islands several beautiful minerals are procured; among these are cyanite, actinolite, asbestos, amianthus, some varieties of garnet, steatite, chlorite and magnetic iron, staurolite and epidote; but the most curious of these is the native hydrate of magnesia, hitherto observed only at New Jersey. Porcelain-earth is found at Fetlar, Unst, and on the Mainland, but whether so pure as to deserve an introduction among the potteries, remains yet to be determined. There are two towns, viz., Lerwick and Scalloway; the latter is, however, by far the most ancient, and was formerly the capital. Near it are the remains of the large castle of the earls of Orkney and Shetland, bearing the date 1600, with a Latin inscription over the principal door. Near Lerwick is Fort Charlotte, garrisoned by a company of invalids. The most remarkable antiquities are the small round castles, named Pictish Burghs, which are disposed along the whole of the coasts. It has been a matter of dispute from whence the first inhabitants of these islands came. The history of the country becomes more certain from the 9th century. Shetland was then peopled by a number of Norwegians, who had fled to it for refuge, after they had been defeated by Harold Harfagre, the usurper of the crown of Norway. These exiles then retorted upon the monarch, by numerous piracies on the coasts of his kingdom. Accordingly, Harold fitted out a powerful fleet without delay, and landed on the island of Fetlar; but as he could not there procure safe anchorage for his fleet, he sailed to the island of Unst, to a bay which still retains his name, being called Harold's Wick. Harold made an easy conquest of these islands; and they became tributary to the crown of Norway till the end of the 15th century. They were ceded to the crown of Scotland, in lieu of dowry, when the princess of Norway was married to King James III. (as mentioned under the article SCOTLAND.) Shetland unites with Orkney in forming a stewartry, which sends one member to parliament. The whole country is divided into 12 parishes. See SCOTLAND.

SHETUCKET, a river of the United States, in Connecticut, which joins the Yantic at Norwich, to form the Thames.

SHEVAGUNGA, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, and district of Little Marawar. The government of this town and adjoining country had, according to the Nair custom, been from time immemorial in the hands of a female, styled the Ranny, till about the middle of the last century, when two brothers named Murdoo, of low birth, usurped the power, first under the title of *Dewan*, or ministers, but subsequently assuming that of rajah. They were expelled by the nabob of Arcot, but afterwards, through bribery, restored to their powers. Again proving refractory, they were attacked by a British detachment, and defended themselves in the fortress of Callarcoil, for five months. It was at length taken by storm, and the usurpers hanged. Of the old Shevagunga family there remained no lineal heir; the place was therefore given to a female, a relation of the late Ranny's, and the tribute continued at the former sum of 50,000 pagodas, each pagoda being in value 8s. 4d: Lat. 9. 54. N. long. 78. 30. E.

SHEVAGUNGA, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore. Lat. 13. 6. N. long. 77. 13. E.

SHEVAGURRY, a town of the south of India, district of Tinnevely. Lat. 9. 23. N. long. 77. 32. E.

SHEVELPATORE, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, and district of Tinnevely. This was a place of considerable consequence in former times, but is now of little importance. Lat. 9. 31. N. long. 77. 43. E. —There are several other inconsiderable places of this name in India.

SHEVINGTON, a township of England, in Lancashire; 2½ miles north-west of Wigan. Population 726.

SHEVIOCK, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 2 miles south-by-east of St. German's. Population 428.

SHEVOCK, a small rivulet of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which joins the Gadie near its confluence with the Ury.

SHEW. See **SHOW**.

To SHEW. See *To SHEW*.

SHEW-BREAD, "bread of faces, or of the faces." This denomination was given to the loaves of bread, which the priest of the week placed every Sabbath-day on the golden table in the sanctuary, before the Lord.

SHEWER, *s.* One who sheweth or teacheth what is to be done.

SHIAB, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 84 miles south-east of Calaat el Moilah.

SHIANSHIA, a village of Lower Egypt; 45 miles north-north-east of Cairo.

SHIANT ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands among the Western islands of Scotland; about 6 miles from the south-east coast of Lewis. Lat. 57. 53. N. long. 6. 20. W.

SHIBBOLETH, or **SIBBOLETH**, a Hebrew word, which signified *spica*, or an ear of corn. It was used by way of distinguishing the Ephraimites from the men of Gilead. For the latter having killed a great number of the former, set guards at all the passes of Jordan; and when an Ephraimite, who had escaped, came to the water-side, and desired to pass over, they asked him if he was not an Ephraimite? If he said no, they bade him pronounce Shibboleth. But he pronouncing it Sibboleth, according to the manner of the Ephraimites, and thus not enunciating the first letter, was killed on the spot: on this occasion, 42,000 Ephraimites were killed. By thus not distinguishing between the *v* and the *w*, the schin and the sin, they exposed themselves to this massacre: hence the terms have been used to denote the trivial grounds on which contending parties, particularly in theological disputes, often differ, and proceed to think ill of, and actually to persecute, one another.

SHIBKAH, an extensive plain of saltish ground in the southern part of the province of Tlemsan, in Algiers. It is inhabited by the Arab tribes called Ammer.

SHIDE, *s.* [*scide*, Sax. *scindula*; probably from *scaban*, to divide; *scheiden*, Germ. and *scheyden*, Teut. the same.] A piece split off, spoken of wood, a cleft *shide*. —*Gloucestershire, according to Grose*. In some places it also means a small solid piece of wood, a billet; not a slip or splinter.

SHIEL, **LOCH**, a lake of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, about 10 miles long and 2 broad, which discharges itself into the western sea by the river Shiel. There is a small island in it called Finan, on which are the ruins of a church dedicated to St. Finan.

SHIELD, *s.* [*scylb*, Sax.] A buckler; a broad piece of defensive armour held on the left arm to ward off blows.

Now put your *shields* before your hearts, and fight
With hearts more proof than *shields*. *Shakspeare*.

Defence; protection.—One that gives protection or security.

The terror of the Trojan field,
The Grecian honour, ornament, and *shield*,
High on a pile th' unconquer'd chief is plac'd. *Dryden*.

The shield was that part of the ancient armour on which the persons of distinction in the field of battle always had their arms painted; and most of the words used at this time to express the space that holds the arms of families, are derived

river from the Latin name for a shield, *scutum*. The French *escu*, and *escussion*, and the English word, *escutcheon*, or, as we commonly speak it, *scutcheon*, is evidently from this origin; and the Italian *scudo* signifies both the shield of arms, and that used in war.

The Latin name *clypeus*, for the same thing, seems also to be derived from the Greek word *γλυφειν*, to engrave; and it had this name from the several figures engraved on it, as marks of distinction of the person who wore it.

The shield in war, among the Greeks and Romans, was not only useful in the defence of the body, but it was also a token or badge of honour to the wearer, and he who returned from battle without it, was always treated with infamy afterwards.

The form of the shield has not only been found different in various nations, but even people of the same nation, at different times, have varied its form extremely; and among several people there have been shields of several forms and sizes in use, at the same period of time, and suited to different occasions.

The most ancient and universal form of shields, in the earlier ages, seems to have been the triangular, vulgarly called the heater shield, from its resemblance to that instrument of housewifery. This we see instances of in all the monuments and gems of antiquity: our own most early monuments shew it to have been the most antique shape also with us, and the heralds have found it the most convenient for their purposes, when they had any odd number of figures to represent; as if three, then two in the broad bottom part, and one in the narrow upper end, it held them very well or if five, they stood as conveniently, as three below, and two above. Most of the monumental figures of cross-legged knights are armed with triangular shields, which are generally a little convex, or curved in their breadth; their upper extremity terminated by a line parallel to the horizon, and their sides formed by the intersection of the segments of two circles. Such are generally represented on ancient seals and windows: sometimes, though not often, their surfaces are flat. On the inside of the Norman shields were two or more loops of leather, or wooden handles, through which the arm and hand were passed, when the shield was braced, and prepared for use; at other times it was carried by a leathern thong worn round the neck. The other form of a shield, now universally used, is square, rounded, and pointed at the bottom: this is taken from the figure of the Samnitic shield used by the Romans, and since copied very generally by the English, French, and Germans.

The shield, though it was not entirely relinquished so long as the use of the long and cross bows continued, seems to have undergone some alteration in its form; the triangular, or heater shield, gradually giving place to those of a circular or rectangular figure. Shields were first left off by the cavalry; they were, however, used in the army of king Edward I., at the siege of Karlaverok, in the year 1300. A sort of shields was worn by the Scots at the battle of Musselborough, in the first year of Edward VI. Shields or bucklers seem to have been used in affrays and private quarrels, by persons in the civil line, as late as the reigns of Elizabeth and king James I. The common appellation for a quarrelsome or fighting fellow about that period was a swash-buckler, that is, a breaker or clasher of bucklers. Maurice, prince of Orange, was a great advocate for the shield, and even attempted to revive the use of it. His company of Dutch guards was armed with targets and roundels, and he formed a regular plan of exercise for them. The target and broad sword were the favourite arms of the Scotch Highlanders as late as the year 1746, and even after. Swords and bucklers were anciently borne before great military officers, as insignia of their dignity: those carried before king Edward III. in France, are shewn in Westminster Abbey. The shield borne before the commander of the forces on board the Spanish Armada, is preserved in the Tower, and a sword was borne before the bishop of Norwich, as commander of

the troops with which he intended to serve king Richard II. Most of the ornamented metal shields, and many of the very large swords, were designed for this use.

The Spaniards and Portuguese have the like general form of shields, but they are round at the bottom, without the point; and the Germans, beside the Samnite shield, have two others pretty much in use; these are, 1. The bulging shield, distinguished by its swelling or bulging out at the flanks; and, 2. The indented shield, or shield chancree, which has a number of notches and indentings all round its sides. The use of the ancient shield of this form was, that the notches served to rest the lance upon, that it might be firm while it gave the thrust; but this form being less proper for the receiving armorial figures, the two former have been much more used in the heraldry of that nation.

Another form of shield derived its name roundel, or rondacha, from its circular figure; it was made of osiers, boards of light wood, sinews or ropes, covered with leather, plates of metal, or stuck full of nails, in concentric circles, or other figures. The shields and roundels of metal, particularly those richly engraved or embossed, seem rather to have been insignia of dignity, anciently borne before generals or great officers, than calculated for war; most of them being either too heavy for convenient use, or too slight to resist the violence of a stroke either from a sword or battle-axe. Although most roundels are convex, we meet with many that are concave; but these have commonly an umbo. The handles are placed as in the shield and target. The roundel seems, in many instances, to resemble the Roman parma.

TO SHIELD, *v. a.* [*scýlðan*, Sax.] To cover with a shield.—To defend; to protect; to secure.

Shouts of applause ran ringing through the field,

To see the son the vanquish'd father shield.

Dryden.

To keep off; to defend against; prevent.—Out of their cold caves and frozen habitations, into the sweet soil of Europe, they brought with them their usual weeds, fit shield the cold, to which they had been inured.

Spenser.

My lord, I must intreat the time alone.

—God shield I should disturb devotion.

Shakspeare

SHIELD, CAPZ, a low point on the coast of New Holland, in the gulf of Carpentaria, which projects six miles from the body of the land. Lat. 13. 19 $\frac{1}{2}$. S. long. 136 23. E.

SHIELDS, NORTH, a market town and sea-port of England, in the county of Northumberland, situated near the entrance of the river Tyne, on its northern bank. It has of late years increased greatly in size and population, and improvements have been carried on upon an extensive scale in its streets, buildings, &c. It now contains many handsome streets, and two elegant squares, besides the market-place, which may rival that of any provincial town in the kingdom. On one side is a spacious quay, with a crane for the delivery of goods, where ships of 300 tons may load and unload with perfect safety; and another side is adorned with a noble stone building, which is now used as an inn, and is surmounted with the Percy arms. The parish church is that of Tynemouth; and the town contains places of worship for almost every class of dissenters. An elegant Catholic chapel has been built near the north entrance of Shields; and a spacious Scotch church; and a large building which now belongs to the Independents. The remaining buildings and establishments are a large school-house, on the Lancasterian system, erected in commemoration of the royal jubilee; a theatre, a dispensary, a subscription library, which contains an extensive collection of valuable books; an asylum for sick and friendless seamen, a lying-in hospital, and many well conducted and flourishing benefit societies. The harbour of North Shields is calculated to accommodate 2000 sail of ships; and in spring tides, vessels of 500 tons burden can pass the bar in safety. The want of an independent custom-house is considered as the great desideratum of this port; all vessels being on this account

account obliged to clear out from Newcastle, a distance of 8 miles from that place. The principal trade of North Shields, as that of the Tyne in general, consists in the exportation of coals to London, and other places along the eastern coast, both of England and Scotland. Some vessels are also employed in the Baltic and American trade; and during the late wars, a great number were employed by government in the transport service. North Shields carries on various manufactures, chiefly those of the coarser kind, and such as depend on the shipping interest, as ship-building, boat-building, rope and sail-cloth making, brewing, baking, &c. Here is a cast-iron foundry, an extensive tannery, a skinnery, a tobacco manufactory, a glove manufactory, and five hat manufactories. North Shields is a place of considerable antiquity, and owes its origin to the monks of Tynemouth priory, who erected a number of houses here, and encouraged the settlement of ship owners and tradesmen, early in the reign of Edward I. The situation being well adapted for a seaport, they also formed a harbour, and established a weekly market and fairs; but its privileges being disputed by the corporation of Newcastle, they were inhibited by a decree of the itinerant judges; and the town continued on this account a mere fishing village, till the middle of the 17th century, when Cromwell undertook its improvement and revival. He caused an act of parliament to be passed, ordering quays and other accommodations to be built, and a market to be held two days in the week. At the restoration, however, the rights of the corporation of Newcastle were resumed; and it was only towards the end of the last century that the unjust restrictions that had retarded the prosperity of the town, were in some measure removed. In 1804, the town obtained, by petition of the inhabitants to the duke of Northumberland, the lord of the manor, the privilege of holding a weekly market and fairs; and since that time the trade and business of the place have greatly increased. North Shields contains, according to the census of 1811, 804 houses, and 7699 inhabitants. Market on Wednesday. Half a mile west of Tynemouth, and 279 north-by-west of London. Lat. 55. 0. N. long. 1. 25. W.

SHIELDS, SOUTH, a market town of England, in the county of Durham, situated at the mouth of the river Tyne, directly opposite to North Shields. Most of the streets are narrow, and the houses indifferently built. The church, which is dedicated to St. Hilda, is a chapel of ease to Jarrow, and was altogether rebuilt in 1810 and 1811, except the steeple, which is a plain square tower. The expense amounted to upwards of 5000*l.* Its outward appearance is rather heavy; but it is remarkably neat and commodious within. There are also some dissenting meeting-houses, the most important of which is that of the Methodists: it was opened 26th February 1809, and cost 3800*l.* It is capable of holding 1700 people. The town-house is a respectable building, situated in the centre of the market-place, which is a spacious square. In this building the magistrates hold the petty sessions for the east division of Chester ward; also a court leet and court baron are held, the one for making presentments to, and the other for the recovery of small debts; it is also appropriated for the use of an exchange for the town. In this town are not less than 30 benefit societies; there are also several public schools, and a theatre. South Shields, like North Shields, has of late years greatly increased in size and population; but it wants many of the advantages possessed by the other; and though it depends, like it, chiefly on the coal trade and shipping, it carries on a greater proportion of manufactures. It was formerly famous for its salt works, which were carried on by several of the most opulent families of the neighbourhood; and about 60 years ago, nearly 200 large pans were employed in this manufacture. This business has, however, greatly declined, being at present confined to four or five pans; but the loss is amply repaid by the increase of other trades. The ground formerly occupied by the pans has been converted into yards and docks for building and repairing ships, which, from the number of ships that rendezvous here, are

almost constantly employed. The dry docks are 11 in number: they are commodious, and large enough to contain 16 vessels. About 50 or 60 years ago, the number of ships belonging to this town is said to have been only four; they now amount to upwards of 500. The manufactures of the town are ship-building, glass-works, soap-works, sal-ammoniac works, several extensive breweries, and some large roperies. There are also several machines for taking ballast out of the ships; and one lately erected by Messrs. Newmarch and Company, which conveys it several hundred yards, by means of a tunnel. The life-boat owed its origin to a society of gentlemen belonging to this town, the utility of which is now known in almost all the maritime towns of the globe, and for which Mr. Greathead, the inventor, was rewarded with 1200*l.* voted to him by the House of Commons. On the point of land called the Saws, near South Shields, which forms the southern entrance into the Tyne, a Roman station is supposed to have been situated. Various Roman coins, broken inscriptions, and the remains of a hypocaust or sudatory, were dug up in 1796. On the low bank facing the sea is a guard-house and a battery, which formerly mounted four guns, but which have been removed within these five years. According to the census of 1811, South Shields contained 528 houses, and 9001 inhabitants. The houses have been increasing, and the inhabitants are now above 10,000. There are two market days, Wednesday and Saturday; also annual fairs, held 24th June and 1st September; but none of these seem to flourish; 21 miles north-north-east of Durham, and 278 north-north-east of London.

SHIELDS RIVER, a river of North America, which runs into the Missouri; 7 miles below the Great Falls.

SHIELDSBOROUGH, a township of the United States, in Hancock county, territory of the Mississippi, on the bay of St. Louis; 39 miles by land east-north-east of New Orleans, and 60 by water. It has a very pleasant and healthy situation, elevated from 20 to 40 feet above tide water, contains about 60 houses, and is a place of considerable resort from New Orleans during the sickly season. A college has been lately incorporated here. The bay is navigable to the town for vessels drawing seven feet.

SHIERE, or **SHIRE**, a parish of England, in Surrey; 6 miles east-by-south of Guildford. Population 918.

SHIFFNAL, or **SHEFFNAL**, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Salop. It is a great thoroughfare on the mail road from London to Holyhead. The church is an ancient building, and here is also a small charity school. Population 4061. Market on Friday; 9 miles north-east of Bridgenorth, and 136 north-west of London.

SHIFFORD, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire; 5½ miles east-by-south of Witney.

To **SHIFT**, *v. n.* [the Sax. *scýrcan*, to divide, to distribute. Our old lexicography also thus illustrates the word: "To *shiftyn*, or *departen asunder*, or *divide*." Prompt. Parv.—To change place.—Vegetables being fixed to the same place, and so not able to *shift* and seek out after proper matter for their increment, it was necessary that it should be brought to them. *Woodward*.—To change; to give place to other things.—If the ideas of our minds constantly change and *shift*, in a continual succession, it would be impossible for a man to think long of any one thing. *Locke*.—To change clothes, particularly the linen.—She begs you just would turn you while she *shifts*. *Young*.—To find some expedient; to act or live, though with difficulty.—Since we desire no recompence nor thanks, we ought to be dismissed; and have leave to *shift* for ourselves. *Swift*.—To practise indirect methods.—All those schoolmen, though they were exceeding witty, yet better teach all their followers to *shift* than to resolve by their distinctions. *Ralegh*.

To **SHIFT**, *v. a.* To change; to alter.

Come, assist me, muse obedient;
Let us try some new expedient;
Shift the scene for half an hour,
Time and place are in thy power.

Swift.
To

To transfer from place to place.
Pare saffron between the two St. Mary's days,
Or set or go *shift* it that knowest the ways.

To put by some expedient out of the way.

I *shifted* him away,
And laid good 'scuses on your ecstasy. *Shakspeare.*

To change in position.—Neither use they sails, nor place
their oars in order upon the sides; but carrying the oar loose
shift it hither and thither at pleasure. *Raleigh.*

We strive in vain against the seas and wind;
Now *shift* your sails. *Dryden.*

To change, as clothes.—As it were to ride day and night,
and not to have patience to *shift* me. *Shakspeare.*

To *SHIFT* off. To defer; to put away by some expedient.—Struggle and contrive as you will, and lay your
taxes as you please, the traders will *shift* it off from their own
gain. *Locke.*

SHIFT, *s.* Change.—My going to Oxford was not
merely for *shift* of air. *Wotton.*—They had three or four
shifts of very good scenes. *Drummond.*—Expedient found
or used with difficulty; difficult means.

Not any boast of skill, but extreme *shift*
How to regain my sever'd company,
Compell'd me to awake the courteous echo,
To give me answer from her mossy couch. *Milton.*

Indirect expedient; mean refuge; last resource.—To say,
where the notions cannot fitly be reconciled, that there
wanteth a term, is but a *shift* of ignorance. *Bacon.*—
Fraud; artifice; stratagem.

Know ye not Ulysses' *shifts*?
Their swords less danger carry than their gifts. *Denham.*

Evasion; elusory practice.—As long as wit, by whetting
itself, is able to find out any *shift*, be it never so slight,
whereby to escape out of the hands of present contradiction,
they are never at a stand. *Hooker.*—A woman's under
linen.

SHIFT, a term in Music, used for conducting the hand on
the finger-board of violins, and other instruments with a neck.

SHIFT, in Ship Building, a term applied to disposing the
butts of the planks, &c., so that they may over-launch each
other, without reducing the length, and thus gain the most
strength

SHIFTED, in Sea Language, denotes the state of a ship's
ballast or cargo, when it is shaken from one side to
the other, when under a great pressure of sail.

SHIFTER, *s.* One who changes, or alters the position of
a thing; as, a scene *shifter*. One who plays tricks; a man
of artifice.

'Twas such a *shifter*, that, if truth were known,
Death was half glad when he had got him down. *Milton.*

SHIFTER, a person appointed to assist the ship's cook,
particularly in washing, steeping and shifting the salt provisions.

SHIFTING, *s.* Act of changing; act of putting by
some expedient out of the way.—The wisdom of all these
later times, in princes' affairs, is rather fine deliveries, and
shiftings of dangers and mischiefs when they are near, than
solid and grounded courses to keep them aloof. *Bacon.*
—Evasion; fraud.

Nought more than subtile *shiftings* did me please,
With bloodshed, craftie, undermining men. *Mir. for Mag.*

SHIFTING, in Ship Building, the act of setting off the
length of the planks, &c. of a ship, so that the butts may
over-launch each other, as to produce a good shift.

SHIFTINGLY, *adv.* Cunningly; deceitfully.

SHIFTFLESS, *adj.* Wanting expedients; wanting
means to act or live. *Unused.*—He [Aubrey] was a *shift-
less* person, roving and maggotty-headed, and sometimes
little better than crased. *Life of A. Wood.*

SHIHOB, a savage tribe of Abyssinia, inhabiting the
coast of the Red sea, near Masuah.

SHITES, in the Mahometan Sects, were the opponents

of the *Kharejites*. This name properly signifies sectaries
or adherents in general, but is peculiarly used to denote those
of Ali Ebn Abi Tâleb; who maintain him to be lawful
caliph and iman, and that the supreme authority, both in
spirituals and temporals, of right belongs to his descendants,
notwithstanding that they may be deprived of it by the
injustice of others, or their own fear. They also teach, that
the office of iman is not a common thing, depending on the
will of the vulgar, so that they may set up whom they
please; but a fundamental affair of religion, and an article
which the prophet could not have neglected, or left to the
fancy of the common people; nay some, thence called Ima-
mians, go so far as to assert, that religion consists solely in
the knowledge of the true iman. The principal sects of the
Shiites are five, which are subdivided into an almost incre-
dible number; so that some understand Mohammed's pro-
phesy of the seventy odd sects, of the Shiites only.

SHIJASHKOTAN, one of the Kurile islands, at the
eastern extremity of Asiatic Russia, in the ocean south of
Kamtschatka. Lat. 49. 15. N. long. 154. 39. E.

SHILACON, a village of Egypt, on the eastern bank of
the Nile; 8 miles north of Cairo.

SHILBOTTLE, a parish of England, in Northumberland;
3 miles south-by-east of Alnwick. Population 1104.

SHILDON, a hamlet of England, in Durham; 3½ miles
south-east of Bishop's Auckland.

To *SHILL*, *v. a.* To separate: to shell. *Used in the
north.* To put under cover: more properly *sheal*: as,
shilling sheep. *Used also in the north.*

SHILLAY, a small island near the west coast of the island
of Lewis; 5 miles west-south-west of Toe Head. Lat. 54.
48. N. long. 7. 14. W.

SHILLELAA, a village of Algiers, in Africa, the ancient
Turaphilum; 10 miles south-west of Burg Hamza.

SHILLER-STONE, or *SHILLER-SPAR*, in Mineralogy,
the diallage metalloide of Haüy, a mineral nearly allied to
serpentine. See *SERPENTINE*.

SHILLING, *s.* [jcylling, Sax. and Erse, *shelling*,
Dutch.] A coin of various value in different times. It is
now twelve pence.

The Saxon laws reckoned the pound in the round num-
ber at fifty shillings, but they really coined out of it only
forty-eight; the value of the shilling was five-pence; but it
was reduced to four-pence above a century before the
Conquest; for several of the Saxon laws made in Athelstan's
reign, oblige us to take this estimate. Thus it continued
to the Norman times, as one of the Conqueror's laws suf-
ficiently ascertains; and it seems to have been the com-
mon coin by which the English payments were adjusted.
After the Conquest, the French solidus of twelve-pence,
which was in use among the Normans, was called by the
English name of shilling; and the Saxon shilling of four-
pence took a Norman name, and was called the *groat*, or
great coin, because it was the largest English coin then known
in England.

The Dutch, Flemish and Germans, have likewise their
shilling, called *schelin*, *schilling*, *scalin*, &c.; but these,
not being of the same weight or fineness with the English
shilling, are not current at the same value.

SHILL-I-SHALL-I, a corrupt reduplication of *shall I*?
The question of a man hesitating. To stand *shill-I-shall-I*,
is to continue hesitating and procrastinating.—I am some-
what dainty in making a resolution, because when I make
it, I keep it; I don't stand *shill-I-shall-I* then; if I say 't,
I'll do 't. *Congreve.*

SHILLINGDON, or *SHITLINGTON*, a parish of England,
in Bedfordshire; 8½ miles from Luton. Population 870.

SHILLINGFORD, a parish of England, in Berkshire;
2½ miles south-east of Great Faringdon.

SHILLINGFORD, St. GEORGE, a parish of England,
in Devonshire, on the river Ken; 3 miles south-south-west
of Exeter.

SHILLINGFORD, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire,
near the river Thames; 2½ miles from Wallingford.

SHILLINGSTONE OKEFORD, a parish of England,
in

in Dorsetshire; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Blandford Forum. Population 385.

SHILLUK, a country on the higher part of the Bahr el Abiad, to the south of Sennaar, in Africa. The inhabitants are all black, and pagans; they have no other covering than bands of long grass, which they pass round the waist and between the thighs. They have the command of the river, and exact a toll from all vessels that pass up and down. The term Shilluk is not Arabic, and its meaning is unknown. They are represented as shewing hospitality to those who come peaceably among them, and as never betraying those to whom they have once promised protection. In the beginning of the sixteenth century the Shilluks conquered Sennaar, over which country their descendants now reign. See SENNAAR.

SHILOH, in Scripture Criticism, a term that occurs in Jacob's celebrated prophecy concerning the Messiah; concerning the etymology and application of which, biblical commentators have differed in opinion, some regarding the word as meaning "the deliverer," and suppose it to have been applied to Jesus Christ. The Jews expect the Shiloh is still to come.

SHILTON, a parish of England, in Berkshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-south-east of Burford.

SHILTON, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 6 miles north-east of Coventry.

SHILVINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 6 miles south-west of Morpeth.

SHILY, *adv.* Not familiarly; not frankly.

SHIM (*provincial*), an implement for breaking sods, loosening the earth, and clearing away weeds.

SHIMENE, PORT, on the north side of the island of St. John, in the gulf of St. Lawrence. Its entrance, west of St. Peter's harbour, is very narrow; but the basin within is very spacious.

To **SHIMMER**, *v. n.* [*rcympian*, Sax.; *schimmern*, Germ. to shine.] To gleam.—"A litel *shemering* of light." *Chaucer*.—In the north, it is *skimmer*.

SHIMPLING, a parish of England, in Norfolk; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Diss.

SHIMPLINGTHORNE, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 7 miles from Sudbury. Population 393.

SHIN, *s.* [*rcina*, Sax.; *schien*, Germ.] The forepart of the leg.—I bruised my *shin* the other day with playing at sword and dagger. *Shakspeare*.—The *shin* bone, from the knee to the instep, is made by shadowing one half of the leg with a single shadow. *Peacham*.

SHIN, LOCH, a lake of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, about 20 miles long from north-west to south-east, and from 1 to 2 broad; the banks of which, especially on the south side, are covered with natural wood. It discharges itself, at its eastern extremity, by the river Shin, which, after a course of 6 or 8 miles, during which it forms several cascades, falls into the head of the frith of Dornoch, at a small village called Invershin.

SHINAAS, a small sea-port on the Persian gulf, situated between the town of Sinja and Cape Bastana. Refreshments may be obtained here.

SHINCLIFF, a hamlet of England, county of Durham; 2 miles south-east of Durham.

To **SHINE**, *v. n.* pret. *I shone*, *I have shone*; sometimes *I shined*, *I have shined*. [*Goth. skeinan*; *Icel. skyma*, splendere, *skin*, fulgur; Sax. *rcinan*.] To have bright resplendence; to glitter; to glisten; to gleam.

To-day the French,
All clinquant, all in gold, like heathen gods,
Shone down the English; and to-morrow they
Made Britain India; every man that stood,
Shew'd like a mine. *Shakspeare*.

Fair daughter, blow away these mists and clouds,
And let thy eyes *shine* forth in their full lustre. *Denham*.

To be without clouds.

The moon *shines* bright: in such a night as this,
When the sweet wind did gently kiss the trees,
And they did make no noise. *Shakspeare*.

To be glossy.—Fish with their fins and *shining* scales. *Milton*.—The colour and *shining* of bodies is nothing but the different arrangement and refraction of their minute parts. *Locke*.—To be gay; to be splendid.

So proud she *shined* in her princely state,
Looking to heaven; for earth she did disdain. *Spenser*.

To be beautiful.

Of all the enamell'd race, whose silvery wing
Waves to the tepid zephyrs of the Spring,
Or swims along the fluid atmosphere,
Once brightest *shin'd* this child of heat and air. *Pope*.

To be eminent or conspicuous.

Her face was veil'd; yet to my fancied sight
Love, sweetness, goodness in her person *shin'd*
So clear, as in no face with more delight. *Milton*.

To be propitious. To give light real or figurative.

Celestial light
Shine inward, and the mind through all her powers
Irradiate. *Milton*.

To **SHINE**, *v. a.* To cause to shine.—So *schyme* your light before men, that they see your gode workis. *Wicliffe*.

SHINE, *s.* [*rcine*, Sax. bright.] Fair weather.—Be it fair or foul, or rain or *shine*. *Dryden*.—He will accustom himself to heat and cold, and *shine* and rain; all which if a man's body will not endure, it will serve him to very little purpose. *Locke*. Brightness; splendour; lustre.

Say, in what mortal soil thou deign'st to grow?
Fair opening to some court's propitious *shine*,
Or deep with diamonds in the flaming mine? *Pope*.

SHINESS, *s.* Bashfulness; reserve; (in horses) restiveness.—They were famous for their justice in commerce, but extreme *shiness* to strangers: they exposed their goods with the price marked upon them, and then retired. *Arbutnot*.—An incurable *shiness* is the vice of Irish horses; and is hardly ever seen in Flanders, because the winter forces the breeders there to house and handle their colts. *Temple*.

SHINFIELD, a parish of England, in Berks and Wiltshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-east of Reading. Population 948.

SHINGARIN, a salt mine situated near the southern extremity of the great desert of Sahara, in Central Africa; about 400 miles west-north west of Tombuctoo.

SHINGEIAT, a town of Bergoo, in Central Africa; 90 miles west of Wara.

SHINGEY, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Royston.

SHINGHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles south-west of Swaffham.

SHINGLE, *s.* [*schindel*, Germ.] A thin board to cover houses; a sort of tiling.—The best to cleave, is the most useful for pales, laths, *shingles*, and wainscot. *Mortimer*.—I reached St. Asaph, a bishop's see, where there is a very poor cathedral church, covered with *shingles* or tiles. *Ray*.

To **SHINGLE**, *v. a.* To cover with tiles or shingles.—*Unused*.—They *shingle* their houses with it. *Evelyn*.

SHINGLE, is a term sometimes applied to the thinnings of fir and other timber trees, in the northern districts, and which are of much use for various purposes in farming, as the making of fences, &c.—A substance found and collected on the sea-beach, or shore, which is used for several purposes, as ballasting of ships, filling hollow drains, protecting the foundations of embankments, and other similar uses.

SHINGLES, *s.* [*cingulum*, Lat.] A kind of tetter or herpes that spreads itself round the loins.—Such are used successfully in erysipelas and *shingles*, by a slender diet of decoctions

Decoctions of farinaceous vegetables, and copious drinking of cooling liquors. *Arbutnot.*

SHINGLES, a ridge of rocks on the coast of England, lying off the west corner of the Isle of Wight.

SHINGLING, in the Iron-Works, in many parts of England, is the operation of hammering the sow, or cast-iron, into blooms. The tongs, used for holding the iron in this operation, are called shingling-tongs, and the iron to be thus wrought is called a loop.

SHININGNESS, *s.* Brightness; splendour. *Scott.*

SHINNEL, a romantic and picturesque stream of Scotland, in the parish of Penpont, Dumfries-shire, which rises in the Black hill, on the confines of Kirkcudbrightshire, and, after a south-east course of some miles, joins its waters to the Scarr at Capenock. At the point of their union there is a remarkable ridge of precipitous rocks, over which the Shinnel rushes with the greatest impetuosity.

SHINTON, a parish of England, in Salop; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-west of Much Wenlock.

SHINY, *adj.* Bright; splendid; luminous.

When Aldeboran was mounted high,
Above the *shiny* Cassiopei's chair,
One knocked at the door, and in would fare.

Spenser.

The night
Is *shiny*, and they say we shall embattle
By the second hour o' the morn.

Shakespeare.

SHIOBERT EL YEMENI, a village of Lower Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 8 miles south-east of Mehallet Kibeer.

SHIP, *s.* [*scip*, Sax.; *schiff*, Germ.] A large vessel moved on the water by sails. Some, indeed, have lately ventured to use the term *steam-ship*; but this idea of the word does not seem likely to become general.

— All my followers to the eager foe
Turn back and fly like *ships* before the wind. *Shakespeare.*

Ships are of various kinds; they differ both as to form and dimensions. The chief division arises, however, out of the use to which they are applied; namely, into ships of war and merchant vessels. Our men-of-war were formerly of all sorts of shapes and sizes, scarcely any two ships being perfectly similar in all their parts; so that parts of the one never would be available for the wants of the other. Laterly, the importance of uniformity has been perceived, and it has been resolved to make nearly all ships, of a particular rate, on the same model. We have, at present, six kinds of ships of war:—

The 1st rate includes all three-deckers, in as much as all sea going ships of that description carry 100 guns and upwards: furnished with 900, 850 or 800 men.—The 2d rate includes all ships of 80 guns and upwards, on two decks: 700 or 650 men.—The 3d rate includes all ships of 70 guns and upwards, and less than 80 guns: 650 or 600 men.—The 4th rate includes all ships of 50 guns and upwards, but less than 70 guns: 450 or 350 men.—The 5th rate includes all ships from 36 to 50 guns: 300 or 280 men.—The 6th rate includes all ships from 24 to 36 guns: 175, 145 or 125 men.—Of sloops, the complements established according to their size, to consist of 135, 125, 95 or 75 men.—Brigs, not sloops, cutters, schooners, and bombs, with 60 or 50 men.

Besides the different kinds of ships abovementioned, which are denominated from the purpose for which they are employed, vessels have also, in general, been named according to the different manner of rigging them. It would be an endless, and at the same time an unnecessary task, to enumerate all the different kinds of vessels with respect to their rigging; and, therefore, a few only are here taken notice of. Fig. 1. Pl. I. is a *ship* which would be converted into a *bark* by stripping the mizen-mast of its yards and the sails belonging to them. If each mast, its corresponding top-mast and top-gallant-mast, instead of being composed of separate pieces of wood, were all of one continued piece, then this vessel,

with very little alteration, would be a *polacre*. Fig. 2. represents a *snow*; fig. 3. a *bilander*; fig. 4. a *brig*; fig. 5. a *ketch*; fig. 6. a *schooner*; fig. 7. a *sloop*; fig. 8. a *zebec*; fig. 9. a *galliot*. Pl. II. fig. 1. a *dogger*; fig. 2. a *galley* under sail; fig. 3. ditto, rowing.

OF THE PARTS OF A SHIP.

We shall divide our description of a ship into two heads:—First, That concerning the parts for the propulsion of the vessel; namely, the masts, sails, rigging, &c. Secondly, the floating and carrying part or body of the vessel. In a ship with three masts, the mast nearest the head of the vessel is called the *fore-mast*, the hindmost is called the *mizen-mast*, the middle one of the three the *main-mast*. By reference to the annexed plate, it will be seen, that each of these is again divided into three parts, of which the lowest is called the *lower-mast*, the middle the *top-mast*, and the highest the *top-gallant-mast*; a fourth part, called a *royal-mast*, has been superadded to these; but it is now disused. Some masts, called *pole-masts*, are made of one entire piece, but still have all of these divisions.

The three parts of a mast are secured to each other by *caps*, *a, a, a* (fig. 1. Pl. III), and by *blocks*, *b, b, b*; to which are attached the *trussle trees*.

The long poles that run horizontally across the masts, are called *yards*; and these take their name from the mast to which they are attached, as, *lower fore-yard*, *main top-sail-yard*, *royal yard*, &c. When a yard is suspended against its mast, the halves into which it is divided by the intersection of that mast, is called the *yard-arm*.

The large beam protruding from the fore-part of the ship, is denominated the *bowsprit*; it has attached to it the *jib-boom*. And both these parts have *yards*.

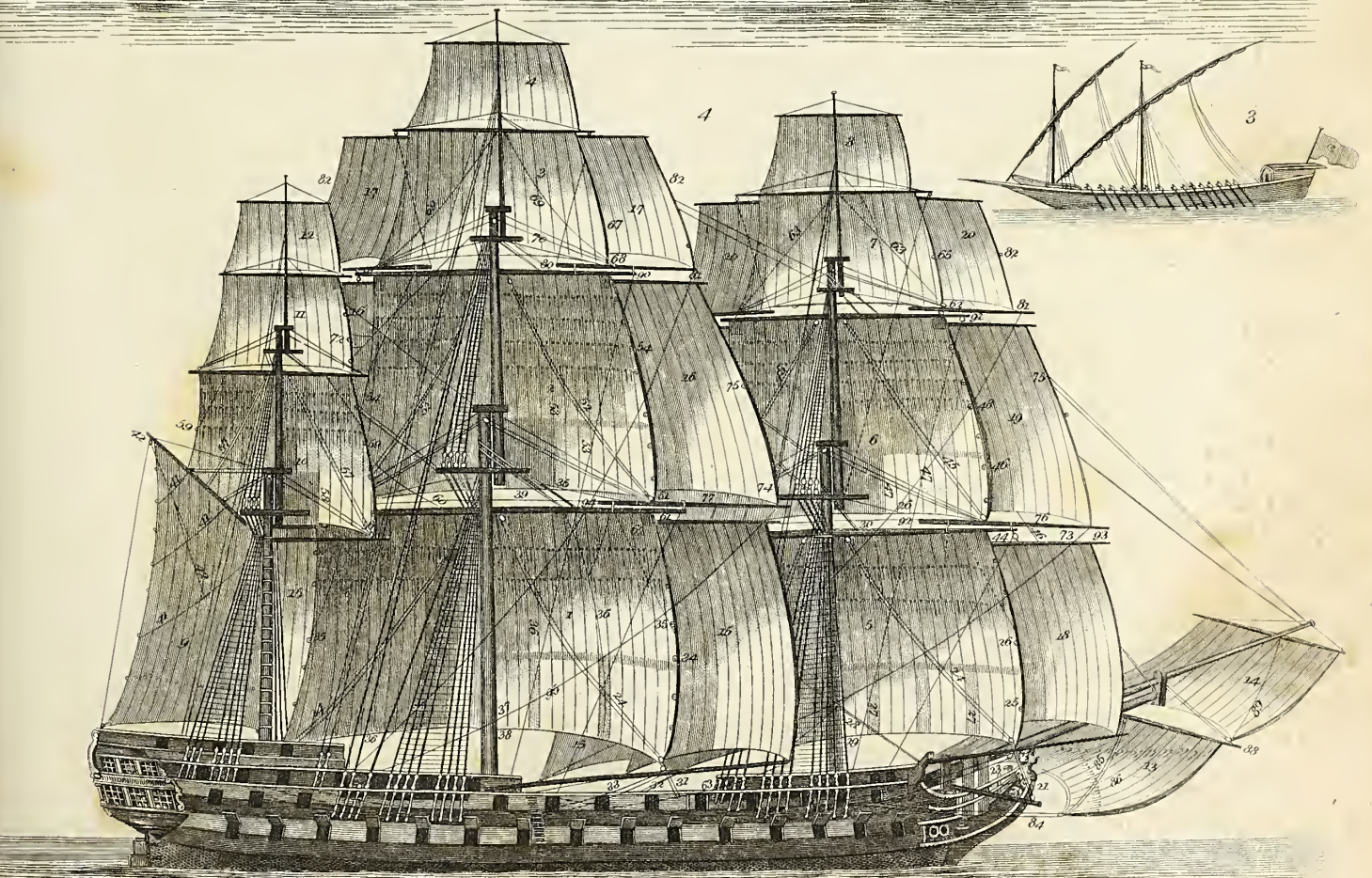
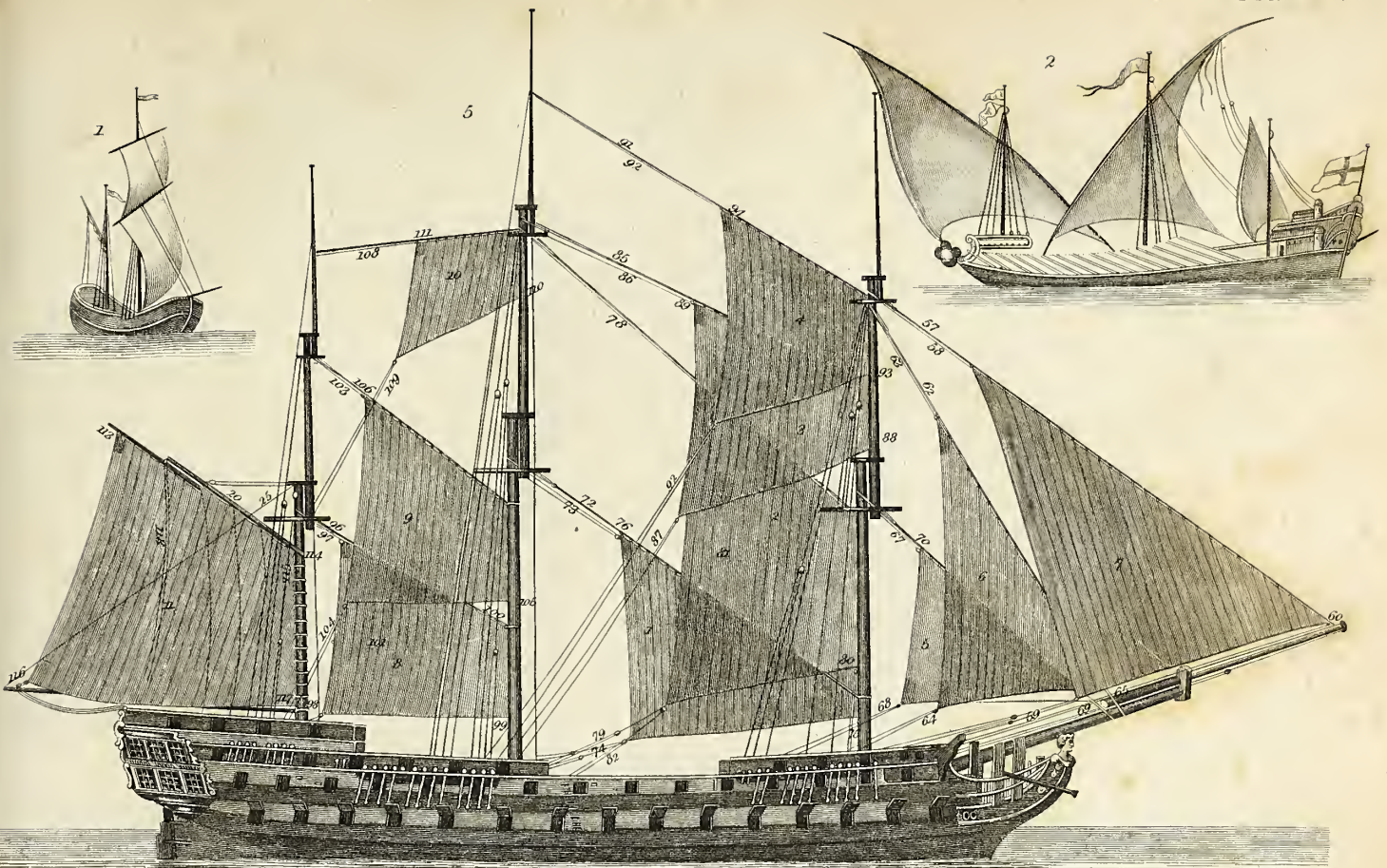
Of the Sails.—Twelve square sails derive their names from these masts. Thus: the principal sail extended upon the main-mast, is called the *main-sail*, or *main-course*, 1, (fig. 4. Pl. II.) That upon the main-topmast is termed the *main-topsail*, 2: that upon the main-topgallant mast is named the *main-topgallant sail*, 3: and the main-topgallant *royal*, 4, is so called from its being spread athwart the head of the main-topgallant mast. The *fore-sail*, or *fore-course*, 5, is so denominated from the fore-mast; the *fore-topsail*, 6, from the fore-top-mast; the *fore-topgallant sail*, 7, from the fore-topgallant mast; and the fore-topgallant *royal*, 8, from its being spread on the upper part of the fore-topgallant mast. The *mizen-course*, 9, from the mizen-mast; the *mizen-topsail*, 10, from the mizen-topmast; the *mizen-topgallant sail*, 11, from the mizen-topgallant mast; and the mizen-topgallant *royal*, 12, from its being spread on the upper part of the mizen-topgallant mast. The *main-staysail*, 1 (fig. 5.), from the main-staysail-stay; the *main-topmast-staysail*, 2, from the main-topmast-preventer-stay; the *middle staysail*, 3, from the middle staysail-stay; and the *main-topgallant-staysail*, 4, from the main-topgallant-staysail-stay. These *staysails* are between the main and fore-masts. The staysails before the fore-mast, are, the *fore-staysail*, 5, the *fore-topmast-staysail*, 6, and *jib*, 7. East India ships have two jibs. The staysails between the main and mizen-masts, are, the *mizen-staysail*, 8, the *mizen-topmast-staysail*, 9, and sometimes a *mizen-topgallant-staysail*, 10, above the latter. The sails under the bowsprit, are, the *sprit-sail*, or *course*, 13, and that under the jib-boom, the *sprit-topsail*, 14. The *driver*, or *spanker-sail*, 11, is hoisted abaft the mizen-mast. The *studding-sails*, being extended beyond the different yards of the main and fore-masts, are likewise named according to their stations. Those to the fore-mast, are, the *fore-lower-studding-sail*, 15, *fore-topmast-studding-sail*, 16, *fore-top-gallant-studding-sail*, 17. Those to the main-mast, are, the *lower main-studding-sail*, 18, *main-topmast-studding-sail*, 19, and *main-top-gallant-studding-sail*, 20. The seare thesails generally used to vessels of three masts.

The sails of a vessel of two masts, are, in a *snow*, similar to those on the fore and main-masts of a ship, except the sail called



Vessels of various kinds.



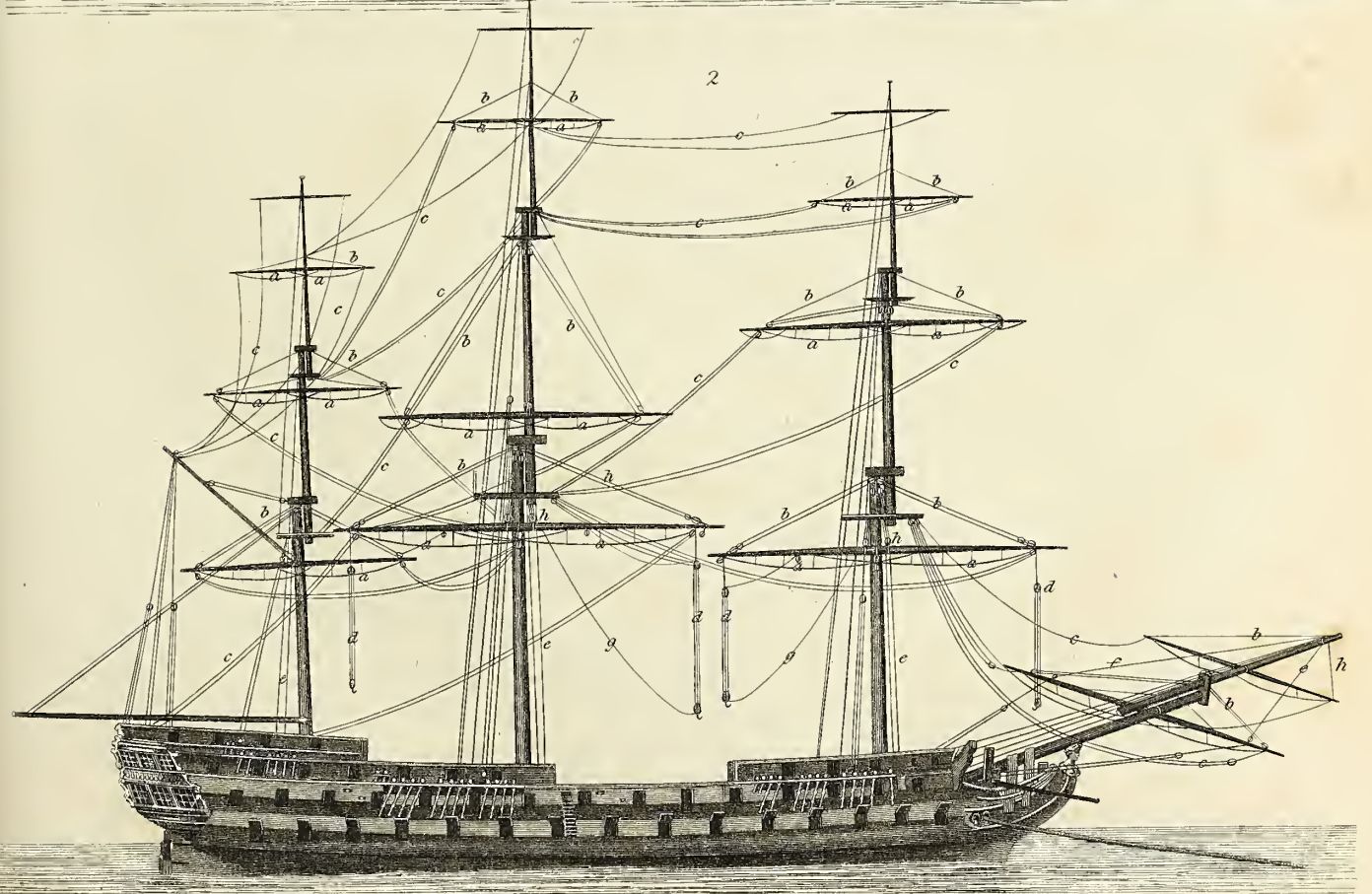


J. Tassie sc.

1



2



J. Pass sc.

called a *trysail*, used instead of a mizen-course, which it resembles; it is extended towards the stern, and is fastened by hoops round a small mast, called a *trysail-mast*, fixed near the aft-side of the main-mast.

The sails of a brig with two masts, are also similar to those on the main and fore-masts of a ship, excepting the main-sail, which is set in the plane of her keel, and is extended by a *gaff* at the head, and a *boom* on the foot; the fore-leech being fastened by hoops round the main-mast.

Vessels with one mast, as sloops, cutters, smacks, hoys, &c., have a main-sail abaft the mast, as the brigs; before the mast they have a *square-sail*, or *cross-jack*, and above the cross-jack, a small sail called a *save-all-topsail*; above that a topsail, which, on account of the hollow at the foot to clear the stay, is called a *swallow-tailed-topsail*, and above it is the topgallant-sail. Some large sloops have a royal above the topgallant-sail, and studding-sails set beyond the leeches of the square-sail. Before the mast is a fore-sail, a jib, and a flying-jib. Abaft the after-leech of the main-sail, in calm weather, is hoisted a *ring-tail-sail*; over the head of the main-sail, a *gaff-topsail*; and over the stern, under the boom, a *water-sail*.

There is an additional part added occasionally to the foot of some sails, called a *bonnet*: it is laced to the foot of the fore-sail, trysail, and storm main-sails, of some vessels with one mast, in moderate winds. It is made to correspond with the foot of the sail it is intended for, and has lachings in the upper part, by which it fastens through holes, made for that purpose along the foot of the above sails.

Of *boats*, some have a main-sail, fore-sail, and jib, as sloops; others have *lug-sails*. Some have sprit-sails, others *latteen* or *settee-sails*, according to their various uses, the fancy of their owners, or the country to which they belong.

The rigging consists of the tackle or ropes by which the sails are hoisted and furled, the masts steadied, means of ascension furnished to the sailors, and the ship fixed to or loosened from her anchors. The *shrouds* are a series of powerful ropes attached on the one hand to the sides of the ship and on the other to the mast. They steady the mast laterally and being somewhat behind the mast prevent any strain forwards. The hindermost parts of the shrouds are called *swifters*. The shrouds are connected together and the horizontal ropes which connect them are called *ratlines*. See 20, 23, 24, 25, (fig. 1. Pl. III.) The *futtock* shrouds 26, 27, 28. And the upper shrouds 41, 42, 43. *Stays* are the ropes which prevent strains of the masts backwards, and serve for the attachment of stay-sails. They are fixed inferiorly to parts anterior to their respective masts: at fig. 1. Pl. III. is seen the *fore-stay* (7), the *fore-preventer* stay (8), the *main* stay (9), the *main-preventer* stay (10), the *mizen-stay* (11). Then we have the *fore-topmast* stay 52 and *fore-topmast preventer* stay (53), *main-topmast* stay (54), and the *main-topmast preventer* (55), the *mizen* topmast stay 56. The *fore-top* gallant stay 64, the *main-topgallant* stay 65, the *mizen-topgallant* stay 66. The bowsprit has attached to it *Horses* 15, *Gammoning* 16, 17. *Bobstays* 18, 19, *shrouds* 20; the uses of the bobstays and shrouds are to draw down and secure laterally the bowsprit, as well as to counteract the raising tendency of the foremast stay.

The *yards* are hoisted to their masts by ropes called *jeers*, the fall of which passes to the capstan; so far the main parts of the rigging and sails may fairly be understood from the engraving, but the tackle for hoisting, spreading, furling and altering the direction of the sails is necessarily so complex that we fear we shall not be able to give our readers very clear notions of the subject. The inspection of a ship or model, however, immediately render the uses of all these lines sufficiently clear.

Fig. 2. of Pl. III. contains the rigging in question; *a, a, a, a, a*, point out the *horses*; these are for the sailors to stand upon when furling or loosing the sails. The short lines that attach these ropes to the yards are called *stirrups*—short horses at the end of the yards, are called *Flemish horses*; *b, b, b, b, b*, are *lifts* to raise or depress the yards; *c, c, c, c, c*, are *traces*; they serve to alter the direction of

the yards; *d, d, d, d*, are *yard tackle pendants*; *e, e, e, e*, *reef tackle pendants*; *f, f*, *guy pendants*; *g, g*, *tracing lines* to draw up the yard tackles out of the way; *h, h, h*, *jeers*, to support the yards; *i*, the *heel or top rope*; *k*, the *trouller*; *l, l*, *quarter-blocks*; *m, m*, *tye-blocks*. The description of the interior of the ship belongs properly to SHIP-BUILDING, which see.

SHIP: [ʃɪp; ʃɪp; Sax.; *schap*, Dutch.] A termination noting quality or adjunct, as *lordship*: or office, as *stewardship*.

To SHIP, *v. a.* [Sax. *scipian*.] To put into a ship.

My father at the road.

Expects my coming, there to see me *shipp'd*. *Shakspeare*.

A breeze from shore began to blow,
The sailors *ship* their oars, and cease to row;
Then hoist their yards a-trip, and all their sails
Let fall. *Dryden*.

To transport in a ship.

The sun no sooner shall the mountains touch,
But we will *ship* him hence. *Shakspeare*.

Andronicus, would thou wert *shipt* to hell,
Rather than rob me of the people's hearts. *Titus Andronicus*.

It is sometimes enforced by *off*.

A single leaf can waft an army o'er,
Or *ship off* senates to some distant shore. *Pope*.

In naval language, to receive into the ship: as to *ship* a heavy sea.

SHIP COVE, a cove in Queen Charlotte's sound, in the southern island of New Zealand. "This harbour," says Captain Cook, "is not inferior to any in the sound, either for convenience or safety. It lies on the west side of the sound, and is the southernmost of three coves that are situated within the island of Motuara, which bears east of it. Ship Cove may be entered either between Motuara and a long island called by the natives Hamote, or between Motuara and the western shore. In the last of these channels are two ledges of rocks, three fathoms under water, which may easily be known by the sea-weed that grows upon them." Lat. 41. 10. S. long. 175. 6. E.

SHIP ISLAND, a small island of North America, which lies between Horn and Cat island, on the coast of West Florida, and is about 10 miles south of the bay of Biloxi. It is 9 miles long and 2 broad, produces pine trees and grass, and has a tolerable well of water in it.

SHIPBOARD, *s.* See BOARD.—This word is seldom used but in adverbial phrases: a *shipboard*, on *shipboard*, in a ship.

Friend,

What do'st thou make a *shipboard*? To what end?

Dryden.

Ovid, writing from *on shipboard* to his friends, excused the faults of his poetry by his misfortunes. *Dryden*.—The plank of a ship.—They have made all thy *shipboards* of fir-trees, and brought cedars from Lebanon to make masts. *Ezek*.

SHIPBORNE, a parish of England, in Kent; 3½ miles north-north-east of Tunbridge.

SHIPBOY, *s.* Boy that serves in a ship.

Few or none know me: if they did,
This *shipboy's* semblance hath disguis'd me quite.

Shakspeare.

SHIPBROOK, a hamlet of England, in Chester; 2 miles south-east of Norwich.

SHIP-BUILDING, *s.* The art of building navigable vessels. The beginning of this noble art was, of course, a most perfect contrast with its present state. The first navigable vessels were neither strong nor durable; but consisted only of a few planks laid together, without beauty or ornament, and just so compacted as to keep out the water. In some places, they were only the hulks or stocks of trees hollowed, and then consisted only of one piece of timber. Nor was wood alone applied to this use; but any other buoyant materials

materials, as the Egyptian reed papyrus; or leather, of which the primitive ships were frequently composed; the bottom and sides being extended on a frame of thin battens or scantlings, of flexible wood, or begirt with wickers, such as we have frequently beheld amongst the American savages. In this manner they were often navigated upon the rivers of Ethiopia, Egypt, and Sabæan Arabia, even in latter times. But in the first of them, we find no mention of any thing but leather or hides sewed together. In a vessel of this kind, Dardanus secured his retreat to the country afterwards called *Troas*, when he was compelled by a terrible deluge to forsake his former habitation of Samothrace. According to Virgil, Charon's infernal boat was of the same composition.

But as the other arts extended their influence, naval architecture likewise began to emerge from the gloom of ignorance and barbarism; and as the ships of those ages were increased in bulk, and better proportioned for commerce, the appearance of the floating citadels of unusual form, full of living men, flying with seemingly expanded wings over the surface of the untravelled ocean, struck the ignorant people with terror and astonishment: and hence, as we are told by Aristophanes, arose the fable of Perseus flying to the Gorgons, who was actually carried thither in a ship! Hence, in all probability, the famous story of Triptolemus riding on a winged dragon is deduced, only because he sailed from Athens, in the time of great dearth, to a more plentiful country, to supply the necessities of his people. The fiction of the flying horse Pegasus may be joined with these, who, as several mythologists report, was nothing but a ship with sails, and thence said to be the offspring of Neptune, the sovereign of the sea; nor does there appear any other foundation for the stories of griffins, or of ships transformed into birds and fishes, which we so often meet with in the ancient poets. So acceptable to the first ages of the world were inventions of this nature, that whoever made any improvements in navigation or naval architecture, building new ships better fitted for strength or swiftness than those used before, or rendered the old more commodious by additional contrivances, or discovered countries unknown to former travellers, were thought worthy of the greatest honours, and often associated into the number of their deified heroes. Hence we have, in astronomy, the signs of Aries and Taurus, which were no other than two ships: the former transported Phryxus from Greece to Colchos, and the latter Europa from Phœnicia to Crete. Argo, Pegasus, and Perseus, were likewise new ships of a different sort from the former, which, being greatly admired by the barbarous and uninstructed people of those times, were translated amongst the stars, in commemoration of their inventors, and metamorphosed into constellations by the poets of their own and of succeeding ages.

The chief parts, of which ships anciently consisted, were three, viz. the belly, the prow, and the stern: these were again composed of other smaller parts, which shall be briefly described in their order. In the description, we chiefly follow Scheffer, who has so copiously treated this subject, and with such industry and learning collected whatever is necessary to illustrate it, that very little room is left for enlargement by those who incline to pursue this investigation.

1. In the belly, or middle part of the ship, there was *τροπις*, *carina*, or the "keel," which was composed of wood: it was placed at the bottom of the ship, being designed to cut and glide through the waves, and therefore was not broad, but narrow and sharp; whence it may be perceived that not all ships, but only the *μακραί*, which ships of war were called, whose bellies were straight, and of a small circumference, were provided with keels, the rest having usually flat bottoms. Around the outside of the keel were fixed pieces of wood, to prevent it from being damaged when the ship was first launched into the water, or afterwards struck on any rocks; these were called *χελουσματα*, in Latin *cunei*.

Next to the keel was *φαλκίς*, the "pump well, or well-room," within which was contained the *αντλιον*, or "pump," through which water was conveyed out of the ship.

After this, there was *δευτερω τροπις*, or the "second keel," somewhat resembling what is now called *kelson*; it was placed beneath the pump, and called *λεσβιον*, *χαλκηνε κλειτοποδιον*; by some it is falsely supposed to be the same with *φαλκίς*.

Above the pump was an hollow place, called by Herodotus *κοιλη της νηος*, by Pollux *κυτος* and *γαστρα*, because large and capacious, after the form of a belly; by the Latins *testudo*. This was formed by crooked ribs, with which it was surrounded, which were pieces of wood rising from the keel upwards, and called by Hesychius *νομεις*, and by others *εγκοιλια*, the belly of the ship being contained within them: in Latin, *costæ*; and in English, *timbers*. Upon these were placed certain planks, which Aristophanes calls *εντερωνας*, or *εντερωνιδα*.

The *πλευραι*, *latera*, or "sides" of the ship, encompassed all the former parts on both hands; these were composed of large rafters extended from prow to stern, and called *ζωστηρες*, and *ζαμιαματα*, because by them the whole fabric was begirt or surrounded.

In both these sides the rowers had their places, called *τοιχοι* and *εδωλια*, in Latin *fori* and *transtra*, placed above one another; the lowest was called *θαλαμος*, and those that laboured therein *θαλαμοι*; the middle, *ζολα*, and the men *ζυλιοι*; the uppermost *θρανιοι*, whence the rowers were termed *θρανιται*. In these apartments were spaces through which the rowers put their oars: these were sometimes one continued vacuity from one end to the other, called *τραφης*, but more usually distinct holes, each of which was designed for a single oar; these were styled *τρομαίαι*, *τρομηματα*, as also *οφθαλμοι*, because not unlike the eyes of living creatures. All of them were, by a more general name, termed *εγκωπα*, from containing the oars; but *εγκωπιον* seems to have been another thing, signifying the spaces between the banks of oars on each side, where the passengers appear to have been placed. On the top of all there was a passage or place to walk, called *ταράδος*, and *παραθρανος*, as joining to the *θρανιοι*, or uppermost bank of oars.

2. *Πρωρα*, the "prow, or fore-deck," whence it is sometimes called *μετωπον*, and commonly distinguished by other metaphorical titles taken from human faces. In some ships there is mention of two prows, as also two sterns; such as Danaus's ship adorned by Minerva when he fled from Egypt. It was usual to beautify the prow with gold and various sorts of paint and colours; in the primitive times, red was most in use; whence Homer's ships were generally dignified with the titles of *μιλτοπαρηι*, and *φινικοπαρηι*, or "red faced;" the blue, likewise, or sky-colour, was frequently made use of, as bearing a strict resemblance to the colour of the sea; whence we find ships called by Homer *κυανοπρωροι*, by Aristophanes *κυανεμβολοι*. Several other colours were also made use of; nor were they barely varnished over with them, but very often annealed by wax melted in the fire, so that neither the sun, winds, nor water, were able to deface them. The art of doing this was called from the wax *κηρογραφια*, from the fire *εγκαυστικη*, which is described by Vitruvius, and mentioned in Ovid.

————— *Picta coloribus ustis
Cœruleam matrem concava puppis habet.*

The painted ship with melted wax anneal'd
Had Tethys for its deity —————

In these colours, the various forms of gods, animals, plants, &c., were usually drawn, which were likewise often added as ornaments to other parts of the ships, as plainly appears from the ancient monuments presented to the world by Baysius.

The sides of the prow were termed *περα*, or "wings," and *παρια*, according to Scheffer, or rather *παλειαι*; for, since the prow is commonly compared to a human face, it will naturally follow that the sides should be called *cheeks*. These are now called *bows* by our mariners.

3. *Πορπη*, "the hind-deck or poop," sometimes called *οσρα*, the "tail," because the hindmost part of the ship; it was of a figure more inclining to round than the prow, the extremity of which was sharp, that it might cut the waters;

it was also built higher than the prow, and was the place where the pilot sat to steer; the outer-bending part of it was called *επισειον*, answering to our term *quarter*.

They had various ornaments of sculpture on the prow; as helmets, animals, triumphal wreaths, &c.—The stern was more particularly adorned with wings, shields, &c. Sometimes a little mast was erected whereon to hang ribbands of divers colours, which served instead of a flag to distinguish the ship; and a weather-cock, to signify the part from whence the wind blew.

On the extremity of the prow was placed a round piece of wood, called the *πύχης*, from its bending; and sometimes *οφθαλμος*, the "eye" of the ship, because fixed in the fore-deck; on this was inscribed the name of the ship, which was usually taken from the figure painted on the flag. Hence comes the frequent mention of ships called *Pegasi*, *Scyllæ*, *bulls*, *rams*, *tigers*, &c., which the poets took the liberty to represent as living creatures that transported their riders from one country to another.

The whole fabric being completed, it was fortified with pitch, and sometimes a mixture of rosin, to secure the wood from the waters; whence it comes that Homer's ships are everywhere mentioned with the epithet of *μελαναι*, or "black." Pitch was first used by the inhabitants of Phœacia, since called Corsica; sometimes wax was employed for the same purpose, whence Ovid,

Cærulea ceratos accipit unda rates.

The azure waves receive the waxed ships.

After all, the ship being bedecked with garlands and flowers, the mariners also adorned with crowns, she was launched into the sea with loud acclamations and other expressions of joy; and being purified by a priest with a lighted torch, an egg and brimstone, or after some other manner, was consecrated to the god whose image she bore.

The ships of war of the ancients, were distinguished from other kinds of vessels by various trarrets and accessions of building, some to defend their own soldiers, and others to annoy the enemy; and from one another, in latter ages, by several degrees or ranks of oars, the most usual number of which was four or five, which appear not to have been arranged, as some imagine, on the same level in different parts of the ship; nor yet, as others have supposed, directly above one another's heads; but their seats being placed one behind another, ascended gradually, like stairs. Ptolemy Philopater, urged by a vain-glorious desire of exceeding all the world besides in naval architecture, is said to have farther enlarged the number of banks to 40; and the ship being otherwise in equal proportion, this raised her to such an enormous bulk, that she appeared at a distance like a floating mountain or island; and, upon a nearer view, like a prodigious castle on the ocean. She was 280 cubits long, 38 broad, and 48 high (each cubit being 1 English foot $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches), and carried 400 rowers, 400 sailors, and 3000 soldiers. Another, which the same prince made to sail on the Nile, we are told, was half a stadium long. Yet these were nothing in comparison of Hiero's ship, built under the direction of Archimedes; on the structure of which, Moschion wrote a whole volume. There was wood enough employed in it to make 50 galleys; it had all the variety of apartments of a palace; such as banqueting-rooms, galleries, gardens, fish-ponds, stables, mills, baths, and a temple to Venus. The floors of the middle apartment were all inlaid, and represented in various colours the stories of Homer's *Iliad*. The ceilings, windows, and all other parts, were finished with wonderful art, and embellished with all kinds of ornaments. In the uppermost apartment, there was a spacious gymnasium, or place for exercise, and water was conveyed to the garden by pipes, some of hardened clay, and others of lead. The floors of the temple of Venus were inlaid with agates and other precious stones; the inside lined with cypress wood; the windows adorned with ivory paintings and small statues. There was likewise a library. This vessel was adorned on all sides with fine paintings. It had 20 benches of oars, and was encompassed with an iron

rampart, eight towers, with walls and bulwarks, furnished with machines of war, particularly one which threw a stone of 300 pounds, or a dart 12 cubits long, the space of half a mile; with many other particulars related by Athenæus. Caligula likewise built a vessel adorned with jewels in the poop, with sails of many colours, and furnished with large porticoes, bagnios, and banqueting-rooms, besides rows of vines, and fruit-trees of various kinds. But these, and all such monstrous fabrics, served only for show and ostentation, being rendered by their vast bulk unwieldy and unfit for service. Athenæus informs us, the common names they were known by, were *Cyclades*, or *Ætna*, i. e. "islands, or mountains," to which they seemed nearly equal in bigness; consisting, as some report, of as many materials as would have composed 50 triremes, or ships of three banks.

The vessels employed by the northern nations, appear to have been still more imperfect than those of the Romans; for a law was enacted in the reign of the emperor Honorius, 24th September, A. D. 418, inflicting capital punishment on any who should instruct the barbarians in the art of ship-building; a proof at once of the great estimation in which this science was then held, and of the ignorance of the barbarians with regard to it.

The object to be gained in ship-building is to unite the form most admirable for quickly passing through the water, with the structure best capable of resisting shocks and strains, and with the form best calculated to elude the effects of storms. In merchant-ships we must endeavour to render these objects compatible with dimensions fitted for carrying the greatest cargoes. In men-of-war, we have to consider what disposition is the best fitted for carrying, securing, and rendering rapidly available the artillery.

In order to smooth the way in this difficult science, thought so incomprehensible, our readers must be made familiar with the several *draughts and plans* whence the form and dimensions of the several timbers, and every particular part that enters into the construction, are to be obtained.

As a ship has length, breadth and depth, three different plans at least are necessary to represent the form of the several parts of her; these are the *sheer-plan*, the *body-plan*, and the *half-breadth plan*.

The *sheer-plan* (Pl. I.), or, as it is called in civil architecture, the *plan of elevation*, is a vertical section, passing through the vessel in its whole length, or fore and aft. Upon this plan the length and depth of the keel are represented, also the height and rake of the stem and stern-post; the situation and height of the midship and other frames; the water-lines; heights of the decks, gun-ports, and wales; the centres of the masts; the situation of the channels; length and depth of the head and rails, quarter-galleries, rudder.

The *body-plan*, or *plan of projection* (Pl. II. fig. 1.), is a transverse section of the ship at the midship-frame, or broadest place perpendicular to the keel. The several breadths, and the particular form of every frame-timber, are described on this plan. Now as the two sides of the ship are, or should be, exactly similar to each other, it is therefore unnecessary to represent both: hence the frames contained in the fore-body, between the midship-frame and the stem, are described on the right-hand side of the middle line, and the aftermost frames on the left of the said middle line.

The *half-breadth* or *floor-plan* (Pl. II. fig. 2.), or, as it is frequently called, the *horizontal-plan*, contains the several half-breadths at every frame-timber, at the different heights of the water-lines, main-breadth, top-side, ribband-lines, &c.

We proceed to the consideration of the 74-gun ship, which is preferred as the medium between the first-rate and the frigate, and is esteemed the most useful of all others.

Now, the first thing to be determined, is the length on the gun-deck; and here sufficient distance must be allowed for the ports, which are fifteen in number, three feet five inches wide, or fore and aft, each, so as to have a sufficient distance between each port for working the guns, which is about seven feet eight inches; likewise room forward, between the foremost-port and the stem, for the manger; and also

also abaft the after-port, to the transoms: these considered make the length of the gun-deck 180 feet.

Draw therefore, as in sheer-plan, (Pl. I.) a straight line, which represents the upper edge of the keel, and in naval ships the upper edge of the rabbet (East India ships and merchant-ships in general have the rabbet in the middle of the keel), leaving under this line sufficient space for the main and false keels, scale, and half-breadth plan. Upon this line square up a perpendicular towards the right hand, leaving a sufficient space to represent the head, and call it the foremost-perpendicular; then, at $22\frac{1}{2}$ inches abaft it, square up the after-perpendicular, which is 180 feet, by one-eighth of an inch to a foot, or the length on the gun-deck, from the aft-side of the rabbet of the stem to the fore-side of the rabbet at the stern-post. Below the upper edge of the keel, and parallel thereto, set down two feet for the main and false keel, and under it draw the scale of equal parts, of one-eighth of an inch to a foot, and from this scale set off all the following dimensions. Observe, draughts in general are drawn from a scale of one quarter of an inch to a foot, but this to one-sixteenth.

The length between the foremost and aftermost perpendiculars, in merchant-ships, is given from the aft-side of the stern-post, at the height of the wing-transom, to the fore-side of the stem, at the same height.

The stern, or fore-boundary of the ship, may now be drawn, and a segment of a circle for its lower part has long been considered as the best form for dividing the fluid; therefore, fix its centre so that the aft-side of the rabbet (which is in the middle of the stem, towards the upper part) may intersect the foremost perpendicular at the height of the gun-deck: thus, set aft from the foremost perpendicular, as in Pl. I. upon an horizontal line, 24 feet above the upper edge of the keel, 24 ft. 3 in.; and from thence, as the centre, draw an arc of a circle from the upper edge of the keel-line, and another arc 18 inches before it, from the same centre; then will the moulding, or fore and after-sides of the stem, be represented: sweep likewise the rabbet, as in Pl. I.; then set up 36 feet for the height of the head of the stem, and at that height set forward 15 inches from the foremost-perpendicular; from thence draw a faint curve, to intersect with the foremost segment, and the fore-part of the stem will be shewn: continue upwards another parallel thereto, and the aft-side or whole stem is completed, except the lower end or boxing, which will be determined hereafter.

The stern-post, or after-boundary under water, may be next drawn; thus, set up from the upper edge of the keel-line 26 ft. 10 in., which is the upper side of the wing-transom at the after-perpendicular, and upon that line set aft from the perpendicular 1 ft. 10 in., and upon the upper edge of the keel, six inches before the after-perpendicular; then a line drawn through these points will represent the aft-side of the stern-post; another line, drawn at fourteen inches before the aft-side of the stern-post, at the wing-transom, and at two feet one inch on the upper edge of the keel, will be the aft-side of the rabbet; and another line parallel four inches before it (or at the thickness of the bottom plank) is the fore-side of the rabbet, which will intersect the after-perpendicular of the gun-deck. Thus far the stern-post at present.

Having fixed on the length of the gun-deck, the next principal dimension to be considered is the main-breadth, and this, in ships of war in general, is about three-elevenths of the said length for their moulded breadth, and in merchant-ships about three-twelfths of their length; excepting cutters and smaller vessels. The moulded breadth given in Pl. I. of the 74-gun ship, is 48 feet.

Now as to the best breadth and its best situation, those who would diminish the breadth have alleged, and truly, that a narrow vessel meets with less resistance in passing through the water, and by increasing in length, the vessel will drive less to leeward. On the contrary, a ship's being broader at the line of floatation will admit of being narrower on the floor, particularly at the fore and after parts; and by being broader it can carry more sail, and more readily rise upon the waves than a narrow one.

It is agreed that judiciously placing the midship-bend is of the utmost consequence in the construction of ships' bodies; in the Plate it is placed at 69 feet abaft the foremost-perpendicular, consequently this is the broadest part of the ship, called the midships, or dead-flat, known by this character \oplus , and where all the heights in midships are set up.

The dead-flat in Plate I. is a single timber, and the perpendicular, marked \oplus , the middle of it: therefore, for the joints of the annexed frames set off before \oplus , two feet nine inches for the joint of (A), and two feet nine inches abaft \oplus for the joint of (1), square up perpendiculars from the upper edge of the keel; then from (A) continue setting off five feet six inches for the joints of frame B, C, D, to X, in the fore-body, and the same distance abaft (1) for the joints of frame (3), 2, 4, 6, to 36 in the after-body, as shewn in Plate I. Now \oplus , (A), (1), (2), and (3), are called flats, as they are the timbers which are placed in the flat part of the ship amidships, have no bevellings, and consequently do not partake of the rising.

The lower height of breadth is an imaginary line, not only to assist in the construction of the body, but a line confining the greatest breadths in the ship, all fore and aft, and should next be determined upon. Its height at \oplus is 21 feet 3 inches above the upper edge of the keel; and that the said height of breadth should be higher afore and abaft is only reasonable as a reserve, to be a support to the vessel when heeling by the pressure of the wind upon the sails; for when a ship is close-hauled by the wind, and lies much over, the weather-side would lose much of the breadth, whereas, on the contrary, the lee-side would then gain considerably, and meeting with a greater resistance, be enabled to carry the greater sail; therefore forward at the rabbet of the stem its height is 29 feet, and abaft at the counter-timber 29 feet 6 inches; and all the heights between should form a fair curve, like the ticked line in the sheer-draught, Plate I.

It may here be remarked, that flat-floored ships do not require their height of breadth to be raised so high forward and aft, for by their construction they are stiffer under sail, and carry their weight of cargo low down.

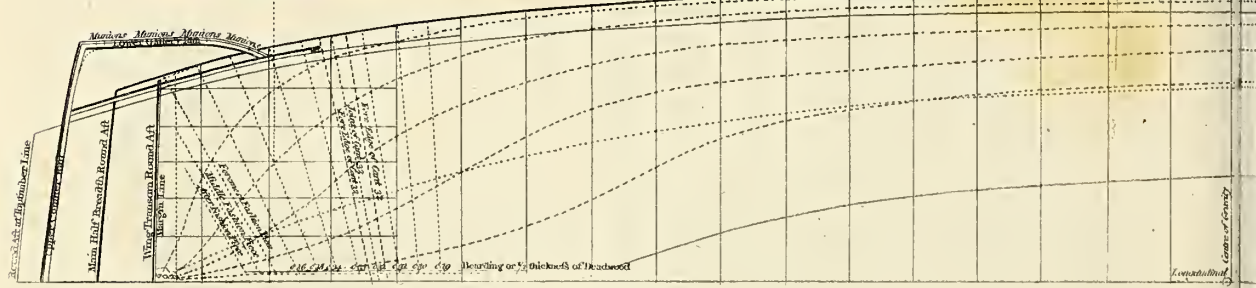
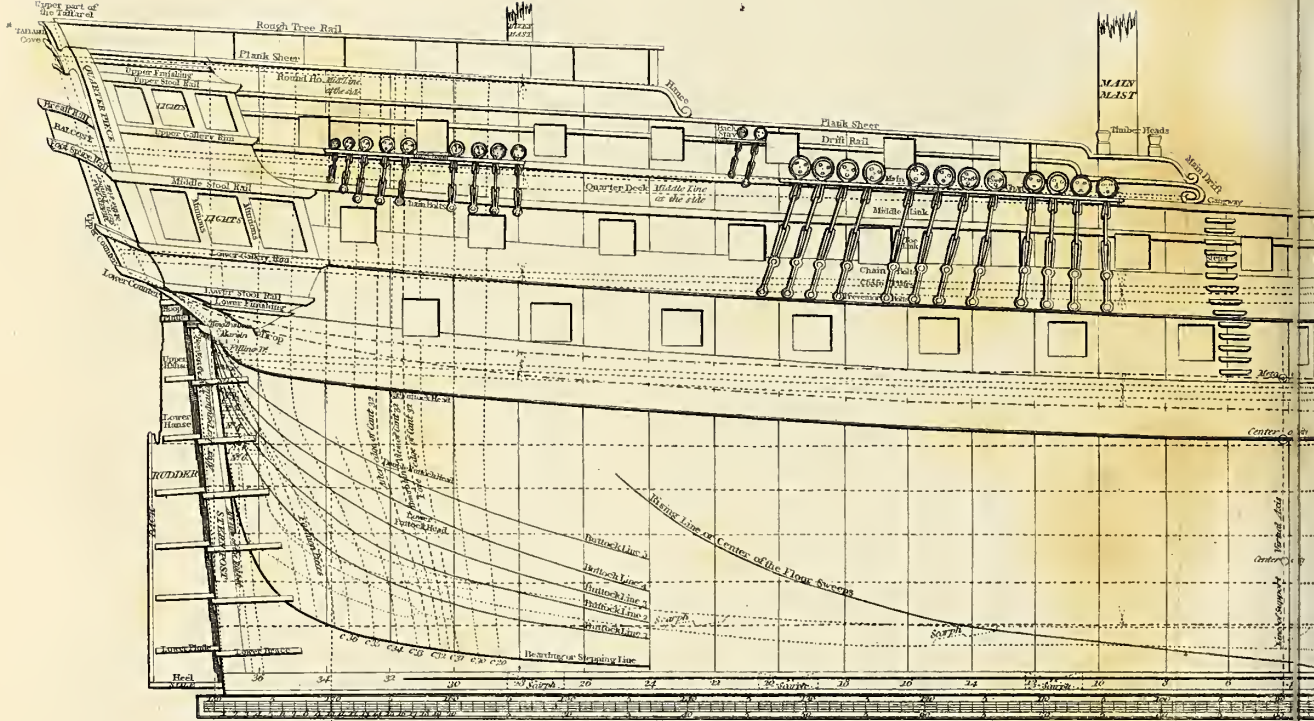
The body below the lower height of breadth may now be formed, as the frames or bends, when put together, and the joint placed to the fore-mentioned perpendiculars, the sides of every part will be formed so as to cut none of the principal timbers, and are so disposed as to weaken the ship as little as possible.

The half-breadth plan must be next drawn: draw a straight line as in Plate I., the whole length of the ship, and parallel to the upper edge of the keel, which line will represent the middle line of the ship, at any height passing fore and aft, or lengthwise; observing to keep the said middle line sufficiently below the scale, so as to admit of the main half-breadth line coming clear of it.

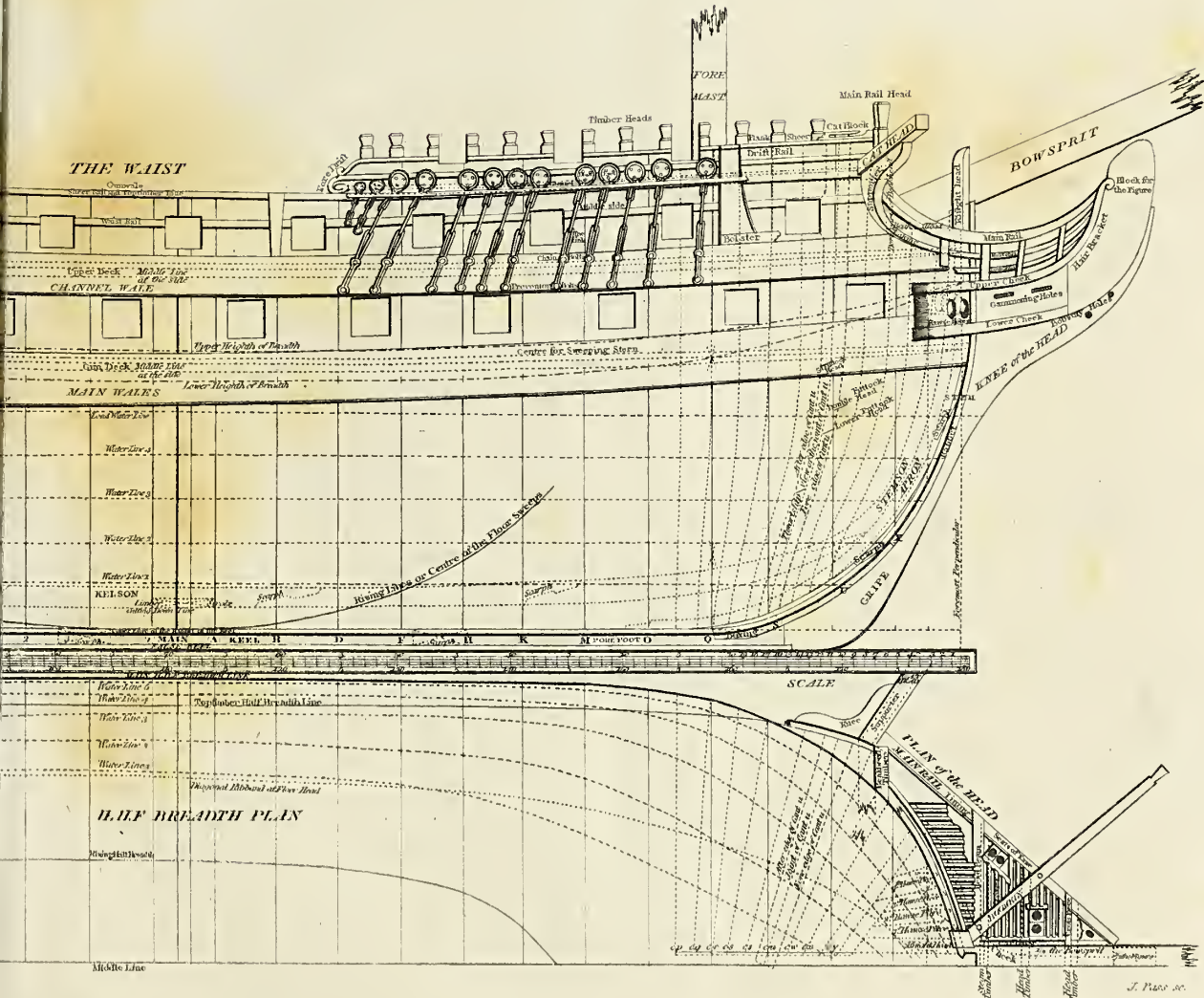
Then square down from the sheer-plan all the perpendiculars or joints of the frame-timbers, to the middle line of the half-breadth plan, and likewise the foremost and after-perpendicular. The main half-breadth line may now be drawn, by setting-off from the middle line in the plan the following half-breadths at each respective timber; thus, at \oplus , 24 feet; at F, 23 feet $11\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at H, 23 feet 11 inches; at K, 23 feet 10 inches; at M, 23 feet $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at O, 23 feet; at Q, 22 feet 2 inches; at S, 20 feet 4 inches; at U, 17 feet 6 inches; at X, 12 feet 6 inches; and to end this line at the fore part, let the height of the breadth-line in the sheer-plan, where it intersects the aft-side of the rabbet at the stem, be squared down to the middle line in the half-breadth plan, and likewise the fore part of the stem: upon the lines last squared down, set off the half-siding of the stem from the middle line and parallel thereto, which is ten inches; then, with compasses, take the thickness of the bottom plank, which is four inches, and describe the rabbet of the stem by the triangle shewn in the half-breadth plan; from thence a fair curve line drawn through the half-breadths set off, forms the half-breadth line to \oplus . In the same manner set off the half-breadths abaft \oplus , and draw in the remainder



SHIP B...



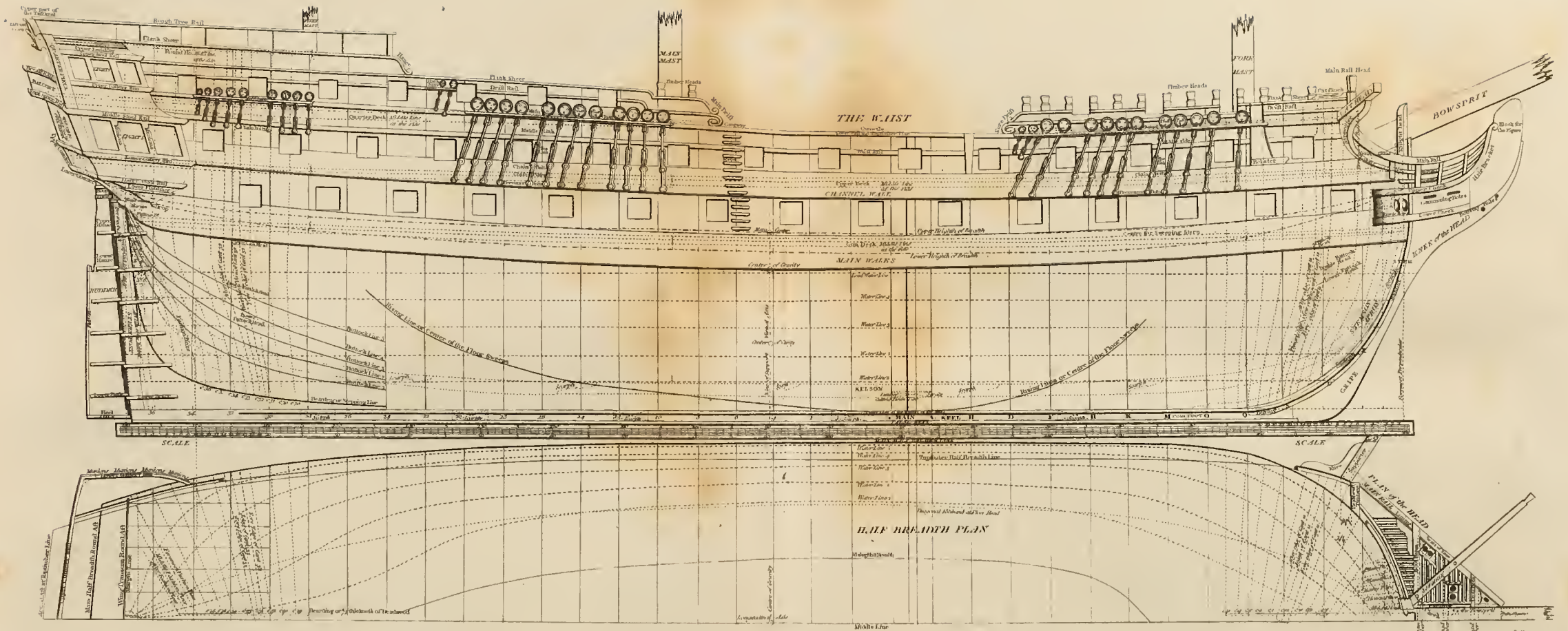
Figured for the Navy...

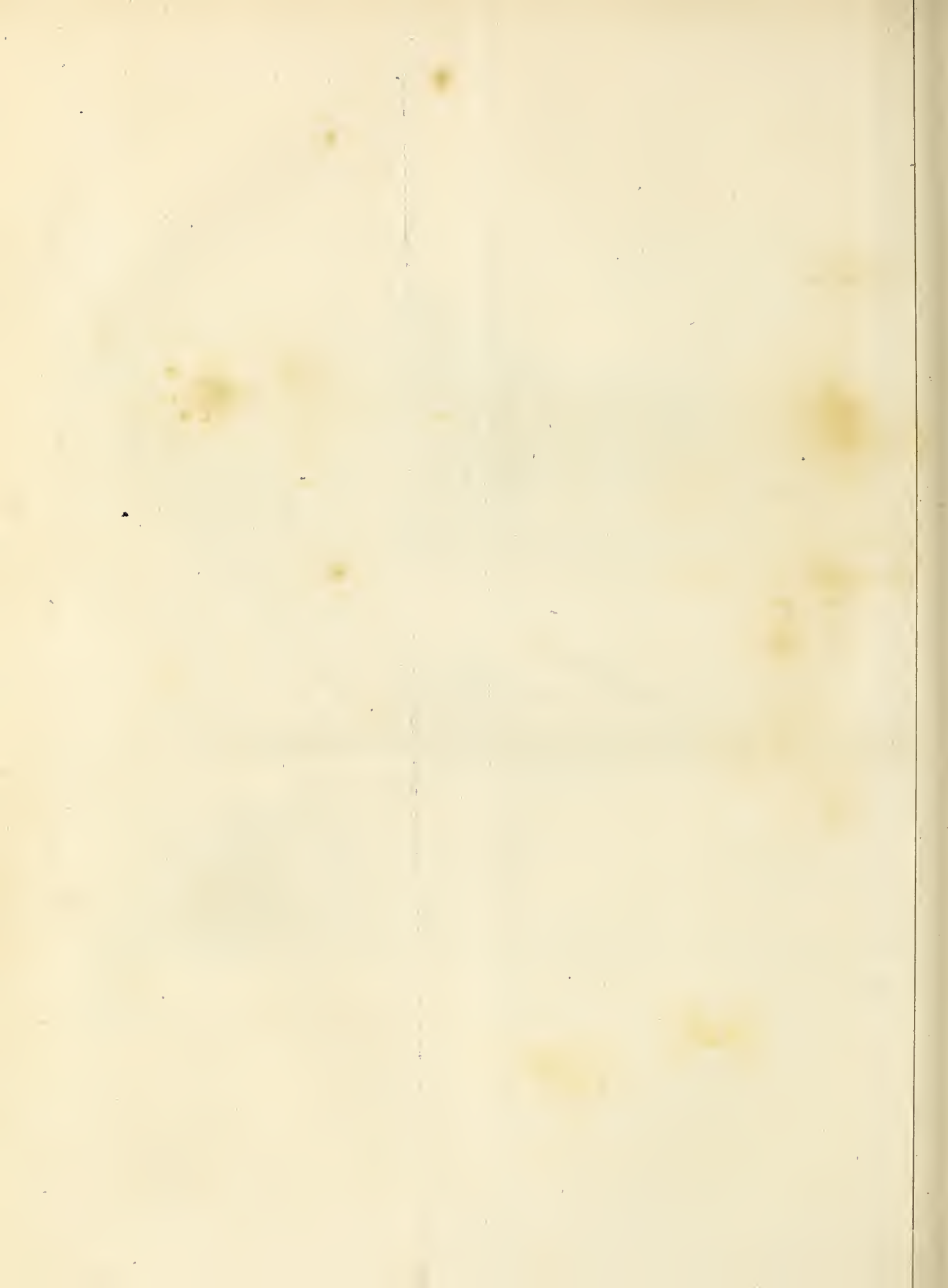


In London, 1877.

SHIP BUILDING.

PLATE I





of the half-breadth line, as the ending of it abaft will be described hereafter.

Observe, the various curves represented on the several plans used in ship-building, except where they are segments of circles, such as the fore part of the main half-breadth, &c., are drawn by small pliable battens confined thereto by weights, or by thin moulds made of pear-tree veneers, whose edges are made to geometrical curves of all kinds.

Now the main half-breadth line being drawn, we have a half section of the ship lengthwise at the broadest place, that is at the height, and in the direction of the lower height of breadth line in the sheer-plan.

Proceed now to draw the plan of projection, or body-plan, thus: draw an horizontal line equal to the proposed breadth of the ship—this is the base line. Draw thereto at each end a perpendicular at right angles—these are the side lines. Between these square up another perpendicular, which is the middle line to both bodies respectively; then the line prolonged from the upper edge of the keel is the base line of the body-plan. Draw in the horizontal lines, as may be seen in the body-plan, at the lower heights of breadth, by transferring their heights from the sheer-plan at the several frame-timbers: those before the dead-flat, set up in the body-plan to the right of the middle line, which are to represent the fore-body, and those heights abaft dead-flat, to the left hand for the after body. Then from the half-breadth plan take the main half breadth of each frame, and set it off from the middle line in the body-plan, upon its corresponding height of breadth-line; and from thence set off towards the middle line the length of their respective lower-breadth sweeps: thus, to describe the midship-timber, or dead-flat, extend the compasses to 18 feet 6 inches, the radii of lower-breadth sweeps at dead-flat, and draw part of a circle downwards, intersecting its main breadth at its horizontal height.

Then the centre heights of the floor-sweeps in the body-plan must be taken from the curve-line representing their heights in the sheer-plan, which at dead-flat will be found to intersect the upper edge of the keel; but in the body-plan, its height at dead-flat is 11 feet 6 inches, and there an horizontal line is drawn to the distance of the centre, or its half-breadth from the middle line, and all the heights of centres are respectively set upwards above this line, on perpendiculars squared upwards at the half-breadth of the centre of each floor-sweep of its corresponding frame or timber, as taken from the half-breadth plan; and the reason for not keeping the said curve-line or heights in the sheer-plan as in the body-plan, is because it would interfere with the curve-lines above. Now, by inspecting the Plate, it will be readily seen, that by raising the heights of those centres in the sheer-plan, consequently in the body-plan, and by narrowing their half-breadths in the half-breadth plan, their centres would be brought nearer the middle line in the body-plan, the floor-rising would become quicker, and the ship have less bearing, and *vice versa*, more full and burthensome; thus must the rising and narrowing of the centres be adjusted till the body of the vessel has the capacity required for whatever service she may be designed.

But as in this mode of construction the centres only, and not the length of the floor-sweeps, are given, a diagonal ribband must be drawn in the half-breadth plan, as in Plate I. by setting off from the middle line at \oplus , 16 feet; at B, 15 feet 9 inches; at D, 15 feet 5 inches; at F, 15 feet 1 inch; at H, 14 feet 7 inches; at K, 14 feet; at M, 13 feet $\frac{1}{2}$ an inch; at O, 11 feet 11 inches; at Q, 10 feet 4 inches; at S, 8 feet 6 inches; at U, 6 feet 1 inch; and at X, 2 feet 5 inches. Then in the after-body set off at 2, fig. 1, Plate II., 15 feet $11\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at 4, 15 feet $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at 6, 15 feet 9 inches; at 8, 15 feet 6 inches; at 10, 15 feet 4 inches; at 12, 15 feet 1 inch; at 14, 14 feet 11 inches; at 16, 14 feet 5 inches; at 18, 14 feet; at 20, 13 feet $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches; at 22, 12 feet 5 inches; at 24, 11 feet 7 inches; at 26, 10 feet 5 inches; at 28, 9 feet 1 inch; at 30, 6 feet 7 inches; at 32, 5 feet 10 inches; at 34, 4 feet; and at 36, 2 feet.

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Now to end this diagonal, it must be drawn in the body-plan thus; set up the middle line from the base 12 feet 2 inches, and on the base, from each side of the middle line, 11 feet 9 inches, then draw the diagonal ticked line, as shewn in Plate I. In draughts, diagonal lines are distinguished by red ink. Then in the body-plan draw the half-siding of the stem in the fore-body, and the half-siding of the stern-post in the after-body: for the latter set up 26 feet above the base, and at that height set off from the middle line 10 inches in the half-siding of the post at the head, and 9 inches in the forebody, the half siding of the stem at that height; and on the base line $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches from each side of the middle line, the half-siding of post and stem at the heel; then draw straight lines to each spot set off, and the half-siding of the stern-post and stem will be represented in the body plan. Now to complete or end the diagonal line on the half-breadth plan, its height or intersection at the post and stem must be taken in the body-plan, and transferred respectively to the foreside of the rabbet of the stem, and aft-side of the rabbet of the post in the sheer-plan, and from thence let them be squared down to the middle line of the half-breadth plan; then take with compasses the half thickness of the post and stem in the body-plan, in the direction of the said diagonal line, and set them off respectively from the middle line in the half-breadth plan on the lines last squared down; and from the intersection as a centre, sweep an arc towards the midships, with compasses opened to the thickness of the rabbet taken diagonally; then a fair curve drawn through all the spots as above set off, touching the back of the arcs, will form the diagonal line at the floor-heads as shewn in the half-breadth plan.

Now may the timbers, as far as the floor sweeps are useful, be completed in the body-plan below the lower height of breadth, beginning a dead flat: thus, take the half-breadth of the floor diagonal at \oplus in the half-breadth plan, and set it down the diagonal from the middle line in the body-plan; then take the half-breadth of the floor-sweeps in like manner, and set it off from the middle line in the body-plan on the horizontal line before drawn at its height, and from the intersection extend the compasses to the half-breadth of the floor diagonal, and sweep an arc upwards from the dead-rising, which is six inches at \oplus ; then with the reconciling-sweep, which is of a long radius compared with the others, unite the lower-breadth sweep and floor-sweep together; for the more the midship-frames deviate from the segment of a circle, the less will be the rolling motion of the ship; unite the floor-sweep with the upper edge of the rabbet of the keel with a curve or straight line, and the midship-timber will be formed below the lower breadth. In the same manner may be formed the frame-timbers B, D, F, H, and K, in the fore-body and 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, to 24 in the after-body by setting off the half-breadth of each frame's diagonal as at \oplus , their corresponding heights of breadths, main half-breadths, and centres of each sweep, as before directed, and by reconciling the lower-breadth sweeps and floor-sweeps together, and ending them into the rabbet at the keel; thus the midship part of the body will be formed from K forward to 24 abaft.

Hence it may be readily conceived, that bodies full or sharp, either for burthen or velocity, may be constructed by altering the radii of the different sweeps; and unless bodies of ships could be constructed from some geometrical figure, a more certain method than the above cannot be given.

The body being thus far formed, that is from K forward to 24 abaft, proceed to prove it by horizontal lines, and finish the remaining part forward and aft. These lines are generally called water-lines, as the ship's bottom at the surface of the water, supposing the keel kept parallel thereto, would be of the same figure as those lines represented in the half-breadth plan, with the addition of the thickness of the bottom plank in that direction. The upper one is called the load-water line, or line of floatation, when the vessel is supposed fit for sea; the other water-lines may be equally divided between the upper or load-water line, and upper edge of the keel or rabbet. Although a ship may draw more water abaft

than forward for her best sailing trim, yet to keep the several water-lines horizontal, or parallel with the upper edge of the keel, is the most useful in construction; and the water-lines, as represented in the half-breadth plan, form curves, limiting the various half-breadths of the ship at the heights of their corresponding lines in the body-plan. They are generally drawn with green ink, but in our Plate with corresponding dotted lines, and are represented by straight lines in the sheer-plan; and if parallel with the keel they will be horizontal lines in the body-plan, but if the vessel is to be constructed to draw much more water aft than forward, the water-lines will not of course be parallel with the upper edge of the keel; then owing to their various heights at each timber in the sheer-plan, they will form curves at those heights in the body-plan, and the more they vary from an horizontal line, the less accurate will the limits of their half-breadths be described in the half-breadth plan.

In the Plate, the upper horizontal water-line is 20 feet above the lower edge of the keel; and between that and the upper edge of the rabbet of the keel, are equally divided four more water-lines, as in the sheer-plan. The water-lines may now be drawn in the half-breadth plan from the body-plan, as far as the timbers are there formed; thus continue the water-lines aft from the sheer-plan across the body-plan, then take off with compasses, or a slip of paper, and pencil, their various half-breadths from the middle line, to the places where the several timbers intersect each water-line, and set them off on their corresponding timbers from the middle line in the half-breadth plan; then to end each water-line square down where they intersect the fore-part of the rabbet at the stem, and aft-part of the rabbet at the stern-post in the sheer-plan to the middle-line of the half-breadth plan; then take the half-siding of the stem and the stern-post at each water-line from the middle line in the body-plan, and set them respectively on the lines last squared down from the middle line in the half-breadth plan; from thence, as the centre, with compasses opened to the thickness of the bottom plank, make a sweep, the back of which is the ending of the line. Then complete the fore and after ends of each water-line with curves, as in the half-breadth plan, avoiding all inflected curves or hollow water-lines at the fore part, as they may be drawn by arcs of circles, although their centres may be without the limits of the plates of ship-building.

Now the whole of the body may be completed under the lower height of breadth, observing to sweep each timber below its height of breadth, as before directed: then by taking off the half-breadth of each timber, where they intersect the water-lines from the middle line in the half-breadth plan, and setting them off on their corresponding water-lines from the middle line in the body-plan, curves passing through those spots will shape the timber; but to end them into the rabbet, or complete the heeling, the keel must be drawn in the body-plan; thus set off nine inches on the base line from each side of the middle line, being the half-siding of the keel, and also 18 inches below the base line, which squared will represent the thwartship section of the keel in midships: then, with compasses opened to the thickness of the bottom plank, fix one leg where the keel intersects the base line, which is the upper side of the rabbet, and sweep an arc within the keel to intersect the side, and from that intersection sweep another arc upwards; then a triangle drawn within those arcs, represents the rabbet of the keel in midships, and all the timbers along the midships, until the rabbet opens, and where the rabbet intersects the base line; but when the rabbet opens the timbers rising forward and aft, they will end over the back of the sweep to the inner edge of the rabbet. The timbers near the after-end of the keel must be ended agreeably to the tapering of the keel, which tapers in the siding from frame 24 to 15 inches at the after-end; this must be set off from the middle line in the half-breadth plan, and the half-siding of the keel taken at each timber, and set off on the upper-edge of the keel from the middle line in the body-plan; then set within the half-siding of the keel the thickness of the bottom plank,

and that ends the timber. But as the frames in the fore-body before O heel upon the stem, their heights must be taken in the sheer-plan, where they intersect the lower part of the rabbet, and those heights set up in the body-plan upon the half-thickness of the stem; then with compasses opened to the thickness of the bottom plank, fix one leg in the heights last set off, and sweep a circle within the siding, and the heel passes over the back of the circle, and the rabbet completed by a square applied to the line of the timber, so as to intersect the height set up, as shewn in the plan of the fore-body, (Pl. II.)

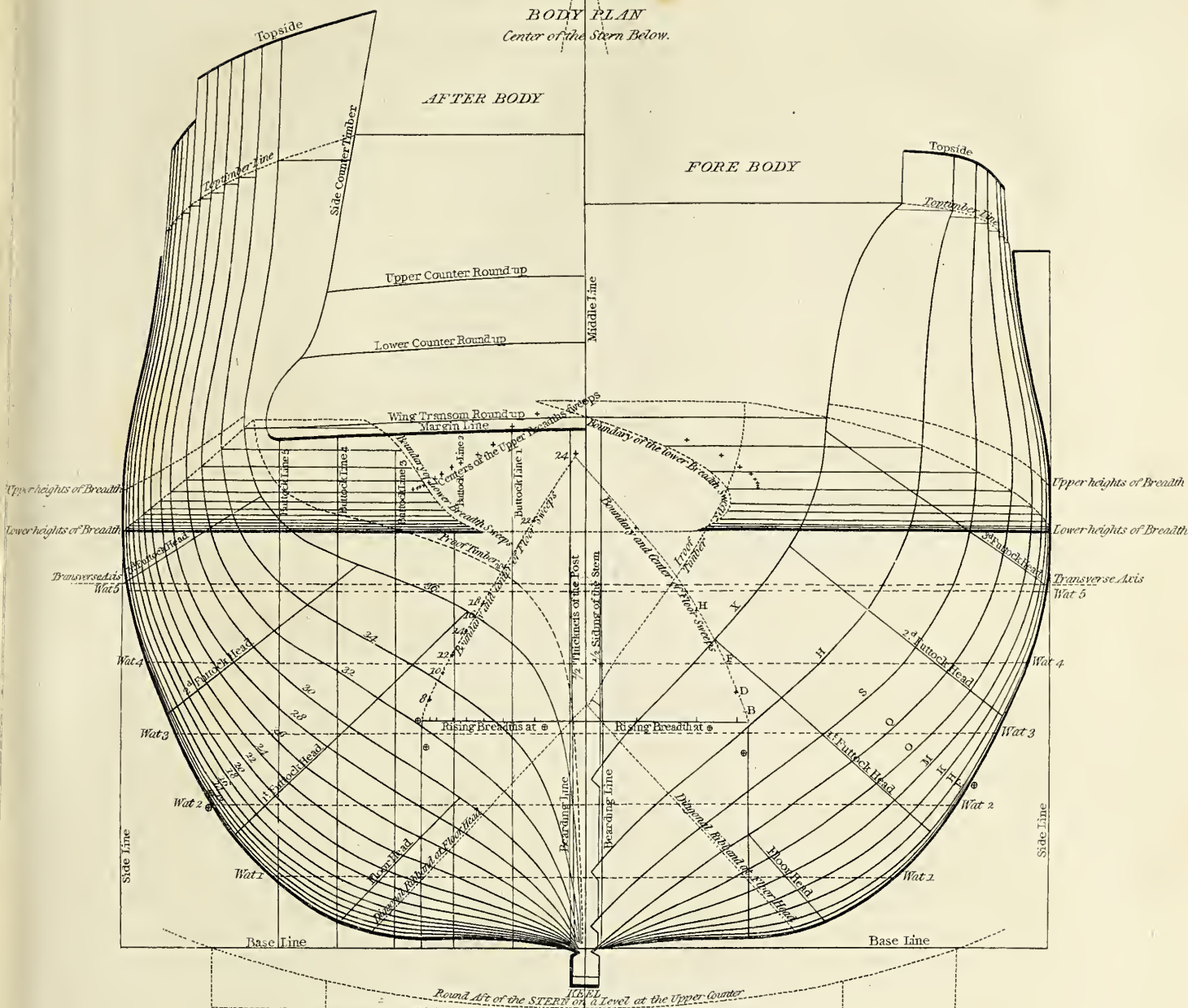
Now, as a further proof of the correctness of the after-body, draw four or five perpendicular sections, or, as they are commonly called, buttock-lines; but first prove the heels of the after-timbers by the bearding-line, thus: represent the half-thickness of the dead or rising wood in the body-plan, by drawing a perpendicular from the base line to the head of the stern-post. Then from the base line take the heights where the after-timbers cross the half-thickness of the dead wood, and set them up from the upper edge of the rabbet on their corresponding timbers in the sheer-plan; then draw a curve through those heights, to break in fair with the fore-side of the rabbet on the stern-post, and this curve will represent the bearding-line in the sheer-plan, and limits the heels of the stern-timbers, as far as they cut off or fay against the dead wood.

The heels of the timbers being found to agree with the bearding-line, from the fairness of its curve (observe, the term fair, so often used in the delineation of the several plans of a ship, signifies that the variety of curved lines therein used have no inequalities in them, but are even as a circle struck from its centre, as most of the lines in the formation of ships' bodies are curves, but many of their centres are too distant for application; and the fairness required is, that where every different curve unites no angle may be discoverable), proceed to prove the after timbers by the buttock-lines; thus, square up from the base line in the after-body plan five perpendiculars, equally divided between the outside of the wing-transom, and the half-thickness of the dead-wood; that is, the outer buttock-line at 15 feet 10 inches, and the intermediate four at 3 feet 2 inches asunder.

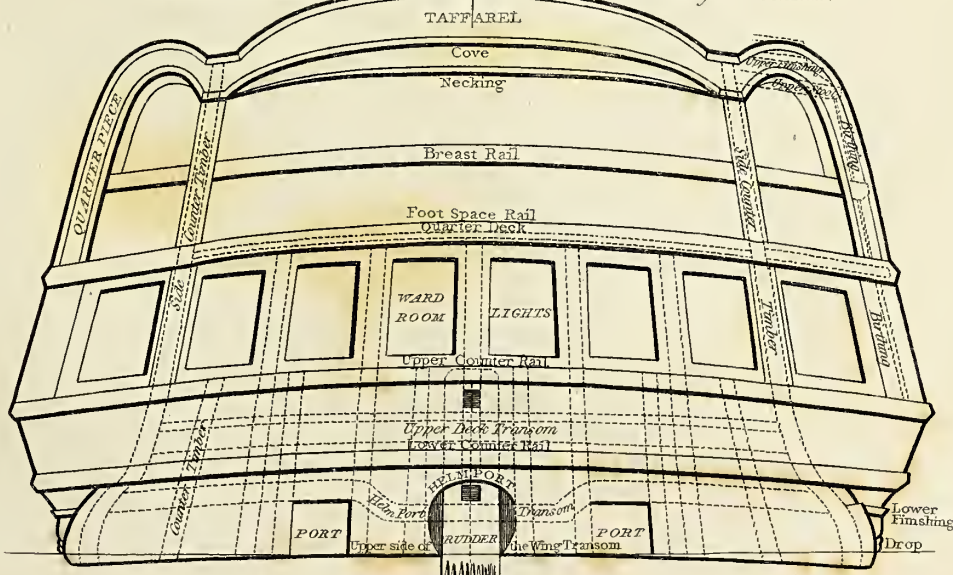
Then take the heights at the first buttock-line, or that next the post, at the intersection of each timber from the base line in the after-body, and set them up from the upper edge of the rabbet on the corresponding timbers in the sheer-plan; and to end the buttock-lines, the upper side of the wing-transom and margin-line must be drawn in the several plans; thus, set up 26 feet 10 inches for the height of the upper side of the wing-transom in the sheer and body-plans, drawing a horizontal line at the stern-post and across the body-plan; then from the middle line set off 16 feet 6 inches, the half-breadth of the wing-transom, and that place set down, below the upper side of the wing-transom, six inches, and sweep the arc, whose centre will be in the middle line; and the round-up of the upper side of the wing-transom will be represented as in the body-plan, (Pl. II.); from the same centre sweep another arc six inches below the upper side of the wing-transom, which is called the margin-line. Then, in the half-breadth plan, sweep in the round aft or aft-side of the wing-transom; thus, square down from the sheer-plan the fore-side of the rabbet of the stern-post, where it cuts the upper side of the wing-transom, to the half-breadth plan, and upon the line so squared down, set off the half-breadth of the wing-transom from the middle line, and at that place set forward seven inches, and sweep the arc representing the round aft of the wing-transom, the centre of which is in the middle line.

Draw an horizontal line at six inches below the upper side of the wing-transom in the sheer-plan, and upon it square up the round forward of the wing-transom from the half-breadth plan; and from thence draw a line to the upper side of the wing-transom at the rabbet of the post, and the upper side of the wing-transom will be shewn, both to its round
down

BODY PLAN
Center of the Stern Below.



PERPENDICULAR VIEW of the STERN.



down and forward in the sheer plan. Transfer the height of the margin-line from the body to the sheer-plan, and there draw a line parallel to the upper side of the wing-transom last drawn, and unite them at the fore part of the wing-transom by a line parallel to the rabbet of the post. The margin-line must next be shewn in the half-breadth plan; by squaring it down from the sheer-plan, and making it a parallel curve to the aft-side of the wing-transom; the distance, however small, being equal to the rake of the rabbet of the post, in the depth of the margin at the aft-side of the wing-transom. The margin-line being drawn in every plan, proceed to end the buttock-lines in the sheer-plan; thus, take the distance of the buttock-lines square from the middle-line of the body-plan, and set them off the same from the middle line in the half-breadth plan, drawing lines parallel thereto from the aft-side of the wing-transom to the after square timber, which will represent the buttock-lines in the half-breadth plan: then, where those lines intersect the margin-line in the half-breadth plan, square up spots to the margin-line in the sheer-plan, which spots will give the true ending of the buttock-lines, also square up the intersection of the buttock-lines with the water-lines from the half-breadth to the sheer-plan; then transfer all the heights of the buttock-lines, where the timbers cross them in the body-plan, to the sheer-plan, as before directed, and draw fair curves through all the spots set off to the endings, and the after part of the ship will be represented in the sheer-plan, as cut by those perpendicular sections.

Now if the buttock-lines make fair curves, the after-timbers will be proved correct, and likewise the water-lines abaft in the half-breadth plan; but if the buttock-lines to be made fair curves deviate from the spots as set off, then must the timbers be altered accordingly, and consequently the water-lines. But as a further proof as to the correctness of the buttock, or that part of the body close aft, square up one or two imaginary or proof-timbers, equally between the after frame-timber 37 and the wing-transom at the side, as represented by the ticked lines in the sheer-plan. Then take the heights on a perpendicular from the upper edge of the keel in the sheer-plan, where the proof-timbers intersect the buttock-lines and bearding-line, and transfer them to the body-plan above the base line upon each corresponding buttock-line, and half-thickness of the dead-wood; take also the half-breadth of the proof-timbers where they intersect the water-lines in the half-breadth plan, and transfer them to their respective water-lines in the body-plan; but though the proof-timbers cross the stern-post, their heels may be set off as before directed for the after-timbers; then if the spots so set off produce fair curves, as the ticked timber shewn in the body-plan, we may conclude that the after-body is sufficiently proved and its fairness accurate. The fore-body may be proved by vertical sections, in a similar manner as described above, only their ending will be determined by squaring up their intersections with the main-breadth line, from the half-breadth plan to the sheer-plan.

We now proceed to draw all the decks in the sheer-plan, beginning with the lower, or gun-deck. The height of the lower sills of the gun-deck ports should be 2 feet 4 inches above the gun-deck plank, which is four inches thick; consequently the upper side of the beam along the side must be 2 feet 8 inches below the sills; add six inches to that for the round-up of the beam; and the under side of the gun-deck at the middle line in midships will be 22 feet 2 inches above the upper edge of the keel; at the foremost perpendicular set up 24 feet, and at the after-perpendicular 24 feet 8 inches; then a segment of a circle drawn through these three heights will represent the under side of the gun-deck at the middle line. (These kinds of sweeps are drawn by thin veneers of pear-tree wood, called sweep-moulds, struck from a long radius on purpose, or by a drawing-bow.) Now set up four inches, the thickness of the gun-deck plank, above the line last drawn, and let another line be drawn parallel thereto, and the gun-deck will be described at the middle line in the sheer-plan.

Next proceed to draw the upper deck; set up 7 feet

2 inches, being the height from the upper side of the gun-deck plank to the under side of the upper deck plank, along the middle line, through which heights draw a curve parallel to the gun-deck, and another curve three inches parallel above it, and the upper deck will be represented at the middle line of the sheer-plan.

The stern-timbers should be next drawn, to shew the boundaries of the sheer-plan above the wing-transom. Set up above an horizontal line drawn at the upper side of the wing-transom at the middle line four feet, upon a perpendicular 6 feet 10 inches abaft the aft-side of the wing-transom, which will be the height and knuckle of the lower counter at the middle line; from thence draw a curve, about six inches hollow, to the upper side of the wing-transom, where the fore part of the rabbet of the stern-post intersects it; and that curve will represent the lower counter at the middle line.

In the same manner, set up the height of the upper counter 7 feet 5 inches upon a perpendicular nine feet abaft the aft-side of the wing-transom, which will be the height and knuckle of the upper counter at the middle line; then drawing a curve about one inch hollow from thence to the knuckle of the lower counter, the upper counter will likewise be described at the middle line.

Having the upper and lower counters drawn at the middle line, the upper part of the stern-timber is straight above the upper counter, and must be drawn as follows:

Set up 23 feet 8 inches, upon a perpendicular 14 feet abaft the aft-side of the wing-transom, as before, and then drawing a straight line from the knuckle of the upper counter to pass through the said spot, the upper part of the stern-timber will be shewn at the middle line, by which the rake of the stern will be described.

As the stern rounds two ways, both up and aft, (or forward from the timber already drawn), the stern-timber at the side must alter so much from that at the middle line, and therefore remains to be represented. Set down from the knuckle of the upper counter on its perpendicular 9 inches, and draw an horizontal line before it at that place, and set off thereon 15 inches from the said perpendicular, which will be the knuckle of the upper counter at the side the 9 inches is the round-up, and the 16 inches the round-aft at the upper counter. Then proceed in like manner for the lower counter, by setting down 9 inches, and forward 15 inches, and knuckle for the lower counter at the side will be produced; then, by drawing a curve from the knuckles at the side (similar to the curve or hollow at the middle line), observing the lower counter at the side is drawn to intersect the touch of the wing-transom at the side, the side stern-timber only wants the upper part to complete it. But as the straight line, which remains to be drawn for the upper part of the side-timber, should not be parallel to that at the middle line, the following method will determine the exact rake thereof.

Draw a straight line at pleasure, as the ticked line under the body-plan, on which set off the breadth of the stern at the upper counter, or 13 feet 4 inches, equally on each side of the middle line; and there square up a perpendicular on each side: set up from the straight line 16 inches, the round-aft of the upper counter on each perpendicular, and draw a segment of a circle that shall intersect those spots and the straight line at the middle, and the round-aft of the stern will be described at any part of the breadth above the upper counter: thus, take the breadth of the stern at the top timber-line, which is 24 feet 8 inches above the wing-transom, which is 24 feet, and set it off equally on each side the middle, to where it shall intersect the round-aft under the body-plan; thence draw a line parallel to that first drawn, and the distance between the two lines, $13\frac{1}{2}$ inches, is the distance that the side-timber will be from the middle-timber: on an horizontal line, at the height of the top timber-line, draw a straight line through the last spot set off to intersect the knuckle of the upper counter at the side, and that will be the rake of the side counter-timber, as shewn by the ticked lines in the sheer-plan.

The rake of the stern-timbers being determined, proceed to

to finish the decks. Set up from the upper side of the upper deck 6 feet 10 inches at the middle stern-timber, and 6 feet 8 inches fore part at frame 8, and above that 3 inches, drawing curves as before, and the quarter-deck at the middle line will be represented.

Proceed in the same manner with the round-house abaft. Set up from the upper side of the quarter-deck 6 feet 8 inches at the middle stern-timber, and 6 feet 6 inches at fore part or frame 24, and above that $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches. The fore-castle forward is represented in the same way, by drawing curves, one parallel to the upper side of the upper deck 6 feet 7 inches above it, and another at 3 inches from the head-head to frame D.

All the decks having been drawn, representing their heights at the middle line, their heights at the sides differ from the former, agreeable to the round of the beam in the breadth of the ship: to do which correctly, take the round-up of the beam of its respective deck, say the gun-deck, 6 inches, and set it up in the middle of any straight line, so that the half-breadth in midships at the height of the gun-deck may be set off on each side on the line. Then raise the segment of a circle that shall intersect the round-up at the middle, with the spots at the breadth, and the round-up of the deck will be described at any part of its breadth. Thus, take the half-breadth at the height of the deck at any timber in the body-plan, and set it off equally from the middle of the round-up till it intersects the curve: whence draw a line parallel to that first drawn, and the distance between the last line to the round-up in the middle is what the beam rounds at that place: thus may the round-up be taken at as many timbers as may be found necessary, and set below the under side of the deck, at its respective timber in the sheer-plan; then a curved line passing through those spots, will represent the deck at the side: but observe, that the decks are to have a sufficient round abaft, to correspond with the round-up of the stern above the lights, and the additional round wanted to be set down at the side line.

The sheer or top timber-line may be next drawn, by setting up its height in the sheer-plan afore in midships, and abaft: thus, at timber X forwards, 37 feet 8 inches; at \oplus in midships, 35 feet 4 inches; and at the side stern-timber abaft, 41 feet 6 inches: then, by drawing a curve through these spots, the sheer of the ship, or top timber-line, will be represented.

The ports may now be drawn in the sheer-plan, thus: draw two curves in pencil parallel to the deck at the side, fore and aft, adding the thickness of the deck to that already drawn, as that represents the under side of the deck, or upper side of the beam. The gun-deck ports are to be 2 feet 4 inches from the upper side of the gun-deck plank to the upper side of the lower sills, 2 feet 8 inches deep, and 3 feet 5 inches fore and aft, or from the fore to the after sides, which may now be squared up between the lines last drawn; placing the fore-side of the foremost port 1 foot 5 inches abaft timber X, and 3 feet 1 inch only on athwartship line; the aft-side of the after-port to be 14 inches afore timber 32, and the fore-side 3 feet 5 inches afore it, or in the clear; and the remaining 13 to be 7 feet 7 inches asunder. In the same manner draw in the upper deck ports, which are from the plank to the port-sill 1 foot 11 inches, 2 feet 8 inches deep, and fore and aft 3 feet; and are to be placed equally between and over the gun-deck ports, as circumstances will admit, as shewn in the sheer-plan, Plate I. The ports on the quarter-deck, round-house, and fore-castle, must be placed hereafter where there is a vacancy between the dead eyes to admit of them, observing to place them as nearly as possible at equal distances.

To know the heights, round-up, &c. &c. of the other decks, take them with compasses, in like manner, as the gun-deck was set off from the given dimensions; and by applying them to the scale of feet, much repetition will be avoided.

The round-house deck being drawn, draw a line parallel to the top timber-line, and another line three inches above it, which is of the thickness of the plan-sheer, corresponding with the fore-part of the round-house, so as to make both

plank-sheer and water-way; so will the extreme height of the top-side be described abaft: the plank-sheer, which completes the height of the side to the fore part of the quarter-deck, is four feet four inches to the under side above the top timber-line, and parallel thereto. The fore part abreast the main-mast hances down eleven inches for seven feet abaft the gangway or fore part of the quarter-deck.

The drift-rail may now be drawn, the under side of which is two feet ten inches above the top timber-line, and parallel thereto from the hance of the plank-sheer at the main-mast to the quarter-gallery. The drift-rail is four and a half inches deep, and drawn parallel to the under side last drawn, and hances as the plank-sheer abreast the main-mast, and stops with a scroll upon the sheer-rail at the gangway. The sheer-rail may next be drawn: it is six inches deep, and parallel to the top timber-line from the cat-head to the quarter-gallery. The plank-sheer and sheer-rail at the fore part of the ship delineate the height of the top-side there: the under-side of the plank-sheer is two feet nine inches above the top timber-line and the under side of the drift-rail one foot eight inches, and turns off with scrolls at the after part of the fore-castle, but in other respects the same as those at the quarter-deck.

It is the practice in the navy of late years, to have square drifts instead of scrolls or hances of any kind.

The upper part of the ship being thus far complete, we have at one view the utmost extent of the sheer, as seen on a plane.

It now remains to be drawn in the finishing parts, as the wales, stern, head, rails, &c.

Proceed to represent the main wails by setting up their lower edge, at the rabbet of the stem or fore part, above the upper edge of the keel 22 feet 6 inches, in midship or dead-flat 18 feet 8 inches, and at timber 34, 23 feet, and draw the curve as in sheer-plan, Plate I. Above that, and parallel thereto, draw another curve at 4 feet 4 inches, the breadth of the main wales.

Next draw in the channel wales, set up as before, at the rabbet of the stem 30 feet 2 inches, in midships 27 feet 3 inches, and at timber 34, 31 feet 6 inches. Set up their breadth 3 feet, and draw curves as in sheer-plan, Plate I.

The waist-rail may be next drawn: its distance below the top timber-line is one foot ten inches, the upper side and its depth six inches, and it is drawn parallel to the top-timber line all fore and aft.

Now, before the channels and dead-eyes can be drawn, the centres and raking of the masts must be determined; their centres on the gun-deck being fixed upon in proportion to the length of the gun-deck, thus: the centre of the fore-mast is 21 feet 4 inches abaft the aft-side of the stem, or half its diameter before the one-ninth of the length on the gun-deck: the centre of the main-mast 101 feet 4 inches abaft the aft-side of the stem, or half its diameter abaft the five-ninths of the length of the gun-deck; and the centre of the mizen-mast 27 feet before the rabbet of the stern-post, or half its diameter before the one-seventh of the length of the gun-deck. The centre being fixed, the fore-mast rakes aft (or inclines from a perpendicular with the keel) one-eighth of an inch in every yard of its length; the main-mast rakes aft one inch in every yard in the length; and the mizen-mast one inch and a half in every yard of its length, as drawn in the sheer-plan, Plate I.

Now draw the channels, placing their upper edges next the side in a line with the upper edge of the sheer-rail; or, which is much better, since the rails on the side are discontinued, rather lower down, clear of the seam. The fore channel to be 36 feet long, and so placed as to take the anchor-lining and bill-board for stowing the anchor at its fore end, thus; get the length of the anchor to the bill, or extent of the arm, and allow for the cat-block; then with that distance sweep upwards from the channel-wale to the channel, from the outer end of the cat-head nearly, and the curve that the bill of the anchor is supposed to make, will give the middle of the lining: the aft-side from the channel may be perpendicular, and the fore part follow the curve made by the anchor.

The bill-board may then be carried upwards from the upper side of the channel to the top of the side. The anchor-lining commences at the upper side of the bolster, which rests on the channel-wale, and is long enough at the fore-part for a man to stand upon.

The main channel is 29 feet 6 inches long, placed in the same range as the fore channel, and its fore-end before the centre of the mast about six inches.

The mizen channel is 16 feet 4 inches long, placed like the former, but it is more convenient when placed, as it now is, above the quarter-deck ports.

The dead-eyes may now be drawn, observing to place them in such a manner that the chains may be sufficiently clear of the ports. All the preventer-plates must be so placed on the channel-wales, and of such a length, that the centre of the chain-bolt may come about six inches below the upper edge, and the preventer-bolt about four inches above the lower edge of the channel-wales. The dead-eyes in the main and fore channels are sixteen inches in diameter, and eleven in number in the fore and twelve in the main, though lately another is added in each. In the mizen are seven, of eleven inches diameter; the centre of the foremost dead-eye is placed at or just abaft the centre of the mast, and the centres of the others are placed so as to clear each other about three inches, which will admit of four dead-eyes between each port. It must also be observed to give each of the chain and preventer-plates a proper rake; that is, to let them range in the direction of the shrouds, which may be done in the following manner: draw a pencil line upwards at the centre of each mast, upon which set off its length to the lower part of the head; then, by drawing straight lines from that height through the centre of each dead-eye, the direction of each chain will be obtained by the direction of its corresponding line. The dead-eyes for the backstays are so similar to the former, that it need only be observed, that for the raking of them, the height of the top-mast to its head must be added to the lower mast, and that they are fixed at the after-end of the channel, or on stools, if need be, above the channels, as in the sheer-plan.

The quarter-deck and fore-castle ports can now be determined, as they must be placed clear of the shrouds, and equally asunder, or nearly so, as circumstances will admit: thus, there are three on each side on the fore-castle, made by the timber-heads there shewn, having also a timber-head between. But the practice now is to have a rail upon the heads of the timbers, and the sides birthed up on each side to the under side of the rail between the ports, and only three or four timber-heads run up, one in particular before the bill-board for the shank-painter. On the quarter-deck are seven ports of a side, and four on the round-house, placed as clear as possible of the shrouds.

The chest-tree for hauling home the main-tack must be placed near the after-end of the fore channel, or half the length of the main yard before the centre of the main-mast, and drawn from the top of the side down to the upper edge of the channel-wale.

The steps on the side may next be drawn: they must be placed at the fore part of the main drift or gangway, about three feet in length, six inches asunder in the clear, and five inches deep: the upperstep to be eleven inches from the top of the side, continuing the others to the upper edge of the wale.

To complete the sheer-plan, the head and stern only remain to be drawn, the beak-head however is getting disused, and the bow continued to the top of the side. The figure of the stem is commonly square as represented at Fig. 2, Pl. II., but Sir Robert Seppings has introduced round stems. These, though not approved by all, seem nevertheless improvements. Sir Robert's reasons for their adoption are thus stated:—

They give additional strength to the whole fabric of a ship.

They afford additional force in point of defence.

They admit of the guns being run out in a similar way to those in the sides.

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From the circular form and mode of carrying up the timbers, an additional protection against shot is obtained, if the ship should be raked.

The stern being equally strong as the bow, no serious injury can accrue in the event of the ship being pooped; and the ship may be moored, if so required, by the stern.

A ship will sail better upon a wind, from the removal of the projections of the quarter galleries.

Ships of the line have now a stern walk protected by a veranda, and so contrived that the officers can walk all round, can observe the set of the sails, and the fleet in all directions.

The compass timber heretofore expended for transoms is substituted with straight timber, and worked nearly to a right angle, which affords a considerable saving in the consumption of timber.

The counter being done away by the circular stern, the danger which arose from boats being caught under it is obviated.

The rudder may now be represented in the sheer-plan, observing, that the head is continued above the upper deck, high enough to receive a tiller about four inches above the deck; then allow for two hoops above the hole, making the upper part of the head 2 feet 6 inches above the deck. Continue upwards the aft-side of the stern-post, which represents the fore-side of the rudder, from whence its breadth or aft-side is set off; and as this should not be more nor less than sufficient to direct the course of the vessel, the common practice is to make the breadth at the heel, or lower end, one-eighth of the breadth, which will be six feet for ships having a clean run abaft; but for merchant-ships, or those constructed chiefly for burthen, it may be one-seventh. The height of the lower hance may be fixed at the load-water-line, or about six inches above it, and its breadth there should be five-sevenths of the breadth at the heel, back included; set forward from thence 10 inches, or reduce the breadth to 3 feet 5 inches. The upper hance may be at one-third the height of the lower hance, and the breadth of the rudder there should be five-sevenths of the breadth at the lower balance, or 3 feet 1 inch; there reduce the breadth 5 inches, which makes it 2 feet 8 inches, from whence a straight line may be continued to the head, which is 2 feet 4 inches fore and aft, or larger, if the piece will admit of it: each hance should be reduced with mouldings, as in sheer-draught, Plate I., and $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches drawn parallel to the aft-side to represent the thickness of the back. The heel of the rudder, at the fore part, should be 9 inches short of the under side of the false keel, and 11 inches at the aft-part, the sole included, which is 6 inches deep.

The pintles and braces may be now represented, placing the upper brace about four inches above the wing-transom, that the straps may clasp round the standard on the gun-deck. The second brace should be so placed as to fasten on the middle of the gun-deck transom. The lower brace may be placed 15 inches above the upper side of the keel, and the intermediate ones, four in number, to be equally placed between the two latter, making seven in all. The length of the braces may be governed by a straight line drawn from the third brace, which should be 4 feet 6 inches afore the rabbet of the post to the lower one, which is to be six feet.

The length of all the straps of the pintles, which come upon the rudder immediately above the braces (except the thickness of the bur or saucers), may extend within four inches of the aft-side: the pintles are $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches in diameter, and all 14 inches long, except the lower one, which is 2 inches longer. The straps of the braces and pintles are five inches broad.

The length and breadth of the rudder being represented in the sheer-plan, Plate I., it is evident the breaks or hances are merely to produce the breadth as it rises towards the head, the greatest breadth being only required below the water, where it feels the motion of the ship.

The fluid in passing to the rudder, exactly follows the outlines of the bottom; and supposing the rudder to make

an angle of 45 degrees with the keel, it may be readily seen, by the water-lines abaft in the half-breadth plan, that the immediate shock it receives from the water increases as it approaches to the load-water-line, where they become nearly at right angles with the side of the rudder in that position, and this holds good, whatever angle the rudder makes with the keel; hence some are of opinion, that the rudder should be made broader near the line of floatation, and narrower towards the keel; but the present method of making the rudder with increasing breadth downwards is only in proportion to the obliquity of impulse the water acts against it near the keel. It must be observed, that the above force strikes the rudder obliquely, and only strikes it with that part of its motion which, according to the sine of incidence, forces it in a contrary direction, with a momentum which not only depends on the velocity of the ship's course, by which this current of water is produced, but also upon the extent of the sine of incidence. This force is by consequence composed of the square of the velocity with which the ship advances, and that square of the sine of incidence, which will necessarily be greater or smaller according to circumstances; so that if the vessel increases her velocity three or four times faster, the absolute shock of the water upon the rudder will be nine or sixteen times stronger, under the same incidence; and if the incidence is increased, it will yet be augmented in a greater proportion, because the square of the sine of incidence is more enlarged.

Many useful discoveries may be made by blocks or models of ships, and with as great certainty as by the nicest calculations. For it must be allowed, as before observed, that in calculating from a draught drawn from a quarter of an inch scale, it will be liable to some inaccuracies, which cannot be obviated in practice, by reason of various little alterations which may be made in laying off the ship in the mould-loft; consequently the draught and the ship will, in those points, disagree. And likewise, upon strict examination, we shall be enabled to find, that there are not many ships that have both their sides exactly equal in every respect.

Let the block, or model, be constructed to a scale of one-quarter of an inch to a foot of the corresponding parts on the ship; and care should be taken to provide the wood as light and dry as possible.

The model being accurately constructed, it may be also proved by suspending it by a line, fastened to a hook in any part of a straight line, drawn from the middle line of the stem to that of the stern-post. This hook may be moved forward and aft to different places in the middle line, and a weight may be suspended from the upper part of the middle line, on the post. If the two sides be exactly of equal dimensions, and homogeneous, they will then be of equal weight. A plane passing through these three lines, whatever part of the middle line the hook be in, will likewise pass through the middle line of the keel, stem, and post: therefore, if the model stands this proof, it will be as true to work from as the nicest calculations.

The model, having stood this test, may be suspended by the same line, or silk, in different positions, until it points out the centre of gravity; which will be found, when the block hangs in a state of equilibrium. This practice is, doubtless, very simple; but it will be found very convenient. Further, the model being suspended by the hook, the lines hanging at the stem and post corresponding to their middle lines, and to that which suspends the block, we may hold a batten out of winding with the line that suspends it, and, with a pencil, draw a line upon it. A plane passing through this pencil line, at right angles to the keel, and passing likewise through the line that suspends the block, will likewise pass through the centre of gravity, which, therefore, must be somewhere in this plane. Again, move the hook to some other part of the middle line, and let the block be suspended from that point; draw also another pencil line, out of winding with this last line of suspension, and the intersection of the two lines will give the height of the centre of gravity

above the keel, and likewise its distance from the post and stem; and if the hook be moved to any other part of the middle line, and a pencil line be drawn as before, it will likewise intersect in the same point; or, let there be ever so many points assumed in the middle line, and the block suspended by each, and pencil lines drawn, they will all intersect in the same point; and as the centre of gravity will always be in the plane which passes through the middle line of the keel, stem, and post, it may with certainty be marked on the draught.

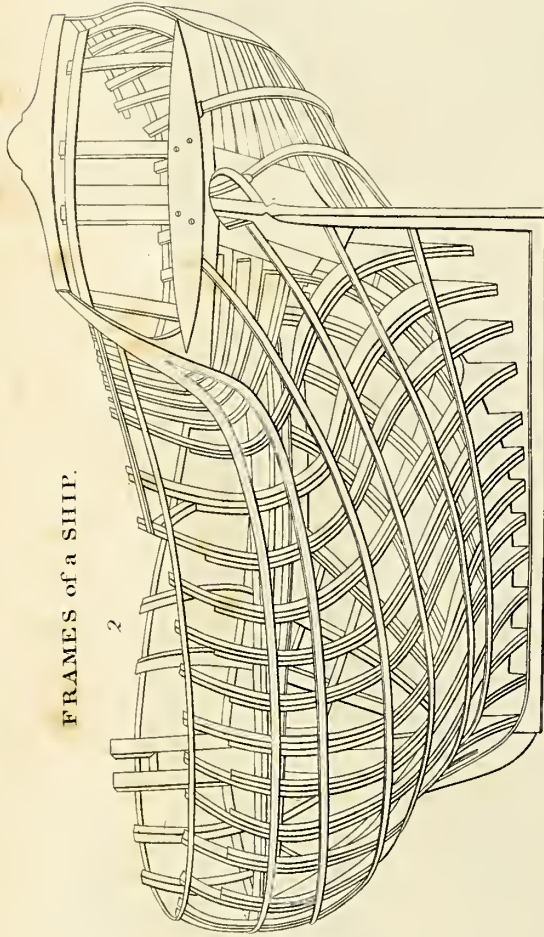
Of the Timbers of a Ship.—Of all large machines destined to undergo severe shocks, a ship is perhaps the least skilfully and artificially contrived. Her several parts are put together on a principle so much opposed to that which constitutes strength, that if a ship, on the old construction, should be put upon wheels, and drawn over a rough pavement, the action of a day would shake her in pieces; but being destined to move in an element that closes upon her, and presses her equally on all sides, she is prevented from falling in pieces outwards, and her beams and decks preserve her from tumbling inwards. Whoever has observed a ship *in frame*, as it is called, on the stocks, that is, with only her timbers erected, must forcibly be reminded of the skeleton of some large quadruped, as of a horse or ox, laid on its back; the keel resembling the back-bone, and the curved timbers the ribs, which is, in fact, the name by which they sometimes go. These ribs, issuing at right angles from the keel, consist, in a 74-gun ship, of about 800 different pieces, the space between each rib seldom exceeding five inches. These ribs are covered with planks of different thickness within and without, also at right angles to the ribs, and fixed to them by means of wooden pins or tree-nails. In the inside three or four tier of beams cross the skeleton from side to side, at right angles to both planks and ribs. These beams support the decks. At right angles to the beams are pieces of wood called carlings, and at right angles to these other pieces called ledges, and upon these the planks of the deck are laid in a direction of right angles to the beams, and parallel to the planking of the sides. From this sketch it will be perceived, that all the parts of a ship are either parallel or at right angles to each other. The ribs form a right angle with the keel, the planks inside and out are at right angles to the ribs, the beams at right angles to these, the carlings to the beams, the ledges to the carlings, and the planks of the decks to the ledges, the beams, and the ribs.

Now, it is well known to every common carpenter that this disposition of materials is the weakest that can be adopted—consequently, when a ship of the old construction is first launched into the water, it is invariably found that the two extremities, being less water-borne than the middle, drop, and give to the ship a convex curvature upwards, an effect which, from its resemblance to the shape of a hog's back, is usually called *hogging*. In very weak or old ships this effect may be discovered in all the port-holes of the upper-deck, by their having taken the shape of lozenges declining different ways from the centre of the ship to each extremity.

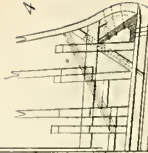
We are indebted to Sir Robert Seppings for remedying this defect. He applied the principle so familiar to carpenters, that of placing a diagonal brace across all the right angles formed by the timbers, and thus rendered them immovable. The expense is great, but it amply repays itself in the greater security and durability of the vessel. Sir Robert, in order to give a continuity of strength to the whole machine, and leave no possible room for play, filled the spaces between the frames with old seasoned timber cut into the shape of wedges; but recently with a prepared cement, thus rendering the lower part of the ship or floor one solid complete mass, possessing the strength and firmness of a rock.

The same principle of trussing is carried from the gun-deck upwards, from whence, between every port, is introduced a diagonal brace, which completely prevents the tendency

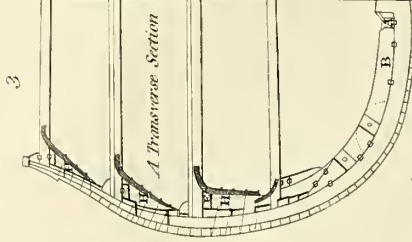
FRAMES of a SHIP.



Plan of the Stern



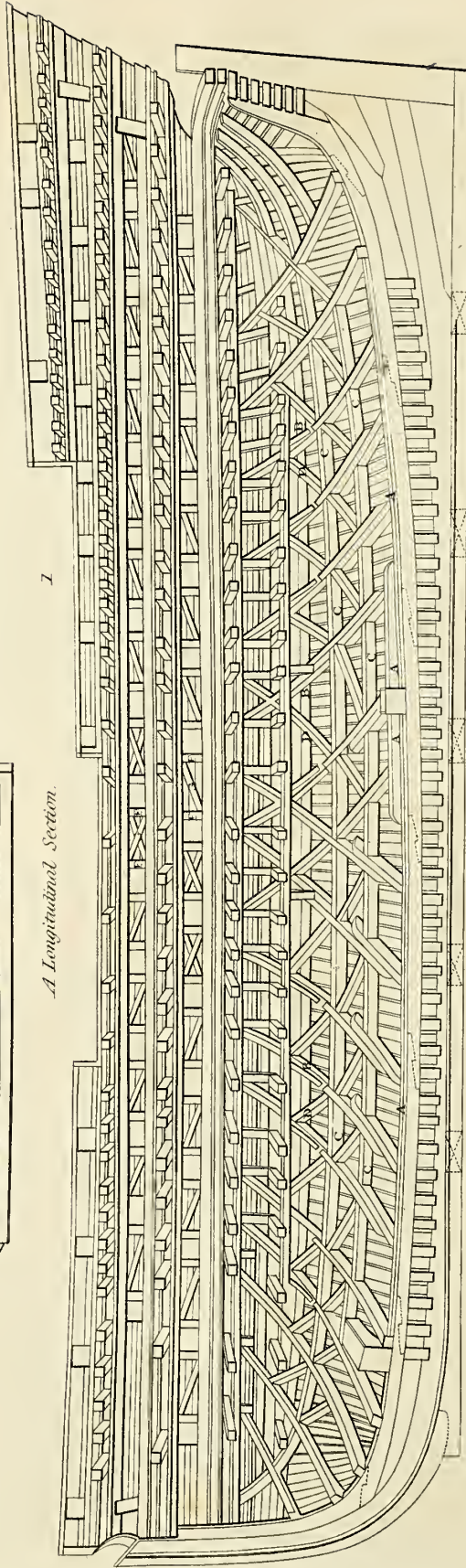
A Transverse Section



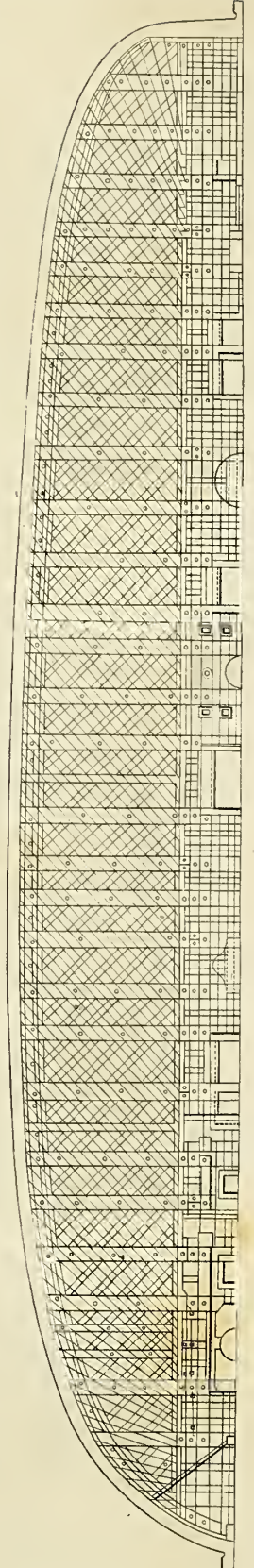
References

- AA. Timber strake and additional keelson forming abutments for the lower part of diagonal frame.
- BB. Timbers of diagonal frame.
- CC. Plating of hull.
- DD. Trusses for deck.
- EE. Internal hoop or banding, staff piece forming abutment for the upper part of the diagonal frame.
- FF. Abutment pieces for Trusses.
- GG. Deck ports.
- HH. Hooks under Sheer piece for Iron Knees.

A Longitudinal Section.



Plan of the Gun & Upper Decks.



gency of ships to stretch, or draw asunder their upper works. The decks, too, are made subservient to the securing more firmly the beams to the sides of the ship, by the planks being laid diagonally in contrary directions, from the midships to the sides, and at an angle of 45° with the beams, and at right angles with the ledges.

In frigates and smaller vessels, iron plates, lying at an angle of 45° with the direction of the trusses, are substituted for the diagonal frame of wood in ships of the line.

By this mode of construction, the ceiling, or internal planking, is wholly dispensed with, and a very considerable saving of the finest oak timber thereby effected; and what is more important, those receptacles of filth and vermin between the timbers, which were before closed up by the planking, entirely got rid of. This is not the least important part of the improvement, either as it concerns the soundness of the ship, or the health of the crew.

The first ships on which the new principle was tried, were those rebuilt or repaired in docks, from which they were quietly floated out without any shock from launching; but several of them sustained severe gales of wind, without showing the least symptoms of weakness, but quite the contrary, not even a crack appearing in the white-wash with which their sides within were covered. If these experiments were not satisfactory, the launching of two of the largest ships in the navy established the fact of superior strength beyond the possibility of a doubt—the Nelson and the Howe. The Nelson, constructed on the old principle, was probably, in every respect, the best built ship in modern times; the timber sound and well seasoned; the workmanship admirable; and no pains were left unemployed by Mr. Sison, the builder, to have her as perfect as she could be made; and her motion, when launched from the stocks, was slow, easy and majestic, without a shake or a plunge; yet the Nelson was found to have arched, after launching, no less than 9 inches. The Howe is a sister ship to the Nelson, but built on the new principle; and after launching, she was found to have arched only three inches and five-eighths. The St. Vincent, built on the old principle, and the same in every respect as the Howe, likewise hogged on launching nine inches and a quarter; and the whole fabric, in both cases, was found, on examination, to be greatly disturbed; whereas the Howe exhibited no such symptoms. The Plate III. will shew the mode of trussing ships of the line according to the plans of Sir Robert Seppings, now universally adopted in the British navy.

Fig. 1., where A. A. shews the timber strake and additional keelson forming abutments for the lower part of the diagonal frame. B. B. The timbers of the diagonal frame. C. The longitudinal pieces. E. The trusses. F. The abutment for trusses between ports. G. Trusses. Fig. 2. is the deck constructed on the same principle. Fig. 3. a transverse section of the ship, with her four decks and their supporters.

It has been a subject of discussion among ship-builders, whether tree-nails or metallic fastenings are to be preferred. The objection to iron bolts is, their rapid corrosion from the gallic acid of the wood, the sea-water, and perhaps by a combination of both; in consequence of which, the fibres of the wood around them become injured, the bolts wear away, the water oozes through, and the whole fabric is shaken and deranged. This corrosion of iron fastenings was most remarkable when the practice of sheathing ships with copper became general, and when iron nails were made use of to fix it: by the contact of the two metals and the sea-water, both were immediately corroded. Mixed metal nails are now used for this purpose; and copper bolts are universally employed below the line of floatation, though it is found that in these also oxidation takes place to a certain degree, and causes partial leaks. Various mixtures of metals have been tried, but all of them are considered to be liable to greater objections than pure copper. It would appear, then, that tree-nails, if properly made, well seasoned, and driven tight, are the least objectionable, being seldom found

to occasion leaks, or to injure the plank or timbers through which they pass. This species of fastening has at all times been used by all the maritime nations of Europe. The Dutch were in the habit of importing them from Ireland, it being supposed that the oak grown in that country was more tough and strong than any which could be procured on the Continent, and in all respects best adapted for the purpose. "Under all circumstances," says Mr. Knowles, "it appears that the present method of fastening ships generally with tough well seasoned tree-nails, with their ends split, and caulked after being driven, and securing the butts of each plank with copper bolts well clenched, is liable to fewer objections, and more conducive to the durability of the timber, than any other which has been tried, or proposed to be established."

In the principle of the diagonal bracing another gentleman preceded Sir R. Seppings. Mr. John Walters proposed a plan of a similar kind, differing indeed only in this, that he placed his braces externally to the ship timbers. This has been tried and with success, but it is obvious it takes up more timber (if timber were used), than the internal bracing. Whether it is stronger we know not, but it leaves more room in the ship's hold. It is considered best to make Mr. Walters's braces of gun-metal.

Among the recent improvements for the preservation of ships' bottoms, perhaps the most remarkable is Sir Humphrey Davy's plan of protecting the copper from the influence of the acid of sea-salt, by the superposition of iron bars, which thereby exert a galvanic agency on the decomposition of the salt in question. His experiment succeeded; but an unlooked for circumstance has arisen to overthrow its practical utility. The muriate of copper formed naturally on the copper, was found formerly to protect the bottoms from the adhesions of marine animals. This poison removed by the new plan, such multitudes of remora were collected on the ship as to impede her progress and renders the cleaning of her hull a matter of much difficulty, and one which consumed a considerable portion of time. Consequently the advantages gained one way were lost another.

The brief account of ship-building we have here attempted may serve to give our readers a general idea of the principles of this fine science, and of its most famous improvements. But in the limits of a work of this kind, it obviously cannot be treated with any practical fulness. We may refer, however, to the very excellent modern work of Sir R. Seppings, as containing every thing at present known on the subject.

SHITDAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-west of East Dereham. Population 1412.

SHIPFUND, SHIPPOND or SCHIPSFUND, in Commerce, a large weight in Holland, Germany, Denmark and Sweden, containing a different number of pounds in different places.

SHIPHAM, a village and parish of England, in the county of Somerset. Most of the inhabitants are miners, employed in raising lapis calaminaris. The mines are worked even in the streets and gardens of the houses, the usual depth of the shafts being from 6 to 12 fathoms. Population 539; 2 miles from Axbridge.

SHIPLAKE, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3 miles south of Henley-upon-Thames. Population 485.

SHIPLESS, *adj.* Without ships.—It is by no means a *shipless* sea, but every where peopled with white sails. *Gray.*

SHIPLEY, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Derby. Population 563.

SHIPLEY, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Alnwick.

SHIPLEY, a parish of England, in Sussex; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-south-west of Horsham. Population 1011.

SHIPLEY, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Huddersfield. Population 793.

SHIPLEY, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, situated at the junction of the Bradford canal with

with the Leeds and Liverpool navigation. Population 1214; 3½ miles north-north-west of Bradford.

SHIPMAN, *s.* Sailor; seaman.

I myself have the very points they blow,
All the quarters that they know
I' the *shipman's* card.

Shakspeare.

SHIPMASTER, *s.* Master of the ship.—The *shipmaster* came to him, and said unto him, What meanest thou, O sleeper! arise, call upon thy God. *Jon.*

SHIPMEADOW, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles west-by-south of Beccles. Population 387.

SHIP-MONEY, *s.* An imposition formerly levied on port towns and other places for fitting out ships; revived in king Charles the first's time, and abolished in the same reign.—Mr. Noy brought his *ship-money* first for maritime towns; but that was like putting in a little auger, that afterwards you may put in a greater. *Selden.*

SHIPPEN, *s.* [*ſcypen*, Sax., *stabulum*.] A stable. In Lancashire, a cow-house.—*Shepencs* and dairies. *Chaucer.*

SHIPPENSBURG, a post township of the United States, in Cumberland county, Pennsylvania, situated on a branch of the Conedowinet creek; 140 miles west of Philadelphia. Population 1159.

SHIPPIGAN ISLAND, an island in the gulf of St. Lawrence, on the south side of Chaleur bay.

SHIPPING, *s.* Vessels of navigation; fleet.—Before *Cæsar's* invasion of this land, the Britons had not any *shipping* at all, other than their boats of twigs, covered with hides. *Ralegh.*—Passage in a ship.—They took *shipping* and came to Capernaum, seeking for Jesus. *St. John.*

“The whole of our naval history,” say the Commissioners for Revising the Civil Affairs of the Navy, “may be divided into three periods. The first, comprehending all that preceded the reign of Henry VIII. The second, ending with the Restoration of Charles II.; and the third, coming down from the Restoration to the present day.”

To what size, and to what amount the English ships or vessels were carried, which supported so many contests with the invading Danes, in the ninth century, our naval history has not preserved any record. We are told, however, that Alfred increased the size of his galleys, and that some of them were capable of rowing thirty pair of oars. These galleys were chiefly employed in clearing the Channel of the nests of pirates by which it was infested. It is also said, as a proof of his attention to naval matters, that under his auspices, one Ochter undertook a voyage into the Arctic Regions, made a survey of the coasts of Lapland and Norway, and brought to Alfred an account of the mode pursued by the inhabitants of those countries to catch whales. It is, moreover, on record, that his two sons, Edward and Athelston, fought many bloody actions with the Danes, in which several kings and chiefs were slain; and that Edgar had from 3000 to 5000 ships, divided into three fleets, stationed on three several parts of the coast, with which, passing from one fleet or squadron to the other, he circumnavigated the island; that after this he called himself “Monarch of all Albion, and Sovereign over all the adjacent Isles.” Some notion, however, may be formed of the size of the vessels which composed his fleets, from the imposition of a land-tax, which required certain proprietors to furnish a stout galley of three rows of oars to protect the coast from the Danish pirates. The more effectually to check these marauders, and protect the coasts of the kingdom, William the Conqueror, in 1066, established the Cinque Ports, and gave them certain privileges, on condition of their furnishing 52 ships with 24 men in each for 15 days, in cases of emergency. We should not, perhaps, be far amiss in dating the period of our naval architecture from the Conquest. “The Normans,” says Sir Walter Ralegh, “grew better shipwrights than either the Danes or Saxons, and made the last conquest of this land; a land which can never be conquered whilst the kings thereof keep the dominion of the seas.” But Ralegh does not describe what the ships were which the Normans taught

us to build; nor can it now be known in what kind of vessels William transported his army across the Channel, or what was the description of the hundred large ships and fifty galleys of which the naval armament of Richard I. consisted on his expedition to the Holy Land. We are told, however, that having increased his fleet at Cyprus to 250 ships, and 60 galleys, he fell in with a ship belonging to the Saracens, of such an extraordinary size, that she was defended by 1500 men, all of whom, with the exception of 200, Richard, after taking possession of her, ordered to be thrown overboard and drowned.

There can be no doubt that the nations of the Mediterranean, particularly the Genoese and Venetians, introduced many improvements as to the capacity and stability of their ships, in consequence of the crusades and the demands for warlike stores and provisions, which such vast and ill-provided armies necessarily created; but these improvements would seem not to have reached, or, at least, to have made but a tardy progress in Great Britain. King John, it is true, stoutly claimed for England the sovereignty of the sea, and decreed that all ships belonging to foreign nations, the masters of which should refuse to strike to the British flag, should be seized and deemed good and lawful prize. And this monarch is said to have fitted out no less than 500 sail of ships, under the earl of Salisbury, in the year 1213, against a fleet of three times that number, prepared by Philip of France, for the invasion of England; of which the English took 300 sail, and drove 100 on shore, Philip being under the necessity of destroying the remainder, to prevent their falling also into the hands of the English. Of the kinds of ships of which his fleet consisted, some notion may be formed by the account that is related of an action fought in the following reign with the French, who, with “80 stout ships,” threatened the coast of Kent. This fleet being discovered by Hubert de Burgh, governor of Dover Castle, he put to sea with 40 English ships, and having got to the windward of the enemy, and run down many of the smaller ships, he closed with the rest, and threw on board them a quantity of quicklime, which blinded them so effectually, that all their ships were either taken or sunk.

Whatever the size and the armaments of our ships were, the empire of the sea was bravely maintained by the Edwards and the Henrys in many a gallant and glorious sea-fight with the fleets of France, against which they were generally opposed with inferior numbers. The temper of the times, and the public feeling, were strongly exemplified in the reign of Edward I. by the following circumstance:—An English sailor was killed in a Norman port, in consequence of which a war commenced, and the two nations agreed to decide the dispute on a certain day, with the whole of their respective naval forces. The spot of the battle was to be the middle of the Channel, marked out by anchoring there an empty ship. The two fleets met on the 14th of April, 1293; the English obtained the victory, and carried off above 250 sail.

In an action with the French fleet off the harbour of Sluys, Edward III. is said to have slain 30,000 of the enemy, to have taken 200 great ships, “in one of which, only, there were 400 dead bodies.” This is no doubt an exaggeration. The same monarch, at the siege of Calais, is stated to have blockaded that port with 730 sail, having on board 14,956 mariners; 25 only of which were of the Royal navy, bearing 419 mariners, or about 17 men each. In various other sea actions did this great sovereign nobly support the honour of the British flag. But though we then, and ever after claimed, the “dominion of the seas,” that dominion, says Ralegh, “was never absolute until the time of Henry the Eighth.” It was a maxim of this great statesman, that “whosoever commands the sea, commands the trade of the world; whosoever commands the trade, commands the riches of the world, and consequently the world itself.”

The reign of Henry V., however, was most glorious, in maintaining the naval superiority over the fleets of France.

From

From a letter of this sovereign to his Lord Chancellor, dated 12th of August, 1417, discovered by the late Mr. Lysons among the records in the Tower, and of which the following is a copy, it would appear that there was something like an established Royal Navy in his reign, independently of the shipping furnished by the Cinque Ports and the merchants, for the king's own use, on occasion of any particular expedition. The letter appears to have been written nine days after the surrender of the castle of Touque, in Normandy, from whence it is dated.

“ *Au revénd pere en Dieu L'evesque de Duresme nre Chancellor D'Engleterre.* ”

“ Worshipful fader yn God We sende you closed within this letter a cedula conteynynge the names of certein Maistres for owr owne grete Shippes Carrakes Barges and Balyngers to the whiche Maistres We have granted annuitees such as is appointed upon eche of hem in the same Cedula to take yerely of owre grante while that us lust at owr Exchequer of Westmre. at the termes of Michelmasse and Ester by even porcions. Wherefore We wol and charge yow that unto eche of the said Maistres ye do make under owr grete seel beyng in yowre own letters patentes severales in due forme after th'effect and pourport of owr said grante. Yeven under owr signet atte owr Castle of Touque the xij day of August.”

Extract from the Schedule contained in the preceding Letter.

vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Grande Nief ap- pelle le dont John William est Maistre	} vj. Mariners porla sauf garde deink Hamult.
vj. li. xij. iiijd. La Trinate Royale dont Steph' Thomas est Maistre	} vi. Mariners.
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Holy gost dont Jor- dan Brownynge est Maistre	} vj. Mariners.
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Carrake appellee le Petre dont John Gerard est Maistre	} vj. Mariners.
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Carrake appellee le Paul dont William Payne est Maistre	} vj. Mariners.
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Carrak appelle le Andrewe dont John Thornyng est Maistr'	} vj. Mariners
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Carrak appellee le Xpofre dont Tendrell est Maistr'	} vj. Mariners
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Carrak appelle le Marie dont William Richeman est Maistr'	} vj. Mariners.
vj. li. xiijs. iiijd. La Carrak appellee le Marie dont William Hethe est Maistre	} vj. Mariners.
vj. li. xiijs. La Carrak appellee le George dont John Mersh est Maistr'	} vj. Mariners.

The remainder, to whose masters pensions were thus granted, consist of seventeen “niefs, barges, and ballyngers,” some with three, and others two mariners only. But history informs us, that about this time Henry embarked an army of 25,000 men at Dover on board of 1500 sail of ships, two of which carried purple sails, embroidered with the arms of England and France; one styled the King's Chamber, the other his Saloon, as typical of his keeping his court at sea, which he considered as a part of his dominions. Still we are left in the dark as to the real dimensions of his ships, and the nature of their armament; they were probably used only as transports for his army. It would appear, however, from a very curious poem, written in the early part of the reign of King Henry the Sixth, that the navy of his predecessor was considerable, but that, by neglect, it was then reduced to the same state in which it had been during the preceding reigns. The poem here alluded to is entitled, “The English policie, exhorting all England to keep the sea, and namely the Narrow Sea; showing what profit cometh thereof, and also what worship and salvation to England and to all Englishmen,” and is

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printed in the first volume of Hackluyt's “Collection of Voyages.” It was evidently written before the year 1438, when the Emperor Sigismond died, as appears by the following passage in the prologue:—

“ For Sigismond, the great Emperour,
Which yet reigneth, when he was in this land,
With King Henry the Fifth, Prince of Honour,
Here much glory, as him thought, he found
A mightie land, which had take in hand
To werre with France, and make mortalitie,
And ever well kept round about the sea.”

The part of the poem which alludes to the navy of King Henry the Fifth, is entitled, “Another incident of keeping the Sea, in the time of the marvelous werrour and victorious Prince, King Henrie the Fifth, and of his great Shippes.”

The following are the most remarkable passages:—

“ And if I should conclude all by the King
Henrie the Fift, what was his purposing,
Whan at Hampton he made the great *dromons*
Which passed other great ships of the Commons;
The *Trinitie*, the *Grace de Dieu*, the *Holy Ghost*,
And other moe, which as nowe be lost.
What hope ye was the Kings great intent
Of thoo shippes, and what in mind he meant:
It was not ellis, but that *he cast to bee*
Lorde round about environ of the sea.
And if he had to this time lived here,
He had been Prince named withouten pere:
His great ships should have been put in preefe,
Unto the ende that he ment of in chiefe.
For doubt it not but that he would have bee
Lord and master about the round see:
And kept it sure, to stoppe our enemies hence,
And wonne us good, and wisely brought it thence,
That no passage should be without danger,
And his licence on see to move and sterre.”

Shortly after the time when this poem must have been written, it appears from the Parliament Roll (20th Hen. VI. 1442), that an armed naval force, consisting only of eight large ships, with smaller vessels to attend them, was to be collected from the ports of London, Bristol, Dartmouth, Hull, and Newcastle, Winchelsea, Plymouth, Falmouth, &c.; and, of course, the Royal ships of 1417, the names of which are contained in the foregoing schedule, were then either gone to decay or dispersed. We are not to judge of the size of these ships from the few mariners appointed to each. These were merely the ship-keepers, or harbour-duty men, placed on permanent pay, to keep the ships in a condition fit for the sea when wanted.

It is very probable that, until our merchants engaged in the Mediterranean trade, and that the attention of the government was turned in the reign of Henry VII. (about 1496), to imitate Portugal in making foreign discovery, under the skilful seaman Sebastian Cabot, very little was added to the capacity or the power of the British ships of war. It is said, however, that on the accession of Henry VII. to the throne in 1485, he caused his marine, which had been neglected in the preceding reign, to be put into a condition to protect the coasts against all foreign invasions; and that, in the midst of profound peace, he always kept up a fleet ready to act. In his reign was built a ship called the Great Harry, the first on record that deserved the name of a ship of war, if it was not the first exclusively appropriated to the service of the state. This is the same ship that Camden has miscalled the Henry Grace de Dieu, and which was not built till twenty years afterwards, under the reign of Henry VIII. The Great Harry is stated to have cost 14,000*l.*, and was burnt by accident at Woolwich in 1553.

We now come to that period of our naval history in which England might be truly said to possess a military marine, and of which some curious details have been left us by that extraordinary man of business Mr. Pepys, a commissioner of the navy, and afterwards secretary to Charles II., at a time

when the King executed in person the office of Lord High Admiral, and also to James II. until his abdication. His minutes and miscellanies relative to the navy are contained in a great number of manuscript volumes, which are deposited in the Pepysian Library in Magdalene College, Cambridge. From these papers it appears, that in the thirteenth year of Henry VIII., the following were the names and the tonnage of the Royal Navy:—

	Tons.
Henry Grace de Dieu	1500
Gabriel Royal	650
Mary Rose	600
Barbara	400
Mary George	250
Henry Hampton	120
The Great Galley	800
Sovereign	800
Catherine Forteleza	550
John Baptist	400
Great Nicholas	400
Mary James	240
Great Bark	250
Less Bark	180

Two row-barges of 60 tons each—making, in the whole, 16 ships and vessels measuring 7260 tons.

The Henry Grace de Dieu is stated in all other accounts, and with more probability, to have been only 1000 tons; the rule for ascertaining the measurement of ships being still vague and liable to great error, was probably much more so at this early period. This ship was built in 1515 at Erith, in the river Thames, to replace the Regent of the same tonnage, which was burnt in August, 1512, in action with the French fleet, when carrying the flag of the Lord High Admiral. There is a drawing in the Pepysian papers of the Henry Grace de Dieu, from which a print in the *Archæologia* has been engraved, and of which a copy has been taken as a frontispiece to Mr. Derrick's "Memoirs of the Rise and Progress of the Royal Navy." From these papers it appears, that she carried 14 guns on the lower deck, 12 on the main deck, 18 on the quarter-deck and poop, 18 on the lofty fore-castle, and 10 on her stern ports, making altogether 72 guns. Her regular establishment of men is said to have consisted of 349 soldiers, 301 mariners, and 50 gunners, making altogether 700 men. Some idea may be formed of the awkwardness in manœuvring ships built on her construction or similar to her, when it is stated that, on the appearance of the French fleet at St. Helens, the Great Harry, built in the former reign, and the first ship built with two decks, had nearly been sunk, and that the Mary Rose, of 600 tons, with 500 or 600 men on board, was actually sunk at Spithead, occasioned, as Raleigh says, "by a little sway in casting the ship about, her ports being within sixteen inches of the water." On this occasion the fleets cannonaded each other for two hours; and it is remarked as something extraordinary, that not less than 300 cannon-shot were fired on both sides in the course of this action. From the prints above-mentioned, which agree very closely with the curious painting of Henry crossing the Channel in his fleet, to meet Francis on the "Champ de drap d'Or," near Calais, (and now in the great room where the Society of Antiquaries hold their meetings in Somerset-House,) it is quite surprising how they could be trusted on the sea at all; their enormous poops and fore-castles making them appear loftier and more awkward than the large Chinese junks, to which, indeed, they bear a strong resemblance.

Henry VIII. may justly be said to have laid the foundation of the British navy. He established the dock-yards at Deptford, Woolwich, and Portsmouth; he appointed certain commissioners to superintend the civil affairs of the navy, and settled the rank and pay of admirals, vice-admirals, and inferior officers; thus creating a national navy, and raising the officers to a separate and distinct profession. The great officers of the navy then were, the Vice-Admiral of England; the Master of the Ordnance; the Surveyor of the Marine Causes; the Treasurer, Comptroller, General Sur-

veyor of the Victualling, Clerk of the Ships, and Clerk of the Stores. Each of these officers had their particular duties, but they met together at their office on Tower-Hill once a week, to consult, and make their reports to the Lord High Admiral. He also established the fraternity of the Trinity-House, for the improvement of navigation and the encouragement of commerce, and built the castles of Deal, Walmer, Sandgate, Hurst &c., for the protection of his fleet and of the coast.

At the death of Henry VIII., in 1547, the Royal Navy consisted of about 50 ships and vessels of different sizes, the former from 1000 to 150 tons, and the latter down to 20 tons, making in the whole about 12,000 tons, and manned by about 8000 mariners, soldiers, gunners, &c. In the short reign of his son Edward, little alteration seems to have taken place in the state and condition of the Royal navy. But the regulations which had been made in the reign of his father, for the civil government of naval affairs, were revised, arranged, and turned into ordinances, which form the basis of all the subsequent instructions given to the commissioners for the management of the civil affairs of the navy. In the reign of Mary the tonnage of the navy was reduced to about 7000 tons; but her Lord High Admiral nobly maintained the title assumed by England of "Sovereign of the Seas," by compelling Philip of Spain to strike his flag that was flying at the main-top-mast head, though on his way to England to marry Queen Mary, by firing a shot at the Spanish Admiral. He also demanded that his whole fleet, consisting of 160 sail, should strike their colours and lower their top-sails, as an homage to the English flag, before he would permit his squadron to salute the Spanish monarch.

The reign of Elizabeth was the proudest period of our naval history, perhaps surpassed by none, previous to the Revolution. She not only increased the numerical force of the regular navy, but established many wise regulations for its preservation; and for securing adequate supplies of timber and other naval stores. She placed her naval officers on a more respectable footing, and encouraged foreign trade and geographical discoveries, so that she acquired justly the title of the "Restorer of Naval Power, and Sovereign of the Northern Seas." The greatest naval force that had at any previous period been called together was that which was assembled to oppose the "Invincible Armada," and which consisted, according to the notes of Mr. Secretary Pepys, of 176 ships, with 14,992 men; but these were not all "Shippes Royal," but were partly composed of the contributions of the Cinque Ports and others. The number actually belonging to the navy is variously stated, but they would appear to have been somewhere about 40 sail of ships, manned with about 6000 men. At the end of her reign, however, the navy had greatly increased, the list in 1603 consisting of 42 ships of various descriptions, amounting to 17,000 tons, and manned with 8346 men. Of these two were of the burden of 1000 tons each, three of 900 tons, and ten from 600 to 800 tons.

James I. was not inattentive to his navy. He warmly patronized Mr. Phineas Pett, the most able and scientific shipwright that this country ever boasted, and to whom we undoubtedly owe the first essential improvements in the form and construction of ships. The cumbrous top-works were first got rid of under his superintendance. "In my owne time," says Raleigh, "the shape of our English ships hath been greatly bettered—in extremity we carry our ordnance better than we were wont—we have added crosse pillars in our royall shippes, to strengthen them; we have given longer floors to our shippes than in older times," &c. The young Prince Henry was so fond of naval affairs, that Phineas Pett was ordered, by the Lord High Admiral, to build a vessel at Chatham in 1604 with all possible speed, for the young Prince Henry to disport himself in, above London Bridge; the length of her keel was 28 feet, and her breadth 12 feet. In 1610 Pett laid down the largest ship that had hitherto been built. She was named the Prince Royal; her burden 1400 tons; her keel 114 feet; and armed with 64 pieces of great ordnance; "being in all respects," says Stowe, "the greatest

greatest and goodliest ship that was ever built in England." He adds, "the great work-master in building this ship was Mr. Phineas Pett, gentleman, sometime Master of Arts, of Emanuel College, in Cambridge."

This excellent man, as appears from a manuscript account of his life in the British Museum, written by himself, was regarded by the shipwrights of the dock-yards, who had no science themselves, with an eye of jealousy, and a complaint was laid against him before the King, of ignorance in laying off a ship, and of a wasteful expenditure of timber and other matters. The king attended at Woolwich with his court, to inquire in person into the charges brought forward, and, after a painful investigation, pronounced in favour of Mr. Pett. One of the charges was, that he had caused the wood to be cut across the grain; but the king observed, that, as it appeared to him, "it was not the wood, but those who had preferred the charges, that were cross-grained."

The state of the navy at the King's death is variously given, by different writers, but on this subject the memoranda left by Mr. Secretary Pepys are most likely to be correct. From them it appears, that, in 1618, certain commissioners were appointed to examine into the state of the navy; and, by their report, it appears there were then only 39 ships and vessels, whose tonnage amounted to 14,700 tons; but in 1624, on the same authority, the numbers had decreased to 32 or 33 ships and vessels, but the tonnage increased to about 19,400 tons. The commissioners had, in fact, recommended many of the small craft to be broken up or sold, and more ships of the higher rates to be kept up.

The navy was not neglected in the troublesome reign of Charles I. This unfortunate monarch added upwards of 20 sail to the list, generally of the smaller kind; but one of them, built by Pett, of a description, both as to form and dimensions, far superior to any that had yet been launched. This ship was the celebrated "Sovereign of the seas," which was launched at Woolwich in 1637. The length of her keel was 128 feet, and main breadth 48 feet, and from stem to stern 232 feet. In the description of this ship by Thomas Heywood, she is said to have "bore five lanthorns, the biggest of which would hold ten persons upright; had three-flush decks, a forecastle, half-deck, quarter-deck, and round-house. Her lower tier had 30 ports for cannon and demi-cannon; middle tier, 30 for culverines and demi-culverines; third tier, 26 for other ordnance; forecastle, 12; and two half decks, 13 or 14 ports more within board, for murdering pieces, besides 10 pieces of chace ordnance, forward, and 10 right aft, and many loop-holes in the cabins for musquet-shot. She had 11 anchors, one of 4400 pounds weight. She was of the burthen of 1637 tons." It appears, however, that she was found, on trial, to be too high for a good serviceable ship in all weathers, and was, therefore, cut down to a deck less. After this she became an excellent ship, was in almost all the great actions with the Dutch; was rebuilt in 1684, and the name changed to that of "Royal Sovereign;" was about to be rebuilt a second time at Chatham in 1696, when she accidentally took fire, and was totally consumed. In this reign the ships of the navy were first classed, or divided into six rates; the first being from 100 to 60 guns; the second from 54 to 36, &c.

In 1642 the management of the navy was taken out of the King's hands, and in 1648 Prince Rupert carried away 25 ships, none of which ever returned; and such, indeed, was the reduced state of the navy, that at the beginning of Cromwell's usurped government, he had only 14 ships of war of two decks, and some of these carried only 40 guns; but under the careful management of very able men, in different commissions which he appointed, such vigorous measures were pursued, that in five years, though engaged within that time in war with the greatest naval power in Europe, the fleet was increased to 150 sail, of which more than a third part had two decks; and many of which were captured from the Dutch; and upwards of 20,000 seamen were employed in the navy. Our military marine was, indeed, raised by Cromwell to a height which it had never

before reached; but from which it soon declined under the short and feeble administration of his son.

Though Cromwell found the navy divided into six rates or classes, it was under his government that these ratings were defined and established in the manner nearly in which they now are; and it may also be remarked, that, under his government, the first frigate, called the Constant Warwick, was built in England. "She was built," says Mr. Pepys, "in 1649, by Mr. Peter Pett (son of Phineas), for a privateer for the Earl of Warwick, and was sold by him to the state. Mr. Pett took his model of this ship from a French frigate, which he had seen in the Thames."

During the first period of our naval history, we know nothing of the nature of the armament of the ships. From the time of Edward III., they might have been armed with cannon, but no mention is made of this being the case. According to Lord Herbert, brass ordnance were first cast in England in the year 1535. They had various names, such as cannon, demi-cannon, culverins, demi-culverins, sakers, mynions, falcons, falconets, &c. What the calibre of each of these were is not accurately known, but the cannon is supposed to have been about 60 pounders, the demi-cannon 32, the culverin 18, falcon 2, mynion 4, saker 5, &c. Many of these pieces, of different calibres, were mounted on the same deck, which must have occasioned great confusion in action in finding for each its proper shot.

On the Restoration of Charles II. the Duke of York was immediately appointed Lord High Admiral; and by his advice, a committee was named to consider a plan, proposed by himself, for the future regulation of the affairs of the navy, at which the Duke himself presided. By the advice and able assistance of Mr. Pepys, great progress was speedily made in the reparation and increase of the fleet. The Duke remained Lord High Admiral till 1673, when, in consequence of the test required by Parliament, to which he could not submit, he resigned, and that office was in part put in commission, and the rest retained by the King. Prince Rupert was put at the head of this commission, and Mr. Pepys appointed Secretary to the King in all naval affairs, and of the admiralty; and by his able and judicious management, there were in sea-pay, in the year 1679, and in excellent condition, 76 ships of the line, all furnished with stores for six months, eight fire-ships, besides a numerous train of ketches, smacks, yachts, &c., with more than 12,000 seamen; and also 30 new ships building, and a good supply of stores in the dock-yards. But this flourishing condition of the navy did not last long. In consequence of the dissipation of the King, and his pecuniary difficulties, he neglected the navy on account of the expenses; the Duke was sent abroad, and Mr. Pepys to the Tower. A new set of commissioners were appointed, without experience, ability, or industry; and the consequence was, as stated by the commissioners of revision, that "all the wise regulations, formed during the administration of the Duke of York, were neglected; and such supineness and waste appear to have prevailed, that, at the end of not more than five years, when he was recalled to the office of Lord High Admiral, only 22 ships, none larger than a fourth rate, with two fire ships, were at sea; those in harbour were quite unfit for service; even the 30 new ships which he had left building had been suffered to fall into a state of great decay, and hardly any stores were found to remain in the dock yards."

The first act on the Duke's return was the re-appointment of Mr. Pepys as secretary of the admiralty. Finding the present commissioners unequal to the duties required of them, he recommended others. Sir Anthony Dean, the most experienced of the ship-builders then in England, was joined with the new commissioners. To him, it has been said, we owe the first essential improvement in the form and qualities of ships of the line, having taken the model of the *Superbe*, a French ship of 74 guns, which anchored at Spithead, and from which he built the *Harwich* in 1664. Others, however, are of opinion that no improvement had at this time been made on the model of the *Sovereign* of the seas after she was cut down. The new commissioners under-

took,

took, in three years, to complete the repair of the fleet, and furnish the dock-yards with a proper supply of stores, on an estimate of 400,000*l.* a year, to be issued in weekly payments; and in two years and a half they finished their task, to the satisfaction of the King and the whole nation; the number of ships repaired and under repair being 108 sail of the line, besides a considerable number of vessels of smaller size. The same year the King abdicated the throne, at which time the list of the navy amounted to 173 sail, containing 101,892 tons, carrying 6930 guns, and 42,000 seamen.

The naval regulations were wisely left unaltered at the Revolution, and the business of the Admiralty continued to be carried on chiefly, for some time, under the immediate direction of King William, by Mr. Pepys, till the arrival of Admiral Herbert and Captain Russel from the fleet, into whose hands, he says, "he silently let it fall." Upon the general principles of that system, thus established with his aid by the Duke of York, the civil government of our navy has ever since been carried on.

In the second year of King William (1690), no less than 30 ships were ordered to be built, of 60, 70, and 80 guns each; and in 1697, the king, in his speech to Parliament, stated that the naval force of the kingdom was increased to nearly double what he found it at his accession. It was now partly composed of various classes of French ships which had been captured in the course of the war, amounting in number to more than 60, and in guns to 2300; the losses by storms and captures on our side being about half the tonnage and half the guns we had acquired. At the commencement of this reign, the navy, as we have stated, consisted of 173 ships, measuring 101,892 tons; at his death, it had been extended to 272 ships, measuring 159,020 tons, being an increase of 99 ships and 57,128 tons, or more than one-half both in number and in tonnage.

The accession of Queen Anne was immediately followed by a war with France and Spain, and in the second year of her reign, she had the misfortune of losing a vast number of her ships by one of the most tremendous storms that was ever known; but every energy was used to repair this national calamity. In an address to the House of Lords in March 1707, it is declared as "a most undoubted maxim, that the honour, security and wealth of this kingdom does depend upon the protection and encouragement of trade, and the improving and right encouraging its naval strength . . . therefore, we do in the most earnest manner beseech your Majesty, that the sea-affairs may always be your first and most peculiar care." In the course of this war were taken or destroyed about 50 ships of war, mounting 3000 cannon; and we lost about half the number. At the death of the queen, in 1714, the list of the navy was reduced in number 247 ships, measuring 167,219 tons, being an increase in tonnage of 8199 tons.

George I. left the navy pretty nearly in the same state he found it. At his death, in 1727, the list consisted of 233 ships, measuring 170,862 tons, being a decrease in number of 14, but an increase in tonnage of 3643 tons.

George II. was engaged in a war with Spain in 1739, in consequence of which the size of our ships of the line ordered to be built was considerably increased. In 1744, France declared against us; but on the restoration of peace in 1748, it was found that our naval strength had prodigiously increased. Our loss had been little or nothing, whilst we had taken and destroyed of the French 20, and of the Spanish 15 sail of the line, besides smaller vessels. The war with France of 1755 added considerably to the list, so that, at the king's decease in 1760, it consisted of 412 ships, measuring 321,104 tons.

In the short war of 1762, George III. added no less than 20 sail of the line to our navy. At the conclusion of the American war, in 1782, the list of the navy was increased to 600 sail; and at the signing of the preliminaries in 1783, it amounted to 617 sail, measuring upwards of 500,000 tons; being an increase of 185 ships and 157,000 tons and upwards since the year 1762. At the peace of Amiens, the list of the fleet amounted to upwards of 700 sail, of which

144 were of the line. The number taken from the enemy, or destroyed, amounted nearly to 600, of which 90 were of the line, including 50 gun ships, and upwards of 200 were frigates; and our loss amounted to about 60, of which 6 were of the line, and 12 frigates.

The recommencement and long continuance of the revolutionary war, and the glorious successes of our naval actions, the protection required for our extended commerce, of which, in fact, we might be said to enjoy a monopoly, and for the security of our numerous colonies, contributed to raise the British navy to a magnitude to which the accumulated navies of the whole world bore but a small proportion. From 1808 to 1813, there were seldom less than from 100 to 106 sail of the line in commission, and from 130 to 160 frigates, and upwards of 200 sloops, besides bombs, gun-brigs, cutters, schooners, &c., amounting in the whole to about 500 sail of effective ships and vessels; to which may be added 500 more in the ordinary, and as prison, hospital and receiving ships; making at least 1000 pendants, and measuring from 800,000 to 900,000 tons. The commissioners appointed to inquire into the state and condition of the woods, forests and land revenues of the Crown, state in their report to Parliament, in the year 1792, that "at the accession of his Majesty (George III.) to the throne, the tonnage of the royal navy was 321,104 tons, and at the end of the year 1788, it had risen to no less than 413,467 tons." In 1808 it had amounted to the enormous extent of 800,000 tons, having nearly doubled itself in twenty years.

It must not, however, be supposed that the effective navy consisted of more than half this amount of tonnage. Since the conclusion of the war, it would appear that at least one-half of the number of ships then in existence have been sold or broken up as unfit for the service; and as, by the list of the navy at the beginning of the year 1821, the number of ships and vessels of every description in commission, in ordinary, building, repairing, and ordered to be built, has been reduced to 609 sail, we may take the greatest extent of the present tonnage at 500,000 tons; but the greatest part, if not the whole, of this tonnage may be considered as efficient, or in a state of progressive efficiency.

According to the printed list of the 1st January 1821, the 609 sail of ships and vessels appear to be as under:—

	No.
1st Rates from 120 to 100 guns	23
2d Rates — 86 — 80 do. . . .	16
3d Rates — 78 — 74 do. . . .	90
4th Rates — 60 — 50 do. . . .	20
5th Rates — 48 — 22 do. . . .	107
6th Rates — 34 — 24 do. . . .	40
Sloops — 22 — 10 do. . . .	136

Making a total of 432

To which being added gun-brigs, cutters, schooners, tenders, bombs, troop-ships, store-ships, yachts, &c. 177

Grand total 609

The increase in the size of our ships of war was unavoidable. France and Spain increased theirs, and we were compelled, in order to meet them on fair terms, to increase the dimensions of ours; many of theirs were, besides, added to the list of our navy.

The following sketch will show the progressive rate at which ships of the first rate, or of 100 guns and upwards, were enlarged in their dimensions.

In 1677, the first rates were from 1500 to 1600 tons. In 1720, they were increased to 1800 tons. In 1745, we find them advanced to 2000 tons. During the American war they were raised to 2000 tons. In 1795, the Ville de Paris, of 110 guns, measured 2350 tons. In 1804, the Hibernia, of 110 guns, was extended to 2500 tons; and in 1808, the Caledonia, carrying 120 guns, measured 2616 tons, and here we stopped.

SHIPPINGPORT, a village of the United States, in Jefferson county, Kentucky, on the Ohio, 2 miles below Louisville. Here are a ship-yard, rope-walk, and a flour-mill. It is the landing-place for all goods ascending the rivers to Kentucky, and also for such goods as are intended for the country above the falls. After descending the rapids, boats generally put in at this place to procure supplies.

SHIPPON, or **SHIPSTON**, a hamlet of England, in Berkshire, adjacent to Abingdon.

SHIP-SHAPE, in Sea Language, denotes the fashion of a ship, or the manner of an expert sailor: thus, they say, the mast is not rigged *ship-shape*, and trim your sails *ship-shape*.

SHIPSTON, or **SHIPSTON-UPON-STOUR**, a market town of England, in the county of Worcester, situated on the river Stour, in a detached part of the county. Though the neighbouring district is much improved and well cultivated, yet the town cannot boast much of its appearance, containing a great number of small, poor looking houses, and the streets being badly paved. The name is derived from its being formerly noted as one of the greatest sheep markets in the kingdom. At present the town has no trade of any consequence; its manufactory of shags is on the decline, but it has a large market on Friday. Population 1377; 11 miles south-south-west of Stratford-upon-Avon, and 83 north-west of London.

SHIPTON, a hamlet of England, in Buckinghamshire, adjacent to Winslow.

SHIPTON, a parish of England, in Salop; 7 miles south-west of Much Wenlock.

SHIPTON, or **SHIPTON BELLINGER**, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 9 miles west-by-north of Andover.

SHIPTON, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, near Market Weighton.

SHIPTON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles north-west of York.

SHIPTON, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham. Population 1000.

SHIPTON CLIFF, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 6 miles north-west of North Leach.

SHIPTON MOYNE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2½ miles south-by-west of Tetbury.

SHIPTON-UPON-CHARWELL, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 2 miles east of Woodstock.

SHIPTON-LEE, or **LEE-GRANGE**, a hamlet of England; 5½ miles south-west of Winslow.

SHIPTON SOLERS, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 5½ miles north-west of North Leach.

SHIPTON-UNDER-WICHWOOD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 4 miles from Burford. Population 395.

SHIPWRECK, *s.* The destruction of ships by rocks or shelves.

Bold were the men, which on the ocean first
Spread their new sails, when *shipwreck* was the worst.

Waller.

The parts of a shattered ship.—They might have it in their own country, and that by gathering up the *shipwrecks* of the Athenian and Roman theatres. *Dryden*.—Destruction; miscarriage.—Holding faith and a good conscience, which some having put away, concerning faith, have made *shipwreck*. *1 Tim.*

To **SHIPWRECK**, *v. a.* To destroy by dashing on rocks or shallows.

Whence the sun 'gins his reflection,
Shipwrecking storms and direful thunders break.

Shakspeare.

To make to suffer the dangers of a wreck.
Thou that can'st still the raging of the seas,
Chain up the winds, and bid the tempests cease,
Redeem my *shipwreck'd* soul from raging gusts
Of cruel passion and deceitful lusts.

Prior.

To throw by loss of the vessel.
Vol. XXIII. No. 1561.

Shipwreck'd upon a kingdom, where no pity,
No friends, no hope! no kindred weep for me. *Shakspeare.*

SHIPWRIGHT, *s.* A builder of ships.

As when a *shipwright* stands his workmen o'er,
Who ply the wimble some huge beam to bore,
Urg'd on all hands it nimbly spins about,
The grain deep piercing, till it scoops it out.

Pope.

SHIRA, a small river of Scotland, in Argyleshire, which rises in the mountains behind Inverary, and, after forming a small deep lake, called Loch Dubb, falls into Loch Fyne, near the town of Inverary. The Shira gives the name of Glenshira to the district through which it runs.

SHIRAS, a great city of Persia, capital of the province of Fars, and at several periods of the whole empire. Although, however, the Persian historians refer its origin to a high antiquity, there seems no satisfactory evidence of its possessing at least any importance before the establishment of the Mahometan power. It presents in fact no ruins similar to those of Persepolis, Shapour and Susa, to attest its ancient greatness. Under the dynasty of the Abbassides, it shared with Ispahan the residence of the sovereign; and the city, as well as the country round, were studiously improved and embellished. After the overthrow of the power of the caliphs, and the accession of the Turkish dynasty of Seljuck, Shiras fell into the possession of a petty dynasty of Attabegs. It was afterwards ruled by four princes of the Mozaffar family, who were driven out by one of the sons of Timur. Shiras continued to share in the perpetual revolutions of the Persian empire, and suffered particularly by the invasion of the Afghans; but it revived under Kurreem Khan, who, during his reign of 22 years, made it the seat of his empire, and not only fortified, but embellished it with a great variety of public buildings. In the dreadful civil wars which followed his death, Shiras not only suffered neglect, but was taken by Aga Mahommed, who levelled all its fortifications to the ground, leaving only a mud wall for the defence of the city.

The environs of Shiras are described as almost unrivalled in point of beauty and fertility. They are laid out to a great extent in magnificent gardens, the flowers and fruits of which form a favourite theme of eastern poetry. Hafiz, the Anacreon of the East, was a native of Shiras, and composed most of his productions in these delightful retreats. He is buried in a small garden, about half a mile from the town, and a tomb has been erected to him by Kurreem Khan, consisting merely of a block of white marble in the form of a tomb, on which are inscribed two of his poems, and the date of his death. His works are not, as has been stated, chained to the tomb; but a splendid copy of them is always kept in an adjoining house. Near this spot is the garden of Jehan Nama, the most beautiful in the neighbourhood of this place, and known in the time of Kurreem, by the title of the Vakeel's garden. Adjoining are the stream of Racknabad, and the bower of Mossella, so celebrated in the verses of the poet; the former consisting merely of a small rivulet of the clearest water, not more than two feet wide; while of the bower not a shrub now remains, and its site is only marked by the ruins of an ancient tower. The appearance of Shiras, seen amid this beautiful scenery, is rather pleasing than grand. The lofty domes of the mosques, discovered from afar amid the trees, diversify and enrich the view. The internal aspect of the place presents a striking contrast, usually observed in oriental cities, particularly those of Persia. The narrow, winding and dirty streets, and the paltry houses, excite no idea answering to the second city of Persia, and one of the most celebrated in the east. Its magnificence consists solely in a few public buildings, of which the most remarkable is the great bazar, or market-place, built by Kurreem Khan. It is in length about a quarter of a mile, made of yellow burnt brick, and arched at the top, having numerous skylights, which, with its doors and windows, always admit sufficient light and air, whilst the sun and rain are completely excluded. This

bazar is allotted to the different traders of the city, all of whom have their assigned quarters, which they possess under strict regulations. The ark, or citadel, which forms the residence of the governor, is a fortified square, of eighty yards. The royal palace within is far from being an elegant structure; and some pillars, which were its greatest ornament, were removed by Aga Mahommed, to adorn his palace at Jehraun. Shiras still boasts a population of 40,000, and carries on an extensive commerce, which, during the tranquillity of the last few years, has greatly increased. It consists chiefly in receiving from Bushire the spices and cotton goods of India, and transmitting them to Ispahan and Yezd. The sides also of the hills which bound the plain of Shiras, produce a wine which has the highest reputation of any in Persia, or even in the east. Lat. 29. 36. N. long. 52. 44. E.

SHIRAVERT, a village of Ghilan; 30 miles south of Astara.

SHIRBEY, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo; 15 miles east of Aleppo.

SHIRBORN, a small river of England, in Warwickshire, which runs into the Sow at Whitby.

SHIRBORNE, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 4 miles south-by-east of Tetsworth.

SHIRCOAT, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, adjoining to Halifax. Population 2823.

SHIRE, *s.* [сиръ, from сѣпан, to divide, Sax.] A division of the kingdom; a county; so much of the kingdom as is under one sheriff.

His blazing eyes, like two bright shining shields,
Did burn with wrath, and sparkled living fire;

As two broad beacons, set in open fields,
Send forth their flames far off to every shire. *Spenser.*

SHIREBURN. See *SHERBORNE*.

SHIRE-CLERK, he that keeps the county court; and his office is so incident to that of the sheriff, that the king cannot grant it away.

SHIREHAMPTON, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; 5 miles north-west of Bristol.

SHIRE-MAN was anciently the judge of the shire, by whom trials for land, &c. were determined.

SHIREMOT, *s.* [сиръ-мотъ, Sax. See *MOTE*.] Anciently a county court; a meeting of the persons of the county on an extraordinary occasion.—If the matter was of great importance, it was put in the full *shiremote*; and if the general voice acquitted or condemned, this was final in the cause. *Burke*.

SHIRENEWTON, a village and parish of England, in Monmouthshire; 4½ miles west of Chepstow. Population of the parish, 622.

SHIRE-REVE. See *SHERIFF*.

To SHIRK, *v. n.* To shark; to practise mean or artful tricks. See *To SHARK*. *Sherking*, an eager desire to cheat another. *Exm.* Dialect. *Grose*.—*Sherking* and raking in the tobacco-shops. *Harbottle Grimstone*.

To SHIRK, *v. a.* To procure by mean tricks; to steal.—Tell me, you that never heard the call of any vocation, that are free of no other company than your idle companions, that *shirke* living from others, but time from yourselves; tell me, may it not be said of idleness, as of envy, that it is its own scourge? *Bp. Rainbow*.—To avoid: a modern and vulgar colloquial term.

SHIRL, *adj.* Shrill. *Huloet*. See *SHRILL*. The *shirl-cock* is the Derbyshire word for the throstle or song-thrush *Pegge*.

SHIRLAND, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 2½ miles north-by-west of Alfreton. Population 1197.

SHIRLEY (Anthony), a celebrated traveller, was born in 1565. He studied at Oxford, where he took his bachelor's degree in 1581, after which he joined the English troops, which, at that time, were serving in Holland. In 1596 he was one of the adventurers who went to annoy the Spaniards in their settlements in the West Indies, and on his return he

was knighted. After this he was sent by the queen into Italy in order to assist the people of Ferrara in their contest with the pope: before, however, he arrived, all the disputes were accommodated, and peace was signed; he accordingly proceeded to Venice, and travelled from thence to Persia, where he came in great favour with Shah Abbas, by whom he was sent ambassador to England in 1612. By the Emperor of Germany he was raised to the dignity of Count, and by the king of Spain he was appointed admiral of the Levant seas. He died in Spain about the year 1630. There is an account of his West Indian expedition in the third volume of Hacluyt's Collection, under the following title: A true Relation of the Voyage undertaken by Sir Anthony Shirley, Knight, in 1596, intended for the Island San Tome, but performed to St. Jago, Dominica, Margarita, along the Coast of Terra Firma to the Isle of Jamaica, the Bay of Honduras. Thirty Leagues up Rio Dolce, and homewards by Newfoundland, with the memorable exploits achieved in all this Voyage." His travels into Persia are printed separately, and were published in London in 1613; and his travels over the Caspian Sea, and through Russia, were inserted in Purchas's Pilgrimages.

SHIRLEY (James), a poet and dramatic writer, was born in London about the year 1594. He received the early part of his education at Merchant Taylors' School, from which place he was removed to Oxford. He was, on account of his talents, patronized by Dr. Laud, who, however, would not consent to his taking orders, by reason of his being disfigured by a large mole on his cheek, which in his estimation according to the canons of the church, rendered him unfit to officiate in clerical duties. Shirley therefore left Oxford without a degree; but he afterwards removed to Cambridge, and meeting with no farther obstacle, he took orders, and obtained a curacy. His religious creed was not sufficiently settled, and he went over to the church of Rome, abandoned his cure, and opened a grammar-school at St. Alban's. After some time he deserted this employment, and became a writer for the stage. His productions were successful, and he acquired a reputation which caused him to be taken into the service of queen Henrietta-Maria. When the civil war broke out, he accompanied the earl of Newcastle in his campaigns, and also assisted him in the composition of several of his plays. On the ruin of the king's cause he came to London, and resumed his occupation of a school-master, in which he met with considerable encouragement, and he shewed his attention to the duties of his office, by publishing some works on grammar.

During the Commonwealth, theatrical amusements being suspended, Shirley had no room in which he could display his dramatic talents; but after the Restoration, several of his pieces appeared again on the stage. The death of this author is thus described: his house in Fleet-street being burnt in the great fire of London, in the year 1666, he was forced with his wife to retreat to the suburbs; in consequence of the loss and the alarm which this occasioned, both himself and wife died within a few hours of each other, and they were buried in the same grave.

Mr. Shirley was author of thirty-seven plays, consisting of tragedies and comedies, and of a volume of poems, published in 1646. He had the reputation of being the chief among the second-rate poets of his time, and though his works have disappeared from the stage, there are critics who think highly of them.

SHIRLEY, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 4½ miles north-east of Ashborne.

SHIRLEY, a post township of the United States, in Middlesex county, Massachusetts; 41 miles west-north-west of Boston. Population 814.—2d. Of Huntingdon county, Pennsylvania. Population 862.

SHIRLEYSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Huntingdon county, Pennsylvania.

SHIRT, *s.* [Mr. Horne Tooke asserts that *shirt* is the past participle of the Sax. сирпан, to shear, to divide. Junius and Skinner derive it from the Sax, rýpe (which Dr. Johnson has inaccurately

inaccurately given ρεῖπε,) whence our *sark*. But *shirt* is, undoubtedly, the Lat. *scyrta*, indusium.] The under linen garment of a man. *Dr. Johnson*.—And formerly, he might have added, of either sex.

When we lay next us what we hold most dear,
Like Hercules, envenom'd *shirts* we wear,
And cleaving mischiefs.

Dryden.

Several persons in December had nothing over their shoulders but their *shirts*.

Addison.

To *SHIRT*, *v. a.* To cover; to clothe as in a shirt.

Ah! for so many souls, as but this morn
Were cloath'd with flesh, and warm'd with vital blood,
But naked now, or *shirted* but with air.

Dryden.

SHIRTLESS, *adj.* Wanting a shirt.

Linsey-woolsey brothers,
Grave mummers! sleeveless some, and *shirtless* others.

Pope.

SHIRVAN, a province in the north of Persia, forming the largest and most important division of the southern Caucasus. It consists of a large triangular peninsula, the point of which stretches into the Caspian. In consequence of this form, it varies extremely in breadth, which, at the extremity of the peninsula, is scarcely 16 miles, while in the interior part it amounts to 160. It is bounded on the north and east by Georgia and Daghestan; on the south by the Kur, which separates it from Ghilan and Aderbijan. The northern part consists of an extensive plain, inclosed by the mountains that extend towards the sea near Derbend. Numerous streams from the mountains greatly contribute towards the fertility of this plain, at the same time that they render the passage of an army extremely difficult. They branch off in various directions, are uncommonly rapid, and being shallow, have a wide channel, with a rough and sandy bed. The plain is interspersed with small woods and clumps of bushes, and the villages are surrounded with orchards, vineyards, and plantations of mulberries. The second division of Shirvan extends from the coast to the plain watered by the Kur, and is bounded by a higher range of mountains, which run in a south-east course through the province. The higher districts are here the most fertile: the part towards the sea is barren and devoid of water, and to the north of Baku is a desert track of considerable extent. The plain along the Kur is about 140 miles in length, and from 40 to 50 in breadth. It is in a great degree surrounded with mountains, and being exposed to frequent inundation, is greatly overgrown with rushes. The most elevated track in Shirvan is that which extends towards Lesghistan. It varies much in breadth, and is intersected by narrow valleys, in many of which are small lakes, which continue filled, even in the greatest heat of summer. Shirvan may in general be esteemed a fertile country, being watered by numberless rivers, some of which fall into the Khur, and others into the Caspian. The most considerable are the Samur, Deli, Sagaite, and Persagat. This province was annexed to the Persian empire in 1500, by Shah Ismael the First, and continued subject till the decline of the Sefi dynasty, when the native princes, taking advantage of the weakness of Persia, re-established their independence. Recently, however, the Russians have obtained possession of all the sea-coast, though the interior remains in the hands of the chiefs of Lesghistan. The principal towns are Schamachi and Baku.

SHISDRA, a small town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Kaluga, on the river Shisdra, which joins the Oka. Population 1900; 77 miles south-west of Kaluga.

SHITAKOONTHA, a name of the Hindoo deity Siva. It means the blue-throated; the fable stating that he had swallowed poison in despair.

SHITTLINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 7 miles from Hexham.

SHITTLINGTON, a township of England, West Riding

of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-west of Wakefield. Population 1410.

SHITTAH, or *SHITTIM*, *s.* A sort of precious wood, of which Moses made the greatest part of the tables, altars, and planks belonging to the tabernacle. The wood is hard, tough, smooth, without knots, and extremely beautiful. It grows in Arabia. *Calmet*.—I will plant in the wilderness the *shittah*-tree. *Isa*.—Bring me an offering of badgers' skins and *shittim*-wood. *Exodus*.

SHITTEN BAY, a bay on the west coast of the island of St. Christopher.

SHITTERTON, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire, near Wareham, in the neighbourhood of which is an obelisk, and various remains of a Roman encampment.

SHITTLE, *adj.* [probably from the Germ. *schütteln*, to shake.] Wavering; unsettled: as a *shittle*-headed or *shittle*-brained person, which Sherwood gives in his dictionary and which Cotgrave explains by *light*-headed and *giddy*-headed.

We passe not what the people say or thinke:
Their *shittle* hate makes none but cowards shrinke. *Mir*.

SHITTLECOCK, *s.* [from *schütteln*, Germ., to shake; and called a cock from its feathers, or perhaps softened by frequent and rapid utterance from *cork* to *cock*.] A cork stuck with feathers, and driven by players from one to another with battledoors.—You need not discharge a cannon to break the chain of his thoughts: the pat of a *shittlecock*, or the creaking of a jack, will do his business. *Collier*.

SHITTLENESS, *s.* Unsettledness; inconstancy; lightness.—The vain *shittleness* of an unconstant head. *Barret*.

SHIVE, *s.* [*schyf*, Dutch, a round slice, *schyven*, plur. Our word was anciently *sheeve*: and it may be referred to the Sax. *ƿearpan*, to shave, whence *ƿearþa*, segmen, assula.] A slice of bread.—A *sheeve* of bread as brown as nut. *Warner*.

Easy it is
Of a cut loaf to steal a *shive*. *Titus Andronicus*.

A thick splinter or lamina cut off from the main substance.—Shavings made by the plain are in some things differing from those *shives*, or thin and flexible pieces of wood, that are obtained by borers. *Boyle*.

To *SHIVER*, *v. n.* To fall at once into many parts or shives.

Had'st thou been aught but gossamer, feathers, air,
So many fathom down precipitating,
Thoud'st *shiver'd* like an egg. *Shakspeare*.

To *SHIVER*, *v. a.* To break by one act into many parts; to shatter.—The ground with *shiver'd* armour strown. *Milton*.

Showers of granado's rain, by sudden burst
Disploding murderous bowels; fragments of steel
A thousand ways at once, the *shiver'd* orbs
Fly diverse, working torment. *Philips*.

To *SHIVER*, *v. n.* [Icel. *skeftur*, concussion; Germ. *schauren*, tremere. *Serenius*.] To quake; to tremble; to shudder, as with cold or fear.—Why stand we longer *shivering* under fear. *Milton*.

The man that *shiver'd* on the brink of sin,
Thus steel'd and harden'd, ventures boldly in. *Dryden*.

SHIVER, *s.* One fragment of many into which any thing is broken.

As brittle as the glory is the face;
For there it is crack'd in an hundred *shivers*. *Shakspeare*.

A thin slice; a little piece.—Of your white bread a *shiver*. *Chaucer*.—The mote [is] a small thin *shiver* of wood. *Hammond*.—A shaking fit; a tremor; a spindle. *Hist*.—In naval language a wheel fixed in a channel or block.

SHIVERING, *s.* Act of trembling.—Panic fears and *shiverings* oftentimes attend bloodguilty men, as long as they live. *Goodman*.—Division; dismemberment.—Upon the

the breaking and *shivering* of a great state, you may be sure to have wars. *Bacon.*

SHIVERS, in a Ship, the seamen's term for those little round wheels in which the rope of a pulley or block runs.—In *Rope-making*, the foul particles taken from the hemp, when hatchelling.

SHIVERY, *adj.* Loose of coherence; incompact; easily falling into many fragments.—There were observed incredible numbers of these shells thus flattened, and extremely tender, in *shivery* stone. *Woodward.*

SHOA, a province in the southern extremity of Abyssinia, having Ambara on the north, and Efat on the east. It is fertile, and furnishes a great body of cavalry, equally brave and well equipped. This province was at one time the royal residence, and contains Tegulet, the ancient capital. At the present moment, Shoa and Efat form a kingdom, still under the government of an Abyssinian prince, while the Galla occupy all the surrounding countries, including Gondar, the capital.

SHOAD, in Mining, a term for a train of metalline stones mixed with earth, sometimes lying near the surface, sometimes at considerable depths, but always serving to the miners as a proof that the load or vein of the metal is thereabout. The deeper the shoad lies, the nearer is the vein.

SHOADSTONE, *s.* *Shoadstone* is a small stone, smooth without, of a dark liver colour, and of the same colour within, only with the addition of a faint purple. It is a fragment broke off an iron vein. *Woodward.*—The loads or veins of metal were by this action of the departing water made easy to be found out by the *shoads*, or trains of metallic fragments borne off from them, and lying in trains from those veins towards the sea, in the same course that water falling thence would take. *Woodward.*

SHOAD-STONES, a term used by miners, to express such loose masses of stone, as are usually found about the entrances into mines.

SHOAL, *s.* [*iceole*, Sax., a multitude.] A croud; a great multitude; a throng.

Around the goddess roll
Broad hats, and hoods, and caps, a sable *shoal*,
Thick, and more thick the black blockade extends. *Pope.*

A shallow; a sand-bank. [a contraction of *shallow*.] The haven's mouth they durst not enter, for the dangerous *shoals*. *Abbot.*

To **SHOAL**, *v. n.* To croud; to throng.—The wave-sprung entrails, about which fauns and fish did *shole*. *Chapman.*—To be shallow; to grow shallow.

What they met
Solid or slimy, as in raging sea,
Tost up and down, together crouded drove,
From each side *shoaling* towards the mouth of hell. *Milton.*

SHOAL, *adj.* Shallow; obstructed or incumbered with banks. Applied by Spenser to one of his personified rivers.

Molanna, were she not so *shole*,
Were no less faire and beautiful than she. *Spenser.*

SHOAL BAY, a bay on the east coast of New Holland, in lat. 29. 26½. S.

SHOAL CREEK, a river of the United States, in Illinois, which has a course south-by-west of about 70 miles, and joins the Kaskaskia, in lat. 38. 27. N. It is a fine and rapid stream, and is navigable for boats about 30 miles.

SHOAL INLET, a channel of the United States, between two small islands, on the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 34. 5. N. long. 77. 58. W.

SHOALINESS, *s.* Shallowness; frequency of shallow places.

SHOALNESS, a low point on the west coast of North America: Captain Cook, who met with several of the natives on this coast, thus describes their character and manners:—"While we lay here, 27 men of the country, each in a canoe, came off to the ships, which they approached with great caution, hallooing and opening their arms as

they advanced. This, we understand, was to express their pacific intentions. At length some approached near enough to receive a few trifles that were thrown to them. This brought on a traffic between them and our people, who got dresses of skins, bows, arrows, darts, wooden vessels, &c.; our visitors taking in exchange whatever was offered them. They seemed to be the same kind of people that we had lately met with along this coast; wore the same ornaments in their lips and noses, but were far more dirty, and not so well clothed. They appeared to be wholly unacquainted with people like us; knew not even the use of tobacco; nor was any foreign article seen in their possession, unless a knife may be considered as such. This indeed was no more than a piece of common iron fitted into a wooden handle. They however knew the value and use of this instrument so well, that it seemed to be the only article they wished for. Most of them had their hair shaved or cut short off, leaving only a few locks behind, or on one side. As a covering for the head they wore a hood of skins, and a bonnet apparently of wood. One part of their dress was a kind of girdle, very neatly made of skin, with trappings depending from it, and passing between the legs, so as to conceal the adjoining parts. By the use of such a girdle, it should seem that they sometimes go naked, even in this high latitude, for they hardly wear it under their own clothing. The canoes were made of skins, like all the others we had lately seen; except that these were broader, and the hole in which the man sits was wider than in any I had before met with." Lat. 60. N. long. 198. 12. E.

SHOALS, ISLES OF, or SMITH'S ISLANDS, seven islands on the coast of New Hampshire; 11 miles south-east of Portsmouth. Lat. 42. 59. N. long. 70. 33. W. Staten island, on which is the town of Gosport, belongs to New Hampshire; the rest belong to Maine. They are inhabited by about 100 fishermen.

SHOAL-WATER BAY, a bay on the east coast of New Holland, visited by Capt. Flinders in 1802, who mentions that it offers no advantages to ships which may not be had on any other part of the coast, except that the tides rise higher, and that in the winter season fish are more plentiful than farther to the south. Long. of Aken's Island, situated at its entrance, 150. 15. E. Lat. 22. 21. 35. S.

SHOAL-WATER BAY, a bay on the west coast of North America. Lat. 46. 50. N. long. 124. 10. W.

SHOAL-WATER CAPE, a high and bluff headland on the north-west coast of North America, so called by Captain Mears. Lat. 46. 47. N. long. 235. 11. E.

SHOALY, *adj.* Full of shoals; full of shallow places.

The watchful hero felt the knocks, and found
The tossing vessel sail'd on *shoaly* ground. *Dryden.*

SHOBA, a town of Darfur, in Central Africa; 42 miles west-south-west of Cobbe.

SHOBDON, a village and parish of England, in the county of Hereford. The church here has been elegantly rebuilt at the expense of Lord Viscount Bateman, who has an elegant seat in the neighbourhood, called Shobdon Court. Population 501; 8 miles from Leominster.

SHOBROOKE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 2 miles east-north-east of Crediton. Population 724.

SHOBURY, NORTH and SOUTH, two villages of England, in Essex, near the mouth of the Thames, and opposite the buoy of the Nore. South Shobury is situated on a point of land called Shobury Ness; 2½ miles from the rising village of Southend. It contains only about 200 inhabitants, but it is recorded to have been anciently a town of some consequence, and many remains of Danish intrenchments are still visible.

SHOCCOE SPRINGS, mineral springs in the United States, in Warren county, North Carolina, which are much resorted to.

SHOCHIE, a small river of Scotland, in the county of Perth, which falls into the Tay at Luncartie.

SHOCK, *s.* [*choc*, old Fr. as our word was also sometimes written. See *ШОК*. The Teut. word is *schock*, *con-*
cusus.]

cussus.] Conflict; mutual impression of violence; violent concourse.

Through the *shock*
Of fighting elements on all sides round
Environ'd, wins his way.

Milton.

Concussion; external violence.

Such is the haughty man, his towering soul,
'Midst all the *shocks* and injuries of fortune,
Rises superior and looks down on Cæsar.

Addison.

The conflict of enemies.

The adverse legions, not less hideous join'd
The horrid *shock*.

Milton.

Offence; impression of disgust.—Fewer *shocks* a statesman gives his friend. *Young*.—[*shockc*, Teut. strues.] A pile of sheaves on corn.

Behind the master walks, builds up the *shocks*,
Feels his heart heave with joy.

Thomson.

[From *shag*.] A rough dog.—I would fain know why a *shock* and a hound are not distinct species. *Locke*.

To *SHOCK*, *v. a.* [Sax. *ſceacan*; Germ. *schocken*: Fr. *chocquer*.] To shake by violence; to meet force with force; to encounter.

These her princes are come home again:
Come the three corners of the world in arms,
And we will *shock* them.

Shakspeare.

To offend; to disgust.

My son,

I bade him love, and bid him now forbear:
If you have any kindness for him, still
Advise him not to *shock* a father's will.

Dryden.

To *SHOCK*, *v. n.* To meet with hostile violence.

And now with shouts the *shocking* armies clos'd,
To lances lances, shields to shields oppos'd;
Commuted death the fate of war confounds,
Each adverse battle gor'd with equal wounds.

Pope.

To be offensive.—The French humour, in regard of the liberties they take in female conversations, is very *shocking* to the Italians, who are naturally jealous. *Addison*.

To *SHOCK*, *v. n.* To build up piles of sheaves.

Reap well, scatter not, gather clean that is shorn,
Bind fast, *shock* apace, have an eye to thy corn. *Tusser*.

SHOCKINGLY, *adv.* So as to disgust; offensively.—It would be *shockingly* ill-bred in that company; and indeed not extremely well bred in any other. *Ld. Chesterfield*.—In my opinion, the shortness of a triennial sitting would have the following ill effects; it would make the member more shamelessly and *shockingly* corrupt; it would increase his dependence on those who could best support him at his election; it would wrack and tear to pieces the fortunes of those who stood upon their own fortunes and their private interests; it would make the electors infinitely more venal; and it would make the whole body of the people who are, whether they have votes or not, concerned in elections, more lawless, more idle, more debauched: it would utterly destroy the sobriety, the industry, the integrity, the simplicity of all the people; and undermine, I am much afraid, the deepest and best laid foundations of the commonwealth. *Burke*.

SHOCKLACH CHURCH, a village of England, county of Chester; 13½ miles south-by-east of Chester.

SHOCKLACH OVIAT, a village in the above county; 1 mile south-by-east of the foregoing.

SHOD, for *shoed*, the preterite and participle passive of *To shoe*.—Strong axle-treed cart that is clouted and *shod*. *Tusser*.

SHOE, *s.* plural *shoes*, anciently *shoan*. [ſco, Sax. *schu*, Germ. *shohs*, M. Goth. "adjecto sibilo ad antiquissimo *hua*, *hya*, obtegere." *Stiernh. and Serenius*.] The word, therefore, to which *Stiernhielm* refers, is properly *skya*, to cover. But *Watcher* objects to this, as *skya* means to cover us with a shadow, from the Gr. *σκια*, a shadow;

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whereas a *shoe* is the apparel of the foot, Gr. *σκηνη*, indumentum; and he thinks that at first the word was *ſot-sko* (as *hand-schuh* then used for a glove,) and afterwards by aphæresis *ske*. The plural *shoon* is still used in the north of England.] The cover of the foot: of horses as well as men.—Your hose should be ungartered, your *shoe* untied, and every thing about you demonstrating a careless desolation. *Shakspeare*.

Pliny tells us (lib. vii. c. 56.) that one *Tychius*, of *Bœotia*, was the first who used shoes.

M. Nilant, in his remarks on *Baudoin*, observes that he quotes *Xenophon* wrongly, to shew that even in his time they still wore shoes of raw skins.

Xenophon relates, that the ten thousand Greeks, who had followed the young *Cyrus*, wanting shoes in their retreat, were forced to cover their feet with raw skins, which occasioned them great inconveniences.

Nilant will not even allow, that the shoes of the country people, called *carbatine*, and *peroncæ*, were of crude skin, without any preparation.

The patricians, among the Romans, wore an ivory crescent on their shoes: *Heliogabalus* had his shoes covered over with a very white linen, in conformity to the priests of the sun, for whom he professed a very high veneration: this kind of shoe was called *oidos*, *udo*, or *odo*. *Caligula* wore shoes enriched with precious stones. The Indians, like the Egyptians, wore shoes made of the bark of the papyrus.

A patent for making shoes, by rivetting instead of sewing was taken out in 1809 by Mr. David Mead *Randolf*, an American. The *last* which is used for this method, has the lower part or sole covered with a plate of iron or steel, about the same thickness as a stout sole leather. The making of the shoe is conducted in the usual manner, until it is ready for putting on the last. To do this, the inner sole is put upon the iron sole of the last; then the upper leathers are put upon the opposite part, and the edges of the leather are turned down over the edges of the inner sole: the outer sole is then applied over the turning down, and fastened in a temporary manner upon the last. Now, to unite the two soles to the upper-leathers, holes are pierced all round the edges of the sole, and small nails are driven in, which are of sufficient length to penetrate through the sole and the turning-in of the upper-leathers, and also through the inner sole, so as to reach the metal face of the last, and being forcibly driven, their points will be turned by the iron, so as to clench withinside, or rive through the leather, and serve instead of the sewing or stitching commonly employed to unite the sole to the upper-leathers.

Mr. *Brunel* has invented machines for making shoes. He has established at *Battersea* an extensive manufactory of shoes, chiefly intended to supply the army, where all the operations are performed by the aid of machines, which act with such facility, that they can be managed by the invalid soldiers of *Chelsea Hospital*, who are the only workmen employed, the most of them disabled by wounds, or the loss of their legs, from any other employment.

The shoes made by these machines are different from the common shoes, in the circumstance of the sole being united to the upper-leathers by a number of small rivets instead of sewing, in the same manner as those we have mentioned of *Randolf's*. The leather is cut out by stamps, and is hardened by passing it between rollers, to produce the same effect as hammering does in the ordinary method of shoe-making, and all the other processes are subjected to the operations of machinery.

To *SHOE*, *v. a.* preterite *I shod*; participle passive *shod*. To fit the foot with a shoe: used commonly of horses.—He doth nothing but talk of his horse; and makes it a great appropriation to his own good parts, that he can *shoe* him himself. *Shakspeare*.—To cover the bottom.

The wheel compos'd of crickets' bones,
And daintly made for the nonce,
For fear of rattling on the stones,
With thistle down they *shod* it.

Drayton.

SHOE, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Waygoo. Lat. 0. 1. S. long. 130. 53. E.

SHOE/BLACK, *s.* One who cleans shoes. Dr. Johnson calls such an one a *shoeblicker*.

SHOE/BOY, *s.* A boy that cleans shoes.—If I employ a *shoeboy*, is it in view to his advantage, or my own convenience? *Swift*.

SHOE/ING-HORN, *s.* A horn used to facilitate the admission of the foot into a narrow shoe; any thing by which a transaction is facilitated; any thing used as a medium: in contempt.—I have been an arrant *shoeing-horn* for above these twenty years. I served my mistress in that capacity above five of the number before she was shod. Though she had many who made their applications to her, I always thought myself the best shoe in her shop. *Spectator*.

SHOE/MAKER, *s.* One whose trade is to make shoes.—A cobbler or *shoemaker* may find some little fault with the latchet of a shoe that an Appelles had painted, when the whole figure is such as none but an Appelles could paint. *Watts*.

SHO/ER, *s.* [*rcoepe*, Sax., a maker of shoes.] One who fits the foot with a shoe: used, in some places, of a farrier.

SHOE/STRING, *s.* A string with which shoes are tied.

Bending his supple hams, kissing his hands,
Honouring *shoestrings*.

Randolph.

SHOE/TYE, *s.* The ribband with which women tie their shoes.

I wish her beauty,
That owes not all its duty,
To gaudy tire, or glistering *shoe-ty*.
Madam, I do as is my duty,
Honour the shadow of your *shoetye*.

Crashaw.

Hudibras.

SHOG, *s.* Violent concussion.

Another's diving bow he did adore,
Which, with a *shog*, casts all the hair before. *Dryden.*

To SHOG, *v. a.* To shake; to agitate by sudden interrupted impulses.—The boat in the myddil of the see was *schoggid* with wawis, for the wynd was contrarie. *Wicliffe*.

To SHOG, *v. n.* To move off; to be gone; to jog. *A low obsolete word.*

These fained words agog
So set the goddesses, that they in anger gan to *shog*. *Hall.*

Will you *shog* off? *Shakspeare.*

SHO/GGING, *s.* Concussion; agitation.—Through the violence of such *shoggings* [they] are leapt out of the coach. *Harmar.*

To SHOGGLE, *v. a.* To shake about; to joggle. *Northern.*

SHOKET, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Damascus, on the Orontes; 140 miles north of Damascus.

SHOLAPOOR, a district of Hindostan, province of Bejapore, situated about the 18th degree of northern latitude. Part of it belongs to the Nizam, the remainder to the Mah-rattas. It is advantageously situated between the rivers Kistna and Beemah, and under a good government would be very productive.

SHOLAPOOR, the capital of the above-mentioned district. It is a fortified town, and was formerly a place of considerable consequence. It is delightfully situated on the northern bank of the river Kistna, and belongs to the Nizam. It was taken by the army of Aurungzebe, from the King of Bejapore, and was then considered as the strongest bulwark of the capital towards Ahmednagur. Lat. 17. 43. N. long. 75. 40. E.

SHOLAVANDEN, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. Lat. 9. 50. N. long. 78. 10. E.

SHOLDEN, a hamlet of England, in Kent; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile west of Deal.

SHOLINGUR, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, rendered famous by the defeat of Hyder Aly, in

November, 1781, by a very inferior British force under the command of Sir Eyre Coote. Lat. 13. 8. N. long. 79. 30. E.

SHONE. The preterite of *shine*.—All his father in him *shone*. *Milton.*

SHOOK. The preterite and in poetry participle passive of *shake*.

Taxallan, *shook* by Montezuma's pow'rs,
Has, to resist his forces, call'd in ours.

Dryden.

SHOON. The old plural of *shoe*.
To SHOOT, *v. a.* preterite, *I shot*; participle, *shot* or *shotten*. [*rcotian*, Sax., *skiota*, Icel. to dart; an ancient word, common to all the northern dialects. *Serenius*.—To discharge any thing so as to make it fly with speed or violence.

Light
Shoots far into the bosom of dim night
A glimmering dawn.

Milton.

To discharge as from a bow or gun.
I owe you much, and, like a witless youth,
That which I owe is lost; but if you please
To *shoot* an arrow that self way.

Shakspeare.

To let off; used of the instrument.—The two ends of a bow *shot* off, fly from one another. *Boyle*.—To strike with any thing shot.—Not an hand shall touch the mount, but he shall be stoned or *shot* through. *Ex*.—To emit new parts, as a vegetable.—A grain of mustard groweth up and *shooteth* out great branches. *St. Mark*.—To emit; to dart or thrust forth.

Fir'd by the torch of noon, to tenfold rage,
Th' infuriate hill forth *shoots* the pillar'd flame. *Thomson.*

To push suddenly. So we say, to *shoot* a bolt or lock.

The liquid air his moving pinions wound,
And, in the moment, *shoot* him on the ground. *Dryden.*

To push forward.—They that see me *shoot* out the lip, they shake the head. *Psalms*.—To fit to each other by planing. *A workman's term*.—Strait lines in joiner's language are called a joint; that is, two pieces of wood that are *shot*, that is planed or else paired with a pairing-chissel. *Moxon*.—To pass through with swiftness.

Thus having said, she sinks beneath the ground,
With furious haste, and *shoots* the Stygian sound. *Dryden.*

To SHOOT, *v. n.* To perform the act of shooting, or emitting a missile weapon.

A shining harvest either host displays,
And *shoots* against the sun with equal rays. *Dryden.*

To germinate; to increase in vegetable growth.—Such trees as love the sun do not willingly descend far into the earth; and therefore they are commonly trees that *shoot* up much. *Bacon*.

The monarch oak, the patriarch of the trees,
Shoots rising up, and spreads by slow degrees. *Dryden.*

To form itself into shape.—If the menstruum be over-charged, metals will *shoot* into crystals. *Bacon*.—That rude mass will *shoot* itself into several forms, till it make an habitable world; the steady hand of Providence being the invisible guide of all its motions. *Burnet*.—To be emitted.

There *shot* a streaming lamp along the sky,
Which on the winged light'n'ng seem'd to fly. *Dryden.*

The grand ætherial bow
Shoots up immense. *Thomson.*

To protuberate; to jet out.—This valley of the Tyrol lies enclosed on all sides by the Alps, though its dominions *shoot* out into several branches among the breaks of the mountains. *Addison*.—To pass as an arrow.

Thy words *shoot* through my heart,
Melt my resolves, and turn me all to love. *Addison.*

To

To become any thing by sudden growth.

Materials dark and crude,
Of spirituous fiery spume, till touch'd
With Heaven's ray, and temper'd, they shoot forth
So beauteous, opening to the ambient light. *Milton.*

To move swiftly along.—A shooting star in autumn
thwarts the night. *Milton.*

The broken air loud whistling as she flies,
She stops and listens, and shoots forth again,
And guides her pinions by her young one's cries. *Dryden.*

To produce a quick glancing pain.—They found these
noses one day shoot and swell extremely. *Tatler.*

SHOOT, *s.* The act or impression of any thing emitted
from a distance.—The Turkish bow giveth a very forcible
shoot, insomuch as the arrow hath pierced a steel target two
inches thick; but the arrow, if headed with wood, hath
been known to pierce through a piece of wood of eight inches
thick. *Bacon.*—The act of striking, or endeavouring to
strike with a missive weapon discharged by any instrument.

But come the bow; now mercy goes to kill,
And shooting well is then accounted ill.
Thus will I save my credit in the shoot,
Not wounding, pity would not let me do't. *Shakspeare.*

[*Scheuten*, Dutch.] Branches issuing from the main
stock.

I saw them under a green mantling vine,
Plucking ripe clusters from the tender shoots. *Milton.*

A young swine. *Unused.*

SHOOTE, among Neat Cattle, an affection of the bowel
kind, with which calves are often attacked a few days after
calving. The usual symptoms are, first, a colic or pain that
is more or less violent, and is frequently very severe and dan-
gerous, especially when it is contagious. This colic is ter-
minated, and the calf relieved, by a discharge taking place
from the bowels; though this sometimes proves fatal before
the shoote appears. Secondly, a loathing and refusing of
food, even previous to the discharge; which decreases and
increases according to the duration and violence of the dis-
order. Where the disease prevails, the best medicine which
can be administered is that of eggs and flour properly blended
with oil, melted butter, and aniseed, linseed, or similar mu-
cilaginous vegetable matters; and milk simply mulled with
eggs may be often given with much advantage.

SHOOTER, *s.* One that shoots; an archer; a gunner.
—Some shooters take in hand stronger bows than they be
able to maintain. *Ascham.*

SHOOTER'S HILL, a village of England, in the county
of Kent, situated on a hill of the same name, beyond Black-
heath, on the road to Dartford. The hill commands a most
extensive view of London, the Thames, and into Essex, Kent,
and part of Surrey. Its name is supposed to have been
derived from the exercise of archery carried on in the neigh-
bouring woods in former times. On the summit of the hill
are some pleasant houses. The neighbourhood was former-
ly noted for robberies, till the road was widened, and
much of the coppice wood cut down; 8 miles east-south-
east of London.

SHOOTER'S HILL, a hill of England, in Kent, 446 feet
in height.

SHOOTING, *s.* [ʃu:ʊŋ, Sax.] Act of emitting as
from a gun or bow.—Wrestling, shooting, and other such
active sports, will keep men in health, *Sprat.*—Sensation
of quick pain.—I fancy we shall have some rain, by the
shooting of my corns. *Goldsmith.*

SHOOTING POINT, a cape of Scotland, on the south
coast of the county of Fife and east side of Largo bay.

SHOP, *s.* [ʃeɒpə, Sax, a magazine; *eschoppe*, Fr.;
shopa or *schoppa*, low Lat.] A place where any thing is
sold.

Our windows are broke down,
And we for fear compell'd to shut our shops. *Shakspeare.*

A room in which manufactures are carried on.

Your most grave belly thus answer'd;
True is it, my incorporate friends,
That I receive the general food at first,
Which you do live upon; and fit it is,
Because I am the storehouse and the shop
Of the whole body. *Shakspeare.*

To SHOP, *v. n.* To frequent shops: as, they are shop-
ping. *A colloquial phrase.*

SHO'BOARD, *s.* Bench on which any work is done.
That beastly rabble that came down
From all the garrets in the town,
And stalls, and shopboards, in vast swarms,
With new chalk'd bills, and rusty arms. *Hudibras.*

SHO'BOOK, *s.* Book in which a tradesman keeps his
accounts. *Unused.*—They that have wholly neglected the
exercise of their understandings, will be as unfit for it as one
unpractised in figures to cast up a shopbook. *Locke.*

SHOPE, old pret. of *shape*; shaped. She—this further
purpose to him *shope*. *Spenser.*—See *SHAPE*.

SHO'KEEPER, *s.* A trader who sells in a shop.—
Nothing is more common than to hear a *shopkeeper* desiring
his neighbour to have the goodness to tell him what is a
clock. *Addison.*

SHOPLAND, a parish of England, in Essex; 1½ mile
north-east of Prittlewell.

SHO'PLIFTER, *s.* One who under pretence of buying
takes occasion to steal goods out of a shop.—He looked like
a discovered *shoplifter*, left to the mercy of the Exchange-
women. *Swift.*—See *LIFT*.

SHO'PLIFTING, *s.* The crime of a shoplifter.

SHO'PLIKE, *adj.* Low; vulgar. *Unused.*—Be she
never so *shoplike* or meretricious. *B. Jonson.*

SHO'PMAN, *s.* One who serves in a shop.—For my
part, I have enough to mind in weighing my goods out, and
waiting on my customers; but my wife, though she could be
of as much use as a *shopman* to me, if she would put her
hand to it, is now only in my way. *Idler.*

SHORE, the preterite of *shear*.

I'm glad thy father's dead:
The match was mortal to him, and pure grief
Shore his old thread in twain. *Shakspeare.*

SHORE, *s.* [ʃo:pe, Sax. Dr. Johnson. From *reipjan*,
to divide, to separate.—The shore being the place where the
continuity of the land is interrupted, or *separated*, by the
sea or the river.]—The coast of the sea or bank of the
river.

Sea cover'd sea;

Sea without shore. *Milton.*

Beside the fruitful shore of muddy Nile,
Upon a sunny bank outstretched lay,
In monstrous length, a mighty crocodile. *Spenser.*

A drain; properly *sewer*. [*schoore*, Teut. a prop.]
The support of a building; a buttress.—When I use the
word *shore*, I may intend thereby a coast of land near the
sea, or a drain to carry off water, or a prop to support a
building. *Watts.*

To SHORE, *v. a.* [*schooren*, Teut.] To prop; to
support.—They undermined the wall, and, as they wrought,
shored it up with timber. *Knolles.*—To set on shore.
Not in use.—I will bring these two moles, these blind ones
aboard him; if he think it fit to *shore* them again,—let him
call me rogue. *Shakspeare.*

SHORE (Jane), the concubine of king Edward IV., was
the wife of Mr. Matthew Shore, a goldsmith in Lombard-
street, London. Historians represent her as extremely
beautiful, cheerful, and generous. The king, it is said, was
no less captivated with her temper than her person; she
never made use of her influence over him to the prejudice
of any one; her importunities were always in favour of the
unfortunate. After the death of Edward, she attached
herself to the lord Hastings; and when Richard III. cut off
that

that nobleman as an obstacle to his ambitious schemes, Jane Shore was arrested as an accomplice, on the accusation of witchcraft. For this she was doomed to a public penance, and to the loss of her property. She was alive, but probably in a very wretched state, under the reign of Henry VIII., when she was seen by Sir Thomas More, poor and old, and without the smallest trace of her former beauty. Mr. Rowe, in his tragedy of Jane Shore, has adopted the popular story, related in this ballad, of her perishing with hunger in a place where Shoreditch now stands. But Stowe assures us, that this place had its name long before her time.

SHO'RED, *adj.* Having a bank or shore.

A ground lying low is soone overflowen,
And shored cannot long continue. *Mir. for Mag.*

SHOREDITCH, a parish of England, in Middlesex, situated on the north-eastern extremity of the metropolis, on the road to Hackney, and $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from London bridge. Population 43,930.

SHOREHAM, a parish of England in Kent; 23 miles east of Chichester, and $55\frac{1}{2}$ south-by-west of London. Population 806.

SHOREHAM, a post township of the United States, in Addison county, Vermont, on Lake Champlain; 49 miles south of Burlington. Population 2033.

SHOREHAM, OLD, a parish of England, in Sussex, half a mile north of New Shoreham.

SHOREHAM, NEW, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Sussex, situated on the coast of the English channel, on the east side of the river Adur. This town owes its origin to the decay of Old Shoreham, which is now a very trifling village, but appears anciently to have been a place of very considerable importance. The town stands about one mile from the sea, and has a long wooden bridge across the river, for the convenience of travelling between Chichester, Arundel, Brighton, &c. The church here is a curious and interesting specimen of ancient Norman architecture. At present only the east end is fitted up and appropriated to divine service, as the nave or part westward of the tower has been entirely destroyed. It consisted of a nave, transept, tower, and choir; and, by the style of architecture, appears to have been built near the end of the 12th century. Within the church the architectural details are remarkable for their elegance, richness, and diversity; and the building may be altogether considered as an excellent school for the study of our ancient architecture. Besides the church, the only other public building deserving of notice is the market-house, situated in the middle of the town, and supported by Doric pillars. Before the reformation, New Shoreham had a priory of Carmelites, or White Friars, founded by Sir John Mowbray; and also a hospital dedicated to St. James. Shoreham is noted for ship-building, which, with its dependent branches, forms the principal business carried on in the town. Vessels of 700 tons burden have been launched here. The harbour of Shoreham, which is a tide-harbour, is not very commodious, and is rendered dangerous from the frequent shifting of the sands, and by a long flat rock visible at low water. In spring tides it has about 18 feet water, about 12 in common, and not more than 3 feet at ebb. It runs along by the town, parallel with the sea, with which it communicates about half a mile eastward of the place. Notwithstanding these inconveniences, being the best of this part of the coast, it is frequented by ships of considerable burden, and has a custom-house, with a collector, comptroller, and clerk. New Shoreham is governed by two constables annually elected. It is a borough by prescription, and has sent members to parliament since the year 1295, the 23d of Edward I. In 1771, a remarkable scene of corruption was developed in the election of members; the majority of the electors having formed themselves into a society called the Christian club, but the real object of which was to sell their votes to the highest bidder. In consequence of this, an act of parliament was passed, disfranchising every member of the Christian society, and extending the votes for Shoreham to the whole

rape of Bramber; so that the right of election was imparted to about 1300 freeholders. Shoreham is noted in history for being built on the spot where Ella the Saxon landed with supplies from Germany, in aid of his countrymen Hengist and Horsa. According to the population returns of 1811, the parish contained 168 houses, and 770 inhabitants. Market on Saturday; 16 miles north-north-west of Newhaven, and 56 south-by-west of London. Lat. 50. 50. N. long. 0. 16. W.

SHOREHAM, NEW, a post township of the United States, in Newport county, Rhode Island, on Black Island. Population 722.

SHORELAND, a small hamlet of England, in Kent; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Ashford.

SHO'RELESS, *adj.* Having no coast; boundless.

The short channels of expiring time,
Or shoreless ocean of eternity. *Young.*

SHORESWOOD, a hamlet of England, belonging to the county of Durham, though locally situated in the northern extremity of Northumberland; 6 miles south-west of Berwick-upon-Tweed.

SHORLING, *s.* The felt or skin of a sheep shorn.

SHORLING and MORLING, in our Old Writers, words used to distinguish fells of sheep; *shorling* being the fells after the fleeces are shorn off the sheep's back; and *morling* the fells flayed off after they die or are killed. In some parts of England they understand by a *shorling*, a sheep whose fleece is shorn off; and by a *morling*, a sheep that dies.

SHORN, the participle passive of *shear*: with *of*.

So rose the Danite strong,
Shorn of his strength. *Milton.*

He plunging downward shot his radiant head;
Dispell'd the breathing air that broke his flight;
Shorn of his beams, a man to mortal sight. *Dryden.*

SHORNE, a village and parish of England, in the county of Kent. Its situation is very pleasant and romantic. In the chancel of the church are some antique monuments, and here is a curious old octangular font of Petworth marble. Population 624; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Gravesend.

SHORT, *adj.* [rocopt, Sax.] Not long in extent or in duration.

Though short my stature, yet my name extends
To heaven itself, and earth's remotest ends. *Pope.*

Short were her marriage joys: for in the prime
Of youth her lord expired before his time. *Dryden.*

Repeated by quick iterations.

Thy breath comes short, thy darted eyes are fixt
On me for aid, as if thou wert pursu'd. *Dryden.*

Not adequate; not equal: with *of* before the thing with which the comparison is made.—Immoderate praises the foolish lover thinks *short* of his mistress, though they reach far beyond the heavens. *Sidney.*—If speculative maxims have not an actual universal assent from all mankind, practical principles come *short* of an universal reception. *Locke.*—Defective; imperfect; not reaching the intended point.—Not far distant in time.—He commanded those, who were appointed to attend him, to be ready by a *short* day. *Clarendon.*—Scanty; wanting.—The English were inferior in number, and grew *short* in their provisions. *Hayward.*

They short of succours, and in deep despair,
Shook at the dismal prospect of the war. *Dryden.*

To turn *short*; not fetching a compass.

He seiz'd the helm, his fellows cheer'd,
Turn'd short upon the shelves, and madly steer'd. *Dryden.*

For turning short, he struck with all his might
Full on the helmet of th' unwary knight. *Dryden.*

Not going so far as was intended.

As one condemn'd to leap a precipice,
Who sees before his eyes the depth below,
Stops *short*.

Dryden.

Defective as to quantity.

When the fleece is shorn,
When their defenceless limbs the brambles tear,
Short of their wool, and naked from the shear. *Dryden.*

Narrow; contracted.—Men of wit and parts, but of *short* thoughts and little meditation, are apt to distrust every thing for a fancy. *Burnet.*

They, since their own *short* understandings reach
No farther than the present, think ev'n the wise
Like them disclose the secrets of their breasts. *Rowe.*

Brittle; friable.—His flesh is not firm, but *short* and tasteless. *Walton.*—Marl from Derbyshire was very fat, though it had so great a quantity of sand, that it was so *short*, that wet you could not work it into a ball, or make it hold together. *Mortimer.*—Not bending.

The lance broke *short*, the beast then bellow'd loud,
And his strong neck to a new onset bow'd. *Dryden.*

Laconic; brief: as, a *short* answer.

SHORT, *s.* A summary account.—To see whole bodies of men breaking a constitution; in *short*, to be encompassed with the greatest dangers from without, to be torn by many virulent factions within, then to be secure and senseless, are the most likely symptoms, in a state, of sickness unto death. *Swift.*

SHORT, *adv.* [Only used in composition.] Not long.

Beauty and youth,
And sprightly hope and *short*-enduring joy. *Dryden.*

To SHORT, *v. n.* [*shorten*, Germ. *ze-rcyrtan*, Sax.] To fail; to be deficient; to decrease. *Unused.*—His syght wasteth, his wytte mynyseth, his lyf *shorteth*. *The Book of Good Manners.*

To SHORT, *v. a.* [*rcyrtan*, Sax.] To abbreviate; to shorten. *Unused.*—Sorrow *shorteth* the life of many a man. *Chaucer.*

SHORT (Thomas), a physician of the early part of the last century, and the author of many works relating to chemistry, meteorology, and medicine. Few particulars are recorded of his life, which seems to have been spent more in the pursuit of science, than in the exercise of his profession. He was a member of the Royal Society. The following are the principal works which he left. "Memoir on the Natural History of Medicinal Waters," 1725. "A Dissertation on Tea," 1730. "Natural History of the Mineral Waters of Yorkshire, Lincolnshire, and Derbyshire," 1733. "A General Chronological History of the Air, Weather, Seasons, Meteors, &c., for the Space of 250 Years," 1749. "Discourses on Tea, Sugar, Milk, made Wines, Spirits, Punch, Tobacco, &c." 1749. "New Observations, Natural, Moral, Civil, Political, and Medical, on Bills of Mortality," 1750. See *Eloy. Dict. Hist.* and the Works of Short.

SHORT (James), an eminent optician, was born at Edinburgh in the year 1710. At the age of ten he lost his parents, and being left in a state of indigence, he was admitted into Heriot's Hospital, where he soon shewed a fine mechanical genius, by constructing for himself a number of curious articles with common knives, or such other instruments as he could procure. At the age of twelve he was removed from the hospital to the High-school, where he shewed a considerable taste for classical learning, and he soon became at the head of his forms. He was intended for the church, but after attending a course of theological lectures, he gave up all thoughts of a profession, which he found little suited to his talents, and from this period he devoted his whole time to mathematical and mechanical pursuits. He was pupil to the celebrated Maclaurin, who perceiving the bent of his genius, encouraged him to prosecute those particular studies for which he seemed best

qualified by nature. Under the eye of his preceptor he began, in 1732, to construct Gregorian telescopes; and, as the professor observed, by attending to the figure of his specula, he was enabled to give them larger apertures, and to carry them to greater perfection, than had ever been done before him.

In 1736 Mr. Short was invited to London by queen Caroline, to instruct William, duke of Cumberland, in the mathematics; and on his appointment to this office, he was elected a member of the Royal Society, and patronized by the earls of Macclesfield and Morton. In the year 1739 he accompanied the former to the Orkney islands, where he was employed in making a survey of that part of Scotland. On his return to London he established himself as an optician, and in 1743, he was commissioned by Lord Thomas Spencer to make a reflector of twelve-feet focus, for which he received 600 guineas. He afterwards made several other telescopes of the same focal distance, with improvements and higher magnifiers: and in 1752 he completed one for the king of Spain, for which, with the whole apparatus, he received 1200*l.* This was the noblest instrument of the kind that had ever been constructed, and has probably not been surpassed, unless by the grand telescopes manufactured by Dr. Herschel.

Mr. Short was accustomed to visit the place of his nativity once every two or three years during his residence in London, and in the year 1766 he paid his last visit to Scotland. He died in June 1768, after a very short illness, when he was in the 58th year of his age.

SHORT Sails, in a *Man of War*, are the same with *fighting sails*, being the fore-sail, main-sail, and fore-top-sail, which are all that are used in fight, lest the rest should be fired and spoiled: besides the trouble of managing them when a ship gives chase to another.

SHORTDATED, *adj.* Having little time to run.—The course of thy *short-dated* life. *Sandys.*

To SHORTEN, *v. a.* [*Sax. rcyrtan*.] To make short, either in time or space.—To *shorten* its way to knowledge, and make each perception more comprehensive, it binds them into bundles. *Locke.*—To contract; to abbreviate.

We *shorten'd* days to moments by love's art,

Whilst our two souls
Perceiv'd no passing time, as if a part
Our love had been of still eternity.

Suckling.

To confine; to hinder from progression.—Here, where the subject is so fruitful, I am *shortened* by my chain, and can only see what is forbidden me to reach. *Dryden.*—To lop.

Dishonest with lopt arms the youth appears,
Spoil'd of his nose, and *shorten'd* of his ears. *Dryden.*

SHORTFORD, *q. d. fore-close*, an ancient custom in the city of Exeter, when the lord of the fee cannot be answered rent due to him out of his tenement, and no distress can be levied for the same. The lord is then to come to the tenement, and there take a stone, or some other dead thing, off the tenement, and bring it before the mayor and bailiff, and thus he must do seven quarter-days successively, and if on the seventh quarter-day the lord is not satisfied his rent and arrears, then the tenement shall be adjudged to the lord to hold the same a year and a day; and forthwith proclamation is to be made in the court, that if any man claims any title to the said tenement, he must appear within the year and day next following, and satisfy the lord of the said rent and arrears: but if no appearance be made, and the rent not paid, the lord comes again to the court, and prays that, according to the custom, the said tenement be adjudged to him in his demesne as of fee, which is done accordingly, so that the lord hath from thenceforth the said tenement, with the appurtenances, to him and his heirs.

SHORTGRAVE, a hamlet of Essex, in Essex; 2 miles from Saffron Walden.

SHORTHAND, *s.* A method of writing in compendious characters.

In *shorthand* skill'd, where little marks comprise
Whole words, a sentence in a letter lies.

Creech.

SHORT-JOINTED, a horse is said to be short-jointed,
that has a short pastern.

SHORTLIVED, *adj.* Not living or lasting long.

Unhappy parent of a *shortliv'd* son!

Why loads he this embitter'd life with shame.

Dryden.

Admiration is a *shortliv'd* passion, that immediately de-
cays upon growing familiar with its object, unless it be still
fed with fresh discoveries. *Addison.*

SHORTLY, *adv.* [*ʃeopɹɪtʃe*, Sax.] Quickly; soon;
in a little time. It is commonly used relatively of future
time, but Clarendon seems to use it absolutely.—The armies
came *shortly* in view of each other. *Clarendon.*—The time
will *shortly* come, wherein you shall more rejoice for that
little you have expended for the benefit of others, than in that
which by so long toil you shall have saved. *Calamy.*—
In a few words; briefly.—I could express them more *shortly*
this way than in prose, and much of the force as well as
grace of arguments, depends on their conciseness. *Pope.*

SHORTNESS, *s.* [*ʃeopɹɪʃɪtʃe*, Sax.]—The quality
of being short, either in time or space.

I'll make a journey twice as far, t' enjoy

A second night of such sweet *shortness*, which

Was mine in Britain.

Shakspeare.

They move strongest in a right line, which is caused by the
shortness of the distance. *Bacon.*—Fewness of words; bre-
vity; conciseness.—The necessity of *shortness* causeth men
to cut off impertinent discourses, and to comprise much
matter in a few words. *Hooker.*—Want of reach; want of
capacity.—Whatsoever is above these proceedeth of *short-
ness* of memory, or of want of a stayed attention. *Bacon.*
—Deficiency; imperfection.—Another account of the *short-
ness* of our reason, and easiness of deception, is the forward-
ness of our understanding's assent to slightly examined conclu-
sions. *Glanville.*

SHORTRIBS, *s.* The ribs below the sternum.—A gen-
tleman was wounded in a duel; the rapier entered into his
right side, slanting by his *shortribs* under the muscles.

Wiseman.

SHORTSIGHTED, *adj.* Unable to see far.—*Short-
sighted* men see remote objects best in old age, therefore they
are accounted to have the most lasting eyes. *Newton.*—Un-
able by intellectual sight to see far.

The foolish and *shortsighted* die with fear

That they go no where, or they know not where.

Denham.

SHORTSIGHTEDNESS, *s.* Defect of sight, proceeding
from the convexity of the eye.—The ordinary remedy for
shortsightedness is a concave lens, held before the eye;
which, making the rays diverge, or at least diminishing
much of their convergency, makes amends for the too great
convexity of the crystalline. *Chambers.*—Defect of intel-
lectual sight.—Cunning is a kind of *shortsightedness*, that
discovers the minutest objects which are near at hand, but is
not able to discern things at a distance. *Addison.*

SHORTWAISTED, *adj.* Having a short body.

Duck-legg'd, *shortwaisted*; such a dwarf she is,

That she must rise on tip-toes for a kiss.

Dryden.

SHORWELL, a village and parish of England, in the
Isle of Wight, beautifully situated in a valley. The church
has a neat spire and a stone pulpit, and contains several
handsome monuments of the Leigh family. Population 561;
5 miles from Newport.

SHORTWINDED, *adj.* Shortbreathed; asthmatic;
pursive; breathing quickly.—Sure he means brevity in
breath; *shortwinded*. *Shakspeare.*

With this the Mede *shortwinded* old men eases,
And cures the lungs unsavory diseases.

May.

SHORTWINGED, *adj.* Having short wings.

Shortwing'd, unfit himself to fly,

His fear foretold foul weather.

Dryden.

SHORTWITTED, *adj.* Simple; without sense.—Piety

doth not require at our hands, that we should be either *short-
witted* or beggarly, but hath its part in all the blessings of this
world, whether it be of soul or body, or of goods.. *Hales.*

SHO'RY, *adj.* Lying near the coast. *Unused.*—There
is commonly a declivity from the shore to the middle part of
the channel, and those *shory* parts are generally but some
fathoms deep. *Burnet.*

SHOSHONEES. See SNAKE INDIAN.

SHOSTACK, in Commerce, a money of account in
Poland and Hungary.

SHOT. The preterite and participle passage of *shoot*.—
Their tongue is an arrow *shot* out, it speaketh deceit. *Jeremi-
miah.*—The same metal is naturally *shot* into quite different
figures, as quite different kinds of them are of the same figure.
Woodward.

He prone on ocean in a moment flung,

Stretch'd wide his eager arms, and *shot* the seas along.

Pope.

SHOT *of part.* Discharged; quit; freed from: a *col-
loquial expression*, as he cannot get *shot* of it.

SHOT, *s.* [*ʃot*, Dutch.] The act of shooting.—
A *shot* unheard gave me a wound unseen. *Sidney.*—He
caused twenty *shot* of his greatest cannon to be made at the
king's army. *Clarendon.*—The missile weapon emitted by
any instrument.

I shall here abide the hourly *shot*

Of angry eyes.

Shakspeare.

Sometimes bullets; but more commonly the smaller bodies
used for shooting birds.—At this booty they were joyful, for
that they were supplied thereby with good store of powder
and *shot*. *Hayward.*—Any thing emitted, or cast forth.—
Violent and tempestuous storm and *shots* of rain. *Ray.*—
[*Escot*, French; *ʃeat*, Sax., *schat*, Teut., *skatts*, Goth.
money, a piece of money.] A sum charged; a reckoning.
—A man is never welcome to a place, till some certain *shot*
be paid, and the hostess say welcome. *Shakspeare.*

As the fund of our pleasure, let each pay his *shot*;

Far hence be the sad, the lewd fop, and the sot.

B. Jonson.

SHOTE, *s.* [*ʃeota*, Saxon] A fish; a species of
salmon.—The *shote*, peculiar to Devonshire and Cornwall,
in shape and colour resembleth the trout; howbeit, in bigness
and goodness cometh far behind him. *Carew.*

SHOTERY, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire, west
of Stratford-upon-Avon.

SHOTFORD, or SCOTFORD BRIDGE, a hamlet of
England, in Norfolk; 1½ mile east-south-east of Harleston.

SHOTFREE, *adj.* Clear of the reckoning.—Though I
could 'scape *shotfree* at London, I fear the shot here; here's
no scoring but upon the pate. *Shakspeare.*—Not to be in-
jured by shot.—He is as mad that thinks himself an urinal,
and will not stir at all for fear of cracking, as he that believes
himself to be *shotfree*, and so will run among the hail of a
battle. *Feltham.*—Unpunished.

SHOTLEY, a township of England, in Northumberland;
10 miles south-east of Hexham. Population 517.

SHOTLEY, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 7 miles
south-east of Ipswich.

SHOTLEY BRIDGE, a small village of England,
county of Durham, situated upon the banks of the Derwent;
14 miles north-west of Durham.

SHOTOVER, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire;
4 miles east-by-north of Oxford. Shotover forest and
hill, in the neighbourhood, is remarkable for its large
timber, and for the excellent ochre found in it, a sort of
earth similar in its quality to fullers' earth, for taking grease
out of clothes. It is also noted for an excellent kind of
tobacco-pipe clay, which is much used in modelling.

SHOTOVER HILL, a hill of England, in Oxfordshire,
599 feet high.

SHOTT, an extensive plain, situated on the southern ex-
tremity of the territory of Algiers, bordering on the Sahara.
This plain, which is 50 miles in length, and about 12 in
breadth, is, according to the season of the year, either cov-
ered with salt or overflowed with water. Several parts of
it

it consists of a light oozy soil, which, after sudden rains, or the overflows of the adjacent rivers, are changed into many quicksands, and occasion serious danger to the unwary traveller. A considerable number of streams, both from the north and south, empty themselves into the Shott.

SHOTTEN. *adj.* Having ejected the spawn.—Go thy ways, old Jack; die when thou wilt, if good manhood be not forgot upon the earth, then am I a *shotten* herring. *Shakspeare.*—Curdled by keeping too long.—Shooting out into angles.

I will sell my dukedom,
To buy a slobbery and a dirty farm
In that nook-*shotten* isle of Albion. *Shakspeare.*

Sprained; dislocated.—His horse, shoulder *shotten.* *Shakspeare.*

SHOTTESBROOK, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 5 miles south-west of Maidenhead.

SHOTTISHAM, ALL SAINTS, and ST. MARY'S, adjoining parishes of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles north-east of St. Mary Stratton. Population 723.

SHOTTISHAM, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 4 miles south-east of Woodbridge.

SHOTTLE, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 8 miles north-by-west of Derby. Population 636.

SHOTTON, a village of England, county of Durham; 5½ miles north-east of Barnard Castle.

SHOTTON, another village in the same county; 8½ miles east-by-south of Durham.

SHOTTON, a village of England, in Northumberland; 6 miles south-by-east of Morpeth.

SHOTTS, a parish of Scotland, in the north-east corner of the county of Lanark. It is 10 miles in length, by 7 in breadth, and is of a rectangular form. Population 2933.

SHOTTSWELL, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 7 miles south-east of Kineton.

SHOTWICK, a parish of England, in Cheshire, situated on the banks of the river Dee, which is here nearly a mile over. Here are the remains of a castle, an ancient palace belonging to the king of England; 6 miles north-west of Chester.

To SHOVE, *v. a.* [*scupan, scofan, Sax. schuyffen, schuyven, Teut. skuffa, Su. Goth. Our old form of the word was also shofe, to push by main strength. "Part of the banke he shofe down right."*—The hand could pluck her back, that *shov'd* her on. *Shakspeare.*—To push; to rush against.

Behold a reverend sire
Crawl through the streets, *shov'd* on or rudely press'd
By his own sons. *Pope.*

To SHOVE, *v. n.* To push forward before one.—The seamen towd, and I *shoved* till we arrived within forty yards of the shore. *Swift.*—To move in a boat, not by oars but a pole.

He grasp'd the oar,
Receiv'd his guests aboard, and *shov'd* from shore. *Garth.*

SHOVE, *s.* The act of shoving; a push.—I was forced to swim behind, and push the boat forward with one of my hands; and the tide favouring me, I could feel the ground; I rested two minutes, and then gave the boat another *shove*. *Swift.*

SHOVEL, *s.* [*scopl, Sax. schoeffel, school, Teut. similar to the latter of which is our provincial word school, Exam. dialect, and shawl or showl in other places.*] An instrument consisting of a long handle and broad blade with raised edges.—A handbarrow, wheelbarrow, *shovel* and spade.—*Tusser.*

To SHOVEL, *v. a.* To throw or heap with a shovel.
I thought
To die upon the bed my father died,
To lie close by his honest bones; but now
Some hangman must put on my shrowd, and lay me
Where no priest *shovels* in dust. *Shakspeare.*

To gather in great quantities.—Ducks *shovel* them up as they swim along the waters; but divers insects also devour them.—*Derham.*

SHOVEL, SIR CLOUDESLEY, a British naval hero. See ENGLAND.

SHOVELBOARD, *s.* A long board on which they play by sliding metal pieces at a mark.

So I have seen, in hall of lord,
A weak arm throw on a long *shovelboard*;
He barely lays his piece. *Dryden.*

SHOVELLER, or SHOVELARD, *s.* A bird.—This formation of the wizzon is not peculiar to the swan, but common unto the platea, or *shovclard*, a bird of no musical throat.—*Brown.*

SHOUGH, *s.* A species of shaggy dog; a shock.
In the catalogue ye be for men,
As hound and greyhounds, mungrels, spaniels, curs,
Shoughs, water-rugs, and demi-wolves are 'cleped
All by the name of dogs. *Shakspeare.*

SHOULD, *v. n.* [*scelban, Sax. schuld, Teut. old Engl. schulde, pl. shulden.*]

This is a kind of auxiliary verb used in the conjunctive mood, of which the signification is not easily fixed.

I SHOULD go. It is my business or duty to go.

If I SHOULD go. If it happens that I go.

Thou SHOULD'ST go. Thou oughtest to go.

If thou SHOULD'ST go. If it happens that thou goest.

The same significations are found in all the other persons singular and plural.

It was used for *would*, formerly; and in later times for *could, may, might, must*. It has been well observed, that this sign respects time variously; the present, the past, and the future. When it respects the present, it generally implies duty or obligation, fitness, propriety, decency, or reasonableness; is often used in the way of supposition, and of comparison upon supposition; often also marks conduct or event as involuntary or accidental; often carries doubt in it; and seems frequently to mark the power, energy, influence, or force of things upon the speaker, or otherwise; and it follows interjections of grief. In denoting time past, it either implies doubt or marks the event as involuntary or accidental. But of all the other periods of time, the future seems to be that, in which *should* most frequently makes its appearance. It marks the hypothetical, and denotes the common future; in both cases it is still conditional, never absolute. It refers to the hypothetical future; and, in doing so, marks the event either as doubtful and precarious, or as conditional and preparatory to somewhat else, or as highly probable but fit to be prevented, or as predetermined. Whilst it respects the common future, it either puts the event in the way of supposition, or marks it as precarious, or as certain in the highest degree, or as conditionally certain, or as certain but improper, or as certain but involuntary, or threatens, or follows verbs of desire or wishing, or denotes the event to be fit or proper.

Should is sometimes omitted, as when it marks the event as precarious.

I pray you, sir, receive the money now,
For fear you ne'er see chain, nor money more. *Shakspeare.*

SHOULD be. A proverbial phrase of slight contempt or irony.—I conclude, that things are not as they *should be*. *Swift.*—The girls look upon their father as a clown, and the boys think their mother no better than she *should be*. *Addison.*

SHOULD have. This sign barely points at the supposed existence of an event, or circumstance of conduct, in former time; or places that supposed behaviour as the result of something that preceded or might have preceded it; and, in doing this, either puts the event in the way of supposition, or marks it as accidental, or as involuntary, or as certain, or as morally or naturally fit and becoming; and is also found in the hypothetical future, or marking an imaginary event or behaviour as proceeding from or succeeding in course

course of time to some other action; or other incident, imaginary or otherwise; and thus marks the event, or action, either as precarious, or as accidental, or in a comparative view, or as certain; and carries in it frequently an intimation of natural or civil right and title to a thing, and gives the highest assurance.—*White*.

There is another signification now little in use, in which *should* has scarcely any distinct or explicable meaning. *It should be* differs in this sense very little from *it is*. There is a fabulous narration, that in the northern countries there *should be* an herb that groweth in the likeness of a lamb, and feedeth upon the grass.—*Bacon, Nat. Hist.*

SHO'ULDER. *s.* [*rculbje*, Saxon; *sehoulder*, Teut.—The joint which connects the arm to the body. The head of the *shoulder*-bone being round, is inserted into so shallow a cavity in the scapula, that, were there no other guards for it, it would be thrust out upon every occasion.—*Wiseman*. The upper joint of the foreleg of edible animals, —He took occasion from a *shoulder* of mutton, to cry up the plenty of England.—*Addison*. The upper part of the back.

Emily dress'd herself in rich array;
Fresh as the month, and as the morning fair,
Adown her *shoulders* fell her length of hair. *Dryden*.

The *shoulders* are used as emblems of strength, or the act of supporting.

Ev'n as thou wilt, sweet Warwick, let it be;
For on thy *shoulders* do I build my seat. *Shakspeare*.

A rising part, a prominence. *A term among artificers*. —When you rivet a pin into a hole, your pin must have a *shoulder* to it thicker than the hole is wide, that the *shoulder* slip not through the hole as well as the shank.—*Moron*.

SHOULDER, in Block-Making, a projection made upon the surface of blocks, pins, &c. by reducing one part to a less substance.

To SHO'ULDER, *v. a.* To push with insolence and violence.

You debase yourself,
To think of mixing with th' ignoble herd:
What, shall the people know their god-like prince
Headed a rabble, and profan'd his person,
Shoulder'd with filth? *Dryden*.

So vast the navy now at anchor rides,
That underneath it, the press'd waters fail,
And with its weight it *shoulders* off the tides. *Dryden*.

To put upon the *shoulder*.—Archimedes's lifting up Marcellus's ships finds little more credit than that of the giants *shouldering* mountains.—*Glanville*.

SHO'ULDERBELT, *s.* A belt that comes across the *shoulder*.

Thou hast an ulcer, which no leech can heal,
Though thy broad *shoulderbelt* the wound conceal. *Dryden*.

SHO'ULDERBLADE, *s.* The scapula; the blade bone to which the arm is connected.—If I have lifted up my hand against the fatherless, when I saw my help in the gate, then let my arm fall from my *shoulderblade*, and mine arm be broken from the bone.—*Job*.

SHOULDER-BLOCK, a large single block, left nearly square at the lower end, of the block, and cut sloping in the direction of the sheave. *Shoulder*-blocks are used on the lower yard-arms, to lead in the topsail-sheets, and on the topsail-yards, to lead in the top-gallant-sheets; and by means of the *shoulder* they are kept upright, and prevent the sheets jaming between the block and the yard: they are also used at the lower outer end of the boomkins, to lead in the fore-tacks.

SHO'ULDERCLAPPER, *s.* A bailiff. *Stevens. Unused*.

A back friend, a *shoulderclapper*, one that commands
The passages of alleys. *Shakspeare*.

Fear none but these same *shoulderclappers*. *Decker*.

SHOULDERKNOT, *s.* An epaulette; a knot of lace or

riband worn on the *shoulder*.—Before they were a month in town, great *shoulderknots* came up: strait, all the world was *shoulderknots*!—*Swift*.

SHOULDER-OF-MUTTON SAIL, a triangular sail, similar to the lateen sail; but attached to a mast instead of a yard.

SHO'ULDERSHOTTEN, *adj.* Strained in the *shoulder*.

SHO'ULDERSLIP, *s.* Dislocation of the *shoulder*.—The horse will take so much care of himself as to come off with only a strain or *shoulderslip*.—*Swift*.

SHOULDHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles north-east of Market Downham. Population 507.

SHOULDHAMTHORPE, a parish in the above county; within a mile of the foregoing.

SHOUMSHU, or CHOUMACHOO, one of the Kurile islands, the nearest to Asia; 36 miles long, and 20 broad. The eastern coast is very steep; there are large lakes abounding with fish, and an herb from which the natives extract brandy. There are mines, from which a small quantity of silver has recently been extracted. There are counted only 44 male inhabitants paying tribute to Russia; 10 miles south from the northern point of Kamtschatka.

SHOUT, *s.* A *shout* is no other than the Saxon participle *scete*, (of *scican*, to cast forth,) differently spelled, and applied to sound *thrown forth* from the mouth.—*Horne Tooke*.—A loud and vehement cry of triumph or exhortation.

Thanks, gentle citizens:
This general applause and cheerful *shout*,
Argues your wisdom and your love to Richard. *Shakspeare*.

To SHOUT, *v.* To cry in triumph or exhortation. They *shouted* thrice: what was the last cry for? *Shakspeare*.

To SHOUT, *v. a.* To treat with noise and shouts: with *at*.—As common, so old, fashions are in disgrace: that man would be *shouted at* that should come forth in his great-grand-sire's suit, though not rent, not discoloured! *Bp. Hall*.

SHO'UTER, *s.* He who shouts.
A peal of loud applause rang out,
And thinn'd the air, till even the birds fell down
Upon the *shouters'* heads. *Dryden*.

SHO'UTING, *s.* Act of shouting; loud cry.—He shall bring forth the head-stone thereof with *shoutings*, crying, Grace, grace unto it. *Zech*.—There are noises, huntings, *shoutings*. *B. Jonson*.—Nothing but howlings and *shoutings* of poor naked men. *More*.—Shrieks and *shoutings* rend the suffering air. *Dryden*.

To SHOW, *v. a.* pret. *showed* and *shown*; part. pass. *shown*. [*scapan*, Sax.; *sehowen*, Dutch. This word is frequently written *shew*.] To exhibit to view, as an agent.

If I do feign,
O let me in my present wildness die,
And never live to *shew* the incredulous world
The noble change that I have purposed. *Shakspeare*

I through the ample air, in triumph high,
Shall lead hell captive, maugre hell, and *show*
The powers of darkness bound. *Milton*.

To afford to the eye or notice; as a thing containing or exhibiting.

Nor want we skill or art, from whence to raise
Magnificence; and what can Heav'n *show* more? *Milton*.

To make to see.
Not higher that hill, nor wider, looking round,
Whereon for different cause the tempter set
Our second Adam in the wilderness,
To *show* him all earth's kingdoms and their glory. *Milton*:

To make to perceive.
The inclement seasons, rain, ice, hail, and snow,
Which now the sky with various face begins
To *show* us in this mountain, while the winds
Blow moist and keen. *Milton*.

To make to know.

Him the most High
Rapt in a balmy cloud with winged steeds
Did, as thou saw'st, receive, to walk with God
High in salvation and the climes of bliss,
Exempt from death; to *show* thee what reward
Awaits the good.

Milton.

To give proof of; to prove.

I'll to the citadel repair,
And *show* my duty by my timely care.

Dryden.

To publish; to make public; to proclaim.—Ye are a
chosen generation, that ye should *shew* forth the praises of
him who hath called you out of darkness. 1 *Pet.*—To in-
form; to teach: with *of*.—I shall no more speak in proverbs,
but *shew* you plainly *of* the Father. *St. John.*—To make
known.

Nothing wants, but that thy shape,
Like his, and colour serpentine, may *show*
Thy inward fraud, to warn all creatures from thee. Milton.

To conduct.—To *show*, in this sense, is to *show* the way.
—She taking him for some cautious city-patient, that came
for privacy, *shews* him into the dining-room. *Swift.*—To
offer; to afford.—Thou shalt utterly destroy them; make no
covenant with them, nor *shew* mercy unto them. *Deut.*—
To explain; to expound.—Forasmuch as knowledge and
shewing of hard sentences, and dissolving of doubts, were
found in the same Daniel, let him be called. *Dan.*—To
discover; to point out.

Why stand ye longer shivering under fears,
That *show* no end but death?

Milton.

With *off*.—To set off.

I like your silence; it the more *shows off*
Your wonder. Shakspeare.

To SHOW, *v. n.* To appear; to look; to be in appear-
ance.—Just such she *shows* before a rising storm: *Dryden.*
—To have appearance; to become well or ill.

My lord of York, it better *shew'd* with you,
When that your flock, assembled by the bell,
Encircled you to hear with reverence
Your exposition on the holy text,
Than now to see you here an iron man,
Cheering a rout of rebels with your drum. Shakspeare.

SHOW, *s.* A spectacle; something publicly exposed to
view for money.—I do not know what she may produce me;
but, provided it be a *show*, I shall be very well satisfied.
Addison.—Superficial appearance; not reality.

Mild Heaven
Disapproves that care, though wise in *show*,
That with superfluous burden loads the day. Milton.

Ostentatious display.

The radiant sun
Sends from above ten thousand blessings down,
Nor is he set so high for *show* alone. Granville.

Object attracting notice.—The city itself makes the noblest
show of any in the world: the houses are most of them
painted on the outside, so that they look extremely gay and
lively. *Addison.*—Public appearance: contrary to *conceal-*
ment.

Jesus, rising from his grave,
Spoil'd principalities and powers, triumph'd
In open *show*, and with ascension bright
Captivity led captive. Milton.

Semblance; likeness.

When devils will their blackest sins put on,
They do suggest at first with heavenly *shows*. Shakspeare.

Speciousness; plausibility.

The kindred of the slain forgive the deed;
But a short exile must for *show* precede. Dryden.

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External appearance.

Fierce was the fight on the proud Belgians' side,
For honour, which they seldom sought before;
But now they by their own vain boasts were ty'd,
And forc'd, at least in *shew*, to prize it more. Dryden.

Exhibition to view.

I have a letter from her;
The mirth whereof's so larded with my matter,
That neither singly can be manifested,
Without the *shew* of both. Shakspeare.

Pomp; magnificent spectacle.—As for triumphs, masks,
feasts, and such *shews*, men need not be put in mind of
them. *Bacon.*—Phantoms; not reality.

What you saw was all a fairy *show*;
And all those airy shapes you now behold,
Were human bodies once. Dryden.

Representative action.—Florio was so overwhelmed with
happiness, that he could not make a reply, but expressed in
dumb *show* those sentiments of gratitude that were too big
for utterance. *Addison.*

SHO'WBREAD, or SHEWBREAD, *s.* Among the Jews,
they thus called loaves of bread that the priest of the week
put every sabbath-day upon the golden table, which was in
the sanctuary before the Lord. They were covered with
leaves of gold, and were twelve in number, representing
the twelve tribes of Israel. They served them up hot, and
at the same time took away the stale ones, and which could
not be eaten but by the priest alone. This offering was ac-
companied with frankincense and salt. *Calmet.*—Set upon
the table *showbread* before me. *Ex.*

SHO'WER, *s.* One who shows.

SHO'WER, *s.* [ʃu:p, ʃu:p, Sax. *scheure*, Teut., from
scheuren, or *schoren*, to break, to burst through.] Rain
either moderate or violent.

If the boy have not a woman's gift,
To rain a *shower* of commanded tears,
An onion will do well for such a shift. Shakspeare.

Storm of any thing falling thick.

I'll set thee in a *shower* of gold, and hail
Rich pearls upon them. Shakspeare.

Any very liberal distribution.

He and myself
Have travell'd in the great *shower* of your gifts,
And sweetly felt it. Shakspeare.

To SHO'WER, *v. a.* To wet or drown with rain.

Serve they as a flowery verge to bind
The fluid skirts of that same watery cloud,
Lest it again dissolve, and *shower* the earth? Milton.

To pour down.

These, lull'd by nightingales, embracing slept;
And on their naked limbs the flowery roof
Shower'd roses, which the morn repair'd. Milton.

To distribute or scatter with great liberality.—After this
fair discharge, all civil honours having *showered* on him be-
fore, there now fell out occasion to action. *Wotton.*

Cæsar's favour,

That *show'rs* down greatness on his friends, will raise me
To Rome's first honours. *Addison.*

To SHO'WER, *v. n.* To be rainy.

SHO'WERLESS, *adj.* Without showers.
Scarce in a *showerless* day the heavens indulge
Our melting clime. *Armstrong.*

SHO'WERY, *adj.* Rainy.—A hilly field, where the
stubble is standing, set on fire in the *showery* season, will
put forth mushrooms. *Bacon.*

The combat thickens, like the storm that flies
From westward, when the *show'ry* scuds arise. Dryden.

SHO'WILY, *adv.* In a short way.

SHO'WINESS, *s.* State of being showy.
SHO'WISH, *adj.* *Unused.*—Splendid; gaudy.—The escutcheons of the company are *showish*, and will look magnificent. *Swift.*—Ostentatious.

SHOWN, pret. and part. pass. of *To show.* Exhibited.—Mercy *shown* on man by him seduc'd. *Milton.*

SHO'WY, *adj.* Splendid; gaudy.—The men would make a present of every thing that was rich and *showy* to the women whom they most admired. *Addison.*—Ostentatious.—Men of warm imaginations neglect solid and substantial happiness for what is *showy* and superficial. *Addison.*

SHOZAW. See SKOTSCHAU.

To SHRAG, *v. a.* [*ſcraean*, Sax., *to shred.*] To lop; to trim; as to *shrag* trees. *Prompt. Parv. Hulot and Barret.*—This is what in some parts is still called to *shroad.* *Unused.*

SHRAG, *s.* A twig of a tree cut off. *Hulot. Unused.*

SHRA'GGER, *s.* A lopper; one that trims trees. *Hulot. Unused.*

SHRAHEEN, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Mayo; 11 miles north-north-east of Castlebar.

SHRANK. The preterite of *shrink.*—The children of Israel eat not of the sinew which *shrank* upon the hollow of the thigh. *Gen.*

SHRAP, or SHRAPE, *s.* A place baited with chaff to entice birds. *Phillips. Unused.*—You fell, like another dove, by the most chaffy *shrap* that ever was set before the eyes of winged fowl. *Bp. Bedell.*

SHRAVEY LAND, in Agriculture, a term used in some districts, as those of Sussex, and some others, to signify that of a strong, gravelly, or flinty nature. The scars or holes on the sides of steep hills, where the turf or sward has slipped away, and laid bare the soil on the South Down, are sometimes called *shraves.* See SOIL.

SHRAWARDINE, a parish of England, in Salop; 6½ miles west-north-west of Shrewsbury.

SHRAWLEY, a parish of England, in Worcestershire, situated on the banks of the Severn; 7½ miles north-north-west of Worcester. Population 530.

To SHRED, *v. a.* pret. *shred.* [*ſcraean*, Sax.] To cut into small pieces. Commonly used of cloth or herbs: formerly applied to lopping or trimming trees; as, "*schregging* or *schredynge* of trees." *Prompt. Parv.*—Well shrubbed and *shred.* *Anderson.*—One gathered wild gourds, and *shred* them. *2 Kings.*

Where did you whet your knife to-night, he cries,
And *shred* the leeks that in your stomach rise. *Dryden.*

SHRED, *s.* A small piece cut off.

The mighty Tyrian queen that gain'd
With subtle *shreds* a tract of land,
Did leave it with a castle fair
To his great ancestor. *Hudibras.*

A fragment.

Shreds of wit and senseless rhimes
Blunder'd out a thousand times. *Swift.*

SHRE'DDING, *s.* [*Sax.*, *ſcraeanung.*] What is cut off.—It hath a number of short cuts or *shreddings*, which may be better called wishes than prayers. *Hooker.*

To SHREW, *v. a.* [*ſcraean*, Sax., to beguile, may perhaps be the origin of this word. From this forgotten verb, no doubt, the substantive *shrew* is derived; which anciently was applied to either sex; and in Robert of Gloucester denotes a tyrant, according to Hearne's Glossary. In Chaucer, it is used for an evil, a detestable, or a *cursed* person; and also for a tyrant or cruel.] To *beshrew*; to *curse.* *Obsolete.*—O nice proud churl, I *shrewe* his face. *Chaucer.*

SHREW, *s.* [*ſchreien*, Germ., to clamour. *Dr. Johnson.*—From the Sax., *ſcraean* (not to beguile, to lay snares for.) A peevish, malignant, clamorous, spiteful, vexatious, turbulent woman; formerly applied also to a worthless or wicked man.

There dede of hem vor hunger a thousand and mo,
And yat nolde the *screwen* to none pes go.

Robert of Gloucester.

Punish the *shrewes* and misdoers, and—defende the goode men. *Chaucer.*

Be merry, be merry, my wife has all;
For women are *shrews* both short and tall. *Shakspeare.*

By this reckoning he is more *shrew* than she. *Shakspeare.*
SHREW, or SHREW-MOUSE, in Zoology, the common name of the SOREX ARANEUS of Linnæus; which see.

SHREWD, *adj.* [the participle of the verb *shrew*; originally meaning evil, perverse, hurtful, dangerous. "Where is envie and stryf, there is unsteadfastnesse and al *schrewid* werk." *Wicliffe.*]—Having the qualities of a shrew; malicious; troublesome; mischievous.

Her eldest sister is so curst and *shrewd*,
That till the father rides his hands of her,
Your love must live a maid. *Shakspeare.*

Cunning; artful; clever.—It was a *shrewd* saying of the old monk, that two kind of prisons would serve for all offenders, an inquisition and a bedlam: if any man should deny the being of a God, and the immortality of the soul, such a one should be put into the first, as being a desperate heretic; but if any man should profess to believe these things, and yet allow himself in any known wickedness, such a one should be put into bedlam. *Tillotson.*—A spiteful saying gratifies so many little passions, that it meets with a good reception; and the man who utters it is looked upon as a *shrewd* satirist. *Addison.*—Corruption proceeds from employing those who have the character of *shrewd* worldly men, instead of such as have had a liberal education, and trained up in virtue. *Addison.*—Marked; painful; pinching; dangerous; mischievous.

Every of this number,
That have endur'd *shrewd* nights and days with us,
Shall share the good of our returned fortune. *Shakspeare.*

SHRE'WDLY, *adv.* Mischievously; destructively.—This practice hath most *shrewdly* past upon thee. *Shakspeare.*—At Oxford, his youth and want of experience in maritime service, had somewhat been *shrewdly* touched, even before the sluices of popular liberty were set open. *Wotton.*—Vexatiously.—The obstinate and schismatical are like to think themselves *shrewdly* hurt, forsooth, by being cut off from that body which they choose not to be of. *South.*—Cunningly.—Four per cent. increases not the number of lenders; as any man at first hearing will *shrewdly* suspect it. *Locke.*

SHRE'WINESS, *s.* Mischievousness; petulance.—In their houses is iniquitee and *shrewdnesse.* *Chaucer.*—Sly cunning; archness.

The neighbours round admire his *shrewdncss*,
For songs of loyalty and lewdness. *Swift.*

SHRE'WISH, *adj.* Having the qualities of a shrew; forward; petulantly clamorous.

Angelo, you must excuse us;
My wife is *shrewish* when I keep not hours. *Shakspeare.*

SHRE'WISHLY, *adv.* Petulantly; peevishly; clamorously; forwardly.—He speaks very *shrewishly*; one would think his mother's milk were scarce out of him. *Shakspeare.*

SHRE'WISHNESS, *s.* The qualities of a shrew; forwardness; petulance; clamorousness.

I have no gift in *shrewishness*,
I am a right maid for my cowardice;
Let her not strike me. *Shakspeare.*

SHREWLEY, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire; 4½ miles north-west of Warwick.

SHRE'WMOUSE, *s.* [*ſcraepa*, Sax.] A mouse. See MUS.

SHREWSBURY, an ancient market town and borough of England, in the county of Salop, and the chief town of the

the county. It is beautifully situated on the banks of the Severn, in a kind of peninsula made by a bend of the river. The air is salubrious; and, standing on several gentle eminences, the town has a bold and commanding appearance, and from every approach presents a pleasing variety of view; the spires of two of the churches, and the massive towers of the castle, adding greatly to the beauty of the prospect. A margin of garden and meadow ground interposes between the buildings and the river, except at the points where it is crossed by the bridges. On the west of the town, between St. Chad's new church and the river, is a very fine public walk, called the Quarry, along the banks of the Severn, overarched by magnificent lime-trees, which meet at their tops, and form a beautiful kind of Gothic vault. The exterior circle of the town is lined with a continued range of well built houses, which command in many places beautiful views of the adjacent country. The interior of the town is far from corresponding with its external appearance. The streets are intricately arranged, many of them steep and narrow, and all indifferently paved. The houses present a strange mixture of ancient and modern building. The public buildings, however, are much more respectable and well deserving of attention, both for their architecture and antiquity. The castle, which stands on a narrow neck of land on the Severn, was greatly enlarged by Roger de Montgomery, the Norman, who cleared away 51 houses for this purpose. Here he fixed one of the seats of his baronial power, and the castle continued in the possession of his sons, until the reign of Henry I. when it became by forfeiture a royal fortress. After the final submission of the Welsh, being no longer necessary as a military station, it gradually fell to decay. In the reign of James II. it was stripped of its cannon, musquets and ammunition; and probably at the same time the outworks were demolished, together with its ancient chapel. From its present state little idea can be formed of its former extent and grandeur. The buildings of it now remaining consist of two round towers and a curtain, the work of Edward I., built perhaps on the site of the Norman keep; the walls of the inner court, now a garden; and the great arch of the interior gateway, 18 feet high, the only remaining part of Roger de Montgomery's work. These remains now form a handsome dwelling-house, consisting of two round towers, embattled and pierced, and connected by an oblong building, about 100 feet long, and about half that height. The castle was defended by ramparts of stone thrown across the peninsula, from the castle to the river. Ramparts and walls also defended the town on its southern and eastern sides, considerable traces of which remain. The shire-hall is a modern building, finished in 1786, and exhibits a handsome stone front. Here are held all meetings of the corporation and county; also the courts of justice for the town and county. Of the churches, which are six in number, St. Giles's is a small plain building, a part of which is of considerable antiquity. It consists of a nave, chancel and north aisle, &c. St. Chad's church is of modern erection, having been built between 1790 and 1792, in lieu of the old collegiate church, which fell down in 1788, its repair having been too long neglected. It is built on a plan extremely novel, the body of the church being externally a circle 100 feet in diameter. Its appearance is very striking, the effect, however, being more owing to the fineness of the stone of which it is built, and the splendour of the ornaments, than the harmonious proportion and disposition of its parts. St. Mary's church, which was likewise collegiate, stands at the north-eastern part of the town. It is a large venerable building, in the form of a cross, and consists of a nave, side aisles, transept, chancel, choir and chapels, with a western steeple. The exterior presents various styles of architecture, from the era of the Norman conquest, or earlier, to that of queen Elizabeth. The nave is divided from the side aisles by semicircular arches; but those separating it from the choir are lofty and pointed. The chancel, transepts and chapels, display chiefly the pointed style. At the extremity of the former is a spacious window, in the later pointed style, which is

nearly filled with stained glass, from the ruins of Old St. Chad's church. From the tower, which is very large, and 74 feet high, rises a lofty and beautiful spire, which forms a conspicuous object from the surrounding country, and a great ornament to the town. It is elevated 138 feet above the tower. St. Alkmund's church was formerly collegiate; but the college was dissolved in the reign of king Stephen. The old church was taken down in 1793, and the present building raised in its stead. It presents a most wretched imitation of the ancient pointed architecture. Lastly, St. Julian's church is a plain substantial building, rebuilt in 1750. Besides these churches, and the Abbey church not yet described, Shrewsbury contains a Roman Catholic chapel, and meeting-houses for Presbyterians, Unitarians, Baptists, Methodists, and Quakers. Of the charitable institutions of Shrewsbury, the infirmary is one of the oldest provincial establishments of the kind in England, having been opened in 1747. The house is a plain but respectable brick building, with stone corners. It stands in a healthysituation, and in respect of internal arrangements, is equal to any other of the kind in the kingdom. The house of industry was originally a founding hospital, and was only converted to its present uses in 1784. It is governed by directors chosen from among the inhabitants of the town. About 275 persons are at an average maintained in the house. The internal arrangements are extremely judicious. The town contains also an hospital, founded by Mr. James Millington, draper, in 1734, together with several aims-houses. The free grammar school was founded and endowed by Edward VI., and afterwards augmented by queen Elizabeth. This institution having declined, an act of parliament was passed in 1798, for its improvement and better government. Its management was by this act committed to the bishop of Lichfield and Coventry, as visitor, and to 13 trustees or governors, of whom the mayor is one. The school is a large, lofty and substantial building of freestone, forming two sides of a square court. Several of the masters have been distinguished for their talents and learning; and many celebrated characters have been educated here. Bowdler's charity school was founded in 1724; Allatt's charity school in 1798, and the subscription charity school in 1708. The town and county jail and bridewell now form one building, which stands near the castle. Its situation is healthy and beautiful; and though it cannot boast of much elegance in its external appearance, it is spacious and airy, and every way adapted for its intended purposes. It is on the plan of Howard, a bust of whom, by Bacon, stands on a freestone arched gateway in front of the building. The market-house is one of the largest and most magnificent buildings of the kind in England. It was erected in the reign of queen Elizabeth, in the year 1595. It is built entirely of freestone. The principal front is towards the west; and in the centre, over a spacious portal, are the arms of queen Elizabeth, in high relief, under a rich canopy. On each side of this portal is an open arcade of three large circular arches, supported by columns. The north and south ends of the building are also ornamented with large open arches, over one of which stands a statue of Richard, duke of York. Adjoining the market-place is a conduit, which supplies great part of the town with water. The market-cross was a strong building of brick and stone, having a reservoir over it. It was taken down in 1819, the reservoir removed backwards, and a handsome new market-house erected by subscription. The theatre is part of the palace that formerly belonged to the barons of Powis. It is tolerably fitted up within. There are two bridges over the Severn at Shrewsbury, the Welsh bridge and the English or East bridge, both of them of recent erection, and in the place of older ones which had gone to decay, and from their narrowness were extremely incommodious. The Welsh bridge consists of five elegant arches, about 266 feet in the whole length, 20 feet high, and 30 broad. Adjoining to it is a quay, with warehouses. The English bridge extends 400 feet in length, and consists of seven semicircular arches, built of fine freestone.

stone. The central arch is 60 feet span, and 40 high. The breadth between the ballustrades is 25 feet, and the ornaments are light and graceful. In the suburb called the Abbey Foregate, are the remains, though now inconsiderable, of the abbey dedicated to St. Peter (to whom St. Paul was afterwards added), founded by Roger de Montgomery, and at one time a great resort of people from all parts of the kingdom, to the shrine of St. Winefrid, of which the monks here had got possession. The ground on which the abbey stood is now a garden. A curious part of the ruins is a small octagonal building, generally called the stone pulpit. It is overhung with ivy, and is reckoned a valuable antique. Its use is not very obvious, and has been a subject of much conjecture among antiquaries. The church was a spacious and magnificent building. The only part that remains is the nave, which is now used as a parish church, under the name of the Holy Cross, and in which the beauty of the ancient structure may still be traced in many parts. Besides the abbey, Shrewsbury had formerly a convent of Augustine friars, founded about the year 1256; two other convents, and five chapels, dedicated to their respective saints. Shrewsbury is a place of considerable trade. Flannels used to be the staple articles, and a coarse kind of woollen cloth made in Montgomeryshire, called Welsh webs, which were bought up in all parts of the country, often to the value of 1000*l.* per week, and dressed here for exportation, chiefly to Holland, Germany, North and South America, and the West Indies. The flannels were made in Montgomeryshire, and the neighbouring parts of Shropshire. They were bought at Welshpool by the Shrewsbury drapers, and were chiefly re-sold to London merchants for exportation. The webs are made in Merionethshire and Denbighshire, and were formerly brought to Shrewsbury market, but of late years they are bought up in the country. This trade in flannels, of which Shrewsbury had formerly a kind of monopoly, is now open to other parts of the county, but the town still continues a common mart for all sorts of commodities for Wales. About 20 vessels are employed on the Severn, between Shrewsbury, Gloucester, and Bristol. Some manufactures are also carried on in the town, viz., two large manufactories of linen yarn, a porter brewery, and an extensive iron foundry. Shrewsbury is famous for its excellent bran, which is sent to various parts of the kingdom. Salmon is somewhat scarce in the Severn, owing to weirs erected below Gloucester; but both that and other fish, as well as provisions of all sorts, are plentiful; and from the beauty of the situation, and other advantages, the town forms a very agreeable residence, and is inhabited by a great many genteel families. Shrewsbury is a corporation, both by charter and prescription. By the charter of Charles I. now in force, the corporation consists of a mayor, a recorder, steward, town-clerk, 24 aldermen, 48 assistants or common councilmen, and other officers. Besides the general corporation, here are 16 chartered companies, of which the drapers and mercers are the principal. Shrewsbury sends two members to parliament, and has done so from the earliest period of representation. They are chosen by the inhabiting burgesses, and the mayor is the returning officer. Shrewsbury is a place of great antiquity, and of considerable note in history. Its origin is referred to the 5th century, when the Britons are thought to have established themselves here, on account of the security afforded by the situation. It soon became the capital of the princes of Powis, and remained in the hands of the Britons for some ages, until they were dispossessed by the Saxons. In the reign of Alfred, it was numbered among the principal cities of his dominions. Being esteemed the most important town and fortress on the marches of Wales, it continued for many centuries to be one of the principal places of rendezvous for the English armies. It was hence often visited by the English monarchs, became the scene of many military events, and took uniformly an active share in the various contests of these turbulent periods. In 1215, it is said to have been retaken by the Welsh, who are supposed to have retained it till 1221, but there is no good authority for this assertion. In 1277, Edward I. made this

the principal seat of his court, while he was engaged in the final subjection of Wales; and till the conclusion of that war he removed hither the courts of exchequer and king's bench. About two miles from the town was fought the famous battle of Shrewsbury, in which Henry V., then prince of Wales, first distinguished himself in the field, and the brave Hotspur was slain. In the civil wars of Charles I. the king came hither, and was cordially welcomed by the inhabitants; but, in 1645, the army of the parliament succeeded in surprising and taking the town, an event which gave a severe blow to the royal cause, as it cut off the king's communication with North Wales, and put an end to a loyal association then forming among the western counties. At the entrance of the town from London is a splendid column of freestone (with appropriate inscriptions), erected by subscription in the town and county, and finished in the year 1816, at the total expence of above 6000*l.* to commemorate the military achievements of the gallant Shropshire hero, Lord Hill. Population return, 3229 houses, and 16,606 inhabitants, which includes those parts of the town parishes which lie in the country. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday; 40 miles west of Lichfield, and 154 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 42. N. long. 2. 45. W.

SHREWSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Rutland county, Vermont. Population 990.

SHREWSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 38 miles west of Boston. Population 1210.

SHREWSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Monmouth county, New Jersey; 77 miles north east of Philadelphia, and 47 north-east of Trenton. The compact part is pleasantly situated, and contains an Episcopal church and a Friends' meeting-house. It is a place of resort for company from Philadelphia and New York, in the summer. The township is extensive. Population 3773. Lat. 40. 21. N. long. 73. 21. W.

SHREWSBURY, a post township of the United States, in York county, Pennsylvania. Population 1792.

SHREWSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Lycoming county, Pennsylvania. Population 294.

SHREWSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Kenhaway county, Virginia.

SHREWSBURY, a river of the United States, in New Jersey, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 40. 22. N. long. 74. 2. W.

SHREWTON, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 5½ miles west-north-west of Amesbury.

To SHRIEK, *v. n.* [*skraeka*, Icel. *skrika*, Su. Goth., from *skrya*, to cry out; *schreien*, Germ., the same.] To cry out inarticulately with anguish or horror; to scream.

On top whereof ay dwelt the ghastly owl,

Shrieking his baleful note.

Spenser.

It was the owl that *shriek'd*, the fatal belman

Which gives the sternest good-night.

Shakspeare.

SHRIEK, *s.* An inarticulate cry of anguish or horror.

Time has been my senses wou'd have cool'd,

To hear a night *shriek*, and my fell of hair

Wou'd at a dismal treatise rouse and stir

As life were in't.

Shakspeare.

SHRIEVAL, *adj.* Belonging to the *shrieve* or *sheriff*.

Chaste were his cellars; and his *shrieval* board

The grossness of a city-feast abhor'd.

Absalom and Achitophel.

SHRIEVE, *s.* A corruption of *sheriff*.

SHRIEVALTY, *s.* Sheriffalty.

SHRIFT, *s.* [*sc̄ift*, Sax.] Confession made to a priest. A word out of use.

Off with

Bernardine's head: I will give a present *shrift*,

And will advise him for a better place.

Shakspeare.

The duke's commands were absolute,

Therefore my lord, address you to your *shrift*,

And be yourself; for you must die this instant.

Rowe.

SHRIGHT,

SHRIGHT, for *shrieked*.

Dame Pertelote *shright*

Ful louder than did Hasdruballes wife.

Chaucer.

She hid her face, and lowly *shright*.

Spenser.

SHRIGHT, *s.* A shriek.—That ladies loud and piteous *shright*. Spenser.

SHRIGLEY, a village of England, in Cheshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-east of Macclesfield.

SHRIKE, in Ornithology, an English name for several species of the LANIUS; which see.

SHRILL, *adj.* [from *schoerl* and *skrall*, Su. Goth. and Icel. an outcry; *skraela*, *skralla*, to make a noise or clamour. The old form of this word is *shirl* or *shirle*.] Sounding with a piercing, tremulous or vibratory sound.

Thy hounds shall make the welkin answer them,
And fetch *shrill* echoes from the hollow earth. Shakspeare.

The cock that is the trumpet to the morn,
Doth with his lofty and *shrill*-sounding throat
Awake the god of day. Shakspeare.

Look up a height, the *shrill*-gorg'd lark so far
Cannot be seen or heard. Shakspeare.

To SHRILL, *v. n.* To pierce the ear with sharp and quick vibrations of sound. *Unused*.

The sun of all the world is dim and dark;

O heavy herse,

Break we our pipes that *shrill'd* as loud as lark,

O careful verse.

Spenser.

A *shrilling* trumpet sounded from on high,
And unto battle bade themselves address. Shakspeare.

The females round,

Maids, wives and matrons, mix a *shrilling* sound. Pope.

To SHRILL, *v. a.* To express in a shrill manner; to cause to make a shrill sound. *Unused*.

Hark, how the minstrels gin to *shrill* aloud

Their merry music.

Spenser.

How Hecuba cries out!

How poor Andromache *shrills* her dolours forth!

Shakspeare.

SHRILLA, a small town of Ludamar, in Central Africa; 38 miles east-south-east of Benowm.

SHRILLNESS, *s.* The quality of being shrill.—These parts first dispose the voice to hoarseness or *shrillness*. Smith.

SHRILLY, *adv.* With a shrill noise.—Mount up aloft, my muse; and now more *shrilly* sing. More.

SHRIMP, *s.* [*schrump*, a wrinkle, German: *scrympe*, Danish.] A small crustaceous vermicated fish.—Of shell-fish there are wrinkles, *shrimps*, crabs. Carew.—Hawks and gulls can at a great height see mice on the earth, and *shrimps* in the waters. Derham.—A little wrinkled man; a dwarf.—So *scrimp* is the Scottish adjective for deficient, scanty, narrow; and to *scrimp*, is to straiten, to limit.

It cannot be, this weak and writhled *shrimp*
Should strike such terror in his enemies. Shakspeare.

He hath found,

Within the ground,

At last, no *shrimp*,

Whereon to imp

His jolly club.

B. Jonson.

SHRIMP, in Natural History, is the CANCER CRANGON of Linnæus; which see.

The white shrimp, or *cancer squilla*, is the prawn. (See CANCER SQUILLA.) It inhabits the coast of Kent.

By 30 Geo. II. c. 21., white shrimps in the river Thames and Medway are only to be taken from Bartholomew day to Good Friday; and red shrimps in the river Medway only from April 25 to July 1.

To SHRIMP, *v. a.* To contract. *Unused*.—Such things as these go for wit, so long as they continue in Latin; but what dimly *shrimped* things would they appear, if turned into English! Echard.

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SHRINE, *s.* [from Sax. *scrinium*, Lat.] A case in which something sacred is reposed.—Lovers are in rapture at the name of their fair idol; they lavish out all their incense upon that *shrine*, and cannot bear the thought of admitting a blemish therein. Watts.

To SHRINK, *v. n.* pret. I *shrank*, or *shrank*; part. *shrunken*, [from *scun*, Sax.] To contract itself into less room; to shrivel; to be drawn together by some internal power.

But to be still hot summer's tantlings, and
The *shrinking* slaves of winter. Shakspeare.

I am a scribbled form, drawn with a pen
Upon a parchment, and against this fire
Do I *shrink* up. Shakspeare.

To withdraw as from danger.

Nature stands aghast;

And the fair light which gilds this new made orb,
Shorn of his beams, *shrinks* in. Dryden.

All fibres have a contractile power, whereby they shorten; as appears if a fibre be cut transversely, the ends *shrink*, and make the wound gape. *Arbutnot*.—To express fear, horror, or pain, by shrugging, or contracting the body.

The morning cock crew loud,

And at the sound it *shrank* in haste away,
And vanish'd from our sight. Shakspeare.

I'll embrace him with a soldier's arm,
That he shall *shrink* under my courtesy. Shakspeare.

To fall back as from danger.

I laugh, when those who at the spear are bold
And venturous, if that fail them, *shrink* and fear
To endure exile, ignominy, bonds. Milton.

Fall on: behold a noble beast at bay,
And the vile huntsmen *shrink*. Dryden.

To SHRINK, *v. a.* part. pass. *shrunken*, *shrank*, or *shrunken*. To make to shrink.

O mighty Cæsar! dost thou lie so low?

Are all thy conquests, glories, triumphs, spoils,
Shrunk to this little measure? Shakspeare.

SHRINK, *s.* *Unused*.—Corrugation; contraction into less compass.—There is in this a crack, which seems a *shrink*, or contraction in the body since it was first formed. Woodward.—Contraction of the body from fear or horror.

This public death, receiv'd with such a cheer,
As not a sigh, a look, a *shrink* bewrays
The least felt touch of a degenerate fear. Daniel.

SHRI'NKER, *s.* One who shrinks.

We are no cowardly *shrinkers*,
But true Englishmen bred. Old Sea-Song.

SHRI'NKING, *s.* Act of falling back as from danger, or of drawing back through fear.—If a man accustoms himself to slight or pass over these first motions to good, or *shrinkings* of his conscience from evil,—conscience will by degrees grow dull and unconcerned. South.

SHRI'VALTY, *s.* Corrupted for SHERIFFALTY; which see.

To SHRIVE, *v. a.* [from *scruvan*, Saxon; *skrifsta*, Su. Goth. from the Lat. *scribo*, to write; the priests anciently giving to those whom they confessed, a *written* direction or form of penance.] To hear at confession. *Not in use*.

What, talking with a priest, lord chamberlain?
Your honour hath no *shriving* work in hand. Shakspeare.

If he had the condition of a saint, and the complexion of a devil, I had rather he should *shrive* me than wive me. Shakspeare.

To SHRIVE, *v. n.* To administer confession.—Where holy fathers went to *shrive*. Spenser.

To SHRI'VEL, *v. n.* It is perhaps only another form of *rivel*. See To RIVEL.] To contract itself into wrinkles.—

If she smelled to the freshest nosegay, it would *shrivel* and wither as it had been blighted. *Arbutnot.*

To SHRIV'EL, *v. a.* To contract into wrinkles.

When the fiery suns too fiercely play,
And *shrivel'd* herbs on with'ring stems decay,
The wary ploughman, on the mountain's brow,
Undams his watery stores.

Dryden.

SHRIVENHAM, a village of England, in Berkshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-west of Great Farringdon. Population 639.

SHRI'VE'R, *s.* A confessor. *Not in use.*

The ghostly father now hath done his shift,
When he was made a *shrivel* twas for shift.

Shakspeare.

SHRI'VING, *s.* Shrift.—Better a short tale, than a bad long *shriving*. *Spenser.*

SHROPHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles north-by-west of East Harding. Population 400.

SHROPSHIRE, or SALOP, an inland county of England, on the borders of Wales, bounded on the north by Denbighshire, the detached part of Flintshire, and Cheshire, on the east by Staffordshire, on the south by Worcestershire and Herefordshire, and on the west by Radnorshire, Montgomeryshire, and Denbighshire. It lies nearly within the parallels of 52° and 53° north latitude, and the meridians of 2° and 3° west longitude. Its figure is that of an irregular parallelogram, somewhat approaching to an oval, and extending about 44 miles in length from north to south, and 28 miles in breadth from east to west. Its circumference is 134 miles, and it contains 1403 square miles, or 898,000 acres, with 143 inhabitants to each mile. It is divided into 14 hundreds, and 222 parishes; contains 16 market towns, viz., Shrewsbury, Bishop's Castle Bridgenorth, Ludlow, Wenlock, Church-Stretton, Cleobury, Drayton, Ellesmere, Madely, Newport, Oswestry, Shiffnal, Wellington, Wem, and Whitchurch; and sends 12 members to Parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs of Shrewsbury, Ludlow, Bridgenorth, Wenlock, and Bishop's Castle. Shropshire is an extremely interesting county, from its note in history, its numerous remains of antiquity, the variety and beauty of its scenery, its richness in mineral productions, and its extensive system of inland navigation, which has contributed to render it a great emporium of the inland trade between England and Wales. The aspect of the country is greatly diversified, and comprehends every variety of picturesque landscape. From Shrewsbury northwards, extends with little interruption, over the whole breadth of the county, a vast plain, termed the plain of Salop, which, though flat compared with the surrounding hills, possesses yet a very varied surface. This low land extends also southward of Shrewsbury, nearly to Church Stretton, and also from Wellington, along the south-eastern boundary of the county, to Ludlow, leaving towards the south-west a district of high and mountainous land, being a lateral branch of the great range of mountains on the west. Many of these hills rise to a great height; and, according to the trigonometrical survey, Brown Cleehill is elevated 1805 feet above the level of the sea, Longmynd 1674 feet, and the noted Wrekin, to the east of Shrewsbury, and south of Wellington, 1320 feet. The river Severn runs through the very middle of Shropshire, and is the great glory and ornament of the county, winding beautifully through deep romantic valleys, covered with wood. Entering from Montgomeryshire, as its confluence with the Vyrnwy, it runs eastward to Shrewsbury, and then bending towards the south, and passing Wroxeter, Colebrook Dale, and Bridgenorth, leaves the county near Bewdley, on the borders of Staffordshire and Worcestershire. Its course within Shropshire is estimated at nearly 70 miles in length, in every part of which it is navigable, except in the height of summer, for barges, trams, wherries, and boats, and is supplied with salmon, and various other kinds of fish. The contributory streams to this great river belonging to the county are the Camlet, the Vyrnwy, the Perry, the Meole Brook or Rea, the Tern, the Cund Brook, the Warf, the Morbrook, the Bore Brook, and Dowles Brook. The other rivers

of any consequence in the county are the Teme, the Shelbrook, the Elf Brook, the Weaver, the Clun, the Ony, and the Corve. Shropshire contains also various lakes, which, though none of them are of any great extent, still add considerable variety to its landscapes. Ellesmere, which is the largest, covers about 116 acres of land. The climate of Shropshire varies with the elevation of the county; but the air is every where salubrious. On the eastern side of the county, where the land is warm and flat, harvest frequently begins a fortnight sooner than near the middle of the county, where the vales are extensive, but the surface less light, and the bottom often clayey; and hay and grain are both gathered earlier there than on the western side, where the vales are narrow, and the high lands extensive. Easterly winds prevail most in the spring; those from the west in autumn. The soil and surface of Shropshire are exceedingly various, and have been also variously described; so that every general account of them must be taken with considerable limitation. According to Bishton's Survey, on the north and north-east of the Severn a turnip soil chiefly prevails, intermixed with a tolerable proportion of meadow and pasture land. The banks of the Severn, which are often overflowed, produce hay in great plenty. On the south-west side of the Severn, from Alberbury, about eight miles wide, down to Cressage, the lands are in general pretty good, and contain pasture, wheat, and turnip land, but very variable. From Cressage, about six miles wide, to Bridgenorth, and from thence to Cleobury and Ludlow, there is chiefly a mixed soil upon clay, and partly thin. The remainder of the county, more to the south-west, is very variable, mostly thin soil, on clay or rock, with extensive tracks of hills and waste. On the whole, all sorts of land are to be found in the county, except chalk and flint. According to another account, in the hundred of Oswestry a deep loam and gravelly soil prevail; and in those of North Bradford and East Brimstree, a light or sandy loam. Pimhill hundred contains a mixture of boggy land and of sandy soil, with a greater proportion of sound wheat land. In the other hundreds, clays of different consistence form the most general soil; but there are numerous patches, both of deep and sandy loam, gravel, &c. Shropshire though no way remarkable for the excellence of its agriculture, is in general well cultivated, producing large quantities of grain of various kinds, much of which is sent down the Severn for exportation. Many cattle are fed in the level parts of the county; and much of the cheese sold under the name of Cheshire, is made here. The hilly district is chiefly devoted to the pasture of sheep, whose wool is of fine quality, and is employed in the manufactories of Wales. The neighbourhood of the Wrekin and Bridgenorth, and also that of Clun, are reckoned to yield wool equal to that of Leinster. Farms are in general of a large size; a very few are held in leases for life, others for 7, 10, or 21 years, and many from year to year only. All the ordinary white and green crops are generally cultivated; hops, hemp, flax, and cabbages, are also raised, but in small quantities, and the hops chiefly on the Herefordshire and Worcestershire border. The growth of hay, and the improvement of pasture lands, are rather neglected. Notwithstanding large annual falls of timber, there still remain in Shropshire some fine woods of oak, and a vast number of good hedgerow trees, chiefly ash and oak. In the south-west district, birches are common, both as trees and fences. There are also in the county many large tracts of coppice wood, which is in great demand at the iron-works, for charcoal; and several extensive modern plantations. Shropshire is comparatively free of waste lands. Most of the cultivated districts are enclosed, and the commons are every year decreasing. It contains several large mosses, and many small ones. The chief district of moorland is that near Kinnerley.

But it is its mineral riches, and the trade and manufactures to which they have given rise, by which Shropshire is chiefly distinguished. Coal is found in great abundance, and of excellent quality, in different parts of the county. The principal coal field lies in the district near Colebrook Dale extending about 8 miles in length, and 2 in breadth. Beginning



SHROPSHIRE.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

J. Pass

ing in the parishes of Barrow and Much Wenlock, on the west of the Severn, the boundary runs through those of Broseley, Madeley, Little Wenlock, Wellington, Dawley, Shiffnal, and Lilleshall. In every part of this track coal is found at various depths, and of excellent quality, and the coal strata are found alternating with ironstone, sandstone, and various other matters. In Madeley parish, the strata dip towards the east, and near Wellington and Lilleshall to the north and north-east. On the east the coal district is bounded by a long broad range of sandstone, beginning north of Shiffnal, and accompanying the course of the Severn till it quits the county; and on the south and west it is bounded by limestone, and the basalt of the hill of Wrekin. The limestone on the south forms the northern extremity of a long range which passes Wenlock in a south-west direction to Hope Bowdlerhill, near Church Stretton, and from thence southwards to the neighbourhood of Ludlow. In this district, as in other coal fields, the continuity of the strata is often broken by fissures or dikes, on the one side of which the strata have been either raised greatly above, or sunk greatly below those on the other, with which they have been at one time in contact. The principal of these disruptions run nearly north-east and south-west. Two of them have thrown the strata on the east and west sides from 100 to 200 yards lower than they are in the middle; and it is in this middle district, which the convulsion has of course brought nearer to the surface, that by far the greatest part of the coal and ironstone have been found. The ironstone is not rich; but the abundance of coal and of limestone with which it is accompanied, renders the working of it, notwithstanding, an object of profit; and it is this conjunction with the ore of both the fuel and the flux, to extract the purer metal, that has rendered Colebrook Dale and the adjoining country the seat of the most extensive iron works in the kingdom, and which have proved the source of vast wealth to individuals, as well as the permanent support of a numerous population. In this coal field is a remarkable spring of petroleum or mineral tar, which has yielded a vast quantity of that substance but is now much diminished. The petroleum also exudes from the freestone rock at Pitchford, seven miles south-south-east of Shrewsbury, where the stone approaches the surface in many places. From this rock is extracted an oil, known by the name of Betton's British oil. In this district is also a brine spring. Another bed of coal occurs near the north-west boundary of the county, extending parallel with the Welsh border, from the Dee southwards to the Severn. The coal in many parts of this track is wrought to a considerable extent, and besides its domestic use, is largely employed in the limeworks of Chirk and Llanymynech. On the west this coal field is bounded, and rests on an irregular band of limestone, which in some places rises at least 500 feet above the plain, and in others scarcely appears above the surface of the soil. In many parts, especially near Oswestry, it is in the state of perfect marble; and small quantities both of lead and copper have been found in it throughout. On the east the coal field is bounded by a ridge of freestone or sandstone, running from Ellesmere along the Perry, crossing the Severn, and terminating in the high grounds at Bicton and Onslow. To the east of this line, and the north of Shrewsbury and Newport, the whole county rests on an almost entire mass of red sandstone or freestone, which joins the sandstone on the east of the district of Colebrook Dale. A third considerable coal district is situated in the southern part of the county. The coal here, however, is not contained in one great field, but is disposed into various little beds or hollows, in each of which the strata dip, from the circumference downwards towards the centre, spreading out along the bottom and sides of the hollow or basin. These are mostly situated on the Brown Clee hill and the Titterston Clee hill, which are the highest hills in Shropshire, and, particularly the latter, have proved treasures to this part of the county. In the Brown Clee hill the coal lies in thin strata, and is only wrought by poor colliers on a small scale. On Titterston, the principal stratum is six feet thick; and here

are six coal fields, of which the most extensive and valuable is the Cornbrook, extending a mile long, and half a mile broad; and next to this are the Newbury and Hillwork coal fields. In the other parts of the county, intermediate between the coal fields, the rocky masses that occur are chiefly sandstone, limestone, trap-rocks, and schistus; and the principal minerals which they contain are lead and calamine. From the Wrekin proceeds southwards across the Severn a range of trap mountains, consisting, besides the Wrekin, of the hills of Acton Burnel, Frodesley, the Lawley, Caer Caradoc, and Hope Bowdler hills. The vale in which Church Stretton is situated separates these mountains from a very singular mass of hills called the Longmyud, which appear to be a kind of schistus. Between the road from Shrewsbury to Bishop's Castle and the vale of Montgomery, rises a high rocky track, the most elevated peak of which is called the Stiperstones; and it is here that the lead mines of the county are situated. This metal is procured in considerable quantity from various parts of the Stiperstones, but chiefly from the Hope and Snailbeach mines. The matrix of the ore is crystallised quartz, sulphate and carbonate of barytes, and carbonate of lime. The ore is sulphuret of lead, carbonate of lead, red lead ore, and blende, which yields also calamine or zinc. The lead ore is reduced at Minsterley and other places near the mines. It is then sent by land carriage to Shrewsbury, and there shipped, together with the raw calamine, in the Severn barges, and sent down to Bristol. The sandstone, which occurs so extensively in this county, affords an excellent building stone: it is chiefly of the red kind, but occurs also in some places white, especially at Grinshill, where it has been quarried in great quantities for the bridges, churches, and other public buildings in Shrewsbury. In the lordship of Cardington is found a quartz and clay, the former of which is said to be superior to that imported from Caermarthenshire for the Staffordshire potteries.

Of the manufactures of Shropshire, the most extensive are the iron-works, which are carried on in different parts of the great coal and iron district east of Shrewsbury, chiefly at Ketley, Oaken-gates, and in Colebrook Dale, a romantic glen winding between two immense wooded hills. A cast iron-bridge thrown over the Severn here, and the first of the kind erected in the kingdom, forms, by its elegant appearance a great ornament to this part of the county. In the Dale a work is carried on for obtaining coal-tar from the condensed smoke of the coal; and considerable potteries have also been established in this district. At Broseley, garden pots and other vessels of a coarse fabric are made; and this place is also noted for the manufacture of excellent tobacco pipes. At Chaughley is a china manufacture of great excellence. At Coalport coloured china of all sorts is made, and also Queen's or Wedgewood's ware. Shropshire also contains several mills for dyeing woollen cloths, and some cotton and linen manufactories. The great commercial importance of Shrewsbury, at an earlier period of history, arose from its trade in Welsh cloth, which was brought hither by the manufacturers, and hence dispersed over the kingdom, and to many parts of the continent. But the Shrewsbury monopoly of this important article has ceased for more than 30 years. Other dealers found their way into the country where these goods are made; the Shrewsbury drapers were obliged to do the same; and there is no market for the commodity now held in the town; but it still retains a share in the business. The trade, manufactures, and even the agriculture of Shropshire, have been greatly advanced by its canals, which, though of late introduction, owing perhaps to the natural advantages which it enjoyed by means of the navigation of the Severn, have been carried here to a great extent. The Shropshire canal begins at Donnington Wood, and terminates at Coalport on the Severn, running through an extensive assemblage of coal and iron works. The Ketley canal, from the Oaken-gates to the iron-works at Ketley, joins the Shropshire canal. These two canals are distinguished by a peculiar feature, that of inclined planes, which were first introduced here on the Ketley canal, as a substitute

substitute for locks. The boats are conveyed from a lower to a higher level on a double railway, one boat as it descends drawing another up by its preponderating weight. The Shrewsbury canal runs from Shrewsbury, by Wellington, to the coal works at Oaken-gates. It has in its line a tunnel, an aqueduct, and an inclined plane. The Ellesmere canal may be considered as a great system of canal navigation, extending through that large and fertile track of country which lies between the Severn and the Mersey on the one hand, and between the confines of North Wales and those of Staffordshire on the other. Its grand object, is to unite the Severn, the Dee, and the Mersey, and thus to open a communication with Bristol on the south, and Liverpool on the north. The navigation of the Severn, though of vast advantage to this county, is yet subject to great inconvenience and frequent interruption, from the rise and fall of the waters, which, in the time of floods, rush with unmeasured impetuosity, and at other seasons afford no adequate supply for floating vessels of any burden over the shoals. Different plans have been proposed to remedy this evil, but none of them have hitherto been carried into effect. The obvious improvement, however, is now beginning to be adopted, of constructing a pathway along the banks of the river, and of employing horses instead of men in the laborious operation of towing. The turnpike roads of this county are tolerable, but the parish roads are in general bad, the repair of them being neglected.

At the time of the Roman invasion, in the reign of Claudius, Shropshire was inhabited by the two tribes of the Ordovices and Cornavii. After the defeat of Caractacus, which most contend took place in this county, it became part of the province of Flavia Cæsariensis, and while the Romans remained in Britain, seems to have enjoyed undisturbed tranquillity, but afterwards became the theatre of war between the Britons and the Saxons. For some centuries it constituted part of the kingdom of Powisland, of which Pengwern, near Shrewsbury, was the capital; but in the reign of the great Offa it fell under the dominion of the Saxons, and an immense rampart of earth was formed by the conqueror for its security, extending 100 miles along the confines of Wales. After the Norman conquest, nearly the whole of Shropshire was bestowed on Roger de Montgomery. In the subsequent reigns, the lords of the marches of Wales exercised here, as well as in the neighbouring counties, an authority almost absolute, which was considerably controlled, however, in the later times; and after the union of England and Wales, became quite subordinate to that of the crown. During the various revolts that occurred after the death of Edward I., and also during the wars of York and Lancaster, Shropshire was occasionally the scene of military events, the principal of which was the battle of Shrewsbury. In the civil wars of Charles I. it was distinguished for its loyalty. Of the antiquities of Shropshire, the chief Roman stations in it were Uriconium, now Wroxeter, Ruturinum, thought by some to be near Wem. Watling-street enters the county in the east, near Crackley Wood, and passes through it with a bending line to Leintwardine, on the southern border. Of the Norman and subsequent ages, many remains exist in the castles, priories, and churches of the county, which contain also various encampments. Population returns:—

Houses.	39,495
Inhabitants.	194,298
Families employed in agriculture.	16,693
————— in trade	16,744
Others.	6,022

Shrewsbury, is the chief town.

SHROUD, *s.* [ʃrɒʊd, Saxon.] The Sax. ʃrɒʊd means apparel, garments; from ʃrɒʊþan, to clothe, as Dr. Jamieson also has observed, who adds that Verelius gives the Icel. *skraut*, pomp, elegance, as the origin; *skrud*, which is also Icelandic, denoting elegant dress, or that used on occasions of ceremony.] A shelter; a cover.

It would warm his spirits,
To hear from me you had left Anthony,
And put yourself under his *shroud*, the universal landlord.
Shakspeare.

By me invested with a veil of clouds,
And swaddled, as new-born, in sable *shrouds*,
For these a receptacle I design'd.
Sandys

The dress of the dead; a winding-sheet.
Now the wasted brands do glow;
Whilst the screech-owl screeching loud,
Puts the wretch that lies in woe
In remembrance of a *shroud*.
Shakspeare.

The ropes extending from the masts to the sides of the ship. It seems to be taken sometimes for the sails.—I turned back to the mast of the ship; there I found my sword among some of the *shrouds*. *Sidney.*

Soft o'er the *shrouds* aerial whispers breathe,
That seem'd but zephyrs to the croud beneath.
Pope.

The branch of a tree.—We are led to suspect, that our author in some of these instances has an equivocal reference to *shrouds* in the sense of the branches of a tree, now often used. *Warton.*

To SHROUD, *v. a.* To shelter; to cover from danger as an agent.—Under your beams I will me safely *shroud*. *Spenser.*—To shelter as the thing covering.—One of these trees, with all his young ones, may *shroud* four hundred horsemen. *Raleigh.*—To dress for the grave.

Whoever comes to *shroud* me, do not harm
That subtle wreath of hair about mine arm.
Donne.

To clothe; to dress. To cover or conceal.
That same evening, when all *shrouded* were
In careless sleep, all, without care or fear,
They fell upon the flock.
Spenser.

To defend; to protect.
So Venus from prevailing Greeks did *shroud*
The hope of Rome, and sav'd him in a cloud.
Waller.
[ʃrɒʊðan, Sax. See To SHRAG.] To cut or lop off the top branches of trees.

To SHROUD, *v. n.* To harbour; to take shelter.
If your stray attendance be yet lodg'd,
Or *shroud* within these limits, I shall know
Ere morrow wake.
Milton.

SHROU'DY, *adj.* Affording shelter.
If your stray attendance be yet lodg'd
Within these *shroudy* limits.
Milton.

To SHROVE, *v. n.* To join in the processions, sports, and feastings, anciently observed at *shrovetide*.

'Twill be rarely strange
To see him stated thus, as though he went
A *shroving* through the city, or intended
To set up some new wake.
Beaum. and Fl.

SHRO'VETIDE, or SHRO'VE-TUESDAY, *s.* [from *shrove*, the preterite of *shrive*.] The time of confession; the day before Ash-Wednesday or Lent, on which anciently they went to confession.
At *shrovetide* to shroving.
Tusser.

'Tis merry in hall, when beards wag all,
And welcome merry *shrovetide*.
Shakspeare.

SHRO'VING, *s.* The festivity of shrovetide.—Eating, drinking, merry-making, — what else, I beseech you, was the whole life of this miserable man here, but in a manner a perpetual *shroving*? *Hales.*

SHRUB, *s.* [ʃrɒʊb, Saxon; and *scrub* or *scrob* is our old word for *shrub*, yet retained in the name "Wormwood-scrubs," a place near London. The Gael. *scraban*, likewise means a stunted bush.] A bush; a small tree.—Trees generally shoot up in one great stem or body; and then at a good distance from the earth spread into branches; thus gooseberries

gooseberries and currants are *shrubs*; oaks and cherries are trees. *Locke*.

He came into a gloomy glade,
Cover'd with boughs and *shrubs* from heaven's light.
Spenser.

A liqueur, probably from the Arabic *sharab*, syrup.
To SHRUB, *v. a.* To rid from bushes or trees. *Unused*.
—Though they be well *shrubbed* and shred, yet they begin even now before the spring to bud, and hope again in time to flourish as the green bay-tree. *Anderson*.

SHRUBBERY, *s.* A plantation of shrubs.—He placed a cast of the Medicean Venus in his *shrubbery*; and one of the piping Fawn in a small circle of firs, hazels, and other elegant shrubs. *Graves*.

SHRUBBY, *adj.* Resembling a shrub.—Plants appearing withered, *shrubby* and curled, are the effects of immoderate wet. *Mortimer*.—Full of shrubs; bushy.

Gentle villager,
What readiest way would bring me to that place? —
Due west it rises from this *shrubby* point. *Milton*.

Consisting of shrubs.
On that cloud-piercing hill
Plinlimmon, the goats their *shrubby* browse
Gnaw pendent. *Philips*.

SHRUFF, *s.* Dross; the refuse of metal tried by the fire. *Unused*. *Johnson*.

To SHRUG, *v. n.* [*shricken*, Dutch; to tremble. — *Sueth*. *skruka*, to lift up the shoulders; from *schrick*, Dutch, *skrack*, Su., a trembling.] To express horror or dissatisfaction by motion of the shoulders or whole body.—Like a fearful deer that looks most about when he comes to the best feed, with a *shrugging* kind of tremor through all her principal parts, she gave these words. *Sidney*.

To SHRUG, *v. a.* To contract or draw up.—Let me shroud and *shrug* myself into my shell, as a tortoise. *Florio*.

He *shrugg'd* his sturdy back,
As if he felt his shoulders ake. *Hudibras*.

SHRUG, *s.* A motion of the shoulders, usually expressing dislike or aversion.

And yet they ramble not to learn the mode,
How to be drest, or how to lisp abroad,
To return knowing in the Spanish *shrug*. *Cleveland*.

As Spaniards talk in dialogues,
Of heads and shoulders, nods and *shrugs*. *Hudibras*.

SHRULE, a river of Ireland, which runs into the Mourne; 5 miles south of Strabane.

SHRUNK, the preterite and part. passive of *shrink*.—Leaving the two friends alone, I *shrunk* aside to the Banqueting-house, where the pictures were. *Sidney*.

SHRUNKEN, the part. passive of *shrink*.—If there were taken out of men's minds vain opinions, it would leave the minds of a number of men, poor *shrunk* things, full of melancholy. *Bacon*.

SHUBENACADIE, a river of Nova Scotia, which rises within a mile of the town of Dartmouth, on the east side of Halifax harbour, and empties into Cobequid bay, taking in its course the Slewiack and Gay's rivers. The great lake of the same name lies on the east side of the road which leads from Halifax to Windsor, and about seven miles from it, and 21 miles from Halifax.

SHUCK, in Agriculture, provincially a stack, or twelve sheaves of corn set up together in the harvest field.

SHUCKBURGH, UPPER, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 3 miles east of Southam.

SHUCKBURGH, LOWER, a parish in the above county; 2 miles east of the foregoing.

To SHUDDER, *v. n.* [*schuttern*, Germ. freq. of *schuten*, to tremble; *schudden*, Teut. the same.] To quake with fear, or with aversion.

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All the other passions fleet to air,
As doubtful thoughts, and rash embrac'd despair,
And *shuddering* fear. *Shakspeare*.

SHUDDER, *s.* A tremor; the state of trembling.—Into strong *shudders*, and to heavenly agues. *Shakspeare*.

SHUDY CAMPS, a parish of England, in Cambridge-shire; 4 miles east of Linton.

To SHUFFLE, *v. a.* [*jeÿjeling*, Sax. a bustle, a tumult. *Dr. Johnson*.—Rather from *rcufan*, to shove, to push with violence, to drive forward; *schuyffen*, *schuyffelen*, Teut. the same.] To throw into disorder; to agitate tumultuously, so as that one thing takes place of another; to confuse; to throw together tumultuously.—In most things good and evil lie *shuffled*, and thrust up together in a confused heap; and it is study which must draw them forth and range them. *South*.—We shall in vain, *shuffling* the little money we have from one another's hands, endeavour to prevent our wants; decay of trade will quickly waste all the remainder. *Locke*.—To change the position of cards with respect to each other.—The motions of *shuffling* of cards, or casting of dice, are very light. *Bacon*.—To remove, or introduce with some artificial or fraudulent tumult.

Her mother,
Now firm for Doctor Caius, hath appointed
That he shall likewise *shuffle* her away. *Shakspeare*.

To SHUFFLE *off*. To get rid of.
In that sleep of death, what dreams may come,
When we have *shuffled off* this mortal coil,
Must give us pause. *Shakspeare*.

To SHUFFLE *up*. To form tumultuously, or fraudulently.—They sent forth their precepts to convene them before a court of commission, and there used to *shuffle up* a summary proceeding by examination, without trial of jury. *Bacon*.

To SHUFFLE, *v. n.* To throw the cards into a new order.
Cards we play

A round or two; when us'd, we throw away,
Take a fresh pack: nor is it worth our grieving
Who cuts or *shuffles* with our dirty leaving. *Granville*.

To play mean tricks; to practise fraud; to evade fair questions.—I myself, leaving the fear of heaven on the left hand, and hiding mine honour in my necessity, am fain to *shuffle*. *Shakspeare*.—Though he durst not directly break his appointment, he made many a *shuffling* excuse. *Arbuthnot*.—To struggle; to shift.

Your life, good master,
Must *shuffle* for itself. *Shakspeare*.

To move with an irregular gait.

Mincing poetry,
'Tis like the forc'd gait of a *shuffling* nag. *Shakspeare*.

SHUFFLE, *s.* The act of disordering things, or making them take confusedly the place of each other.—Is it not a firmer foundation for contentment, to believe that all things were at first created, and are continually disposed for the best, than that the whole universe is mere bungling, nothing effected for any purpose, but all ill-favourably cobbled and jumbled together, by the unguided agitation and rude *shuffles* of matter. *Bentley*.—A trick; an artifice.—The gifts of nature are beyond all shams and *shuffles*. *L'Estrange*.

SHUFFLEBOARD, *s.* The old name of SHOVELBOARD; which see.

SHUFFLECAP, *s.* A play at which money is shaken in a hat.—He lost his money at chuckfarthing, *shufflecap*, and all-fours. *Arbuthnot*.

SHUFFLER, *s.* One who plays tricks, or shuffles.

SHUFFLING, *s.* Act of throwing into disorder; confusion.—Children should not lose the consideration of human nature in the *shufflings* of outward conditions: the more they have, the better humoured they should be taught to be. *Locke*.—Trick; artifice.—His own book is a perpetual detail of his own *shufflings* or mistakes. *Bentley*.—An irregular gait.

SHUFFLINGLY, *adv.* With an irregular gait.—I may go *shufflingly*, for I was never before walked in trammels; yet I shall drudge and moil at constancy, till I have worn off the hitching in my pace. *Dryden.*

SHUG, in Agriculture, a term used to imply the shaking of any thing, as hay, &c.

SHUGGINS, a word signifying that which is shed or scattered, as grain at harvest, &c.

SHUJAWULPORE, a considerable town of Hindostan, province of Mulwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. It consists of a fortified town or citadel, and extensive suburbs, in which are some good houses. It carries on very considerable trade; and a quantity of opium is grown in the neighbourhood. It is pleasantly situated on the banks of the Jumary river. Lat. 23. 43. N. long. 76. 45. E.

SHUJUHABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Moultan, situated 18 miles from the city of Moultan.

SHUK, in Agriculture, a term sometimes provincially applied to a husk or shell.

SHUKASKU, a large village of Irak Arabi, on the western bank of the Euphrates, in the territory of the powerful tribe of Montefidge. It is a flourishing place, and carries on a great traffic with Bassora, the Euphrates being navigable up to this place for large boats. The surrounding pastures are very rich, and numerous horses are reared, for which Shukasku is a great mart. A little below this place, the Euphrates unites its waters with those of the Tigris, forming the Sbat ul Arab.

SHUME, or **ASSHUME**, a violent hot wind of Africa, or as they are called, *Oncas*, which in the intermediate journies between several parts of the Desart or Sahara, occasions great inconvenience and distress to travellers. It sometimes wholly exhales the water carried in skins by the camels for the use of the passengers and drivers: on which occasions the Arabs and people of Soudon affirm, that 500 dollars have been given for a draught of water, and that 10 or 20 are commonly given, when a partial exhalation has occurred.

SHUMLA. See **SCHUMLA**.

SHUMSABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore, belonging to the Seiks. It is situated on the east side of the river Jhylum. Lat. 32. 16. N. long. 72. 15. E.

SHUMSHAIRABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra, and district of Furruckabad. It was formerly chiefly inhabited by Afghans of the tribe of Bungush, most of whom have emigrated since it came under the British controul. It is situated 5 miles south-east of Mow.

SHUMUM, a village of Lower Egypt, on the Nile; 13 miles north-west of Cairo.

To SHUN, *v. a.* [*runian, Saxon.*] To avoid; to decline; to endeavour to escape; to eschew.

Birds and beasts can fly their foe:

So chanticler, who never saw a fox,

Yet *shun'd* him as a sailor *shuns* the rocks. *Dryden.*

To SHUN, *v. n.* To decline; to avoid to do a thing.

The lark still *shuns* on lofty boughs to build,

Her humble nest lies silent in the field.

Waller.

SHUNA, a small island near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 56. 13. N. long. 5. 33. W.

SHUNAITE EZZAILLE, a village of Upper Egypt; 30 miles south-west of Girge.

SHUNDRABANDY, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, district of Tinnevely. Lat. 9. 35. N. long. 77. 45. E.

SHU'NLESS, *adj.* Inevitable; unavoidable.

Alone he enter'd

The mortal gate of the city, which he painted.

With *shunless* destiny.

Shakspeare.

SHUNNOR FELL, a mountain of England, in Yorkshire, 2329 feet above the level of the sea.

SHURBA, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 30 miles east-south-east of Boli.

SHURDINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; 3½ miles south-west of Cheltenham.

SHURIRY, LOCH, a small lake of Scotland, in the county of Caithness, which gives rise to the river Forse.

SHURLOCH, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 1½ mile east-south-east of Norwich.

SHUS, a large mass of ruins in the province of Khusistan, in Persia, extending for the space of about 12 miles from the Kerah to the Alzal. They occupy an immense extent of ground; and, like the ruins of Ctesephon, Babylon and Cufa, consist of hillocks of earth and rubbish, covered with broken pieces of brick and coloured tile. The two largest and most remarkable of these mounds stand at the distance of about two miles from the Kerah. The first, at the lowest computation, is a mile in circumference, and nearly a hundred feet high; and the other, though not quite so high, has double the circumference. These mounds bear some resemblance to the pyramids of Babylon, with this difference, that instead of being entirely formed of brick, they consist of clay and pieces of tile, with irregular layers of brick and mortar, five or six feet thick, intended, it should seem, as a kind of prop to the mass. The Arabs, in digging for hidden treasure, often discover here large blocks of marble, covered with hieroglyphics. The reasonings of Major Rennell, joined to the observations of Mr. Kinneir, seem to fix this site as that of the ancient capital of Susa, instead of Shuster, according to the common opinion.

SHUSTER, the principal district of the province of Khusistan, in Persia, and composing a government by itself. It forms the fairest portion of the ancient Susiana, being watered by four noble rivers, and a number of smaller streams, which traverse the plain in every direction. The oppression of the governor, however, joined to the depredations of the wandering tribes who occupy the fortresses of the neighbouring mountains, have reduced this fine territory almost to a desert. Even in the few districts which enjoy any degree of fertility, the corn is chiefly raised by the officers of government, and the richer citizens.

SHUSTER, a city of Persia, capital of the province of Khusistan, at the foot of a range of mountains, and on an eminence overlooking the rapid course of the Karoon. It is defended on the western side by the river, and on the other sides by the old stone wall, now fallen into decay. The houses are good, being principally built of stone, but the streets are narrow and dirty. The population exceeds 15,000, Persians and Arabs; and there is a considerable manufactory of woollen stuffs, which are exported to Bassora, in return for the Indian commodities brought from thence. This city has been generally believed to be the ancient Susa; but there seems ground for placing this rather on the site of Shus. Shuster, however, contains ruins which testify it to have been a place of vast extent, and considerable magnificence. The most remarkable are the castle, built on a small hill at the eastern extremity of the town; the dyke erected by Sapor, across the Karoon, with the view of directing the waters into a channel more advantageous to agriculture; and the bridge, built of hewn stone, and consisting of thirty-two arches, twenty-eight of which are still entire. Lat. 32. N. long. 48. 59. E.

SHUSTOCK, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire; 3½ miles east-north-east of Coleshill.

To SHUT, *v. a.* preterite, *I shut*; part. pass. *shut*. [*scutan, Saxon*; *schutten, Dutch.*] To close so as to prohibit ingress or regress; to make not open.—We see more exquisitely with one eye *shut* than with both open; for that the spirits visual unite more, and become stronger. *Bacon.*—To inclose; to confine.—Before faith came, we were kept under the law, *shut* up unto the faith, which should afterwards be revealed. *Gal.*—They went in male and female of all flesh; and the Lord *shut* him in. *Gen.*—To prohibit; to bar.

Shall that be *shut* to man, which to the beast
Is open?

Milton.

To

To exclude.

On various seas, not only lost,
But *shut* from every shore, and barr'd from every coast.

Dryden.

To contract; not to keep expanded.—Harden not thy heart, nor *shut* thine hand from thy poor brother. *Deut.*

To SHUT out. To exclude; to deny admission to.—Sometimes the mind fixes itself with so much earnestness on the contemplation of some objects, that it *shuts out* all other thoughts. *Locke.*

To SHUT up. To close; to make impervious; to make impassable, or impossible to be entered or quitted. *Up* is sometimes little more than emphatical.—His mother *shut up* half the rooms in the house, in which her husband or son had died. *Addison.*

To SHUT up. To confine; to inclose; to imprison.—Lucullus, with a great fleet, *shut up* Mithridates in Pitany. *Arbuthnot.*

To SHUT up. To conclude.

The king's a-bed,

He is *shut up* in measureless content.

Shakespeare.

To leave you blest, I would be more accurst
Than death can make me; for death ends our woes,
And the kind grave *shuts up* the mournful scene. *Dryden.*

To SHUT, *v. n.* To be closed; to close itself: as, flowers open in the day, and *shut* at night.

SHUT. Participle adjective. Rid; clear; free. *Obsolete.*—We must not pray in one breath to find a thief, and in the next to get *shut* of him. *L'Estrange.*

SHUT, *s.* Close; act of shutting.

I sought him round his palace, made inquiry
Of all the slaves; but had for answer,
That since the *shut* of evening none had seen him. *Dryden.*

Small door or cover.—The wind-gun is charged by the forcible compression of air, the imprisoned air serving, by the help of little falls or *shuts* within, to stop the vents by which it was admitted. *Wilkins.*

SHUTE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 2 miles north of Colyton. Population 584.

SHUTESBURY, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Massachusetts; 80 miles west of Boston. Here is a medicinal spring, opened by an earthquake in 1815. It is much resorted to in all cutaneous complaints.

SHUTFORD, EAST and WEST, adjoining hamlets of England, in the parish of Swacliffe, Oxfordshire; 5 miles west of Banbury.

SHUTLANGER, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 7 miles from Stony Stratford.

SHUTTER, *s.* One that shuts; a cover; a door.

The wealthy, —

Sleep at ease; the *shutters* make it night.

Dryden.

SHUTTINGTON, or SHUTTENDON, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-by-north of Tamworth.

SHUTTLE, *s.* [*schietspoole*, Teut., *skutul*, Icelandic; from *skiuta*, Sweth. to shoot, to push, to drive through. *Sercnius.*] The instrument with which the weaver shoots the cross threads.

Like *shuttles* through the loom, so swiftly glide
My feather'd hours.

Sandys.

This instrument, with a thread it contains, either of woollen, silk, flax, or other matter, serves to form the woofs of stuffs, cloths, linen, ribbands, &c., by throwing the shuttle alternately from left to right, and from right to left, across between the threads of the warp, which are stretched out lengthways on the loom.

In the middle of the shuttle is a kind of cavity, called the eye or chamber of the shuttle; in which is enclosed the spool, which is a part of the thread destined for the woof; and

this is wound on a little tube of paper, rush, or other matter.

The ribband-weaver's shuttle is very different from that of most other weavers, though it serves for the same purpose; it is of box, six or seven inches long, one broad, and as much deep; shod with iron at both ends, which terminate in points, and are a little crooked, the one towards the right, and the other towards the left, representing the figure of an ∞ horizontally placed.

SHUTTLECOCK, *s.* A cork stuck with feathers, and beaten backward and forward. See SHUTTLECOCK.

With dice, with cards, with billiards far unfit,

With *shuttlecocks* misseeming mauly wit.

Spenser.

SHUTUP, POINT, a cape in the straits of Magellan, on the South American shore. Lat. 53. 54. S. long. 71. 32. W.

SHY, *adj.* [*schoww*, Teut. as, "*schow* or *schowigh* peerd," a shy or timid horse; *skij skyg*, Su. Goth., applied also to a horse. See Kilian, and Junius. Serenius cites the Su. Goth. *skij*, to avoid, to shun; which agrees with the Teut. *schowen*, or *schuwen*.] Reserved; not familiar; not free of behaviour.—What makes you so *shy*, my good friend? There's no body loves you better than I. *Arbuthnot.*—Cautious; wary; chary.

We grant, although he had much wit,

H' was very *shy* of using it,

As being loth to wear it out,

And therefore bore it not about.

Hudibras.

Suspicious; jealous; unwilling to suffer acquaintance.—Princes are, by wisdom of state, somewhat *shy* of their successors; and there may be supposed in queens regnant a little proportion of tenderness that way more than in kings. *Wotton.*

SHY'LY, or SHILY, *adv.* Not familiarly.

SHY'NESS, *s.* Unwillingness to be familiar; unsociableness; reservedness.—Mr. Loveday used to style *shyness* the English madness. If indulged, it may be the cause of madness, by driving men to shun company, and live in solitude; which few heads are strong enough to bear; none, if it be joined with idleness. Or it may be the effect of madness, which is misanthropic and malignant: some say, pride is always at the bottom. *Bp. Horne.*

SI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan.

SI, or SIA, a town of China, of the second rank, in Chan-si. Lat. 36. 40. N. long. 110. 31. E.

SIABERSDASJOLK, a considerable river of Norwegian Lapland, which joins the Altenelv, a larger stream that falls into the northern ocean at Altengard.

SIABISCH, a river of Asiatic Russia, which falls into the Abakan, near Bankalova, in the government of Koliwan.

SIACHOQUE, a settlement of South America, in New Granada, and in the province of Tunja; half a league north-east of Tunja. Population 600, one-half Indians.

SI-ACTION, in law, the conclusion of a plea to the action, when the defendant demands judgment, if the plaintiff ought to have his action, &c.

SIAK, a river of Sumatra, and one of the largest in the island, which discharges itself into the sea nearly opposite Malacca, in lat. 1. 40. N. It was recently surveyed by Mr. Lynch, under the orders of the British government of Prince of Wales island. From the place where it discharges itself into the straits of Campar, or Bancalis, to the town of Siak, is about 65 miles, and from thence to a place called Pakanbharu, where the survey discontinues, is about 100 more. The width of the river is in general from about half to three quarters of a mile, and its depth from 7 to 15 fathoms; but on the bar at low water there are only 15 feet, and several shoals near its mouth; the tides about 11 feet at the town. Not far within the river is a small island, on which the Dutch had formerly a factory. According to the information of the natives, the river is navigable for sloops to a place called Panti Chermin, being eight days' sail, with the assistance of the tide, and within half a day's journey by land,

land, of another named Patapahan, which boasts also of 10 to 20 tons reach in two days. This is a great mart of trade with the interior, and here its merchants resort with their gold. Pakanbharu, the limit of Mr. Lynch's voyage, is much lower down, and the above-mentioned places are consequently not noticed by him. The shores are flat on both sides, to a considerable distance up the country, and the whole of the soil is probably alluvial. According to Mr. Lynch, ship-timber of any dimensions or shape may be procured and loaded on its shores.

SIAM, a town and district of Sumatra, extending about 450 miles along the north-east coast. The trade is considerable, and is carried on in vessels from the coast of Coromandel, which supply cargoes of piece goods, and also raw silk, opium, and other articles, which they provide at Pinang or Malacca; in return for which they receive gold, wax, sago, salted fish and fish-roses, elephants' teeth, gambir, camphor, rattans and other canes. The maritime power of the kingdom of Siak has always been considerable, and in the history of the Malayan states, we repeatedly read of expeditions fitted out from thence, making attacks upon Johor, Malacca, and various other places on the two coasts of the peninsula. Most of the neighbouring states (or rivers) on the eastern coast of Sumatra, from Langat to Jambi, are said to have been brought in modern times under its subjection. Little information was procured relative to the town. In 1808, it was governed by the brother of the rajah who ruled over the country.

SIAL, a small island, forming a harbour in the Red Sea, near the coast of Egypt. Lat. 24. 30. N. long. 35. 2. E.

SIALAGOGUES, in Medicine, from *σιαλος*, *saliva*, and *αγο*, *I excite*, comprehend all such medicines as increase the flow of saliva.

SIALISMUS, formed from *σιαλον*, *saliva*, a word used by the ancients to express a discharge of saliva, brought on by the holding hot things in the mouth; and by us for a salivation by mercury.

SIALO, a town on the east coast of the island of Sibiu. Lat. 9. 58. N. long. 123. 30. E.

SIALOCHI, a term used by the ancients to express such persons as had a plentiful discharge of saliva, by whatever means. Hippocrates uses it for a person having a quinsy, who discharges a very large quantity of saliva. Others express by it persons, whose mouths naturally abound with a bitter saliva; and others, such persons as, from having a very large tongue, spit into people's faces while talking with them.

SIAM, a country of Asia, the name of which is of uncertain origin, but probably derived from the Portuguese, in whose orthography Siam and Siao are the same; so that Sian, or Siang, might be preferable, as Loubere has suggested, to Siam; and the Portuguese writers in Latin call the natives "Siones." The Siamese style themselves "Tai," or freemen, and their country "Meuang Tai," or the kingdom of freemen. The Portuguese might possibly derive the name Siam from intercourse with the Peguese. "Shan," however, is the oriental term. Before the recent extension and encroachments of the Birman empire, the rich and flourishing monarchy of Siam was regarded as the chief state of exterior India; but some of its limits are not now easily ascertained. On the west of the Malayan peninsula some few possessions may remain to the south of Tanaserim; and on the eastern side of that Chersonese, Ligor may mark the boundary. On the west, a chain of mountains divides Siam, as formerly, from Pegu; but the northern province of Yunshan seems to belong to the Birmans; who extended their territory, in this part, to the river Maykang; and the limits may perhaps (says Pinkerton) be a small ridge running east and west above the river Anan. To the south and east the ancient boundaries are fixed; the ocean, and a chain of mountains, dividing Siam from Laos and Cambodia: so that, according to the ancient description of this kingdom, it may be considered as a large vale between two ridges of mountains. The northern boundaries, as defined by Loubere, evince that Siam has lost little

in that quarter. His city Chiamai is probably Zamee, fifteen days' journey beyond the Siamese frontier. The northern limit is therefore at 19°, and not at 22°, as he erroneously states its latitude; and therefore the length of the kingdom may be about 10°, or near 700 British miles, and about one-half of this not above 70 miles in medial breadth. Or its admeasurement may be more accurately stated from about 11° of north lat. to 19°; being in length of about 550 British miles, by a breadth of 240.

This kingdom is divided into ten provinces, viz., Suphia, Bancok, Porcelon, Pipli, Camphine, Rappri, Tanaserim, Ligor, Cambouri, and Concacema, each of which has its governor respectively. Of these provinces we have the following short notices. Bancok is situated above seven leagues from the sea, and in the Siamese language is called Fou. Its environs are embellished with delicious gardens that furnish the natives with fruit, which is their chief nourishment.

Tanaserim is a province abounding in rice and fruit trees; it has a safe and commodious harbour, admitting vessels of all nations; and in this province the people find more ample resources of subsistence than in the other parts of the monarchy. Cambouri, on the frontiers of Pegu, carries on a considerable trade in the commodity called by the French eagle-wood, elephants'-teeth, and horns of the rhinoceros. The finest varnish is also procured from this province. Ligor affords a kind of tin, called by the French calain, the calain of the Portuguese. Porcelon was formerly a distinct sovereignty, and produces dyeing woods and precious gums.

The capital city of the kingdom has been called Siam, by the ignorance of Portuguese navigators. In the native language the name approaches to the European enunciation of Yuthia, or Juthia; it is situated on an isle formed by the river Meinam or Menan. Its walls in Loubere's time were extensive; but not above a sixth part was inhabited. Its condition since it was delivered from the Birman conquest in 1766, has not been described. The royal palace was on the north, and on the east there was a causeway, affording the only free passage by land. Distinct quarters were inhabited by the Chinese, Japanese, Cochinchinese, Portuguese, and Malays. The temples, pyramids, and royal palaces seem to have been much inferior in all respects to those of the Birmans.

The other chief towns in the Siamese dominions are Bancok, at the mouth of the Meinam, Ogmo, and others on the eastern coast of the gulph of Siam. On the western, D'Anville marks Cham, Cini, and others as far as Ligor. Along the banks of the great river at Louvo and Porselouc, with others of inferior note. Louvo was a royal residence for a considerable part of the year. In general, these towns were only collections of hovels, sometimes surrounded with a wooden stockade, and rarely with a brick wall. In the south-west, Tanaserim and Merghi may be regarded as possessions belonging to the Birman empire, and the remaining fragment of the Siamese territory in that quarter presents no considerable town; though villages appear in Junkseylon and some of the other isles. Kämpfer, in an account of his voyage to Japan in 1690, describes two remarkable edifices near the capital; the first is a famous pyramid, and called Puka Thon, erected for the commemoration of a victory obtained, on the spot where it stands to the north-west, over the king of Pegu.

This magnificent structure is enclosed by a wall, and is 120 feet high, varying in form at its different stages, and terminating in a slender spire; the second edifice consists of two squares to the east of the city, surrounded by a wall, and separated by a channel of the river. These squares contain many temples, convents, chapels, and columns, particularly the temple of Berklam, with a grand gate ornamented with statues and various carvings; the other decorations appear by Kämpfer's account to have been exquisite.

Our principal sources of information with regard to Siam are the publications of La Loubere, who went as ambassador from Louis XIV. to the king of Siam, and those of the French missionaries, of which, that from the papers of the bishop of Tabraca by Turpin, in 1771, is the most important. According to the account of the latter writer, the people of Laos and Pegu

Pegu have established a considerable colony in Siam, since their countries were ravaged by the Birmans. Here are also many Malays, and the ancient kings had a guard of Japanese, which exhibits, in a striking point of view, the intercourse that subsisted among oriental nations.

With regard to the history of Siam, we shall content ourselves with observing, that previously to the Portuguese discoveries, this country was unknown to Europeans. According to Loubere's account, the first king of the Siamese commenced his reign in the year 1300 of their epoch, or about 756 years after the Christian era. Since the Portuguese discovery, their wars with Pegu, and occasional usurpations of the throne, constitute the principal topics of their history. In 1568 the Peguese king declared war on account of two white elephants, which the Siamese refused to surrender: and after prodigious slaughter on both sides, Siam became tributary to Pegu: but about the year 1620, Raja Hapi delivered his crown from this servitude. In 1680, Phalcon, a Greek adventurer, being highly favoured by the king of Siam, opened an intercourse with France, for the purpose of supporting his ambitious designs; but they were punished by his decapitation in 1689, and the French connection was thus terminated. From Turpin, who has extended the history of Siam to the year 1770, we learn, that the first king began to reign about 1444 years before Christ, and that he had forty successors before the epoch of the Portuguese discovery, or the year 1546, many of whom were precipitated from the throne on account of their despotism. Nevertheless, as these forty kings cannot be supposed to have reigned more than ten years each, at a mean computation, the first historical date cannot ascend beyond the year 1100 after Christ, instead 1444 years before Christ. One of the most remarkable events, after the French had evacuated Siam, is the war against the kingdom of Cambodia, which was reduced to the necessity of seeking the protection of Cochin-china. The Siamese army, having advanced too far into the country, was destroyed by famine; and their fleet, though it destroyed the town of Ponteamas, with 200 tons of elephant's teeth, had little success. In 1760 a signal revolution happened in Siam, preceded by violent civil wars between two rival princes. According to Turpin's statement, the Birmans, a people of the kingdom of Ava, had in 1754, languished five years under the Peguese domination. Having lost by death their king, queen, and most of their princes, they lamented their humiliation and servitude, and anxiously sought for a deliverer. With this view they selected one of their companions, named Manlong, a gardener, who, singularly qualified for the office they devolved upon him, by corporeal and mental endowments, undertook to rescue them from the yoke of tyrants, on condition of their cutting off the heads of all the little subaltern tyrants whom the Peguese had sent to oppress them. They readily submitted to his terms; and after the massacre, Manlong was proclaimed king. Having prepared a force, and established a discipline which rendered the Birmans almost invincible, he began by the capture and complete ruin of the city and port of Siriam, which took place about the year 1759: and advancing to Martavan and Travail, the new monarch received information of the riches of Siam, and formed the design of its conquest. He began by sending 30 ships to pillage the cities of Merghi and Tanaserim, and this success led him to flatter himself that he should be able, with great ease, to subdue the whole kingdom of Siam. The court of Siam, hearing of this irruption, sent to the bishop of Tabraca, to request that he would arm the Christians, who amounted only to the number of 100, and yet acquitted themselves with greater honour than the pusillanimous multitude. The Birman sovereign, being at the distance of three days' march from Yuthia, the capital, died in consequence of an abscess. The suburbs, however, on the Dutch quarter were ravaged and burnt; and the surrounding country was exposed to a thousand cruelties. The death of Manlong delivered the Siamese capital; the youngest of his sons having assumed the sceptre found himself under the necessity of regaining his own kingdom, in order to stifle any revolt. The Siamese sovereign, however, having rashly pronounced a sentence of death

against the favourite of his brother, was forced to abdicate the throne; and in consequence of this event he became a Talapoin, or monk, in May 1762, and many of his nobles followed his example. Siam remained in a state of security, upon the report that the new prince of the Birmans had been dethroned upon his return to Ava; and that his elder brother who had succeeded, had no wish to make conquests. This pacific monarch dying suddenly, a pretence of war was afforded by the assistance which the Siamese had given to a rebel Birman governor. In January 1765, the Birmans attacked Merghi and took it; and then proceeded to Tanaserim, which they reduced to ashes. Flushed with success, the general of the Birmans marched against Yuthia, not doubting that the conquest of the capital would induce other cities to submit. The provinces on the north-west of the royal city were ravaged; and the inhabitants saved themselves from death or slavery by dispersion into forests, where they participated the food of wild beasts. The Siamese, threatened with speedy and total destruction, reunited their forces; but though they fought with ardour, their sanguinary defeat subjected their country to the power of their conqueror. The fields, ravaged by the consuming flames, presented nothing to them but ashes, and famine became more terrible than war. The victorious Birmans built, at the confluence of two rivers, a town, or rather a fortified station, which they called Michoug. The Siamese, on their part attempted to fortify the capital, and earnestly solicited the assistance of two English vessels which happened to arrive. The captain of one of them consented to defend the capital, on condition of being supplied with cannon and ammunition: but the jealous Siamese insisted that he should first lodge his merchandizes in the public magazine. With this condition he complied, and going on board his ship, harassed the enemy, and destroyed their forts, so that every day was marked either by defeat or flight. But demanding more ammunition, the dastardly court became afraid, that the English captain, with his single ship, would conquer this ancient monarchy. Its indignant captain withdrew, after seizing six Chinese vessels, whose officers received from him orders upon the king of Siam to the amount of the merchandizes which had been lodged in the public treasury. Upon his retreat, the Birmans, finding no opposition, spread universal desolation, and consigned even their temples to the flames. Instead of recurring to arms, the superstitious monarch and his ministers reposed their whole confidence in their magicians. A Siamese prince, indeed, who had been banished to Ceylon, raised a little army, and returned to the assistance of his country; but the distracted court of Siam sent forces to oppose their deliverer. Many of the Siamese, justly provoked by this conduct, joined the Birmans, who in March, 1766, again advanced, after having been repulsed by the English captain, to within two leagues of the capital. In September, 1766, the Birmans seized a high tower, at the distance of about a quarter of a mile from the city, and raised a battery of cannon, which gave them an absolute command of the river. In this state of urgent danger, 6000 Chinese were charged with the defence of the Dutch factory, and of a large adjacent temple. The Birmans, in consequence of previous skirmishes and a subsequent assault, seized on five considerable temples, which they converted into fortresses; but in another assault they were compelled to retire. The Siamese officers, eager to secure the magazines of grain, as a future resource, produced an immediate famine; which, followed by a contagious disorder or pestilence, occasioned the most dreadful devastation. The Dutch factory was in vain defended by the Portuguese and Chinese; and after a siege of eight days, it was taken and reduced to ashes. The whole Christian quarter of the city shared the same fate; and the virgins were obliged to marry the first young men that presented themselves, in order to be protected by the matrimonial tie, which the Birmans reverence. The Birmans, demanding an unconditional surrender, assaulted the city, and captured it on the 28th of April, 1767. The wealth of the palaces and temples was consumed by the flames, or abandoned by the soldiery; the golden idols were melted, and the

victors, finding that their avarice had been sacrificed to their fury, recurred to acts of violation and cruelty. The great officers of the kingdom were laden with irons, and condemned to the galleys. The king, attempting to escape, was massacred at the gate of his palace; when nothing remained for these conquerors to destroy, they resumed their march to Pegu, accompanied, among other captives, with the remaining princes and princesses of the royal blood of Siam. In June the Birmanians quitted Siam, after having burnt the town of Michoug, soon after its construction.

When the Birmanians evacuated their conquest, the Siamese issued from their forests, and superstitiously directed their first rage against their gods, for having abandoned them to a destructive enemy. Availing themselves of the wealth which accrued from the statues, filled by superstitious persons with gold and silver, who expected to find them when they revisited this world, they proceeded to elect a leader; and Phai-Thaé, an officer of acknowledged ability, was the object of their choice. This new prince displayed considerable bravery and talents; and in the year 1768 suppressed a rebellion that was instigated against him. The Birmanians in vain attempted to renew their incursions into the Siamese territory: they were always repulsed.

Every thing we are told respecting the government, the laws, the literature, the arts, and personal qualities of the Siamese, indicates a corresponding state of advancement with that of the Birmanians. That the religion of the Siamese is the same with that of the Birmanians, and derived from the same origin as that of the Hindoos, there seems to be sufficient evidence. Sommona-Codam, mentioned by Loubere as the chief idol of Siam, is interpreted by competent judges to be the same with the Boodh of Hindostan. The sacred language called Bali is of the same origin: the most esteemed book seems to be the Vinac, and the precepts of morality are chiefly five; viz., not to kill, not to steal, not to commit uncleanness, not to lie, and not to drink any intoxicating liquor. Loubere has given a translation of a more minute code of morals, chiefly compiled for the use of persons dedicated to religion, whom he calls Talapoinis. Their laws are said to be in high reputation all over the East; and it is not certain, whether, like those of the Birmanians, they are of Hindoo, or of indigenous birth. Their system of legislation is represented, by all writers on this country, as extremely severe; death or mutilation being punishments of unimportant offences. The Siamese imitate the Chinese in their festival of the dead; and in some other of their rites. The government of Siam is despotic, and the sovereign, as among the Birmanians, is revered with honours almost divine. The succession to the crown is hereditary in the male line. The population has not been accurately ascertained, nor have we any documents for this purpose. Allowing to the Birman empire more than fourteen millions, as some have stated, the Siamese dominions may probably be peopled by about eight millions. However, Loubere assures us in his time, that from actual enumeration, there were only found, of men, women, and children, 1,900,000. Loubere says that the Siamese had no army, except a few royal guards; but Mandelslo estimated the army, which may be occasionally raised, at 60,000, with no less than 3000 or 4000 elephants. The navy is composed of a number of vessels of various sizes, which display a singular fantastic elegance, like those of the Birmanians; and naval engagements frequently occur. The revenues of this sovereignty are of uncertain computation. Mandelslo describes them as arising from the third of all inheritances, from trade, conducted by royal agents, annual presents from the governors of provinces, duties imposed on commerce, and the discovery of gold, which seems to be a royal claim. Tin is also a royal metal, except that found in Junkseylon, which is abandoned to the adventurers. Loubere adds a kind of land-tax, and other particulars, among which is the royal domain.

Now that the Birmanians have become dangerous to our possessions in Bengal, our alliance with Siam is highly serviceable.

As to the manners and customs of the Siamese, as they

have embraced a branch of Hindoo faith, they are rather Hindoostanic than Chinese. Loubere has given a detailed account of the Siamese manners. The females are under few restraints, and marry at an early age, and are past parturition at forty. Marriages are conducted by female mediation, and a priest or magician is usually consulted concerning the propriety of an alliance. On the third visit the parties are considered as wedded, after the exchange of a few presents, without any farther ceremony, civil or sacred. Polygamy is allowed, more from ostentation than any other motive; and one wife is always acknowledged as supreme. Royal marriages, from considerations of pride, are sometimes incestuous; nor does a king hesitate to espouse his own sister. Divorce is seldom practised; but the rich may chuse a more compliant wife without dismissing the former. Few women become nuns, till they are advanced in years. The Siamese funerals resemble those of the Chinese. On this occasion, the Talapoinis sing hymns in the Bali tongue. After a solemn procession the body is burnt on a funeral pile of precious woods, erected near some temple; and the magnificence of the spectacle is enhanced by theatrical exhibitions, in which the Siamese are said to excel. The tombs are pyramidal, and those of the kings are large and lofty. The common food of the Siamese consists of rice and fish; they also eat lizards, rats, and several kinds of insects. The buffaloes yield rich milk; but butter would melt and become rancid; and cheese is unknown.

In Siam little animal food is used; the mutton and beef being very bad. The doctrine of Boodh inspires the Siamese with horror at the effusion of blood. The houses are small, and constructed of bamboos, upon pillars, in order to guard against inundations, which are common. The palaces only exceed common habitations by occupying a wider space, and being constructed of timber, with a few ornaments. They are also more elevated, but have never more than one floor. With regard to their persons, the Siamese are rather small, but well made. The figure of the countenance, says Kæmpfer, both of men and women, has less of the oval than of the lozenge form, being broad, and raised at the top of the cheeks; and the forehead suddenly contracts, and is almost as pointed as the chin. Their eyes, rising towards the temples, are small and dull; and the white is commonly completely yellow. Their cheeks are hollow; mouth very large, with thick pale lips, and teeth blackened by art; the complexion coarse, brown mixed with red, to which the climate greatly contributes. From this description the Siamese appear to be much inferior in personal appearance to the Birmanians; and to approach rather to the Tartaric or Chinese features.

The dress of the Siamese is slight; clothes being rendered almost unnecessary by the warmth of the climate. A muslin shirt, with wide sleeves, and a kind of loose drawers, are almost the only garments of the rich; a mantle being added in winter, and a high conic cap upon the head. The women use a scarf instead of the shirt, and the petticoat is of painted calico; but with this slight dress they are extremely modest.

The Siamese are said to excel in theatrical amusements; the subjects being taken from their mythology, and from traditions concerning their ancient heroes. Their ordinary amusements consist of races of oxen, and those of boats, the combats of elephants, cock-fighting, tumbling, wrestling, and rope-dancing, religious processions, illuminations, and beautiful exhibitions of fire-works. The men are generally very indolent, and fond of games of chance; while the women are employed in works of industry. Although the Siamese are indolent, they are ingenious, and some of their manufactures deserve praise; nevertheless, the ruinous and despotic avarice of the government crushes industry by the uncertainty of property. They are little skilled in the fabrication of iron or steel, but excel in that of gold, and sometimes in miniature painting. The common people are mostly occupied in procuring fish for their daily food, while the superior classes are engaged in a trifling traffic.

The language of the Siamese, called "T'hay," according to Dr. Leyden's account of it (*Asiatic Researches*, vol. x. p. 244), appears to be in a great measure original; but there is reason to conjecture, that it is not different from that of the Birman. To this purpose it is alleged, that Siamese dramatists used to perform in the Birman dominions, which is not probable, unless the language were common. Dr. Leyden says, that it is more purely monosyllabic, and more powerfully accented, than any of the Indo-Chinese languages. It certainly is connected, in some degree, with some of the Chinese dialects; especially the Mandarin or Court language, with which its numerals, as well as some other terms, coincide, but these are not very numerous. It borrows words freely from the Bali, but contracts and disguises more the terms which it adopts, than either the Ruk'heng or the Barma. In its finely modulated intonations of sound, in its expression of the rank of the speaker, by the simple pronouns which he uses, in the copiousness of the language of civility, and the mode of expressing esteem and adulation, this language resembles the Chinese dialects, with which also it coincides more nearly in construction than either Barma or Ruk'heng. Its construction is simple and inartificial, depending almost solely on the principle of juxta-position. Relative pronouns are not in the language; the nominative regularly precedes the verb, and the verb precedes the case which it governs. When two substantives come together, the last of them is for the most part supposed to be in the genitive. This idiom is consonant to the Malayu, though not to the Barma or Ruk'heng, in which, as in English, the first substantive has a possessive signification. Thus, the phrase, *a man's head*, is expressed in Barma and Ruk'heng, *lu-k'haung*, which is literally *man-head*; but, in Siamese, it is *kua-khon*, and in Malayu, *kapala orang*, both of which are literally *head-man*. A similar difference occurs in the position of the accusative with an active verb, which case in Barma and Malayu generally precedes the verb, as *tummaing cha*, literally *rice eat*; but in Siamese follows it, as *ken kaw*, literally *eat rice*, which corresponds to the Malayu, *makan nasi*. The adjective generally follows the substantive, and the adverb the word which it modifies, whether adjective or verb. Whenever the name of an animal, and, in general, when that of a species or class, is mentioned, the generic or more general name of the genus to which it belongs, is repeated with it, as often happens in the other monosyllabic languages, as well as in the Malayu. In the position of the adverbial particle, the Malayu often differs from the Siamese; as *Mana pargi*, literally *where go*, but in Siamese, *pai hnei*, *go where*. The Siamese composition is also, like that of the Barma, a species of measured prose, regulated solely by the accent and the parallelism of the members of the sentence; but in the recitative the Siamese approaches more nearly to the Chinese mode of recitation, and becomes a kind of chaunt, which different Brahmins assured Dr. Leyden is very similar to the mode of chanting the Samaveda.

The Siamese are not deficient in literature, and their modes of education are well explained by Loubere.

From Mandelslo we learn, that the commerce of the capital of Siam consisted in cloths imported from Hindoostan, and various articles from China; in exports of jewels, gold, benjoin, lacca, wax, tin, lead, &c., and particularly deer-skins, of which more than 150,000 were sold annually to the Japanese. Rice was also exported in great quantities to the Asiatic isles. The king was, by a ruinous policy, the chief merchant, and had factors in most of the neighbouring countries. The royal trade consisted in cotton cloths, tin, ivory, saltpetre, rack, and skins sold to the Dutch. A late writer informs us, that the productions of this country are prodigious quantities of grain, cotton, benjamin; sandal, aguello, and Japan woods; antimony, tin, lead, iron, load-stones, gold and silver; sapphires, emeralds, agates, crystal; marble, and tambac. Siam, in respect of fertility, loco-position, and productive labour, possesses commercial advantages of the same nature with those of the

Birman empire; but on the coast at least, the climate is far from being healthy.

The two first months of the Siamese year, corresponding with our December and January, form their whole winter; the third, fourth and fifth belong to that portion which is called their little summer; and the seven others to their great summer. As they lie north of the line, their winter corresponds with our's, but it is almost as warm as a French summer. Their little summer is their spring; autumn is unknown in their calendar; the winter is dry, and is distinguished by the course of the wind, which almost constantly blows from the north, and is refreshed with cold from the snowy mountains of Thibet, and the bleak wastes of Mongolia.

We have already described this country as a wide vale between two high ridges of mountains; but compared with the Birman empire, the cultivated land is not above half the extent either in breadth or length. Less industrious than the Birman, the agriculture of the Siamese does not extend far from the banks of the river, or its branches; so that towards the mountains there are vast aboriginal forests filled with wild animals, whence they obtain the skins which are exported. The rocky and variegated shores of the noble gulf of Siam, and the size and inundations of the Meinam, conspire with the rich and picturesque vegetation of the forests, illumined at night with crowds of brilliant fire-flies, to impress strangers with admiration and delight.

The soil towards the mountains is parched and infertile; but on the shores of the river consists, like that of Egypt, of a very rich and pure mould, in which a pebble can scarcely be found; and the country would be a terrestrial paradise, if its government were not so despotic as to be justly reckoned far inferior to that of their neighbours the Birman. Rice of excellent quality is the chief product of their agriculture; wheat is not unknown; pease and other vegetables abound; and maize is confined to their gardens. The fertility of Siam depends in a great degree, like that of Egypt on the Nile, on their grand river Meinam, and its contributory streams: for an account of which, see MEINAM.

Of the lakes of this country little is known: a small one, however, lies in the east of the kingdom, which is the source of a river that flows into that of Cambodia. To its extensive ranges of mountains, inclosing the kingdom on the east and west, we have already referred. A small ridge also passes from east to west, not far north of Yuthia, called by Loubere Taramamon. The forests of the country are large and numerous, and produce many valuable woods. Its chief animals are elephants, buffaloes and deer. The elephants in particular are distinguished for their sagacity and beauty; and those of a white colour are treated by the Siamese with a kind of adoration, as they believe the soul of such is royal. Wild boars, tigers and monkeys are numerous. The reports of the mineralogy of Siam are various. Mandelslo, or rather his translator Wicquefort, who added, about the year 1670, the accounts of Pegu, Siam, Japan, &c., informs us, that Siam contains mines of gold, silver, tin and copper; and Loubere suggests, that they were anciently more diligently wrought, as the ancient pits indicate; not to mention the great quantity of gold, which must have been employed in richly gilding the idols, pillars, ceilings, and even roofs of their temples. In his time no mine of gold or silver, worth the labour of being wrought, could be found. The mines chiefly wrought by the Siamese were those of tin and lead. The tin, called "calin" by the Portuguese, was sold throughout the Indies; but it was soft and ill refined. Near Louvo was a mountain of load-stone, and another of inferior quality in Junkseilon.

The Siamese, though of a melancholy turn, have no objection to lively music. They have often parties on the water, which they render very pleasant by a number of voices, and the clapping of hands, with which they beat time.

The instrument in the highest favour with them produces a sound similar to two violins perfectly in tune, played at the same time. But there is nothing more disagreeable than its

its diminutive, the kit of this instrument, which is a kind of rebec, or violin with three brass strings.

Their copper trumpets very much resemble, in tone, the cornets with which the peasants of France call their cows. Their flutes are not much sweeter. They make likewise a kind of carillon with small bells, which are lively, and not disagreeable, when not accompanied by their iron drum, which stuns every one that is not accustomed to its noisy harshness. They have drums made of *terra cotta*, a baked clay, with a long and very narrow neck, but open at the bottom: they cover the drum with a buffalo's hide, and beat it with the hand in such a manner, that it serves for a bass in their concerts. Their voices are not disagreeable, and if we were to hear them sing some of their airs, we should not be displeas'd.

SIAM, more properly called JUTHIA or OZIA, the capital of the kingdom of Siam, situated on the river Menam. Its former position was lower down, where Bancock stands now; but it was removed to its present site, on a low island about four miles in circumference. The surrounding country is very flat, and intersected by numerous canals or branches from the river, through which the people are continually passing in boats. The city is surrounded with a brick wall, which, on the north and south sides, is about 25 feet high, well turreted, and in good condition; but the other sides are lower, and considerably decayed. Small gates open in many places towards the river. At the lower end of the city is a large bastion running some distance into the stream, which as well as several small ones, being well furnished with cannon, commands the channel. To secure the city wall from being injured by the current, a narrow bank or quay is left, which is built upon in many places. The city is intersected by several large canals, generally running at right angles to each other, with many smaller ones branching out from them. The streets run along the canals, so that ships from the river may enter the town, and land their cargoes near the principal houses. Some of the streets are tolerably large, but most of them are narrow and very dirty; and a few are liable to be inundated. The first street, after entering the city, running westward along the canal, is that which contains the best houses, and where the European factories were formerly situated. The middle street, running north, is well inhabited and full of tradesmen and artificers' shops. Numerous Chinese and Moors reside here in very small and low stone houses, covered with flat tiles; while those of the natives are generally composed of timber and bamboos, roofed with palm leaves. The numerous bridges over the canals are built, the larger of stone, and the smaller of wood. There are three royal palaces in the city, the principal of which is built according to the Chinese architecture, with many gilded roofs, and containing the stables for the elephants. The second palace is square, but small, and generally inhabited by the elder prince. There is a third palace, smaller than either. Round the city are many suburbs, some of which, as on the Chinese rivers, consist of inhabited vessels, each containing two or three families. The houses on firm ground are generally built of bamboos, planks, and mats; those on the banks of the river stand on posts about six feet high, that the water may pass freely under them. Each house is furnished with steps to come down in dry weather, and with a boat to go about when the rivers are swollen.

SIAM, GULF OF, a great bay of the Eastern ocean, having on the west part of the peninsula of Malacca, and on the east the kingdom of Cambodia. At its head or northern extremity it touches on the kingdom of Siam, and receives the great river Menam. It extends from about the 9th to the 14th degree of north latitude, and from the 100th to the 104th of east longitude.

SIAN, or CIO, a town of Melinda, in Eastern Africa.

SIANCAS, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which rises near the city of Salta, runs west, and enters the Vermejo.

SIANG, a town of China, in Quangsee, of the second rank. Lat. 23. 58. N. long. 109. E.

SIANG CHAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tchekiang.

SIANG-HIAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Houquang.

SIANGTAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si.

SIANG-YANG, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Houquang. Being situated on the river Han, it has the opportunity of carrying on a considerable trade. Some gold dust is found in the rivers, and veins of this metal might probably be discovered in the neighbouring mountains, were it permitted to open them. Lat. 32. 5. N. long. 111. 39. E.

SIANICZA, a small town in the north of European Turkey, in Servia, with a population of 1800; 100 miles south-west of Belgrade.

SIANKE, or SYNKE, in Natural History, a name given by the people of some parts of the East Indies to the caryophyllus, or clove-spice.

SIAO, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiangnan.

SIAO ISLE, an island about 35 miles in circumference, situated off the north-eastern extremity of the island of Celebes. On this island there is a volcano, which, during its eruptions, covers the neighbouring islands with cinders. The land is high but fruitful, and provisions are cheap. The Dutch had formerly here a small garrison, with a schoolmaster to instruct the children of the natives. Provisions are plentiful. Lat. 2. 44. N. long. 125. 5. E.

SIAO-CHAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tchekiang.

SIAO-HE-CHAN, a small island near the coast of China. Lat. 41. 43. N. long. 120. 39. E.

SIAO-NON-HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary; 550 miles east-north-east of Peking.

SIAO-PI-HOTUN, a town of Corea; 438 miles east of Peking.

SIAO-TEIN, a river of China, which falls into the Eastern seas. Lat. 37. 21. N. long. 118. 44. E.

SIARMAN, a village of Mazanderan, in Persia, on the coast of the Caspian; 12 miles east-south-east of Fehrabad.

SIAS, a river and canal of European Russia. The canal joins the river to the Volchov; the river Sias ultimately joins the Wolga, and thus forms a communication between the east of the empire and St. Petersburg. This canal was begun in 1766, and after being laid aside for many years, was resumed in 1797, and completed in 1801.

SIATISTA, an inland town of European Turkey, in the southern part of Macedon, built on the spot where Gordyna anciently stood, and where at present the roads from Grebna to Philurina, and from Castoria to Servitza, cross each other. Population 4000; 55 miles west-south-west of Salonica.

SIB, *adj.* [rib, Sax.] Related by blood. *Obsolete.*—[He] was *sibbe* to Arthour of Breteigne. *Chaucer.*

He is no faery born, ne *sib* at all

To elves.

Spenser.

SIB, *s.* A relation. *Obsolete.*—Our puritans, very *sibs* unto those fathers of the society, [the Jesuits.] *Mountagu.*

SIB, a small sea-port of Ommon, in Arabia; 30 miles west-north-west of Mascat.

SIBABA, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the south coast of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 36. N. long. 122. 25. E.

SIBÆ, or SOBII, called also IBÆ or SABÆ, in Ancient Geography, a people of India, on this side of the Ganges, and one of the first nations that encountered Alexander on the banks of the Acesines.

SIBALDES, a cluster of small islands near the coast of Patagonia. Lat. 50. 53. N. long. 59. 35. W.

SIBATTA, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 15 miles south-east of Nambu.

SIBB, a district of Mekran, in Persia, consisting of a plain surrounded by barren and rocky mountains, and governed by a chief who resides in a small town of the same name. A river, nearly dry, flows through the centre of this plain, in

in the bed of which are several groves of date trees; but the country, generally speaking, is quite barren; 70 miles north-east of Bunpoor.

SIBBALDIA [so named by Linnæus, in memory of Sir Robert Sibbald, professor of physic at Edinburgh], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order pentagynia, natural order of senticosæ, rosacæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, half-ten cleft, with an erect base; segments half-lanceolate, equal, spreading, alternately narrower, permanent. Corolla: petals five, ovate, inserted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, shorter than the corolla, inserted into the calyx. Anthers small, obtuse. Pistil: germs five, ovate, very short. Styles from the middle of the side of the germs, length of the stamens. Stigmas headed. Pericarp none. Calyx converging, concealing the seeds within its bosom. Seeds five, somewhat oblong. It sometimes, but very seldom, becomes luxuriant, by doubling the number of pistils, on the same plant.—*Essential Character.* Calyx ten-cleft. Petals five, inserted into the calyx. Styles from the side of the germ. Seeds five.

1. *Sibbaldia procumbens*, or procumbent *sibbaldia*.—Stem procumbent; leaflets three-toothed wedge form.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, Switzerland, Scotland and Siberia.

2. *Sibbaldia erecta*, or upright *sibbaldia*.—Stem upright; leaves linear multifid. The leaves are very finely jagged, and the flowers flesh coloured.—Native of Siberia.

3. *Sibbaldia altaica*.—Leaves linear-filiform, three-parted. Stem an inch high or more, almost naked, having only one flower, or else terminated by a corymb of from three to five flowers.

Propagation and Culture.—Growing on moist ground in high mountains, it is with difficulty preserved in gardens, and rarely produces seeds there; the plants therefore must be procured from the places where they grow naturally, and if they are planted in a moist soil and shady situation, they will thrive tolerably well and produce flowers.

SIBBENS, or **SIVVENS**, in Medicine, an infectious disease, of a chronic nature, prevalent in the western parts of Scotland. It is said to be so denominated from the appearance of a fungous exuberance from some of the cutaneous sores, not unlike a raspberry; the word *sibben*, or *sivven*, being the Highland appellation for a wild raspberry. Whence it has also been sometimes confounded with the yaws, a disease of tropical climates, brought from Africa, and so denominated by the Negroes from the same fruit.

SIBBERTOFT, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 16 miles north-north-west of Northampton.

SIBBUL, a village of Barca, in Northern Africa; 25 miles west of Augila.

SIBDON, a parish of England, in Salop; 7 miles south-east of Bishop's Castle.

SIBERIA, is that part of the immense territory of the Russian empire, which lies to the east of the Ural chain of mountains, by which the empire is intersected from north to south, and thus divided into two parts, differing from each other both as to dimensions and quality. Siberia is described as a flat tract of land of considerable extent, declining imperceptibly towards the Frozen ocean, and by equally gentle gradations rising towards the south; where at last it forms a great chain of mountains, constituting the boundary of Russia on the side of China. The large portion of the habitable globe, now distinguished by the appellation of Asiatic Russia, extends from about the 37th degree east longitude to more than 190° or 170° west longitude; and assuming the degree in this high northern latitude at 30 miles, the length may be computed at 4590 geographical miles. The greatest breadth from the cape of Cevero Vostochnoi, called in some maps Taimara, to the Altaian mountains south of the sea of Baikal, may be estimated at 28°, or 1980 geographical miles. In British miles the length, at a gross computation, may be stated at 5350, and the breadth at 1960, which extent exceeds that of Europe.

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The vast country of Siberia, says Mr. Tooke, contains, by calculation, upwards of 10½ millions of square versts, comprehending within it several kingdoms, taken by roving Kozaks (Cossacks) on their own account, and then surrendered to the czar, who completed the conquest; at present this country consists of several of the most extensive governments. The farthest eastern boundary is that of Asia, and the seas of Kamtschatka and Ochotsk, and the northern is the Arctic ocean. On the west the frontiers correspond with those between Asia and Europe, and the southern limits may be stated more at large in the following manner: The river Cuban, part of the Caucasian chain, and an ideal line, divide the Russian territory from Turkey and Persia. The boundary then ascends along the north of the Caspian through the steppe or desert of Issim, and the eastern shore of the river Ob, to its source in the Altaian mountains, where it meets the vast empire of China, and proceeds among that chain to the sources of the Onon, where it includes a considerable region called Daouria, extending about 200 miles in breadth, to the south of the mountains called Yablonnoy; the limit between Russia and Chinese Tartary being partly an ideal line, and partly the river Argoon, which joined with the Onon constitutes the great river Amur. Thence the boundary returns to the mountainous chain, and follows a branch of it to a promontory on the north of the mouth of the Amur.

The population of Asiatic Russia may be regarded as primitive, except a few Russian colonies recently planted; and the Techuks in that part which is opposite to America, supposed to have migrated from that continent, in their persons and customs are different from those of the Asiatic tribes. Next to the Techuks, most remotely north, are the Yukagirs, a branch of the Yakuts, and further west the Samoyedes. South of the Techuks are the Koriaks, and further south the Kamtschadales, who are a distinct people, and speak a different language. The Lamutes are a branch of the Mandshures or Tunguses, who are widely diffused between the Yenisei and Amur, and the southern tribes, ruled by a khan, conquered China in the 17th century. The Ostiaks, and other tribes of Samoyedes, have penetrated considerably to the south between the Yenisei and the Irtsch, and are followed by various tribes of the Monguls, as the Kalmucks, Burats, &c., and by those of the Tartars or Huns, as the Teluts, Kirguses, and others. The radically distinct languages amount to seven, independently of many dialects and mixtures.

The vast extent of northern Asia was first known by the name of Sibir, or Siberia; but the appellation is gradually passing into disuse. When the Monguls established a kingdom in these northern regions, the first residence of the princes was on the river Tura, on the scite of the town now called Tiumen, about 180 miles south-west of Tobolsk; but they afterwards removed to the eastern shore of the Irtsch, and there founded the city of Isker near Tobolsk. This new residence was also called Sibir, of unknown etymology, and the name of the city passed to the Mongul principality. Although this is doubted by Coxe, Pallas says that the ruins of Sibir are still visible 23 versts from Tobolsk, and that it gave name to the rivulet Sibirka, and the whole of Siberia. When the Russians began the conquest of the country, they were unapprized of its extent; and the name of this western province was gradually diffused over the half of Asia. The principality established by the Monguls under Shebuni in 1242 in the western part of Siberia, around Tobolsk and the river Tura, from which it has been sometimes called Tura, has been already mentioned. The actual conquest of Siberia commenced in the reign of Ivan Vassillievitch II., who ascended the Russian throne in 1534. Induced by the prospect of establishing a traffic for Siberian furs, he determined to undertake the conquest of the country, and in 1553 added to his titles that of lord of Sibir, or Siberia. Yarmak, a Cossack chief, being driven, by the Russian conquests in the south, to take refuge, with 6000 or 7000 of his followers, near the river Kama, afterwards marched

down the Ural-chain, defeated the Tartar Kutchun, khan of Sibir, and pressed forwards to the Tobol and the Irtisch, and also to the Oby, and in this astonishing expedition, subjugated Tartars, Vogules, and Ostiaks. Finding it impossible to maintain and complete his conquests with his small army, he surrendered them in 1581, by a formal capitulation, to the tzar Ivan Vassilievitch, who nobly rewarded his magnanimity and exertions. This conqueror of Siberia, however, did not live to witness the full accomplishment of this enterprise. He died in 1584; and after his death the discovery and conquests which he had made were prosecuted by regiments of Donskoi Cossacks, sent thither for that purpose, as far as the eastern ocean and the mountains of China; and in the middle of the 17th century this whole part of the world had become a Russian province. A person, whose name was Cyprian, was appointed first archbishop of Sibir in 1621, and at Tobolsk, where he resided, he drew up a narrative of the conquest. About the middle of the 17th century the Russians had extended east as far as the river Amur; but Kamtschatka was not finally reduced till the year 1711. Behring and other navigators afterwards proceeded to discover the other extreme parts of Asia. In his first voyage of 1728, Behring coasted the eastern shore of Siberia as high as latitude $67^{\circ} 18'$, but his important discoveries were made during his voyage of 1741. The Aleutian isles were visited in 1745; and in the reign of the empress Catharine II., other important discoveries followed, which were completed by Captain Cook. In the south the Mongul kingdom of Kazan was subdued in 1552, and that of Astrakan in 1554, and the Russian monarchy extended to the Caspian sea. In 1727, after previous conflicts, the Russian limits were continued westward from the source of the Argoon to the mountain Sabyntaban, near the conflux of two rivers with the Yenisei; the boundary being thus ascertained between the Russians and the Monguls subject to China. The trade with China has been conducted at Zuruchaitu, on the river Argoon, north lat. 50° east long. 337° , and at Kiachta, about 90 miles south of the sea of Baikal, north lat. 51° east long. 106° . This boundary between two states is the most extensive on the globe, reaching from about the 65th to the 145th degree of longitude; 80° (lat. 50°) yielding, by the allowance of 39 geographical miles to a degree, 3120 miles.

The most curious antiquities in Siberia seem to be the stone tombs which abound on some steppes, particularly near the river Yenisei, representing in rude sculpture human faces, camels, horsemen with lances, and other objects. Here are also found, besides human bones, those of horses and oxen, with fragments of pottery and ornaments of dress. The most singular ancient monument in Siberia is found on the river Abakan, not far from Tomsk, being a large tomb with rude figures.

The religion of the Greek church, which is professed by the Russians, has made no great progress in their Asiatic dominions. Many of the Tartar tribes in the south-west are Mahometans, and others are votaries of the superstition of Dalai Lama. But the religious sentiments of the Schamanians are the most prevalent; particularly among the Tartars, Finns, Samoyedes, Ostiaks, Mandshurs, Burats, and Tunguses; and they have been adopted by the Koriaks, Tschuks, and people of the eastern isles. On the eastern coast of the sea of Baikal, is the rock of the Schamans, an idol of a peculiar shape: whilst the Schamanians admit one chief infernal deity and his subalterns, authors of evil, they also believe in one supreme uncreated beneficent being, who commits the management of the universe to inferior deities, and they delegate portions of it to subaltern spirits. See SCHAMANS.

The archiepiscopal see of Tobolsk is the metropolitan of Russian Asia in the north, and that of Astrakhan in the south. There is another see, that of Irkutsk and Nerzhinsk, and some others of more recent origin.

Siberia is divided into two great governments, those of Tobolsk in the west, and Irkutsk in the east. The smaller

provinces are Kolivan, Nerzhinsk, Yakutsk and Ochotsk. In the south-west is the government of Caucasus, with one or two other divisions, blending Europe and Asia.

The population of Siberia cannot be computed at above $3\frac{1}{2}$ millions. The political importance and relations of this part of the Russian empire principally relate to China and Japan. The manners and customs of Asiatic Russia vary with the numerous tribes by whom it is peopled. The Tartars are the most numerous; next to these in importance are the Monguls, one tribe of whom, viz., the Kalmucks, are found to the west of the Caspian, while the others, called Burats, Torgats, &c., are chiefly round the sea of Baikal. Further to the east are the Mandshurs or Tunguses. See these denominations respectively.

The languages of all the original nations of Asiatic Russia are radically different; and among the Tunguses, Monguls, and Tartars, there are some traces of literature, and not a few MSS. in their several languages.

The principal city of Asiatic Russia is Astrakhan, which see. Azof (which see) derives its importance chiefly from its being a fortified post. The chief towns on the Asiatic side of the Volga, are Samara and Stauropol. At the mouth of the river Ural, or Jaik, stands Gurief; but the chief place after Astrakhan is Orenburg, founded in the year 1740, and the seat of a considerable trade with the tribes on the east of the Caspian. Beyond the Uralian chain the first city that occurs is Tobolsk; which see. Kolyvan is a town of some consequence on the river Ob, having in its vicinity some silver mines of considerable produce, and north to this is Tomsk. Farther to the east the towns become of less consequence. On the river Yenisei is a small town of the same name, and another called Sayansk. On the river Angara stands Irkutsk, supposed to contain 12,000 inhabitants, the chief mart of the commerce between Russia and China, and the seat of supreme jurisdiction over eastern Siberia. On the wide and frozen Lena stands Yakutsk; which see.

The chief commerce of this part of the Russian empire consists in furs and other valuable furs, for which the Chinese return tea, silk and nankcen. That with the Kirguses consists in exchanging the Russian woollen cloths, iron and household articles, for horses, cattle, sheep and beautiful sheep-skins. On the Black Sea there is some commerce with Turkey, the exports being furs, kaviar, iron, linen, &c., and the imports wine, fruit, coffee, silks, rice. In the trade on the Caspian the exports are the same, and the return chiefly silk. The principal Russian harbours are Astrakhan, Gurief, and Kisliar, near the mouth of the Terek, but the best haven is Baku, belonging to the Persians. The Tartars, on the east of the Caspian, bring the products of their country and of Bucharia, as cotton-yarn, furs, stuffs, hides and rhubarb; but the chief article is raw silk from Shirvan and Ghilan, on the west of the Caspian.

In Asiatic Russia the climate extends from the vine at the bottom of the Caucasus, to the solitary lichen on the rocks of the Arctic ocean. Through the greater part of Siberia, the most southern frontier being about 50° , and the northern ascending to 78° , the general climate may be considered rather as frigid than temperate; being in three quarters of the country on a level with that of Norway and Lapland, untempered by the gales of the Atlantic. To the south of the sea of Baikal, the climate corresponds with that of Berlin, and the north of Germany. The chains of high mountains, which form the southern boundary of these provinces, contribute also to increase the cold; so that the sea of Baikal is commonly entirely frozen from December till May. The finest climate in these eastern parts is that of Daouria, or the province around Nerzhinsk: and the numerous towns on the Amur evince the great superiority of what is called Chinese Tartary, which is comparatively a fertile and temperate region. The change of the seasons is very rapid; the long winter is almost instantaneously succeeded by a warm spring; and the quickness and luxuriance of the vegetation exceed description.

The greater part of Siberia, that is, the middle and southern latitudes of it, as far as the river Lena, is extremely fertile, and fit for every kind of produce; but the northern and eastern parts, being encumbered with wood, are destitute of this advantage, being unfit both for pasturage and culture. The whole of this part, as far as the 60th degree of north latitude, and to the Frozen ocean, is full of bogs and morasses covered with moss, which would be absolutely impassable, if the ice, which never thaws deeper than seven inches, did not remain entire beneath it. In the central parts vegetation is checked by the severe cold of so wide a continent. Towards the south there are vast forests of pine, fir, larch and other trees, among which is a kind of mulberry, which might thrive in many climates that are now destitute of it. The sublime scenes around the sea of Baikal are agreeably contrasted with the marks of human industry, the cultivated field and the garden. Many parts of Siberia are totally incapable of agriculture; but in the southern and western districts the soil is remarkably fertile. North of Kolyvan, barley generally yields more than twelve-fold, and oats commonly twenty-fold. Exclusive of winter wheat, most of the usual European grains prosper in southern Siberia. In some parts flax grows wild; and hemp is prepared from the nettle. Woad is found in Siberia, and saffron near the Caucasus. The best rhubarb abounds on the banks of the Ural or Jaik, in the southern districts watered by the Yenisei, and in the mountains of Daouria. But it is not possible that agriculture should flourish while the peasantry are slaves, and sold with the soil. Nevertheless, an intelligent traveller was surprised at the abundance of buckwheat, rye, barley, oats and other grain which he observed to the south of Tobolsk; where the cattle were also very numerous, and in the winter fed with hay. The large garden strawberry, called hautbois, is found wild in the territory of Irkutsk; and on the Altaian mountains the red currant attains the size of a common cherry, ripening in large bunches of excellent flavour. Near the Volga and the Ural are excellent melons of various kinds.

Some of the largest rivers of Asia belong to the Russian empire; such are the Ob, of 1900 British miles in course; the Yenisei, about 1750; and Lena, 1570. To these we may add the Irtisch, the Angara, the Selinga, the Yaik, &c. The lakes of this country are numerous. The most considerable in the north of Siberia is that of Piazinsko; that of Baikal, described under that article; a large lake between the rivers Ob and the Irtisch, 170 miles long, divided by an island into two parts, called the lakes of Tchang, and Soumi. In this quarter there are many smaller lakes, and others to the north of the Caspian, some of which are salt, particularly that of Bogdo. To these we may add the Altan Nor, or golden lake, and the lake of Altyn, called by the Russians Teletako. The mountains are the Uralian, the Altaian, Bogdo Alim, or the Almighty mountain, Sinnaia-Sepka, Schlangenberg, which is the richest in minerals, the Sayansk mountains, the mountains of Nerzhinsk or Russian Daouria, the chain of Stanvooi or mountains of Ochotsk, and Caucasus.

Siberia has hitherto been found to possess scarcely any genera of plants; and even all the species of any considerable importance, are those trees which are common to it with the north of Europe. Under the head of the zoology of Asiatic Russia, we may enumerate the rein-deer, which performs the offices of the horse, the cow and the sheep; the dogs of Kamtschatka, which are used for carriage; the horse, which is found wild, a species of ass, the urus or bison, the argali or wild sheep, the ibex or rock-goat, large stags, the musk or civet, and wild boar; wolves, foxes and bears; the sable, several kinds of hares, the castor or beaver, the walrus and the common seal. But it would be superfluous to enlarge: Siberia is so rich in zoology and botany, that, as Mr. Pennant observes, even the discovery of America has scarcely imparted a greater number of objects to the naturalist. The mineralogy of Siberia is equally fertile, and displays many singular and interesting objects. The chief gold mines of Siberia are those of Catherinburg or Ekatherin-

burg, on the east of the Uralian mountains, about north lat- 57°: the mines of Nerzhinsk, discovered in 1704, are principally of lead, mixed with silver and gold; and those of Kolyvan, chiefly in the Schlangenberg, or mountain of serpents, so called by the Germans, began to be wrought in 1748. The gold mines of Beresof are the chief in the empire; those of Kolyvan and Nerzhinsk being denominated silver mines. Besides the copper mines in the Uralian mountains, there are some in those of Altai. But the iron mines of Russia are of the most solid and lasting importance, particularly those which supply the numerous founderies of the Uralian mountains. Rock-salt is chiefly found near the Ilek, not far from Orenburg. Coal is scarcely known; but sulphur, alum, sal ammoniac, vitriol, nitre and natron, are abundant. Siberia possesses a variety of gems, particularly in the mountain Adunstollo, near the river Argoon, in the province of Nerzhinsk or Daouria. Common topazes are found here, and also the jacinth. The kind of jade called mother of emerald is a Siberian product; and beryl or aqua marinus is found in Adunstollo, and in greater perfection in the gem mines of Moursintsky, near Catherinburg, along with the chrysolite. Red garnets abound near the sea of Baikal. The ruby-coloured schorl has been discovered in the Uralian Mountains. The green felspar of Siberia is a beautiful stone, and carved by the Russians into a variety of ornaments. The Daourian mountains, between the Onon and the Argoon, afford elegant onyx. The beautiful stones called the hair of Venus and Thetis, being limpid rock crystals containing capillary schorl, red or green, are found near Catherinburg. The alliance stone consists of a greyish porphyry, united, as if glued together, with transparent quartz. Great quantities of malaclite have also been found in the Uralian mountains; one piece of which is said to have weighed 107 poods, or 3852 pounds. Siberia affords beautiful red and green jaspers; and lapis lazuli is found near Baikal. The Uralian chain presents fine white marble; and in the numerous primitive ranges there are many varieties of granite and porphyry. The chief mineral waters of Russia are those of Kamtschatka.

The islands belonging to Asiatic Russia may be distributed into the Aleutian, Andrenovian and Kurilian groups, with the Fox isles, which extend to the promontory of Alaska in North America. See these articles respectively. For further particulars respecting Siberia or Asiatic Russia, see RUSSIA.

SIBERTSWOLD, a parish of England, in Kent; 5 miles north-west of Dover.

SIBFORD FERRIS, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire; 7 miles west-south-west of Banbury.

SIBFORD GOWER, a hamlet in the above county, nearly adjoining to the foregoing.

SIBIDOOLOO, a town of Manding, in Africa, on the frontier towards Bambarra. It is situated in a fertile valley, surrounded by high rocky hills, and is so strong, that it has never once been plundered.

SIBIDISHER, a village of Fezzan, so called from the tomb of a saint to whom it is dedicated; 16 miles east of Mourzouk.

SIBIL EL MULSIH, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 120 miles north-north-west of Mecca.

SIBILANT, *adj.* [*sibilans*, Latin.] Hissing.—It were easy to add a nasal letter to each of the other pair of hisping and *sibilant* letters. *Holder.*

SIBILATION, *s.* [from *sibilo*, Lat.] A hissing sound.—Metals, quenched in water, give a *sibilation* or hissing sound. *Bacon.*

SIBILLETA, a village of Mexico, situated on the Rio del Norte. It is a regular square, appearing like a large mud wall on the outside; the doors, windows, &c., facing the square. It is one of the neatest and most regular of the Spanish villages in this quarter. From this place the road passes along the Rio del Norte, through a desert, for more than 200 miles, as far as the flourishing town of Papa.

SIBIRIJOA, or СИБИРЬЮА, a settlement and mining station

station of Mexico, in the province of Cinaloa, situated on the shore of the river Fuerte. The mines have ceased to be worked.

SIBNIBAS, a town of Bengal, district of Nuddea. During the rainy season there is a short passage for boats from the north-east parts of Bengal to Calcutta, but which is dry in the hot weather. It is possible that a canal might be cut from the Ganges to the Hoogly river by this route. Lat. 23. 25. N. long. 88. 49. E.

SIBOCKOO, a town on the east coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 4. 24. N. long. 117. 12. E.

SIBOURE, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lower Pyrenees, on the Nivelle, opposite to St. Jean de Luz. Population 1900.

SIBSEY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 1151.

SIBSEY ISLAND, a small island on the south coast of New Holland, in Spencer's gulf.

SIBSIB, in Zoology, an animal of the empire of Morocco, abounding in the mountains of the province of Suse; of an intermediate species between the cat and the squirrel; somewhat similar to the ichneumon in form, but smaller.

SIBSON, a hamlet of England, in Huntingdonshire, situated on the river Nev; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Stilton.

SIBSON, or SIBBESTON, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles west-south-west of Market Bosworth.

SIBTHORP (John), an eminent botanist and traveller, was the youngest son of Dr. Humphrey Sibthorp, professor of botany at Oxford, where the subject of the present article was born, October 28, 1758. He received the first rudiments of his education at Magdalen school, from whence he was removed to the school at Lincoln. In due time he entered at Lincoln college, Oxford; but upon obtaining the Radcliffe travelling fellowship, he became a member of University college. Being intended for the medical profession, he was sent to Edinburgh to complete that branch of his education; but he took the degree of doctor of physic in his own university. The taste he had early imbibed for natural history, especially botany, was cultivated at Edinburgh, and indulged in a tour to the Highlands of Scotland. After his return from thence, he visited France and Switzerland, spending a considerable time at Montpellier, where he formed an intimacy with the amiable Broussonet, collected many plants of that country, and communicated to the Academie des Sciences of Montpellier, of which he became a member, an account of his numerous botanical discoveries in the neighbourhood. The death of an elder brother of his father, by which a considerable estate devolved on the latter, occasioned Dr. J. Sibthorp to return to England in 1783, when, on his father's resignation, he was appointed to the botanical professorship.

Dr. Sibthorp passed a portion of the year 1784, at Göttingen, where he projected his first tour to Greece; the botanical investigation of which celebrated country, and especially the determination of the plants mentioned by its classical authors, had, for some time past, become the leading object of his pursuits. He first visited the principal seats of learning in Germany, and surveyed some of its mountains and forests; but it was impossible to quit this part of the world without a considerable stay at Vienna. There he cultivated the friendship of the two professors Jacquin, father and son; he studied with peculiar care the celebrated manuscript of Dioscorides, which has so long been preserved in the imperial library; and procured a most excellent draughtsman, Mr. Ferdinand Bauer, to be the companion of his expedition. On the 6th of March, 1786, they set out together from Vienna, and passed through Carriola to Trieste, Venice, Bologna, Florence, Rome and Naples, examining every thing that was curious, and keeping an exact record of their botanical observations. After viewing the celebrated environs of Naples, they sailed from thence early in May, and touching at Messina, as well as at the Isle of Milo, they proceeded to Crete.

Having narrowly escaped shipwreck, in returning to Milo,

by one of the country vessels, Dr. Sibthorp and Mr. Bauer touched successively at several islands of the Archipelago, visited Athens, and remained for a while at Smyrna. Dr. Sibthorp's residence at Constantinople, or in the neighbouring isle of Karki, proved favourable to his investigations of the fishes and birds of those regions, by which he was enabled to throw much light on the writings of ancient naturalists.

A stay of five weeks at Cyprus enabled Dr. Sibthorp to draw up a Fauna and Flora of that island. The former consists of 18 Mammalia, 85 Birds, 19 Amphibia, and 100 Fishes; the latter comprehends 616 species of plants. The particular stations, domestic and medical uses, and reputed qualities of these last, are amply recorded; and the vernacular names of the animals, as well as of the economical plants, are subjoined. The same method is pursued, in a subsequent part of this journal, respecting the plants and animals of Greece, with every thing that could be collected relative to the medicine, agriculture and domestic economy of that country and the circumjacent isles. The illustration of the writings of Dioscorides, in particular, was Dr. Sibthorp's chief object. The names and reputed virtues of several plants, recorded by that ancient writer, and still traditionally retained by the Athenian shepherds, served occasionally to elucidate, or to confirm their synonymy. The first sketch of the *Flora Græca* comprises about 850 plants. "This," says the author, "may be considered as containing only the plants observed by me in the environs of Athens, on the snowy heights of the Grecian Alp Parnassus, on the steep precipices of Delphis, the empurpled mountain of Hymettus, the Pentele, the lower hills about the Piræus, the olive grounds about Athens, and the fertile plains of Bœotia. The future botanist, who shall examine this country with more leisure, and at a more favourable season of the year, before the summer sun has scorched up the spring plants, may make a considerable addition to this list. My intention was to have travelled by land through Greece; but the disturbed state of this country, the eve of a Russian war, the rebellion of its bashaws, and the plague at Larissa, rendered my project impracticable." Of the Mammalia of Greece, 37 are enumerated, with their modern names, 25 reptiles and 82 birds. All these catalogues were greatly augmented by subsequent observations, inasmuch that the number of species collected from an investigation of all Dr. Sibthorp's manuscripts, and specimens for the materials of the *Prodromus Floræ Græcæ*, amounts to about 3000.

The constitution of Dr. Sibthorp, never very robust, had suffered materially from the hardships and exertions of his journey. But his native air, and the learned leisure of the university, gradually recruited his strength. His merits procured an augmentation of his stipend, with a rank of a Regius professor; both which advantages were, at the same time, conferred on his brother professor at Cambridge. He became a fellow of the Royal Society in 1789, and was among the first members of the Linnæan Society, founded in 1788.

On the 20th of March, 1794, Dr. Sibthorp set out from London, on his second tour to Greece. He reached Constantinople on the 19th of May, not without having suffered much from the fatigues of the journey, which had brought on a bilious fever. He soon recovered his health at Constantinople, where he was joined by his friend Mr. Hawkins from Crete.

He died at Bath, February 8th, 1796, in the thirty-eighth year of his age, and lies interred in the abbey church, where his executors have erected a neat monument to his memory.

By his will, dated Ashburton, January 12, 1796, he gives a freehold estate in Oxfordshire to the university of Oxford, for the purpose of first publishing his *Flora Græca*, in 10 folio volumes, with 100 coloured plates in each, and a *Prodromus* of the same work, in 8vo., without plates.

The only work which professor John Sibthorp published in his life-time is a *Flora Oxoniensis* in one volume 8vo., printed in 1794. It has the merit of being entirely founded

on his own personal observation. The species enumerated amount to 1200, all gathered by himself, and disposed according to the Linnæan system, with the alterations of Thunberg.

SIBTHORPE, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire, $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-south-west of Newark.

SIBTHORPIA [so named by Linnæus, in honour of Humphrey Sibthorp, M. D., Professor of Botany at Oxford], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiosperma, natural order of pediculares (*Juss.*).—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, turbinate, five-parted, spreading; leaflets ovate, permanent. Corolla, one-petalled, five-parted, spreading, equal, length of the calyx: segments rounded. Stamina: filaments four, capillary: two approximating. Anthers cordate-oblong. Pistil: germ roundish, compressed. Style cylindrical, thicker than the filaments, length of the flower. Stigma simple, capitate, depressed. Pericarp: capsule compressed, orbicular, two-bellied, with the sides acute, two-valved, two-celled: partition transverse. Seeds roundish-oblong, convex on one side, flat on the other. Receptacle globular, fastened to the middle of the partition.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-parted, equal. Stamina in remote pairs. Capsule compressed, orbicular, two-celled, with the partition transverse.

Sibthorpia Europæa, or Cornish money-wort.—Root fibrous, perennial. Stems prostrate, creeping. Leaves alternate, on footstalks, horizontal, with shallow distant notches, hairy. Peduncles axillary, one-flowered, hairy. Calyx hispid. Corolla pale yellow, with a purplish tinge in the three upper segments.—Native of Portugal and England, in shady places and about springs; in Devonshire and Cornwall, plentiful, and about Longsledale in Westmoreland.

Propagation and Culture.—Planted or sown in pots, placed in the shade and kept moist, it will thrive very well in gardens.

SIBTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2 miles north-west of Yoxford. Population 503.

SIBU, one of the Philippine islands, about 240 miles in circumference. The principal productions are a species of grain called borona, which serves instead of rice; cotton, tobacco, wax, and civet. This island was discovered by Magellan in 1521. Lat. 10. 41. N. long. 123. 30. E.

SIBU, **ЗІВУ**, or **СОВУ**, a town in the island of Sibiu, containing 5000 houses; the see of a bishop, and residence of a governor. In this town, some say Magellan, the celebrated circumnavigator, died. Lat. 10. 35. N. long. 123. 44. E.

SIBUCO, a town on the west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 7. 3. N. long. 122. 10. E.

SIBULTIQUI, a river of Mexico, which runs into the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 13. 35. N. long. 89. 16. W.

SIBUN, a river of South America, which falls into the bay of Honduras, in long. 91. 10. W. lat. 13. 8. N. It flows towards the sea, with a bold and rapid course, and vast quantities of mahogany are floated down it, and from the many branches and creeks with which it is united.

SIBUNDOI, a settlement of Quito, in the province of Succumbios, on the shore of the river Putumayo. Lat. 1. 7. N.

SIBUYAN ISLE, a small island, one of the Philippines, from 30 to 40 miles in circumference, and situated due south of Luzon. Lat. 12. 30. N. long. 122. 30. E.

SIBYL, *s.* [*sibylla*, Latin.] A prophetess among the pagans.

It was my dismal hap to hear

A sibyl old, bow-bent with crooked age,
That far events full wisely could presage.

Milton.

Authors do not agree about the number of the Sibyls, though their existence is allowed, as sufficiently established by antiquity: Capella reckons but two, viz., Erphyle of Troo, called Sibylla Phrygia; and Sinuachia of Erythræ, called Sibylla Erythræa. Solinus mentions three; viz.,

Cumæa, Delphica, or the Sibyl of Sardis, and Erythræa; and of this opinion is Ausonius, who thus describes them:—

“Et tres fatidicæ nomen commune Sibyllæ,
Quarum tergemini fatalia carmine libri.”

Ælian makes their number four; viz., the Erythræan, th Egyptian, the Sibyl born at Samos, and another of Sardis in Lydia; and Varro increases it to ten, denominating them from the places of their birth; the Persian, called Sabetha by the Persians; Libyan, according to Euripides, the daughter of Jupiter and Latona; Delphic, named Daphne, by Diodorus Siculus, who says that she was born at Thebes, in Bœotia; Cimmerian; Erythræan, who prophesied to the Greeks, that were going to besiege Troy, the happy success of their enterprise, and who lived, according to Eusebius, not in the time of the Trojan war, as Varro believes, but under the reign of Romulus; Samian, called, according to Suidas, Pitho or Persuasion, and according to Eusebius, Eriphile; Cumæan, named Amalthæa by some authors, and by others Demophile or Hierophyle, who is said to have offered to Tarquin the Elder a collection of Sibylline verses, in nine books; Hellespontic or Troiad, born at Marpesus, near the town of Gorgis, in Troas, who lived, according to Heraclides, in the time of Cyrus and Solon; Phrygian, who gave her oracles at Ancyra, the place of her residence; and Tiburtine, named Albumæa, and honoured as a divinity in the vicinity of the river Anio. Of these, the most celebrated are, the Erythræan, Delphic and Cumæan Sibyls.

Some modern authors, without regarding the authority of Varro, or that of the other ancients, are for uniting all the Sibyls in one; so that, according to them, different names were given to one and the same Sybil from the different places where she uttered her oracles. She first published her predictions in the city of Erythræa, the place of her nativity; then rambled about the world; and closed her life at Cumæ, in Italy.

The Sibylline oracles were held in great veneration by the more credulous among the ancients; but they were much suspected by many of the more knowing. The books in which they were written were kept by the Romans with infinite care; and nothing of moment was undertaken without consulting them. Tarquin first committed them to the custody of two patrician priests, instituted for that purpose. How, when, or by whom this collection was made, are circumstances which authentic history has not ascertained. It is not likely that the Sibyls prophesied in verse, far less that they themselves kept their predictions, and digested them into order. All that we know concerning them is, that a woman came to Tarquin the Elder, as Varro says, or, according to Pliny, to Tarquin the Proud, offering him a collection of these verses, in nine books, or three according to Pliny; and that she demanded for them 300 pieces of gold; that when the prince refused to give that sum, she threw three of them into the fire, and asked the same sum for the remaining six, which being refused, she burned three more, and persisted in asking the same sum for those that were left: at length the king, fearing that she would burn the other three, gave her the sum which she demanded. Although this story has very much the air of a romance, it is attested by many authors; and it is certain that the Romans had in their possession a collection of the Sibylline verses.

These books were carefully kept till the civil wars of Sylla and Marius: when the Capitol being accidentally set on fire, and burnt down to the ground, these books were burnt with it. This happened in the year before Christ 83. But the Capitol being again rebuilt about seven years after this period, the senate determined to restore the Sibylline oracles; and having procured many that were said to be of this kind, laid them up in the Capitol, in order to supply the place and office of those that were lost. However, the books thus obtained had been dispersed in the hands of many, and were, therefore, by being thus vulgarly known, unfit for the use which the Romans proposed to make of them. On this account a law was passed, which required the surrender of

them, and prohibited any from retaining copies of them, under pain of death. Augustus, when he assumed the high-priesthood of Rome, revived this law, and destroyed a great multitude of copies which were brought in. Tiberius caused many more to be burnt, and preserved only those which were found more worthy of approbation for that service of the state for which they were originally intended; and to these, as long as Rome remained heathen, they had constant recourse; till at length Honorius the emperor, A.D. 399, issued an order for destroying them; in pursuance of which, Stilico burnt all these prophetic writings, and demolished the temple of Apollo, in which they were repositd.

SIBYLLINE, *adj.* [*sibyllinus*, Lat.] Of or belonging to a sibyl.—The genuine *sibylline* oracles — in the first ages of the church were easily distinguished from the spurious. *Addison*.

SICABA, a town on the north-west coast of the island of Negroes. Lat. 11. 26. N. long. 123. 2. E.

SICAMORE, or **SYCAMORE**, *s.* [*sicomorus*, Latin; *icomop*, Sax.] A tree.—Of trees you have the palm, olive, and *sicamore*. *Peacham*.

SICANDRO, a small uninhabited island in the Grecian archipelago, near the island of Policandro.

SICARD (Claude), a Jesuit missionary, was born at Aubergne, near Marseilles, in 1677. He entered into the society of Jesus in the year 1699, and for several years taught the classics and rhetoric in their schools. He was at length sent on a mission to Syria, and thence to Egypt where he died at Cairo, in 1726. He was a man of deep as well as extensive learning, and an exact observer of what was remarkable in the countries he visited. His first publication was "An easy Method of learning Greek," translated into French from the Latin of Peter Gras, with additions. When abroad, he sent home several curious letters, which were published in the "Nouveaux Mémoires des Missions de la Compagnie de Jesus dans le Levant;" in which are likewise published his "Plan of a Work on Egypt, ancient and modern," and "A Dissertation on the Passage of the Red Sea, and Journey of the Israelites."

SICARII, in Ancient History, assassins of Judea, who went about the country for the accomplishment of their nefarious purposes, with short swords concealed under their clothes.

SICASICA, a province formerly of Peru, but since included in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. It is a very extensive track, of nearly a hundred leagues in length, and contains some silver mines, two of which are worked. The far greater part of this district lies among the mountains, and it has Cochabamba to its west, Oruro to the south, Paria to the east, and La Paz to the north. Those parts which consist of plains or valleys, are extremely hot, and produce great quantities of coca or betel, with which the neighbouring provinces are supplied. The mountains feed large herds of cattle, and flocks of vicuñas, guanacos, &c. Its forests afford several sorts of valuable wood, and it is said to contain two rich gold mines. The inhabitants make the wool of their sheep into various kinds of stuffs.

SICAYAP POINT, a cape on the north-west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 8. N. long. 123. 30. E.

SICCA, a town on the north coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 1. 32. N. long. 110. 40. E.

To SICCATE, *v. a.* [*siccus*, Latin.] To dry. *Unused, but a good word.*

SICCATION, *s.* The act of drying.

SICCHOS, a settlement of South America, in Quito, and province of Tacunga, in which are some silver mines, now abandoned; 20 miles west of Lacatunga.

SICCA'FICK, *adj.* [*siccus* and *fic*.] Causing dryness.

SICCITY, [*siccité*, Fr., *siccitas*, from *siccus*, Latin.] Dryness; aridity; want of moisture.—That which is coagulated by a fiery *siccity* will suffer colliqution from aqueous humidity, as salt and sugar. *Brown*.

SICCOMARIO, a district in the east of the Sardinian states, in the Milanese, consisting of a small but fruitful

stripe of land, near the junction of the Po and the Tanaro. It contains 15 petty towns and villages.

SICE, *s.* [*six*, French.] A gambling term; the number six at dice.

My study was to cog the dice,
And dextrously to throw the lucky *sice* ;
To shun ames-ace, that swept my stakes away. *Dryden*.

SICERA, in the Jewish Antiquities. The Hellenist Jews give this name to any inebriating liquor. St. Chrysostom, Theodoret, and Theophilus of Antiöch, who were Syrians, and who therefore ought to know the signification and nature of *sicera*, assure us, that it properly signifies palm-wine.

SICGENI, a small town of the island of Malta, with 2300 inhabitants.

SICH, *adj.* The old word for **SUCH**.

I thought the soul would have made me rich ;
But now I wote it is nothing *sich* ;
For either the shepherds been idle and still,
And led off their sheep what they will. *Spenser*.

SICHEM, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in South Brabant, on the Demer. Population 1500; 14 miles north-east of Louvain.

SICIGNANO, a small town of Italy, in the south-west of the kingdom of Naples. in the Principato Citra, containing, with the village of Galdo di Sicignano, a population of 3400. In 1806 it was partly burned by the French, on account of the resistance made by the inhabitants.

SICILIANA, in Botany, a name given by Dodonæus, and some other authors, to the great androsæmum.

SICILIANE, or **PASTORALE**, a kind of simple rural music, resounding in Christmas time through all quarters of Naples, and executed by Abruzzese or Calabrian shepherds, upon a species of bag-pipes, called in Abruzzo *zampagne*, and *ciaramelli* in Calabria. The tunes vary, according to the provinces: in the south, they have three different airs; the northern shepherds have only two, to which they add any variations which the boldness of their own genius inspires.

SICILIES, **TWO**, **KINGDOM OF THE**, the title assumed for their dominions by the royal family of Naples, since the early part of the 18th century. See the close of the succeeding article; see also **NAPLES**.

SICILY, the largest island of the Mediterranean, situated between Italy and the coast of Africa, and extending from long. 12. 42. to 16. 10. E. lat. 36. 30. to 38. 12. N. Its form is that of an irregular triangle; its length from east to west is 180 miles, its greatest breadth 130. Its extent, including the small islands along its coast, is about 12,500 square miles, or somewhat more than one-third of the size of Ireland.

Divisions and Population.—Modern Sicily has long been divided into three parts, the Val di Mazzara, or western part; the Val di Demona, or north-eastern; the Val di Noto, or southern: of these, the first is the most extensive. But since 1815, Sicily has been divided into seven intendancies, viz., Palermo, Messina, Catania, Girgenti, Syracuse, Trapani, and Calatanissetta, each corresponding in size to one of our larger counties, such as Somerset or Essex. The population of Sicily in former ages has been rated very high; but after making allowances for the uncertainty and tendency to exaggeration in ancient records, there seems little probability that it ever equalled the present number, viz., 1,660,000. Certain it is, that three centuries ago it did not exceed the half of it.

Chief towns in the Val di Mazzara:

Palermo	150,000	Naro	12,000
Marsala	25,000	Corleo	12,000
Trapani	24,000	Licatanè	12,000
Termini	20,000	Castel Vetrano	12,000
Girgenti	14,000	Sciacca	11,000
Salemi	12,000	Mazzara	10,000
Alcamo	12,000		

Val di Noto :

Modica	24,000	Agosta	12,000
Ragusa	20,000	Vittoria	11,000
Noto	16,000	Scieli	11,000
Syracuse	14,000	Castro Giovanni	10,000

Val di Demona :

Messina	90,000	Randuzzo	12,000
Catania	80,000	Cefalu	10,000
Nicosia	13,000		

Face of the Country.—Sicily is separated from the Italian continent by a strait called the Faro di Messina, from 12 to 15 miles over in the broadest part, and in the narrowest not exceeding two. It has been often asserted that the island was originally joined to the continent, and separated from it by a great convulsion, the principal chain of mountains, extending from east to west, being apparently a continuation of the Appennines. There are, however, other ranges braunching off from north to south, and a few insulated mountains, of which by far the greatest is Etna. This mixture of mountain and valley causes a corresponding variety of products and scenery, the low grounds being appropriated to maize, wheat, and other corn, the higher to pasture and plantations. The most extensive plains are those of Melazzo and Catania in the north-east, of Syracuse in the south-west, of Terra Nova in the south. Along the northern coast the surface is level for nearly 100 miles to the east of Trapani: it is level also near the gulf of Castello Mare, on the opposite side of Sicily. Considerable as is the population, there are extensive tracks, particularly in the west, devoid both of cultivation and inhabitants. There are no carriage roads except in the vicinity of Palermo, and the only mode of travelling is on the backs of mules or horses.

Sicily is well watered; but of all its streams, three only deserve the name of rivers, viz., the Fiume Grande, the Salso, and the Giaretta, the *Simatius* of antiquity. There are very few bridges, either over these or over the rivulets, which, in the rainy seasons, are soon swelled to the size of torrents. Of lakes, Sicily has only two worth notice, the Biviere, about eight miles south of Catania, which in winter has a circumference of 20 miles, while in summer it is reduced to one-half, leaving a swampy track, of the most pernicious operation on the health of the surrounding district. The other lake, Pergusa, near Castro Giovanni, in the centre of the island, is only five miles in circumference.

Climate and Soil.—The climate of Sicily is very pleasant, the winter corresponding to our spring, and the heat of summer being tempered by the fresh breezes from the sea. Snow is confined to the lofty mountains; the low grounds exhibit the banana, the aloe, the sugar cane, and other southern productions. Of the seasons, the spring is the most agreeable. The sky of Sicily is comparatively cloudless, its vegetation luxuriant, its scenery finely diversified. The drawbacks on these advantages are the unhealthiness of particular districts, the occasional occurrence of earthquakes, particularly in the neighbourhood of Messina, and the debilitating effect of the *sirocco*, or south wind, during a few days of July and August. Sicily has always been noted for its fertility, an advantage long ascribed to the volcanic matter contained on its surface; but this matter appears, by late surveys, to be confined to the vicinity of Etna, the soil in the rest of the island being a calcareous loamy mould. It descends in general to a considerable depth, and liberally rewards the active hand of industry. The want of rain in the beginning of summer is supplied by copious dews towards June; the snow accumulated on the mountains begins to melt, and affords, in a number of rivulets, the means of irrigating the land under tillage. Still the state of cultivation in Sicily is very backward, owing to the unfortunate absorption of landed property by

the barons and clergy, and to the general poverty of the peasantry. Tracks of many miles in extent, which, with a little labour, might be made highly productive, are left uncultivated; and in a land of great natural plenty, one-third of the inhabitants may be said to be in a state of beggary. The products of the island are maize, wheat, and other corn; flax, hemp, vines, olives, saffron, and cotton. For silk the climate is highly favourable; also for the rich fruit of a southern latitude. Potatoes were introduced in the 18th century, and are cultivated in many parts, though not in great quantities. The extent of high lying ground, and the frequency of rain, make the pastures of Sicily very different from the parched continental tracks in the same latitude; hence a considerable supply of milk, cheese, and butter. A farther source of wealth, the extension of plantations, has been entirely neglected; and the oak, elm, ash, and pine, which cover many parts of the mountains, are turned to little account, being deemed in law the exclusive property of the crown. It was only in 1819 that the export of corn from this island was declared free.

In minerals Sicily is equally rich. Iron and copper are found in various parts, particularly in the north-east quarter, the region of Etna. Marble is very general, and stone for building is found in almost every part of the island. Agate, jasper, porphyry and alabaster, are likewise found. Salt mines have been discovered near Castro Giovanni, in the centre of the island; and near Messina is a large coal mine.

Animals.—The labour of the fields, and even the dragging of carts and waggons on the roads, is in Sicily generally performed by oxen. For travelling, recourse is had to mules, who here, as in other parts of the south of Europe, discover great steadiness in traversing a wretched road, and no less patience in supporting fatigue. In general the breed of cattle and horses has been much neglected, and is at present advancing very slowly towards improvement. Game is found in abundance, and most of the wild animals of the continent of Europe exist in this island.

Manufactures and Trade.—The only manufacturing establishments of extent are at the three large towns of Palermo, Messina and Catania: they consist of silk, cotton and linen; in part also of woollens, though the wool of the island is of indifferent quality. If to these we add a few articles, such as hats, cutlery, harness, carriages and household furniture, made at Palermo and the principal towns, we have the amount of the Sicilian manufactures. A number of articles for the peasantry, are in this, as in other backward countries, made at their own houses, without the benefit of machinery or division of labour. Hence comparatively few exchanges, a slow intercourse between town and country, and in general those symptoms of stagnation which strike an Englishman so forcibly on visiting a foreign country.

In respect to commerce, Sicily, from the variety of its products, the excellence of several of its harbours, and the general safety of its coast for navigation, would, under an enlightened government, acquire great importance. As yet, however, the exports and imports are comparatively small, neither exceeding 1,500,000*l.* for the whole island. Here are no banks, no insurance companies, and very little confidence in government. The interior trade is cramped by the want of roads, the navigation by the quarantine laws, which are said to be enforced very unequally, and to be unfairly dispensed with in favour of those who are in connection with the public officers. The occupancy of the island by the British troops, from 1806 to 1816, was a source of considerable advantage; and in the latter year, a treaty was concluded between the courts of Naples and London, affording considerable privileges to the British. The chief exports of Sicily are silk, corn, salt, olive oil, sumac, wine, fruits of various kinds; also goat, kid and other skins. The imports consist of colonial produce, hardware, jewellery, lead and manufactured articles in great variety, but small quantity. Of the fisheries carried on along the coast, the principal

cipal is the tunny fishery. Money accounts are here kept in ounces, taris and grains.

1 grain is equal to $\frac{1}{4}d.$ sterling.
20 grains = 1 tari or $5d.$ sterling.
30 taris = 1 ounce or 12s. 6d.

Inhabitants, Education, Religion.—The Sicilians resemble the Spaniards and Italians in the darkness of their complexion, and not less in the indolence of their habits. Their backwardness arises, not from heaviness, for they appear quick and ingenious, but from the want of education and personal exertion. A vindictive spirit, and the extremes to which it leads, are as remarkable here as in Italy or Portugal. The vices of the Sicilians are not intemperance, for they are as sparing in the use of drink and victuals as the Spaniards; but the vices engendered by indolence, namely, a passion for public amusements, a rage for gaming, and a licence in gaming.

The Sicilian language approaches greatly to the Italian; and until the end of the 18th century, printed compositions generally appeared in the latter. Of late, attempts have been made to raise the Sicilian from a provincial to a national tongue. A dictionary has been printed, and several poets, have published in their native language. In ancient times, Sicily produced several writers of note, as Theocritus, Empedocles, Stesichorus, Epicarmus; also painters and sculptors, not unworthy of competition with those of Greece. In modern times, or rather since the beginning of the 17th century, there have appeared some successful candidates in the field of belles-lettres, poetry and natural history; and at present Palermo, Catania and Messina, contain individuals of distinguished attainments; but their efforts have been discouraged by the want of a free press, the inadequacy of the public libraries, and the difficulty of intercourse with the more enlightened part of Europe. Education may be said to be in almost the same incipient state: there has yet been no general establishment of elementary schools; and the colleges at Palermo, Catania and other large towns, have been conducted on a very antiquated plan, Latin and the doctrines of the Catholic church having excluded every branch of useful knowledge. The schools called *Scuoli Normali*, established in 1789, are on a better footing, the pupils being limited in number, and the teachers subjected to a previous examination. Girls, as in other Catholic countries, are put, at the age of eight or ten, into a convent or *retiro*, where, during six or eight years, they are taught little else than reading, writing, or the ceremonies of the Catholic faith. Fortunately the plan of teaching of Bell and Lancaster has found its way into Sicily. The religion of Sicily is the Catholic: the number of ecclesiastics in Sicily is said to amount to 70,000, exclusive of a still greater number of monks and nuns; all, or almost all, marked by one uniform character of ignorance, credulity and superstition.

Government.—Sicily has long had an assembly dignified with the name of parliament, but until a very late date (1810) it was merely a feudal institution, possessing hardly any marks of the elective franchise. It was composed of three branches: the nobles to the number of 227; the prelates in number 61; the demanial or deputies from universities, cities, and crown estates, to the number of only 43. Its authority was in a great measure nominal, and it did little or nothing towards repressing the abuses which prevailed notoriously in every branch of administration. The public officers are so inadequately paid, as necessarily to have recourse to peculation. The hospitals and other public establishments, even when well endowed, are in a very uncomfortable state. As to the administration of justice, the laws, however good in the letter, are inoperative against a delinquent of influence or fortune. The judges are open to corruption; civil suits are protracted from year to year, in a manner not surpassed even in Poland; and the nature of the verdict often depends on the comparative influence of the parties. The rarity of capital punish-

ment would claim our praise, were it not accompanied, in cases of doubtful evidence, by a recourse to torture: in short, no country could be more in want of that political reform which was begun by the British government when in possession of the island, and is now carried on by the inhabitants themselves.

The Revenue and Military Establishments.—The revenue of Sicily is computed at £1,000,000 sterling; a sum that would not be exorbitant, were the taxes judicious in their nature, and equal in the mode of levying; but until lately, the barons or landholders were to a certain degree exempt, and the burden was unmercifully imposed on the commons. The executive branch is subject to no inquiry or responsibility in regard to the application of the public funds. The Sicilian army in time of peace does not exceed 10,000 men; the pay of the soldiers, adequate only to their subsistence in a plentiful year, makes them dependant on public charity in a season of dearth and scarcity. A number of the officers are foreigners. The Sicilian navy is limited to one ship of the line, two frigates, five sloops: the gun-boats are numerous; but the whole is in a poor state of discipline and equipment.

History.—Sicily is said to have been originally called Sicania, and to have derived its present name from the Siculi, a people who invaded it from Italy. It was called also, from its triangular form, Trinaeria. Of foreign nations, the first acquainted with it were the Phœnicians, who appear to have carried on a commerce of a very primitive kind, with the inhabitants of the sea-coast. The Greeks soon after resorted to it, as to the south of Italy and the coast of Asia Minor, for the purpose of colonizing: hence the prevalence of the Greek language, the erection of structures in the Greek style, and a political connection with Corinth, Athens, and other sea-ports of the mother country. The occupancy of the western and northern coast by the Carthaginians, took place about 500 years before the birth of our Saviour, but the eastern and southern remained to Greek settlers: for the siege of Syracuse, so unfortunate for the Athenians, occurred only 414 years before the Christian era. About a century and a half after, took place the long military contest between the Romans and Carthaginians, for the possession of the island, on the termination of which Sicily remained in possession of the former during many centuries, the inhabitants being permitted to retain their own usages and forms of worship. At last, in the 8th and 9th centuries, the Saracens succeeded in conquering Sicily, and, making Palermo their capital remained in possession of the island about 200 years. They, or rather their rulers, gave way to the Normans, who, attracted to Sicily, on their progress to the crusades, made the conquest of the island in the 11th century. After being for a short time subject to the emperor Anjou, a French prince, in 1266; and it was in 1282 that the massacre of the French, so well known by the name of Sicilian Vespers, took place. After this catastrophe, the inhabitants transferred the sovereignty of their island to Spain, with whom it long remained, as well as that of the Neapolitan territory, to which Sicily became united in 1430. Both were subject to the crown of Spain in 1700, when the death of the reigning king led to the grand contest called the "war of the succession." In 1707, the Austrians obtained possession of Naples and Sicily; and by the peace of Utrecht in 1713, while Naples was confirmed to them, Sicily was given to the duke of Savoy, with the title of king. But in 1720 the Austrians prevailed on the new possessor of Sicily to exchange it for Sardinia, and added the former to the kingdom of Naples, a union of which they were not fated to reap the fruits—the war of 1734, carried on by France and Spain against Austria, transferring the crown of Naples, or, as it was now termed, of the Two Sicilies, to a branch of the royal family of Spain. In their hands it remained without interruption, until the progress of the French revolutionists led, in January 1799, to the expulsion of the royal family from Naples. The latter took refuge in Sicily, and being restored by the success of the allies in the ensuing campaign, remained

remained at Naples until the beginning of 1806, when, in revenge for the part taken against France in the preceding autumn, they were once more compelled to take refuge in Sicily. Here they were threatened by their successors, Joseph Buonaparte and Murat, with a descent; and the acquisition of Sicily was, as appeared from the British negotiation at Paris in 1806, a first rate object with Napoleon. But an attempt at invasion, made in September 1810, was baffled by the British troops. Sicily remained safe; and in 1815, the overthrow of Murat by the Austrians, led to the restoration of the legitimate family to the throne of Naples, which they continue to possess. The royal prerogative, is, since the failure of the revolution, quite unlimited.

SICK, *adj.* [Goth. *siks*; Sax. *seoc*; old Engl. *seke*. " [He] them hath holpen, when that they were *seke*." Chaucer, C. T. Prol.] Afflicted with disease: with *of* before the disease.—O Cassius, I am *sick of* many griefs. *Shakespeare*.—Disordered in the organs of digestion; ill in the stomach; corrupted.

What we oft do best;
By *sick* interpreters, or weak ones, is
Not ours, or not allow'd: what worst, as oft
Hitting a grosser quality, is cried up
For our best act.

Shakespeare.

Disgusted.

Why will you break the sabbath of my days,
Now *sick* alike of envy and of praise?

Pope.

To **SICK**, *v. n.* To sicken; to take a disease. *Not in use.*

A little time before

Our great grandsire Edward *sick'd* and died.

Shakespeare.

To **SICKEN**, *v. a.* To make sick; to disease.

Why should one earth, one clime, one stream, one breath,
Raise this to strength, and *sicken* that to death?

Prior.

To weaken; to impair.

Kinsmen of mine have

By this so *sicken'd* their estates, that never
They shall abound as formerly.

Shakespeare.

To **SICKEN**, *v. n.* To grow sick; to fall into disease.

—The judges that sat upon the jail, and those that attended,
sicken'd upon it, and died. *Bacon*.—To be satiated; to be filled to disgust.

Though the treasure

Of nature's germins tumble all together,
Ev'n till destruction *sicken*, answer me
To what I ask you.

Shakespeare.

To be disgusted, or disordered with abhorrence.

The ghosts repine at violated night,
And curse th' invading sun, and *sicken* at the sight.

Dryden.

To grow weak; to decay; to languish.

So *sicken* waining moons too near the sun,
And blunt their crescents on the edge of day.

Dryden.

SICKER, *adj.* [Written also *siker*; Su. Goth. *siker*, *seker*; Germ. *sicher*; Welsh, *sicer*; Irish, *sokair*; Lat. *securus*.] Sure; certain; firm. *Obsolete*. Retained in our northern word *sickerly*.

Being some honest curate, or some vicar,
Content with little in condition *sicker*.

Spenser.

SICKER, *adv.* Surely; certainly. *Obsolete*.

Sicker thou'st but a lazy loord,
And rekes much of thy swink,
That with fond terms and witless words,
To bleer mine eyes do'st think.

Spenser.

SICKERLY, *adv.* Surely; a northern word.—That men may more *sickerly* be evil.

Robinson.

SICKERNESS, *s.* Security. *Obsolete*.

Lightly she leaped, as a wight forlore,
From her dull horse, in desperate distresse,
And to her feet betooke her doubtful *sickerness*.

Spenser.

SICKERSREUT, a village of Germany, in Franconia; 3 miles south-east of Bayreuth, remarkable only for a mineral

spring resorted to for the relief of gout, rheumatism, and gravel.

SICKISH, *adj.* Somewhat sick; inclined to be sick.—Not the body only, but the mind too, which commonly follows the temper of the body, is *sickish* and indisposed.

SICKLAGULLY, a celebrated pass in the range of hills which separate Bengal from Bahar; about 18 miles north-by-west from Rajemal. It was formerly fortified, but never seems to have been of much utility, as it has been frequently taken; and there are several other passes in the hills. It would, however, delay an enemy for some time if properly guarded. It is situated on the south-west side of the Ganges, in Lat. 25. 12. N. long. 87. 40. E.

SICKLE, *s.* [Icol, Sax.; *sicket*, Dutch, from *secale*, or *sicula*, Latin.] The hook with which corn is cut; a reaping-hook, with a serrated edge.

O'er whom Time gently shakes his wings of down,
Till with his silent *sickle* they are mown.

Dryden.

SICKLED, *adj.* Supplied with a sickle; carrying a sickle.

When autumn's yellow lustre gilds the world,
And tempts the *sickled* swain into the field.

Thomson.

SICKLEWORT, *s.* [Icol-pýpɔ, Sax.] A plant.

SICKLEMAN, or **SICKLER**, *s.* A reaper.

You sunburnt *sickleman*, of August weary,
Come hither from the furrow, and be merry.

Shakespeare.

Their *sicklers* reap the corn another sows.

Sandys.

SICKLINESS, *s.* Disposition to sickness; habitual disease.

Impute

His words to wayward *sickliness* and age.

Shakespeare.

SICKLINGHALL, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles west of Wetherby.

SICKLY, *adv.* Not in health.

We wear our health but *sickly* in his life,
Which in his death were perfect.

Shakespeare.

SICKLY, *adj.* Not healthy; not sound; not well; somewhat disordered.

Time seems not now beneath his years to stoop,
Nor do his wings with *sickly* feathers droop.

Dryden.

When on my *sickly* couch I lay,
Impatient both of night and day,
Then Stella ran to my relief.

Swift.

Faint; weak; languid.

The moon grows *sickly* at the sight of day,
And early cocks have summon'd me away.

Dryden.

To **SICKLY**, *v. a.* To make diseased; to taint with the hue of disease.

The native hue of resolution

Is *sickled* o'er with the pale cast of thought.

Shakespeare.

SICKNESS, *s.* State of being diseased.

I do lament the *sickness* of the king,
As loth to lose him.

Shakespeare.

Trust not too much your now resistless charms;
Those age or *sickness* soon or late disarms.

Pope.

Disorder in the organs of digestion.

SICKREE. There are several places of this name in Hindostan.

SICON, a settlement of Cuba; 125 miles west-south-west of Havannah.

SICU-LEUVU, a river of Chili, in the province of Maule, which runs south, and forms the lake of Huenchun.

SICULI, in Ancient Geography, a people originally of Dalmatia, who established themselves in Italy about the 16th century B. C. They formed a numerous nation, and had possession of a considerable extent of country; as they peopled Umbria, Sabina, Latium, and all the cantons, the occupiers of which were afterwards known under the name of Opici. The Siculi passed into Sicily, and gave it their name. This event is said to have taken place, according to

Hellanicus of Lesbos, 80 years before the siege of Troy, or 1364 years B. C., according to the chronology of Thucydides. The name of Siculi, which comprehended all the people who diffused themselves from the Tiber to the eastern extremity of Italy, the country occupied by the Liburni excepted, was gradually abolished by the separate leagues and distinctions of the Sabines, Latins, Samnites, Oenotrians, and Italians. Herodotus, Thucydides, Plato, and Aristotle, mention these people.

SICULIANA, a considerable town on the south coast of Sicily, in the Val di Mazzara, situated at the mouth of the small river Canna. It has a harbour, and exports some wheat; also quantities of sulphur, obtained from mines in the neighbourhood. Population 6000; 8 miles west-by-north of Girgenti.

SICUM, a town of Illyria, on the coast of Dalmatia, between Scardona and Salone, according to Ptolemy and Pliny. The latter says, that the Emperor Claudius sent hither his veteran soldiers.

SICUS, in Ichthyology, a name used by some authors to express *albula nobilis*. This, in the Linnæan system, is a species of *salmo*.

SICUT ALIAS, in Law, a writ sent out in the second place, where the first was not executed.

SICYEDON [from *σικυος*, a cucumber], in Surgery, a transverse fracture.

SICYON, a town of Greece, and capital of a small state in the gulf of Corinth, and not far distant from it. It was anciently called *Ægiatæ*, from *Ægialeus*, its supposed founder and first monarch. It is not certain whether the whole kingdom, or only its metropolis, was called by that name, but it was exchanged for Apia, from Apis its fourth king; and in process of time it acquired that of Sicyon, who was the 19th monarch. He reigned about 740 years after its supposed foundation; and from that time not only the kingdom, but the whole peninsula of Peloponnesus, was called Sicyonia until its dissolution.

This little kingdom lay on the north part of the Peloponnesus, since called the bay of Corinth. On the west it had the province of Achaia, and on the east the isthmus, which joins the peninsula to the continent of Greece. Its extent has not been ascertained. Its capital is supposed to have been situated upon the river Asopus, having the bay of Corinth on the north, and the rest of the Peloponnesus at the three other points. Strabo and Livy say, that it was parted from the kingdom of Corinth by the river Nemia; and Ptolemy adds that it was first called Micone, and afterwards *Ægiali*; he gave it two cities, Platius and Sicyon, both of which he placed at some distance from the sea.

The territory of this small state was rich, abounding with corn, vines, olive-trees, and other commodities, besides some iron mines. Its metropolis was, in process of time, very much adorned by Sicyon and his successors, with temples, altars, monuments, and statues of all their gods and ancient monarchs. This would be justly deemed the most ancient monarchy in the world, not excepting those of Egypt and Assyria, if it were true that its founder lived about 150 years after the flood, or about 200 years before Noah's death; as some have computed it from Eusebius, who affirms this monarchy to have been founded 1313 years before the first Olympiad, or 2089 B. C. But other chronologers have corrected this mistake, and made him contemporary with Terah, Abraham's father, and stated the commencement of his reign about the year of the world 1915, or even later, about A. M. 1236; by which computation it is brought somewhat lower than the year of the flood 900. This kingdom is said to have had, during an interval of 962 years, a succession of 26 kings, but their reigns are distinguished by no memorable action or conquest. The first king was *Ægialeus*, and the last Zeuxippus or Deuxippus; but in Blair's chronology the last king is Charidemus, with whom they end, 1089 years B. C., or 15 years after the return of the Heraclidæ into Peloponnesus. In the list of kings, the most remarkable is Sicyon, who gave name to the state, and who is supposed to have built, or at least enlarged, the

metropolis of the kingdom, and to have called it by his own name. Accordingly it was not only one of the noblest cities in Greece, on account both of its magnificent edifices and ingenious workmen, but it was a considerable place when the Venetians were masters of the Morea, under the new name of "Basilica," though it has been for near the two last centuries reduced to a heap of ruins, containing only three Turkish, and about as many Christian families. The town was situated on the top of a hill, about three miles from the gulf of Lepanto; and has still several monuments of its ancient as well as modern grandeur, particularly the walls of its famous citadel, of some fine churches and mosques, and a large ancient edifice, called the royal palace, with aqueducts to supply it with water, all which, with other old remains, are described by Sir George Wheeler, Voy.

After the death of Zeuxippus, the last king of Sicyon, this state is said to have been governed by the priests of Apollo Carneus, five of whom held the sovereignty only during one year each; after which the Amphictyons swayed the sceptre nine years successively, and Charidemus, the last of them, continued in it 18 years. After this hierarchy had lasted 32 years, the Heraclidæ, who were at that time returned from Peloponnesus, became masters of it, or according to Pausanias, the kingdom was incorporated with the Doreæ, and became subject to that of Argos, the next kingdom to that of Sicyon in respect of antiquity. *An. Un. Hist.* vol. v.

SICYONII, among the Romans, were shoes of a more delicate form, and better ornamented than ordinary, and chiefly worn by the ladies and the gallants.

SICYOS [*σικυος* of Theophrastus], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order syngenesia, natural order of Cucurbitaceæ.—Generic Character. Male flowers—Calyx; perianth one-leaved, bell-shaped, five-toothed; toothlets awl-shaped. Corolla, five-parted, bell-shaped, fastened to the calyx; segments ovate. Stamina: filaments three, united. Anthers as many, sepalate. Female flowers on the same plant—Calyx: perianth as in the male, superior, deciduous. Corolla as in the male. Pistil: germ ovate, inferior. Style cylindrical. Stigma thickish, trifid. Pericarp: berry ovate, set with spines, one-celled. Seed single, subovate.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-toothed, Corolla five-parted. Male filaments three. Female style trifid. Drupe one-seeded.

1. *Sicyos angulata*, angular-leaved sicyos, or single-seeded cucumber.—Leaves angular. This is an annual plant, which rises with two large seed-leaves like those of the cucumber; the stalk is trailing, and has tendrils, by which it fastens itself to neighbouring plants, and will rise fifteen or sixteen feet high, dividing into many branches, with angular leaves on them like those of the cucumber. Flowers sulphur coloured.—Native of North America.

2. *Sicyos laciniata*, or jagged-leaved sicyos.—This is also an annual plant, with trailing stalks like the former; but the leaves are cut into several segments. The flowers are larger and of a deeper colour. The fruit is not quite so large, nor so closely armed with prickly hairs.—Native of the West Indies.

3. *Sicyos Garcini*, or Garcin's sicyos.—Leaves cordate, five-parted with the sinuses obtuse: segments sinuate with mucronate teeth. Fruit sessile, solitary, ciliate, pressed to the stem.—Native of Ceylon.

Propagation and Culture.—If the seeds be permitted to scatter, the plants will come up in the spring better than when sown by hand, and require no other care but to keep them clean from weeds. These plants ramble, and take up too much room in small gardens; they should therefore be allowed a place near a hedge, upon which they may climb; they do not bear transplanting well, unless when they first come up.

Sow the seeds upon a hot-bed in the spring, and treat the plants in the same way as cucumbers and melons, keeping them under frames. They require more room, so that a plant or two will be enough for curiosity.

SIDA [*Σιδη* of Theophrastus], in Botany, a genus of the

the class monadelphia, order polyandria, natural order of columniferae, malvaceae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, angular, half-five-cleft, permanent. Corolla: petals five, wider above, emarginate, fastened below to the tube of the stamens. Stamina: filaments very many, united below into a tube, in the apex of the tube divided. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ orbicular. Styles five or more, or else one, many cleft. Stigmas headed. Pericarp: capsule roundish-angular, composed of five or more cells, (corresponding with the number of the styles or stigmas,) two-valved, awnless, acuminate or horned, opening above, or close, and finally separating. Seeds solitary, two, three, or five, roundish, mostly acuminate, convex on one side, angular on the other, fastened to the interior suture.

I.—With long narrow lanceolate oblong and ovate leaves.

1. *Sida linifolia*, or flax-leaved sida.—Leaves linear, quite entire; racemes terminating; capsules almost awnless. This genus, which contained only twenty-seven species in the 14th edition of the *Systema Vegetabilium* by Murray, is thus enlarged chiefly by the labours of Cavanilles, whose species have been adopted by Willdenow, with new specious characters. It contains either shrubs or herbs, with a few trees; the herbaceous species are mostly annual or biennial.—Native of Peru and the island of Cayenne.

2. *Sida angustifolia*, or narrow-leaved sida.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, toothed; peduncles sub-solitary, axillary; capsules two-cusped. This rises with a slender woody stalk about two feet high, sending out many erect branches. The flowers come out singly from the axils, are small and of a pale yellow colour.—Native of Brasil and the island of Bourbon.

3. *Sida spinosa*, or prickly sida.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, obsolete cordate, toothed; peduncles subsolitary axillary; stipules bristle-shaped, longer than the peduncle; capsules two-beaked. Stems hairy, branching, near three feet high.—Native of the East Indies, Arabia Felix, Senegal, Jamaica and Guiana. Annual.

4. *Sida carpinifolia*, or hornbeam-leaved sida.—Leaves ovate-oblong subduplicate serrate; peduncles axillary, four-flowered or thereabouts; capsules two-beaked. Branches spreading in two rows and hairy.—Cultivated in the island of Madeira.

5. *Sida maculata*, or spotted-flower sida.—Leaves ovate obtuse serrate, tomentose; peduncles axillary, racemed at the top of the stem; capsules two-horned. Corolla middle-sized, yellow, with five red spots at the base. Capsules nine.—Native of the West Indies.

6. *Sida suberosa*, or corky sida.—Leaves ovate, toothed; peduncles axillary, one flowered twice as long as the petiole; capsules two-horned; stem corky at the base.—Native of Hispaniola.—The other species of this section are *Sida acuta*, *Canariensis*, *lanccolata*, *frutescens*, *Jamaicensis*, *orientalis*, *glomerata*, *Capensis*, *microphylla*, *micans*, *pusilla*.

II.—With wedge-shaped leaves.

7. *Sida rhombifolia*, or rhomb-leaved sida.—Leaves oblong lanceolate, toothed wedge-form at the base quite entire, peduncles much longer than the petioles; capsules two, horned.—Native of the East Indies and Jamaica. Cultivated in the Eltham Gardens in 1732.

8. *Sida canescens*, or hoary-leaved sida.—Leaves rhomb-ovate toothed at the top, tomentose beneath; peduncles longer than the leaf.—Native of Senegal.

9. *Sida ciliaris*, or ciliated sida.—Leaves lanceolate truncate, toothed, somewhat wedge-shaped at the base; stipules linear, ciliate, longer than the flower; flowers solitary subsessile; capsules awnless, mucronate.—Native of Jamaica and St. Domingo.—The remaining species of this section are *Sida retusa*, and *alnifolia*.—Stems many, trailing.

III.—With cordate quite entire leaves.

10. *Sida periplocifolia*, or great bindweed-leaved sida.—Leaves cordate-lanceolate, acuminate, quite entire, tomentose beneath; peduncles subdivided, longer than the petioles; capsules awned. Root annual. Stem from two to four feet high.—Native of the West Indies and Ceylon.

11. *Sida nudiflora*, or naked-flowered sida.—Leaves roundish-cordate acuminate, almost quite entire, tomentose beneath; panicle terminating, racemed; capsules awnless.—Native of Peru and St. Domingo.—The other species of this section, are *Sida excelsior*, and *hernandioides*.

IV.—With cordate toothed leaves, and one-flowered peduncles.

12. *Sida triquetra*, or triangular-stalked sida.—Leaves cordate acuminate scruclate; peduncles solitary, capsules awnless, truncate; branches three-sided. This is a shrub three feet in height, with sub-tomentose branches, having each of the three sides hollowed out with a blunt groove.—Native of the West Indies.

13. *Sida fragrans*, or sweet sida.—Leaves roundish-cordate, acuminate, crenate, hirsute-viscid; peduncles solitary, shorter than the petioles; capsules two-bristled.—Native of Hispaniola.

14. *Sida multiflora*, or many-flowered sida.—Leaves ovate-cordate, bluntish, toothed, tomentose; peduncles solitary, longer than the petiole; capsules two-beaked. Fruit within the calyx. Capsules nine, with long beaks in bundles.—Native of Brasil.

15. *Sida crispa*, or curled sida.—Leaves oblong-cordate, acuminate, crenate, the upper ones sessile; peduncles solitary, longer than the petiole, the fruiting ones bent down; capsules inflated, awnless, waved and curled.—Native of Carolina and the Bahama islands.

16. *Sida sylvatica*, or wood sida.—Leaves ovate-cordate, acuminate, crenate; peduncles geminate, much longer than the petiole; capsules awnless headed.—Native of Peru, in woods, near the river Maragnon. Shrubby.

17. *Sida arborea*, or tree-sida.—Leaves orbicular-cordate, crenate, tomentose; peduncles in pairs, longer than the petiole, capsules awnless, truncate; stem arborescens. This is a small tree, remarkable for its large bell-shaped flowers, whitish or pale sulphur-coloured.—Native of Peru.

18. *Sida Mauritiana*, or Mauritius sida.—Leaves roundish-cordate, acuminate, toothed, tomentose beneath; peduncles solitary, longer than the petiole; capsules two-beaked, truncate, longer than the calyx. This differs from *Sida abutilon*, especially by its very long peduncles, which in that are three times shorter than the petioles. Flowers orange-coloured. It is an annual plant.—Native of the island of Mauritius.

19. *Sida abutilon*, or broad-leaved sida.—Leaves roundish-cordate, acuminate, toothed, tomentose; peduncles solitary, shorter than the petiole; capsules two-awned, truncate. Height about four feet, putting out some side branches towards the top. Annual.—Native both of the East and West Indies, Virginia and Siberia.—The other species of this section, are *Sida lignosa*, *reflexa*, *humilis*, *repens*, *bivalvis*, *ulmifolia*, *microperma*, *viscosa*, *fætida*, *calycina*, *Persica*, *occidentalis*, *Americana*, *abutiloides*, *Asiatica*, *populifolia*, *hirta*, *Indica*, *mollissima*, *sonneratiana*, *pubescens*, *altheæfolia*, *glutinosa*, *extipularis*, *nutans*, *borbonica*, *flavescens*, *radicans*, *arguta*, *multicaulis*, *pilosa*, *rotundifolia*, *supina*, *truncata*, *herbacea*, *emarginata*, *alba*, *cordifolia*, *hederæfolia*.

V.—With cordate toothed leaves, and many-flowered or racemed peduncles.

20. *Sida urens*, or stinging sida.—Leaves ovate-cordate, acuminate toothed; peduncles axillary many-flowered, glomerate; capsules awnless. Stem a foot high and more, suffrutescent, simple or branched, hirsute.—Native of Jamaica in dry coppices.

21. *Sida umbellata*, or umbelled sida.—Leaves roundish-cordate, toothed, somewhat angular, acute; peduncles four-flowered or thereabouts, umbelled, axillary; capsules two-awned. Capsules from six to eleven, three seeded.—Native of Jamaica. Annual.

22. *Sida paniculata*, or panicked sida.—Leaves ovate-cordate, toothed; racemes panicked; capsules two-beaked. Stem herbaceous, erect, two feet high, somewhat hirsute.—Native of the calcareous rocks of Jamaica, of Peru and Brasil.

23. *Sida*

23. *Sida terminalis*.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, cordate, toothed; raceme terminating, elongated, bracted; capsules awnless in heads larger than the calyx.—Native of Brasil.—The remaining species of this section are *Sida verticillata*, *pyramidata*, *dumosa*, *ramosa*, *spicata*.

VI.—With cordate leaves, three-cusped or angular at the base.

24. *Sida crassifolia*, or thick-leaved sida.—Leaves ovate-cordate, toothed, somewhat three-cusped; peduncles solitary, axillary, length of the petioles; capsules two awned. This is a shrub, tomentose all over and strong smelling.—Native of Hispaniola.

25. *Sida biflora*, or two-flowered sida.—Leaves ovate-cordate, acuminate, toothed, three-cusped; peduncles geminate, axillary, equal to the petiole; capsules several; shrubby.

26. *Sida gigantea*, or giant sida.—Leaves roundish-cordate, crenate, acuminate, three-cusped; flowers panicled; corollas reflexed. This is a tree growing to twenty feet in height. Capsules ten to twelve, truncate, acuminate, villose.—Native of the Caraccas.

27. *Sida hastata*, or halbert-leaved sida.—Lower leaves cordate, acuminate, five-cornered, somewhat toothed, obtuse; upper hastate, acuminate, somewhat toothed at the base; peduncles solitary, axillary, length of the leaves. Root annual.—Native of Mexico and Lima in most places.

28. *Sida cristata*, or crested sida.—All the leaves crenate; lower roundish-cordate, obtuse, somewhat five-cornered; upper rounded-hastate acuminate; peduncles solitary, axillary longer than the leaf. Root annual. Flower of the same size as in *Lavatera Olbia*.—Native of Mexico.—These follow in this section, *Sida vesicaria*, *obtusa*, *Javansis*, and *delleveana*.

VII.—With lobed leaves, palmate or compound.

29. *Sida triloba*, or three-lobed sida.—Leaves cordate, toothed three-lobed; with the middle lobe acute and longer; peduncles axillary solitary; capsules awnless.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

30. *Sida ternata*, or three-leaved sida.—Leaves ternate; leaflets lanceolate, remotely serrate.—Native also of the Cape, where it was found by Thunberg.

31. *Sida pterosperma*, or winged-fruited sida.—Leaves three-parted; segments linear, repand-sinuate; flowers subracemed; capsules winged. Capsules twenty five, one-seeded, winged. Corolla white.—Native of Peru.

32. *Sida jatrophioides*, or jatropha-like sida.—Leaves subpeltate, seven-lobed palmate; lobes lanceolate, acuminate, pinnatifid, toothed; peduncles many flowered; capsules two-awned.—Found in the province of Chancaye in Peru.—The other species in this section, are *Sida ricinoides*, *Phyllanthus*, *Napæa*, and *dioica*, (the latter two have been already described under *Napæa*.)

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are many of them annual in England, but some are of longer duration in their native countries, and might be so here, if they were placed in a warm stove in winter.

They are propagated by seeds, which should be sown upon a temperate hot-bed the beginning of April, and transplanted to another hot-bed, four inches distant every way; they must be shaded from the sun till they have taken new root, and then they must have a large share of free air admitted to them when the weather is mild, to prevent their drawing up weak; they will also require water pretty frequently.

It is an annual plant hardy enough to come up in the common ground, and to perfect its seeds without any trouble.

SIDAIGO, a village on the north-east coast of Java, at the entrance of the straits of Madura, where the Dutch have a small settlement.

SIDARI, or SIDERO CAPE, the north extremity of the island of Corfu, in the Mediterranean. Lat. 37. 53. N. long. 19. 52. E.

SIDBURY, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3 miles north-north-east of Sidmouth. Population 1359.

SIDBURY, a hamlet of England, in Salop; 6 miles south-south-west of Bridgenorth.

SIDDEE, an ambiguous title, which means either Negroes or Nobles. It was given to, or assumed by the Ethiopian and other African slaves, who were first introduced into India by Barbek Shah, king of Bengal, about the middle of the 15th century. He had at one period 8000 of them, well mounted and armed, in his service; and having by experience found them courageous and attached, he promoted several of them to high rank in his army, and to other important situations. This example was afterwards imitated by the sovereigns of Gujerat; and the Dekkan, and many of these people, who, if they had fallen into the hands of Europeans, would have been condemned to servile drudgery, became the associates of princes and governors of provinces. Nay, even their females were much esteemed for their fidelity and amiable manners. They also became ready converts to the Mahometan religion. In the course of time the men lost their character of fidelity, and even usurped the authority of their masters. In Bengal several of them attained sovereignty; but the persons most conspicuous in history are those who were employed by the kings of Bejapore, and afterwards by the Mogul emperors, as admirals of the fleet. The first of these, named Sidde Jore, was not only admiral, but military governor of the town of Dundah Rajipore, and the fortress of Gingerah, with a considerable extent of territory along the sea-coast. He was assassinated by order of the king of Bejapore. On this event, which took place in 1661, his successor, Sidde Sambole, deserted, and made an offer of his services, and that of the fleet manned by his countrymen, to the emperor Aurungzebe, on condition of retaining the whole of the territory in their possession. This overture was readily accepted, and Sidde Sambole was appointed the Mogul's admiral, with a large stipend on the revenues of Surat. They were of considerable service to Aurungzebe in his wars with the Mahrattas; but were excessively troublesome to all their other neighbours, frequently entering the harbour of Banbay, and remaining there in spite of the British. In 1679, Sidde Cossim succeeded to the command, and seems to have been a man of much milder manners than his predecessors. His fleet consisted of 2 large ships, 3 frigates, and 15 stout gallivats or rowing vessels, with 700 soldiers on board. Besides their vessels of war, they had a number of ships employed in traffic; and although they acknowledged the admiral as their chief, the captains preserved the distinct command of their own crews and dependents, whilst an aristocratical council determined the general welfare of this singular republic.

The decline of the Mogul authority, internal dissensions, and the rise of European power, have reduced the Siddees to a very insignificant state. And although they still possess a small portion of the sea-coast, and the town of Dundah Rajipore, this territory may be considered merely as a private estate; and they are now subject to the British authority. As they generally intermarried, they are easily distinguished from the natives of Hindostan, although they have not the woolly hair of negroes. They still continue to carry on a traffic with Arabia and Africa; but their vessels seldom visit the European ports of India.

SIDDINGTON, a village of England, in Cheshire; 5 miles north-by-west of Congleton. Population 448.

SIDDINGTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles south-south-east of Cirencester.

SIDDO, a harbour on the west coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 5. 8. N. long. 95. 27. E.

SIDE, *s.* [jise, Sax; *sjide*, Dutch.] The parts of animals fortified by the ribs.

When two boars with rankling malice meet,
Their gory *sides* fresh bleeding fiercely fret. *Spenser.*

Ere the soft fearful people to the flood
Commit their woolly *sides*. *Thomson.*

Any part of any body opposed to any other part.—The tables

tables were written on both their *sides*, on the one *side* and on the other.—The right or left.

The lovely Thais by his *side*
Sat like a blooming eastern bride
In flow'r of youth, and beauty's pride.

Dryden.

Margin; edge; verge.

Poor wretch! on stormy seas to lose thy life;
For now the flowing tide
Had brought the body nearer to the *side*.

Dryden.

Any kind of local aspect.

They looking back, all the eastern *side* beheld
Of Paradise.

Milton.

Party; interest; faction; sect.

Their weapons only
Seem'd on our *side*; but for their spirits and souls,
This word rebellion, it had froze them up,
As fish are in a pond.

Shakspeare.

Any part placed in contradistinction or opposition to another. It is used of persons, or propositions respecting each other.—There began a sharp and cruel fight, many being slain and wounded on both *sides*. *Knolles*.—It is used to note consanguinity; as, *he's cousin by his mother's or father's side*.

Yet here and there we grant a gentle bride,
Whose temper betters by the father's *side*,
Unlike the rest that double human care,
Fond to relieve, or resolute to share.

Parnel.

SIDE, *adj.* Lateral.—Take of the blood, and strike it on the two *side* posts, and on the upper door post of the houses. *Ex.*—Oblique; indirect.—He not only gives us the full prospects, but several unexpected peculiarities, and *side* views, unobserved by any painter but Homer. *Pope*.—My secret enemies could not forbear some expressions, which by a *side* wind reflected on me. *Swift*.—[*rībe*, *rīb*, Sax. *side*, Dan.] Long; broad; large; extensive. *A northern word*.—Cloth of gold—set with pearls, down sleeves, *side* sleeves, and skirts round. *Shakspeare*.—His branch'd cossock, a *side* sweeping gown. *B. Jonson*.

To SIDE, *v. n.* To lean on one side.—All rising to great place is by a winding stair; and if there be factions, it is good to *side* a man's self whilst rising, and balance himself when placed. *Bacon*.—To take a party; to engage in a faction.

Vex'd are the nobles who have *sided*
In his behalf.

Shakspeare.

Terms rightly conceived, and notions duly fitted to them, require a brain free from all inclination to *siding*, or affection to opinions for the authors' sakes, before they be well understood. *Digby*.

To SIDE, *v. a.* To be at the side of; to stand at the side of. *Unused*.

The pair, which do each other *side*,
Though yet some space doth them divide,
This happy night must both make one.

B. Jonson.

If Clara *side* him, and will call him friend,
I would the difference of our bloods were such
As might with any shift be wip'd away. *Beaum. and Fl.*

To suit; to pair. *Unused*.—He [Mr. John Hales] had sure read more, and carried more about him in his excellent memory, than any man I ever knew, my lord Falkland only excepted, who I think *sided* him. *Ld. Clarendon*.

SIDE, *RUINS OF*, situated on a promontory upon the coast of Asia Minor. The place is now entirely deserted; but there are considerable remains of its walls, gates, and of several temples. But the most remarkable monument is the theatre, one of the largest and best preserved of any in Asia Minor. It is situated on a gentle declivity, and the lower half only has been excavated; the upper being composed of a great structure of masonry. It is shaped like a horse-shoe, having an exterior diameter of 409 feet, an area

of 125, above which the seats rise to the height of 79 feet. It contains 49 rows of seats, 26 below, and 23 above a broad platform, which forms a gallery of communication round the interior. The seats are of white marble, and admirably wrought; they are 16½ inches high, and 32½ broad; but as they project 8½ feet over each other, they leave a clear breadth of only 24 inches. It has been calculated that this theatre would afford regular seats to 13,370 persons; while those standing or sitting on the steps might raise the audience to 15,240. The area is now overgrown with bushes, and choaked up with stones and earth; the structure, however, is in a very perfect state; few of the seats have been disturbed, and even the stairs are in general passable; but the proscenium has suffered considerably, the columns have been broken down, the decorations destroyed, and a part only of the walls are left standing. There are a great number of other ruins, both without and within the walls of Side; but they are so covered by thorns and brambles, that they can with difficulty be distinguished. There are remains of two harbours, formed by large moles; and also of a very extensive aqueduct. Lat. 36. 50. N. long. 31. 30. E.

SIDEBOARD, *s.* A piece of furniture.

At a stately *sideboard* by the wine
That fragrant smell diffus'd.

Milton.

No *sideboards* then with gilded plate were dress'd,
No sweating slaves with massive dishes press'd.

Dryden.

SIDEBOX, *s.* Enclosed seat on the side of the theatre. Why round our coaches crowd the white-lov'd beaus?
Why bows the *sidebox* from its inmost rows?

Pope.

SIDDEFLY, *s.* An insect.—From a rough whitish maggot, in the intestinum rectum of horses, the *sidefly* proceeds. *Derham*.

SIDELING CREEK, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which flows on the east side of Sideling mountains, and runs into the Potomac.

SIDELING MOUNTAINS, a range of mountains of the United States, extending through Huntingdon and Bedford counties, Pennsylvania, and Allegany county, Maryland.

SIDELONG, *adj.* Lateral; oblique; not in front; not direct.

She darted from her eyes a *sidelong* glance,
Just as she spoke, and, like her words, it flew;
Seem'd not to beg what she then bid me do.

Dryden.

SIDELONG, *adv.* Laterally; obliquely; not in pursuit; not in opposition.

As if on earth

Winds under ground, or waters, forcing way,
Sidelong had push'd a mountain from his seat,
Half sunk with all his pines.

Milton.

On the side.—If it prove too wet, lay your pots *sidelong*; but shade those which blow from the afternoon sun. *Evelyn*.

SIDENHAM, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 2½ miles east of Tetsworth.

SIDER, *s.* One who joins a party, or engages in a faction. *Unused*.—Such converts—are sure to be beset with diverse sorts of adversaries; as the papists, and their *siders*. *Sheldon*.

SIDER. So spelled for *CIDER*.

SIDERAL, (poetice *SID'ERAL*), *adj.* Starry; astral.

The musk gives

Sure hopes of racy wine, and in its youth,
Its tender nonage, loads the spreading boughs
With large and juicy offspring, that defies
The vernal nippings and cold *sideral* blasts.

Philips.

SIDERATED, *adj.* Blasted; planet-struck.—Parts cauterized, gangrenated, *siderated*, and mortified, become black; the radical moisture, or vital sulphur, suffering an extinction. *Brown*.

SIDERATION, *s.* A sudden mortification, or, as the common people call it, a blast; or a sudden deprivation of sense, as in an apoplexy.

SIDE'REAL, *adj.* [*sidereus*, Lat.] Astral; starry; relating to the stars.—The Egyptians called their heroes by the names of their *sideral* and elementary deities. *Shuckford*.

SIDERITE, *s.* *sideritis*, Lat.] A loadstone.—Upon which he hangs in a cord a *siderite* of Herculean stone. *Brewer*.

SIDERITIS [of Pliny. *Σιδηριτις* of Dioscorides. From *σίδηρος*, *iron*], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillata, labiata (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, one-leafed, tubular, oblong, about half five-cleft: segments acute, almost equal. Corolla: one petalled; almost equal: tube cylindrical, oblong: throat oblong, roundish: upper lip erect, bifid, narrow: lower lip trifid; lateral segments sharper, commonly smaller than the upper lip; middle segment roundish crenate. Stamina: filaments four, within the tube of the corolla; shorter than the throat, two of which are smaller. Anthers roundish, two twin. Pistil: germ four-cleft. Style filiform, usually longer than the stamens; stigmas two: upper cylindrical, concave, truncate; lower membranaceous, shorter, sheathing the upper. Pericarp none. Calyx cherishing the seeds in its bosom. Seeds four.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five cleft. Corolla ringent: upper lip bifid; lower three parted. Stamina, within the tube of the corolla. Stigma, the shorter involving the other.

I.—Without bractes.

1. *Sideritis Canariensis*, or Canary iron-wort.—Stem five or six feet high, sending out several woody branches covered with a soft down. Leaves on long footstalks, five or six inches long, and two and a half broad near their base; they are very woolly, especially on their under side, which is white, but their upper surface is of a dark-yellowish green. The flowers, which grow in thick whorled spikes at the end of the branches, are of a dirty white, and appear early in June. The plants frequently produce flowers again in autumn.—Native of the Canaries and of Madeira.

2. *Sideritis candicans*, or mullein-leaved iron wort.—Shrubby, tomentose; leaves ovate-lanceolate, cordate, attenuated at the top, snow-white beneath; whorls about eight-flowered, remote.—Native of Madeira.

3. *Sideritis Cretica*, or Cretan iron-wort.—Shrubby, tomentose, leaves cordate-oblong, obtuse, petioled; branches divaricating; spikes whorled. Flowers about eight in each whorl.—Native of the island of Crete or Candia.

4. *Sideritis montana*, or mountain iron-wort.—Herbaceous without bractes, calyxes larger than the corolla spiny, upper lip trifid. This is an annual plant, with a stem decumbent at bottom and then upright, a foot in length.—Native of Italy, Austria and Silesia.

5. *Sideritis elegans*, or dark-flowered iron-wort.—Herbaceous without bractes, villose; stem diffused; segments of the calyxes almost equal, spinulose.—The native place of growth not known.

6. *Sideritis Romana*, or Roman iron wort.—Herbaceous, decumbent, without bractes; calyxes spiny; upper lip ovate. The roots seldom continue longer than two years in England. Flowers small, whitish, in small, compact, remote whorls, having two very short leaves immediately under them, which end in a sharp spine.—Native of the South of Europe, and Barbary.

II.—Bracted, with the bractes quite entire.

7. *Sideritis Syriaca*, or sage-leaved iron-wort.—This has a short woody stem, with a few branches about a foot long. Leaves thick, wedge-shaped, very downy and white. Flowers in whorls towards the end of the branches, yellow with smooth downy calyxes.—Native of the Levant.

8. *Sideritis Taurica*, or Tauric iron-wort.—Suffruticose tomentose; leaves lanceolate, crenate; flowers whorl-spiked, whorls approximating, bractes, cordate, acuminate netted-nerved. Stem suffruticose.—Native of the Chersonesus Taurica.

9. *Sideritis distans*, or distant-whorled iron-wort.—Suffruticose hoary; leaves lanceolate, quite entire, acute; flowers whorl-spiked, whorls distant, bractes acuminate, mucronate, netted-nerved.—Native place not known, but perhaps from the Levant; shrubby.

10. *Sideritis perfoliata*, or perfoliate iron-wort.—Herbaceous, hispid-hairy; upper leaves lanceolate, embracing toothletted; bractes cordate, acuminate, netted-nerved, hairy at the edge. Root (perennial, but) seldom continuing longer than two years in England.—Native of the Levant.

11. *Sideritis ciliata*, or ciliated iron-wort.—Herbaceous; leaves petioled, ovate, serrate; bractes nerved, ciliate.—Native of Japan.

III.—Bracted, with bractes toothed.

12. *Sideritis incana*, or lavender-leaved iron-wort.—Suffruticose, tomentose; leaves lanceolate-linear, quite entire, bractes toothed; lateral lobes of the upper lip of the corolla acute.—Native of Spain.

13. *Sideritis virgate*, or rod-like iron-wort.—Suffruticose, tomentose; leaves linear, quite entire; bractes toothed; lateral lobes of the upper lip of the corolla obtuse.—Native of Barbary, on sandy hills near Mascar.

14. *Sideritis glauca*, or glaucous iron-wort.—Herbaceous, perennial, pubescent, hoary; leaves linear-spatulate, quite entire; bractes toothed; lateral lobes of the lower lip of the corolla acute.—Native of Spain, in the kingdom of Valencia.

15. *Sideritis hyssopifolia*, or hyssop-leaved iron-wort.—Leaves lanceolate, smooth, quite entire; bractes cordate, tooth-spiny; calyxes equal.—Native of Switzerland, Italy and the Pyrenees.

16. *Sideritis scordioides*, or crenated iron-wort.—Leaves lanceolate, somewhat toothed, smooth above; bractes ovate, tooth spiny; calyxes equal. Root perennial. Stems a foot long.—Native of the south of France, and of Spain. *Sideritis hirta* of Roth, is only a variety of the *scordioides*, there being intermediate specimens which connect them.

17. *Sideritis spinosa*, or thorny iron-wort.—Hirsute, leaves lanceolate, with the bractes cordate, tooth-spiny. Stem perennial at the base, very much branched, hirsute, a foot high, spiny.—Native of Spain.

18. *Sideritis hirsuta*, or hairy iron-wort.—Leaves lanceolate, obtuse, toothed hairy; bractes tooth-spiny; stems hirsute, decumbent. Root perennial.—Native of the South of Europe.

19. *Sideritis ovata*, or ovate-leaved iron-wort.—Herbaceous, pubescent; leaves petioled, elliptic, obtuse, crenate; spike four-cornered; bractes ovate; tooth-spiny.—Native of Peru. Perennial.

20. *Sideritis lanata*, or woolly iron-wort.—Leaves cordate, obtuse, villose; calyxes awnless woolly; spike long; stem erect.—Root annual. Plant a span high.

Propagation and Culture.—The first sort is generally kept in green-houses in England, but in moderate winters the plants live abroad without cover in a warm dry border. It is propagated by seeds which should be sown in autumn, for those which are sown in the spring seldom succeed, or if they do, the plants rarely come up the first year.

Most of the sorts are hardy enough to thrive in the open air in England: they are propagated by seeds, which, if sown in autumn, will succeed better than those which are sown in the spring.

The annual sorts (n. 4. 5.) should not be removed, but the plants thinned and left in the place where they were sown, keeping them clean from weeds.

The sixth and seventh sorts, though properly green-house plants, will often live through the winter in the open air, if their seeds are sown upon dry rubbish.

SIDERO, a village of European Turkey, on the west coast of the Morea, situated on a small rivulet to the left of the road from Gastuni. It occupies the site of the ancient Scyllurus, and was the residence of Xenophon in his latter years.

SIDERO CAPSA, a small town of Turkey in Europe, in Macedon. It adjoins a hilly district, and has furnaces for smelting metals; 32 miles east-south-east of Salonichi.

SIDEROCHITA, a class of crustated ferruginous bodies, of a moderately firm and compact texture, composed of ferruginous mixed with earthy matter, and formed of repeated incrustations, making so many coats or crusts round a softer or harder nucleus, or round loose earths, or an aqueous fluid.

SIDERODENDRUM [iron tree], in Botany, a genus of the class titrandria, order monogynia, natural order of dumosæ, sapotæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, very small, four-toothed, acute, placed on the germ. Corolla, one-petalled. Tube cylindrical, curved, long. Border four-cleft: segments oblong, obtuse, flat, reflexed, shorter by half than the tube. Stamina: filaments four, very short, arising below the divisions of the border. Anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germ roundish, inferior, Style filiform, length of the tube of the corolla. Stigma oblong, obtuse, thickish. *Jacqu.* Pericarp: berry dicoccous, crowned with the calyx, two-celled, with the partition contrary. Seeds solitary, on one side convex, wrinkled; on the other flat, margined, fastened to the partition.—*Essential Character.* Corolla: one-petalled, salver-shaped. Calyx: five-toothed. Berry dicoccous, two-celled. Seeds solitary.

Siderodendrum triflorum.—This is a tall branching tree, with ovate-lanceolate, acute, quite entire, shining, petioled, opposite leaves, half a foot long. Peduncles axillary, very short, often three-flowered. Flowers small, rose-coloured on the outside, white within.—Found in the mountain woods of Martinico and Montserrat.

SIDEROMANTIA [*Σιδρομαντρία*, Gr.], in Antiquity, a kind of divination performed with a red-hot iron, upon which they laid an odd number of straws, and observed what figures, bendings, sparkings, &c., they made in burning.

SIDEROXYLON [iron wood], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of dumosæ, sapotæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, five-cleft, small, erect, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, wheel-shaped: segments five, roundish, concave, erect. Toothlet cusped, serrate at the base of each division of the petal, tending inwards. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, length of the corolla, alternate with the toothlets. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ roundish. Style awl-shaped, length of the stamens. Stigma simple, obtuse. Pericarp: berry roundish, one-celled. Seeds five. **Sideroxylon decandrum** differs in having ten stamens. The teeth are wanting in the corolla of **Sideroxylon mite**, **melanophlæum**, and some others.—*Essential Character.* Corolla five cleft. Nectary (in most) five-leaved. Stigma simple. Berry five-seeded.

1. **Sideroxylon mite.**—Unarmed, flowers sessile. The flowers have no teeth between the stamens.—It is a native of Africa.

2. **Sideroxylon inerme**, or smooth ironwood.—Unarmed; leaves perennial, obovate; peduncles round. At the Cape of Good Hope, where this tree is a native, it rises to the height of an English apple tree; but in Europe it is rarely more than eight or ten feet high. The wood is so heavy as to sink in the water, and being very close and hard, the name of iron-wood has been given it, and hence the generic appellation of **Sideroxylon**.

3. **Sideroxylon melanophlæum**, or laurel-leaved ironwood.—Unarmed, leaves perennial lanceolate, peduncles angular. This tree bears a great resemblance to the preceding: it has thick branches like that, but without any streaks or warted dots. The leaves are perennial; and the peduncles very short, but not round. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. **Sideroxylon cymosum.**—Unarmed, leaves opposite petioled, cymes compound and decomposed. This is a small shrub, native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. **Sideroxylon sericeum**, or silky ironwood.—Unarmed, leaves ovate, tomentose-silky beneath.—Native of New South Wales.

6. **Sideroxylon argenteum**, or silvery ironwood.—Unarmed, leaves ovate, retuse, tomentose; flowers peduncled. Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

7. **Sideroxylon tomentosum.**—Unarmed; leaves oblong, acuminate, obtuse, the younger ones tomentose; peduncles aggregate, axillary, length of the petiole. A small tree, with an erect trunk, covered by an ash-coloured bark. Peduncles axillary, numerous, short, downy, bowing, undivided, one-flowered. Flowers small, dirty white. Calyx inferior, five-leaved; leaflets imbricate, downy, permanent.—Native of the East Indies, on the tops of mountains: flowering during the hot season.

8. **Sideroxylon lycioides**, or willow-leaved ironwood.—Spiny, leaves deciduous. Native of Canada.

9. **Sideroxylon decandrum.**—Spiny; leaves deciduous, elliptic. This is a tree with axillary solitary spines and alternate leaves. Peduncles axillary, one-flowered, very many, a little longer than the petioles. Calyx five-cleft, obtuse. Native of South America.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants being natives of warm countries, cannot be preserved in England, unless they are placed in a moderate stove. They are propagated by seeds, when these can be procured from abroad. These must be sown in pots filled with light rich earth, and plunged into a good hot-bed in the spring, in order to get the plants forward early in the season. When the plants are fit to transplant, they should be each put into a separate small pot filled with good earth, and plunged into a fresh hot-bed while they are young. In winter they must be plunged into the tan-bed in the stove, and treated in the same manner as has been directed for tender plants from the same countries.

SIDERS, a small town in the south-west of Switzerland, in the Valais, situated on a rivulet; 8 miles east of Sion. The environs are fertile.

SIDESADDLE, *s.* A woman's seat on horseback.

Another with a cradel,
And with a *syde-sadel*.

Skelton.

The use of riding in coaches, and of *side-saddles*, [is] since the time of Richard the II. here with us. *Hakewill.*

SIDES-MEN, properly called synods-men, or quest-men, persons who formerly were in large parishes, appointed to assist the church-wardens in inquiring into the manners of inordinate livers, and in presenting offenders at visitations.

SIDESTRAND, or **SIDISTROND**, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles south east of Cromer.

SIDETAKING, *s.* Engagement in a faction or party.—What furious *sidetakings*, what plots, what bloodsheds!
Bp. Hall.

SIDWAYS, or **SIDWISE**, *adv.* Laterally; on one side.

The fair blossom hangs the head
Sideways, as on a dying bed;
And those pearls of dew she wears,
Prove to be presaging tears.

Milton.

SIDFORD, a parish of England, in Devonshire, adjacent to Sidmouth.

SIDI, in Hindoo Mythology, is the name of one of the two wives of Ganesa or Pollear, the god of prudence and policy.

SIDI BEN TUBU, a village of Algiers; 30 miles east-south-east of Meliana.

SIDI ESA, a village of Algiers; 30 miles south of Boujeiah.

SIDI GAZI, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 4 miles north-east of Kiutaiah.

SIDI IBRAHIM, a village of Algiers; 30 miles west of Tubnah.

SIDI MEDHAB, a village of Tunis, in Africa; 20 miles north of Gabs.

SIDI SHEHRI, a town of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 6 miles east of Beishehri.

SIDIALIEL, a village of Sennaar; 55 miles north of Sennaar.

SIDING,

SIDING, *s.* Engagement in a faction. *Unused*.—As soon as discontents drove men into *sidings*, as ill humours fall to the disaffected part, which causes inflammations, so did all, who affected novelties, adhere to that side. *Icon Basilike*.

SIDLAW, or **SUDLAW HILLS**, a ridge of hills in Scotland, which extends in a direction from west to east, through the counties of Perth and Angus, beginning at Kin-noul, and terminating near Brechin. This ridge forms the south side of the valley of Strathmore, and receives its name from that circumstance; Sudlaws being the Gaelic name for south hills. The mountains of the ridge are of various height; the elevation of the Sidlaw hill is 1406 feet above the level of the sea.

To SIDLE, *v. n.* To go with the body the narrowest way.—I passed very gently and *sidling* through the two principal streets. *Swift*.—To lie on the side.—A fellow nailed up maps in a gentleman's closet, some *sidling*, and others upside down, the better to adjust them to the pannels. *Swift*.—To saunter. *Northern*.

SIDLESHAM, a village and parish of England, in the county of Sussex. The church is a handsome building, with a good tower. Here is a convenient quay, situated on Pagham harbour, for the use of vessels in the coasting trade. Population 865; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Chichester.

SIDMONTIN, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 7 miles north-by-west of Whitchurch.

SIDMONTON, a hamlet of England, in Berkshire; 2 miles from Kingsclere.

SIDMOUTH, a market town of England, in the county of Devon, situated in a valley between two high hills, on the banks of the river Sid, which falls into a bay of the English channel. It was formerly a sea-port of some importance, but declined in consequence of the harbour becoming clogged and choaked up with pebbles; so that no vessels except pleasure boats and fishing smacks could approach the shore. Of late years, however, its buildings and population have increased, from the number of visitors who arrive in summer for the sea bathing. The air is healthy; the bathing accommodations are good; and a ball-room, billiard-room and tea-room, have been erected for the use of the company. Near the beach is an ancient stone building, with very thick walls, firmly cemented, said by tradition to have been a chapel of ease when Otterton was the mother church; and in a part leading from Sidmouth to Otterton, called Gochurch, is an ancient cross. The parish in 1811, contained 349 houses, and 1618 inhabitants; 12 miles south-east of Exeter, and 158 west-by-south of London. Lat. 50. 41. N. long. 3. 14. W.

SIDNEY (Sir Philip), the eldest son of Sir Henry Sidney, by a daughter of the duke of Northumberland, was born at Penshurst in Kent, in the year 1554. He was named Philip in compliment to the king of Spain, the husband of queen Mary. In very early life he manifested a sedate, studious disposition; and he sedulously improved every advantage for gaining knowledge, which he enjoyed, first at Shrewsbury school, and afterwards at Oxford, where he was entered at Christchurch college in 1569, and also at Cambridge. At the age of 18, the queen, according to the then existing custom, granted him a licence to travel abroad; and he first visited Paris, where he was introduced, by his maternal uncle, the earl of Leicester, to Sir Francis Walsingham, the English ambassador. Charles IX., who was then king of France, wishing to shew respect to Leicester, and probably with the perfidious design of lulling into security the Protestant party in France, previously to the horrid massacre of St. Bartholomew's, appointed Sidney one of the gentlemen of his bed-chamber. When the fatal day arrived, Sidney, together with several of his countrymen, found a refuge in the house of the English ambassador. Soon afterwards he pursued his tour to Germany; and at Frankfort formed an intimate acquaintance and friendship with Hubert Languet, then resident for the elector of Saxony, whose communications were singularly useful to our young traveller. After visiting Vienna, Hungary, Venice and Padua,

in company with his friend Languet, he returned through Germany and Flanders, and arrived in England in 1755; with those accomplishments, and with his moral principles in untainted purity, which rendered him the admiration and delight of his countrymen. In the following year, being only in the 22d year of his age, he was dispatched as ambassador to the court of Vienna, to condole with and congratulate the new emperor Rodolph II.; and entrusted with a commission to engage the Protestant princes of Germany in a league with each other, or with England. He was also entrusted to demand the repayment of the sum advanced by Elizabeth to the elector palatine. In the discharge of these several trusts, he acquitted himself with singular reputation, and with satisfaction to all the parties concerned in the objects of his embassy. After his return, he received no other honorary recompence besides the office of cup-bearer to the queen. With a temper somewhat irascible, and a high sense of honour, blended in some degree with the spirit of chivalry, few characters in that age were so unexceptionable as that of Sidney. Of his disinterested patriotism, we have a striking instance in his remonstrance addressed to queen Elizabeth on her projected marriage with the duke of Anjou; and such was the estimation in which he was held by the queen, that she did not manifest her displeasure against Sidney, though others suffered for their interference. Actuated by the spirit of chivalry, he exhibited his skill in military manœuvres at a tournament held, in 1580, in honour of the queen; and in the same year, he asserted his rank as a gentleman, against an insult offered him at a tennis-court by Vere, Earl of Oxford. In order to compose his mind, which had been thus disquieted, he retired to the house of his brother-in-law, the Earl of Pembroke, at Wilton, and engaged in the composition of his well known romance, called "Arcadia," which was not published till after his death. In 1581, his name appears as one of the knights of the shire for the county of Kent, and as one of the committee for drawing up acts, with a view to the security of the kingdom against the Pope and his adherents. His "Defence of Poetry," written about this time, contributed more to his literary reputation than Arcadia. Of this treatise, one of his biographers says, that it may be "considered as the earliest piece of criticism in the English language worthy of attention, and reckoned by some the best written of his works. In a simple and unaffected style, it displays much learning and judgment, and a true relish of the excellences of that art which he undertakes to patronize and illustrate." In the year 1583, he married the only daughter and heiress of Sir Francis Walsingham, a lady, as it is said, of great beauty and merit. On occasion of being nominated by the prince palatine of the Rhine his proxy at the installation of the garter in 1584, he received from the queen the honour of knighthood; an honour which she was not lavish in conferring. When Sir Francis Drake was projecting a secret naval expedition, Sir Philip Sidney wished to join him; and with this view to equip a land and naval armament against the Spanish settlements in America; but the queen interposed, and absolutely prohibited the execution of his design. Of his nomination as a candidate for the vacant crown of Poland, upon the death of Stephen Bathori in 1585, we shall say nothing; as one of his biographers has stated several particulars, which render the fact very improbable. In the year just mentioned, Sir Philip had a seat in the privy council; and queen Elizabeth determining to assist the Low Countries in their revolt, on condition of their putting into her hands some cautionary towns, indulged his martial disposition by appointing him governor of Flushing. As soon as he had taken possession of his charge, he was made colonel of all the Dutch regiments, and captain of a band of English soldiers. He was soon joined by his uncle Leicester, as general of the auxiliary forces, and Sir Philip was appointed general of the horse, under his command. It soon appeared that Leicester was unfit for the trust reposed in him; his nephew was dissatisfied, and endeavoured to allay the discontents which prevailed among the subordinate commanders. Sir Philip in his

first exploit, which was the surprise and capture of Axell, in July, 1586, without the loss of a man, was singularly successful; but in the month of September he fell in with a convoy sent by the enemy to Zutphen, and having one horse shot under him, he mounted another; and while charging the foe with great vigour, he received a musket bullet above the knee, which broke the bone and penetrated deep into the thigh. On his way from the field to Leicester's camp, whither he was conveyed, he found himself faint and thirsty, and called for water; but as he was preparing to drink, he observed a soldier in the agonies of a mortal wound; he resigned the draught to him, with an expression which entails permanent honour on his memory: "This man's necessity is still greater than mine!" Upon his arrival at Arnheim a mortification ensued, and on the 17th of October, after exhibiting the most unaffected piety, exemplary composure, and self-possession, he expired with tranquillity at the early age of 32 years. His death was universally regretted by his enemies as well as friends, and abroad as well as at home. The queen directed his body to be brought to London, and after lying in state, he was interred with all the solemnity of a public funeral in St. Paul's Cathedral; and although no monument was erected over his remains, James, king of Scotland, composed an epitaph to celebrate his memory, and both universities furnished some collections of verses to record his fame. But his name will ever live in the records of history, as "one of those who have reflected the highest honour on his country." Of his "Arcadia," we shall merely observe, that it was one of the earliest specimens of grave or heroic romance; that it was left in scattered fragments of MS.; which his sister collected and published; and from this circumstance, it was denominated "The Countess of Pembroke's Arcadia." It became very popular, and was translated into foreign languages. Lord Orford (Horace Walpole) speaks of it very contemptuously; but Dr. Zouch has more candidly and more justly appreciated its value. *Biog. Brit. Zouch's Mem. of Sir Philip Sidney. Gen. Biog.*

SIDNEY, or SYDNEY (Algernon), the second son of Robert, Earl of Leicester, by Dorothy, eldest daughter of Henry Piercy, Earl of Northumberland, was born in 1621 or 1622, and carefully educated under his father's inspection. In early life he was destined to the military profession, and in 1641, he had a commission in his father's own regiment of horse, when he was appointed lord-lieutenant of Ireland. During the rebellion in that kingdom, he entered immediately into active service, and had many opportunities of exhibiting his courage. In 1643, upon the commencement of the war in England between the king and parliament, he obtained permission to return. He and his brother, upon their landing, were intercepted, and placed under guard: and the king, conceiving (justly, as the event proved) that they had been taken by their own contrivance, was much offended; and not without reason, for they both joined the parliamentary army. In 1644, the Earl of Manchester appointed Algernon to the command of a troop of horse in his own regiment; and in the following year, Fairfax promoted him to the colonelcy of a regiment of horse. Having been present in several actions, he was entrusted with the government of Chichester. In 1646, he accompanied his brother to Ireland, and was advanced to the post of lieutenant-general of the cavalry and governor of Dublin. For his services in that kingdom he received the thanks of parliament, and returning to his own country was made governor of Dover. Although he was nominated, in 1648, a member of the high court of justice for the trial of the king, he was neither present when sentence was pronounced, nor did he sign the warrant for his execution. This part of his conduct, it is supposed, was owing to the particular request of his father; for it appears, from his general conduct, that his principles would not have induced him to condemn this act. When he was afterwards a voluntary exile in Denmark, and charged by his father with the violence of his political sentiments, his father writes to this purpose: "It is

said that the university of Copenhagen brought their *album* to you, desiring you to write something therein, and that you did *scribere in albo* these words:

"Manus hæc, inimica tyrannis
Ense petit placidam sub libertate quietem,"

and put your name to it; also, that a minister, being there in company with you, said, 'I think you were none of the late king's judges, nor guilty of his death.' 'Guilty!' said you; 'Do you call that guilt? Why, it was the justest and bravest action that ever was done in England, or any where else.'" Consistently with the sentiments avowed on this occasion, Sidney actually opposed the designs of Cromwell; and he afterwards refused to act under him and under his successor Richard. During this period he passed a retired life at Penshurst, and employed himself, as it is said, in writing his Discourses on Government. But when the Long Parliament regained its power, Sidney hoping for the establishment of a republic, to which form of government he was ardently attached, became an active partisan, and was nominated one of the council of state. He also accepted the office of one of the commissioners for mediating a peace between Denmark and Sweden, and was actually engaged in this embassy at the period of Charles II.'s restoration. Although he was solicited by general Monk and others to return to England, he could repose no confidence in the royal party, but remained in exile for seventeen years, finding that the few supplies which he received from home were insufficient to support him in a manner suitable to his birth and rank. He was, however, treated with respect and civility in various places, and particularly at Rome; and he employed his many leisure hours in making addition to the ample stock of knowledge which he had already acquired. In 1677 his father, being advanced in life, was anxious to see him, and employed his interest in obtaining the king's permission for his return, to which permission was annexed a pardon for all his past offences. When he afterwards joined in cabals against the court, he incurred the censure of those who were disposed to take offence; and Mr. Hume has charged him with acting counter to the moral principles of gratitude and with a breach of faith: others, however, have vindicated him, alleging that, unconscious of guilt, he might consider the royal permission to return, after so long an absence, as a reparation of injustice rather than an act of clemency, and that personal obligation ought not to influence his public conduct, when he conceived the great interests of his country in danger. At the time of his return, parliament was urging the king to commence a war with France; but Charles, being a pensioner of the French court, wished from selfish motives to avoid it; but as he was actuated by no sound principles, it was apprehended that he would appear to concur with the wishes of the nation, that he might have a plea for raising supplies, for his own personal gratification, in the prosecution of his pleasures or his designs to render himself arbitrary. The English patriots were averse from war, and some of their leaders intrigued with Barillon, the French ambassador, for preventing it. In the list of those persons in England who were at this time pensioners in France, the name of Sidney appears. When this discovery was made, by Sir J. Dalrymple's publication of Barillon's papers, the friends of liberty were astonished and grieved; and they hesitated in admitting this dishonourable charge. In vindication of Sidney, some have suggested, that Barillon falsified his accounts of the money with which he had been entrusted; whilst others have satisfied themselves with that persuasion of Sidney's honour and integrity which was founded on his general conduct, and with the assurance that he always adopted and pursued those political measures which appeared to him, all circumstances considered, most beneficial to his country. Upon his father's death, he joined the opposition party without disguise, and offered himself for a seat in parliament; but he was twice defeated by the influence of the court. Thus exasperated, and apprehending the liberty of his country to be in danger,

as well as dreading a popish successor, the ardour of his mind urged him to associate with the duke of Monmouth and his party; and in the history of the Rye-house plot he was charged with being one of six who were promoting an insurrection. But the part which he was supposed to have taken in a conspiracy for assassinating the king, was the plea for arresting him, together with Russell and several others, in June, 1683. When Lord Russell was sacrificed, the next victim selected by the court was Sidney; and he was brought to trial for high treason, before that judge whose infamous character is indelibly recorded in the page of history, chief-justice Jefferies. Lord Howard, who was a disgrace to the title he bore, and to that rank in society with which he was connected, was the only direct evidence against him; but the law required two witnesses for conviction on a charge of treason. In order to supply this defect, the attorney-general produced some passages from discourses found in manuscript in his closet, in which the writer maintained the lawfulness of resisting tyrants, and his preference of a free to an arbitrary government; and without decisive proof that they were written by him, or that they were even communicated to any living person, this kind of evidence was admitted, in defiance of law and common sense, as equivalent to the testimony of a second witness. His defence was of no avail, and a servile jury pronounced him guilty. From respect to his family, the disgraceful part of his sentence was omitted, and exchanged for beheading. On the 7th of December he was executed on Tower-hill, at the age of about sixty-one years, delivering to the sheriff's a paper which proved the injustice of his condemnation, and offering a prayer for that "old cause" in which he had been from his youth engaged. This paper was afterwards printed, and made great impression on the public mind. It is given at full length in the *Memoirs of his Life*. He suffered with the firmness, as it is said, of an old Roman. After the revolution, one of the first acts was the reversal of his attainder, and his name has been held in high esteem and veneration by all the avowed friends of free government.

The following sketch of his character is given by bishop Burnet. "He was a man of most extraordinary courage, steady even to obstinacy, sincere, but of a rough and boisterous temper that could not bear contradiction. He seemed to be a Christian, but in a particular form of his own; he thought it was to be like a divine philosophy in the mind, but he was against all public worship, and every thing that looked like a church. He was stiff to all republican principles, and an enemy to every thing that looked like monarchy. He had studied the history of government in all its branches beyond any man I ever knew; and had a particular way of insinuating himself into people that would hearken to his notions, and not contradict him." Of this character, it is said, in the Notes to the *Memoirs of his Life*, that it was roughly and inaccurately drawn. Sidney's "Discourses on Government" were first printed in 1698, fol., reprinted in 1704 and 1751, and in 4to. 1772, at the expense of Thomas Hollis, Esq., with his letters, trial, and memoirs of his life prefixed. Lord Orrery says of them, "they are admirably written, and contain great historical knowledge, and a remarkable propriety of diction; so that his name, in my opinion, ought to be much higher established in the temple of literature than I have hitherto found it placed." *Biog. Brit. Gen. Biog. Memoirs, &c., prefixed to Hollis's edition.*

SIDNEY, a post township of the United States, in Kennebeck county, Maine, on the Kennebeck, opposite Vassalborough; 178 miles north-north east of Boston. Population 1558.

SIDNEY, a post township of the United States, in Delaware county, New York, on the Susquehannah. Population 1388.

SIDONIUS (Caius, Sollius Apollinaris), in Biography, was born at Lyons in or about the year 430, of a distinguished family, his father and grandfather having exercised the office of pretorian-prefect in Gaul. He was liberally edu-

cated, and obtained great reputation for his literary talents, and especially his skill in the poetical art. Coming to the capital he was raised to the highest offices by several successive emperors. He married Papiannilla, daughter of the emperor Avitus, whose accession he celebrated by a long panegyric in verse, which was rewarded by a brass statue of him placed in the portico of Trajan. On the deposition of Avitus, he was made a prisoner at Lyons by the emperor Majorian; whose favour he afterwards obtained by a new panegyric. He was now employed by Majorian to negotiate a treaty with Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, of whose person and manners he has left us a curious description. For this service he was rewarded with the title of count. Under Severus Ricimer he defended with the most complete success Auvergne against the incursions of the barbarians. On the accession of Anthemius he was ready with another panegyric, and was in this requisited by the government of Rome, and the dignity of patrician was conferred upon him. In the year 472 he renounced all his secular employments, and became a bishop. He is said to have conducted himself with singular piety in his new office, to have been exemplary for charity, and all the episcopal virtues, and to have fed 4000 Burgundians, when under the pressure of famine. He was a great sufferer at the siege of Clermont, and was forced to fly at its surrender, but was very soon restored to his see. He afterwards underwent some trouble from two factious priests, who contested with him the government of the church, and also from some who were deemed by him as heretics; and to this has been ascribed his death, in 487, which has been called a martyrdom. Of the writings of Sidonius, there are extant twenty-four pieces in verse, marked with the debased character of the age, and nine books of Epistles, containing much curious information relative to the learning and history of his times. The best editions of his works are those by Savaron in 1609, and by Sirmond in 1652. *Moreri. Gibbon, vol. vi.*

SIDRA, an extensive gulf of this name in the eastern part of the territory of Tripoli, in the interior of which are extensive quicksands, celebrated in antiquity under the appellation of *Syrtis*, from a corruption of which the modern name is derived. It extends from lat. 30. 30. to 32. 30. N. and from long. 15 30. to 19. 30. E.

SIDRECAISSI, a small town of European Turkey, in Salonica, with some silver mines in the neighbourhood.

SIDRO, a promontory of Greece, in Livadia, on the gulf of Negroponte.

SIEBEN, UHREN BERG, a high ridge of mountains on the Moselle. On the 7th July, 1820, a vast mass of earth and rock became loose, and fell into the Moselle with great violence, forcing the water out of its channel.

SIEBENGEbirge, a group of hills near the Lower Rhine, in the government of Cologne, so called from seven points which are more elevated than the rest. The highest, called Lowenberg, is about 2,000 feet above the level of the sea.

SIEBENLEHN, or SIEBELN, a small town of Germany, in Saxony; 17 miles west-south-west of Dresden. Population 1,000.

SIEBENLINDEN, or HETHARS, a small town in the north-east of Hungary, on the river Torissa; 15 miles north-west of Eperies.

SIECHAM-HOTUN, a town of Corea, situated on the Japanese sea; 230 miles north of King-kitao.

SIECICHOWICE, a small town of Poland; 14 miles north-by-east of Cracow.

SIEDLCE, a small town in the central part of Poland, the chief place of the palatinate of Podlachia. It stands on the river Muchawica. Population 2200; 55 miles east of Warsaw.

SIEG, a river in the west of Germany, in Westphalia, which, after flowing from east to west, falls into the Rhine, nearly opposite Bonn. Its banks were the scene of military operations in 1795 and 1796.

SIEGBERG, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the

the duchy of Berg, on the river Sieg; 6 miles north-east of Bonn. Population 1500.

SIEGE, *s.* [*siege*, Fr.] The act of besetting a fortified place; a leaguer.

Our castle's strength

Will laugh a *siege* to scorn: here let them lie,
Till famine eat them up.

Shakspeare.

Any continued endeavour to gain possession.—Give me so much of your time, in exchange of it, as to lay an amiable *siege* to the honesty of Ford's wife. *Shakspeare.*—[*Siege*, French.] Seat; throne.

Drawing to him the eyes of all around,
From lofty *siege* began these words aloud to sound.

Spenser.

Place; class; rank. *Obsolete.*

I fetch my life and being

From men of royal *siege*.

Shakspeare.

[*Siege*, Fr.] Stool.—It entereth not the veins, but taketh leave of the permeant parts, as the mouths of the meseraicks, and accompanieth the inconvertible portion unto the *siege*. *Brown.*

To **SIEGE**, *v. a.* To besiege. *A word not used.*

Him he had long oppress with tort,
And fast imprisoned in *sieged* fort.

Spenser.

SIEGEN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, on the river Sieg, formerly the chief town of the principality of Nassau-Siegen. It contains 4000 inhabitants, with manufactures of woollens, cotton, and leather. In the neighbourhood are some iron and copper foundries. The chief part of the principality of Nassau-Siegen was given to Prussia in 1815; 42 miles east of Bonn.

SIEGENI, a small town in the island of Malta, containing 2300 inhabitants. Pomegranates are raised in the neighbourhood in quantities.

SIEGE-PIECES, in Coinage, a division of modern coins, consisting of those that have been issued upon urgent necessity, during a *siege*, by any city or town.

SIEGERSDORF, a neat village in Lower Austria, near Vienna, with linen manufactures.

SIEGHARDS, a small town of Lower Austria; 6 miles east of Waidhofen, and 61 west-north-west of Vienna. Population 1508.

SIEMIATYCE, a small town of Russian Poland; 7 miles south-south-west of Belez, and 51 south-by-west of Bialystok. Population 2800. Here is a college, or large central school, where a number of young men are educated gratis; also a castle, with a collection of objects of natural history, formed by prince Jablonowski, but now belonging to the government.

SIENIAWA, a small town of Austrian Poland, on the river San; 20 miles south-east of Krzeszow.

SIENITE, Granitelle of Saussure, in Geology, a rock nearly resembling granite, but composed of felspar and hornblende, and occasionally containing quartz and mica.

SIENNA, TERRITORIO DI SIENNA, or SIENNESE, a province of the grand duchy of Tuscany, bounded by the Florentine and the territory of Pisa. It is 62 miles in length, and of nearly an equal breadth; its superficial extent is about 3100 square miles. It is divided into two districts, called Upper and Lower; the former enjoying, from its elevation, a pure and healthy atmosphere, the latter marshy, and affected with the *mal aria*. This province contains level tracks of great fertility, and several of its mountains contain mineral products. Its population is estimated at 190,000.

SIENNA, or **SIENA**, an ancient and considerable city of Tuscany, the capital of the province of Sienna, situated in a pleasant and healthy district. Its population amounts to 24,000. The approach to it from the southern road is through a fine avenue planted with trees, and affording, from a distance, a view of the town too favourable to be realized on entering it. Sienna being built on three eminences, the streets are extremely uneven, winding, and nar-

row, so that the chief part of the town is impassable for carriages. The houses are in general of brick, and the streets are paved with the same materials. The only handsome public square is that in which is the town-house, and which contains a beautiful fountain. The piazza here is one of the principal attractions for strangers: it is a large square, well laid out with walks, and planted with statues. In the evening, the time for walking in Italy, it may be called a miniature of Hyde Park. The esplanade is a fine shady avenue leading to the citadel, the ramparts of which, planted with trees, and laid out in the form of terraces, afford several interesting points of view.

The cathedral of Sienna is a magnificent marble structure in the Gothic style, and accounted inferior to none in Italy, except St. Peter's at Rome. Its nave is supported by rows of beautiful columns; its pavement is embellished with mosaics, and with delineations of subjects in sacred history. Several of the chapels and altars of this stately edifice are deserving of attention, being decorated with beautiful paintings and statues. The town-house is a large building, also in the Gothic style, and surrounded with porticos. Adjoining is the theatre, rebuilt since 1750. There are in Sienna several family mansions, or, as they are termed, palaces, but none of remarkable architecture.

The manufactures of Sienna comprise woollen, leather, paper, and hats, but all on a small scale. Some traffic is carried on in corn; and the valuable marble of the environs might be made an object of export, did this part of the country possess water conveyance. This town is the seat of a university, founded so long ago as 1321, and still reckoning so many as 60 professors; but their charges are in a great measure nominal, and the seminary is of little repute. Here are several academies, among which those of physics and natural history have acquired some note from their published memoirs. The Siennese having comparatively little trade, and reckoning among their number a large proportion of gentry and literati, lay claim to a reputation for politeness, and to a taste in learning and the arts, in particular for speaking Italian with great purity. This town has, from first to last, supplied seven occupants of the papal chair, but it gave birth also to Socinius, the founder of a sect which may be considered almost deistical.

Sienna lays claim to great antiquity, its origin being almost as ancient as that of Rome. It was long, however, a petty place. Augustus sent thither a colony, and Pliny mentions the town under the name of Colonia Senensis. Its prosperity, like that of Pisa, was greatest during the middle ages, when it enjoyed an extensive commerce, and is said to have been much more populous than at present. It long maintained itself as an independent republic; but intestine divisions favouring the designs of foreign powers, it became successively subject to French and Spanish invaders, and, in the latter part of the 16th century, was ceded along with its territory to Florence, by Philip II. of Spain. Since then it has had no separate government. It is the see of an archbishop, and is situated 30 miles south-by-east of Florence. Lat. 43. 22. N. long. 11. 10. 15. E.

SIENNE, a small river of France, in Normandy, which falls into the English channel near Havre.

SIENNICA, a small town in the north-east of Poland; 28 miles east-by-south of Warsaw.

SIENNO, a small town in the interior of Poland; 30 miles north-by-west of Sendomir, and 25 south-by-east of Radom.

SIEN-YEOU, a town of China, of the third rank, in Fokien.

SIYOU, a city of China, of the second rank, in Kiangnan. Lat. 33. 45. N. long. 117. 32. E.

SIEOU-GIN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Quangsee.

SIEOU-OU, a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan.

SIEOU-YUEN-HOTUN, a port of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 40. 18. N. long. 122. 51. E.

SIERADZ, a small town in the west of Poland, on the Wartha;

Wartha; 29 miles east-south-east of Kalisch, and 108 west-south-west of Warsaw. It is said to have been at one time a considerable place, but its population is now only 1600.

SIERAKOW, or CZIRKE, a small town of Prussian Poland, on the Wartha, with 1300 inhabitants; 40 miles north-west of Posen.

SIEREK, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Moselle, and situated on that river. Population 1000; 25 miles north-by-east of Metz.

SIERPZ, a small town in the north-west of Poland; 22 miles north of Plock, with 1300 inhabitants.

SIERRA, the eastern part of New Castile, so called from its mountains. The word *Sierra* is a general name for mountain in Spain, and the distinctive appellations are often given from the neighbouring towns.

SIERRA DE CANATAGUA, a chain of mountains in America, which runs across the extremities of the two provinces of Veragua and Panama, in about long. 80. 50. W., and which divides the northern from the southern continent of America.

SIERRA DE LAS GRULLAS, a chain of the Andes, which commences at the northern extremity of Mexico.

SIERRA DE GUADALUPE. See GUADALUPE.

SIERRA LEONE, a country of Western Africa, situated on the Atlantic, and distinguished for the colony formed there by the British nation, rather from motives of generosity and philanthropy, than from those of political and commercial advantage. This country is traversed by a considerable river, derived from an unknown source in the interior, called the Mitomba or Sierra Leone. The extent to which this last name may be applied, either to the north or south of the river, or in the interior, is very indefinite; indeed there seems in the country itself to be scarcely any principle of unity, being occupied by a number of small independent tribes. The name is derived from a long ridge of mountains, which rises at no great distance from the southern bank of the river, that on the northern bank being low and flat. From these mountains descend many streams or torrents, a number of which unite in a place called the bay of France, into a large basin, which affords the best watering place in all Guinea, and where a ship may fill a thousand casks in the day. This is described as a most delightful spot, being shadowed by tall trees, mingled with rocks, which make a most picturesque appearance.

This country fully equals, in point of fertility and populousness, any other in this part of Africa. Cultivation, however, has made a very slender progress, unless so far as it has been introduced by Europeans. It consists generally of one vast, almost impenetrable forest, only particular spots of which have been cleared and cultivated. Even at a few steps from the shores and villages, the ground becomes so encumbered with trees and shrubs, as to be impassable, unless by narrow paths formed by the natives to their lugars or cleared fields. The houses are low, little huts, built with wooden posts fastened in the ground, of a round or square form, and thatched with straw. The villages consist of thirty or forty of such huts, and are moved without the least difficulty from place to place, as convenience or fancy direct. Rice is raised wherever the ground is sufficiently watered for its production, and forms the constant food of the rich; but the poor content themselves with millet, yams, and plantains. There is great abundance of the most delicate fruits. The pine-apple is pre-eminent; to which are added oranges, lemons, limes, and a fruit resembling a melon. The palm tree yields a liquor which is eagerly drunk, and possesses intoxicating qualities. The elephant's teeth brought to the coast here are valued above any other on the same coast, being remarkably clean, white, and free from specks, though they occur elsewhere of larger size. A considerable quantity of civet is brought to market, the produce of a peculiar species of cat. The woods and mountains are much infested with wild animals, particularly lions, from the multitude of which the country appears to have derived its name. Apes move about in vast bodies, and would de-

stroy the plantations, were they not carefully guarded. The exuberance of life in a tropical climate, gives rise also to numerous and troublesome swarms of insects, flies, mosquitoes, and particularly ants, the white species of which commit extraordinary devastation. The same cause multiplies the serpent species to a remarkable degree. The rivers, besides yielding an ample supply of fish for food, contain large alligators, and a species called the manatea or sea cow.

The natives of this country are not of so deep black a complexion as those of Cape Verd, nor have they the flat nose of the negro race to such a degree. The character of the different tribes varies greatly. Some of them are considered superior in point of intelligence and regular conduct to most of those on the coast; while others have the reputation of extreme ferocity, and are even charged with cannibalism, though this is probably a false and exaggerated charge. The office of the king consists chiefly in administering justice, which he does with the advice of the Solatesquis or great men, being placed on an elevated seat, in a sort of gallery in front of his palace, which consists merely of a collection of round huts. Polygamy is admitted to any extent that great men may find convenient, though the first wife has many honours that are denied to the others. As usual among savage tribes, the women are obliged to perform all the laborious tasks; tilling the ground, making palm oil and spinning cotton: nay, if they have any leisure from these, the husband will employ them in braiding his hair, or otherwise in embellishing his person. Gross idolatry prevails, but without any fixed regulations or priesthood. Every one, according to his fancy, chooses his idol or *fetiche*; a crab's claw, a nail, a flint, a snail's shell, a bird's or a root. To these they look for prosperity in all their undertakings, and make daily offerings to propitiate their favour. They are very difficult to convert to Christianity, though not quite so much so as the Moors or Mahometans.

The Portuguese were the first who discovered and formed settlements in the river of Sierra Leone; but afterwards all the nations of Europe found their way thither. The English established their factory upon Bance island, situated in the middle of the river, being merely a rock ascended by steps, and possessing no advantage except that of security. The fort was substantially built of stone and lime, defended by 10 or 12 guns, and garrisoned by about 20 whites, and 30 Grumettas or free negroes. The main object of this, as of every other establishment on the same coast, was that which it has since been made so active an instrument in overthrowing, the slave trade; and the supply here afforded, of these unfortunate victims of European cupidity, was very considerable.

It was not till towards the close of the 18th century, that the British nation began to turn their views towards Sierra Leone, with a view to colonization. The idea was suggested by Dr. Smeathman in 1783, and supported in the following year by the Reverend Mr. Ramsay, but vehemently opposed by the West India planters, who saw in such a measure the probable depreciation of their staple commodities. In 1785, the essays of Mr. Clarkson, called forth by the question proposed by the university of Cambridge, began to excite a strong interest throughout the nation, on the subject of the slave trade. Then it was that Wilberforce began that series of persevering efforts, which were at last crowned with merited success. An important instrument for this purpose appeared to be the already suggested plan of an African colony, the execution of which was hastened by accidental circumstances. The streets of London happened to be infested by a number of negroes recently dismissed from the army and navy, into which, by different means, they had found their way during the American war. A committee was formed for the relief of the black poor, the affairs of which were chiefly conducted by those excellent men, Jonas Hanway, Granville Sharp, and Dr. Smeathman. The latter drew up and published the plan of a settlement, in consequence of which were collected above 400 blacks, with about 60 whites,

60 whites, the latter of whom, however, were by no means of the best description. These were embarked on board transports furnished by government, provided with arms, provisions, and agricultural implements, and conveyed to Sierra Leone, where they arrived on the 9th of May, 1787. In consequence of Dr. Smeathman's death, the formation of the colony devolved on Captain Thomson of the *Nautilus*. The purchase of a piece of ground about 20 miles square, was effected from king Naimbanna, and his vassal chiefs. A proper site for a town was immediately chosen, on a rising ground fronting the sea, and a distribution of land was made among the colonists. Unfortunately their habits and character very ill qualified them for the arduous situation in which they were now placed. Their indolence prevented them not only from the requisite cultivation of the ground, but even from the erecting huts to secure them against the rainy season. A dreadful mortality was the consequence, which soon reduced their numbers to 276. Lastly, in November, 1789, the town was plundered by an African chief, the colony dispersed, and its inhabitants obliged to seek refuge in Bance island. Such, however, was the zeal felt at home for the civilization of Africa, that in the beginning of 1791, Mr. Falconbridge was sent out with a supply of stores, to collect the dispersed colonists, and form them anew into a regular settlement. That gentleman found the colonists extremely willing to resume their former situation; and the only difficulty was with the native chiefs, who, however, were at length persuaded to cede afresh the former territory. A new site was chosen at Granville town. Meantime, the original association for the improvement of Africa, was incorporated by act of parliament, and under the title of the Sierra Leone Company, received a charter for 31 years, commencing 1st July, 1791. Besides sending-out immediately five vessels with stores, articles of trade, and some new settlers, their activity discovered a new mode of recruiting the numbers. In consequence of the American revolution a number of free negroes, who adhered to the loyal standard, were obliged to take shelter in Nova Scotia. Here they were destitute of property or means of subsistence, while the white society refused to treat them as on a footing with themselves. They most cheerfully agreed, therefore, to the offer made of being transported to Sierra Leone; and 1200 were embarked by Lieutenant Clarkson, and arrived in March, 1792. Operations were now carried on with increased vigour; Freetown, the original position, was again made the capital of the colony; Nordenskiold and Afzelius, two able botanists, were sent into the interior to search after plants which might be useful for culture and trade. This prosperity was interrupted by many disasters and discontents, especially after the departure of Mr. Clarkson. The Nova Scotians at one time presented a formal petition to the court of directors, complaining of the promises made to them not having been fulfilled, of the low wages of labour, and the high rate of the company's goods. After these discontents had been appeased, the colony was exposed to a dreadful external disaster. In September 1794, the town was plundered and entirely destroyed by a French squadron, this causing at once an immense loss of property, and throwing the colonists into the most destitute condition. Even this disaster was repaired by the active exertions of the company; the settlement resumed its prosperity, extended its survey over the neighbouring coasts, and received embassies even from remote African states. The company, however, exhausted by its losses, and by that profusion to which such establishments are liable, finally found it expedient to make an arrangement with government, by which Sierra Leone was placed under its immediate jurisdiction, like other colonies. About the same time, the African institution was set on foot by a number of excellent and distinguished individuals, for the purpose of devoting their efforts to the general improvement of this great continent. Sierra Leone appeared the most advantageous centre from which their efforts might emanate; and it was therefore placed under their entire management. The character of the members was a

sufficient pledge for the purity of that zeal with which they would pursue every object tending to the improvement of the colony, and the general benefit of Africa. This, is moreover, fully evinced in the successive reports which they have published on the subject. Yet in these they candidly admit the obstacles which have obstructed the full accomplishment of the objects in view. The volatile and turbulent disposition of the native powers renders them always prompt to take offence, and to embark in hostilities; and this unfriendly disposition is increased by the abolition of the slave trade, to which they were accustomed to look as the chief means of purchasing European luxuries. It has thus been found impossible to avoid repeated ruptures, the effects of which were always pernicious to the interests of the colony. One mode of recruiting its numbers was derived from the negroes captured on their way to the West Indies, by the vessels destined to put a stop to the slave trade; but the disposal of these was attended with considerable difficulty. The first plan was to make them purchase their liberty by a temporary bondage, under the name of indenture; but it was naturally objected, that this was running into the very evil which the colony was established to prevent; and the practice has been properly discontinued. Still, to preserve the requisite order and propriety among such a motley population left at full liberty, has not been found an easy task. The introduction of the forms of English law, a measure in itself so salutary, seems to have produced rather injurious effects upon this African race. It has inspired them with an unbounded rage for litigation, and called forth innumerable petty suits for assault and defamation, in which it appears that the female sex are usually in the proportion of four to one. Lastly, the distance from Britain, the unhealthy nature of the settlement, and the very moderate amount of the salaries, render it very difficult to procure respectable and duly qualified persons to fill the different official situations. Notwithstanding all these disadvantages, a gradual but decided improvement has taken place, and is becoming more sensible, as experience teaches the best modes of administering such an establishment. Within the last eight or nine years, both the extension and improvement of the colony have been particularly remarkable. With the efforts of the institution have been combined those of the church missionary society, who have introduced, with great advantage, the British system of education. Its first establishment was in the country schools; and in Freetown, where a different method had been originally employed, there occurred considerable obstacles to its introduction, from the murmurs of the parents, and the disinclination of the children. At length, however, the plan was completely successful, and the schools contain now 350 boys and girls; and 180 adults. In consequence of the great increase of population from disbanded soldiers, and still more from captured negroes, a number of new towns have been founded in different parts of the territory. The principal of these is Regent's town, which was found in 1816, by Mr. Johnson, the missionary teacher, in a state of the utmost barbarism. It contained 1100 captured negroes, belonging to 22 nations in all different parts of the continent, without any tie to each other, and many of them separated by deadly enmity. Some would live in the woods, apart from society; others, particularly those of the Eho nation, subsisted chiefly by thieving and plunder, stealing fowls and eating them raw. One of them having stolen a litter of nine pigs, was traced by the owner, who found that the animals had been all thrown alive, into a pot of boiling water. Another having lost a dog and pot, discovered the thief, and found the dog boiling in the pot for dinner. It was some time before any impression could be made on this savage population; but at length the labours of the excellent missionary, seconded by those of some intelligent negroes, produced the happiest effects. In the course of the few years which have since elapsed, an entirely new scene has arisen. The town itself is laid out with regularity; nineteen new streets are formed and levelled, with good roads round the place; a large stone church-rises in the

midst of the habitations; a government-house, a parsonage-house, school-houses, store-houses, a bridge of several arches, some native dwellings, and other buildings, all of stone, are either finished, or on the point of being so. The state of cultivation farther manifests the industry of the people: all are farmers; gardens fenced in are attached to every house; all the land in the immediate neighbourhood is under cultivation; and there are fields even to the distance of three miles; vegetables and fruits are raised in abundance; and there is a good supply of domestic animals. Many of them, besides the cultivation of the ground, carry on trades; fifty are masons and bricklayers, forty carpenters, thirty sawyers, thirty shingle makers, twenty tailors, four blacksmiths and two butchers. In these various ways, upwards of 600 of the negroes provide for their own maintenance. The appearance and manners of the people have improved in an equal degree. They are all now decently clothed: almost all the females have learned to make their own clothing; about 400 couple are married; the attendance on public worship is regular and large, comprising on an average not less than 1200 or 1300 negroes, while Mr. Johnson's first congregation amounted only to nine; and the schools, which opened with 140 children, and 60 adults, now contain upwards of 500 scholars. In the more immediate vicinity of Freetown, there are also the townships of Charlotte, Leopold, Gloucester, and Wilberforce. These, with Freetown, contain upwards of 2000 scholars, adults and children, in a course of regular instruction. Within the last two years, in consequence of the accessions to the population, four new and more distant stations have been formed; Waterloo, bordering on the Timmanees, and containing already 700 inhabitants; Wellington, near to Kissey; and Hastings, not yet risen to any importance. These are on the eastern side of the colony, while on the south-western is York, bordering on the Sherbros, where a settlement called Kent, had already been formed. Connected also with the colony, a settlement has been formed called Bathurst, at St. Mary's, on the Gambia. The population is increasing. The climate is said to be healthy, and provisions much cheaper than at Sierra Leone; and the opportunity afforded of communicating with the populous countries on that river, renders it extremely valuable.

The following is the distribution and amount of the population of Sierra Leone, according to a census taken on the 8th July, 1820:—

Freetown and suburbs,	4785
Leopold,	469
Charlotte,	268
Bathurst,	469
Gloucester,	563
Regent and vicinity,	1218
Kissey and neighbourhood,	1033
Wilberforce,	409
Kent and vicinity,	296
Waterloo,	353
Hastings,	195
Wellington,	456
York,	297
Leicester hamlet,	78
Villages in Peninsula,	1468
Peninsula and isles in river,	115
Gambia island,	37
	12,509
Of these, there are	
Men,	5796
Women,	3020
Boys,	2015
Girls,	1678
	12,509

According to nations, the above population is classed as follows:—

Europeans,	120
Nova Scotians,	730
Maroons,	594
Natives,	2989
Liberated negroes,	8076

These statements are exclusive of the military (European and native) and their families. The increase since the census of 31st December, 1818, is 2944, chiefly arising from the liberated negroes and discharged soldiers.

The following are the number of scholars educating according to the national system, in the different establishments:—

Freetown and suburbs,	575
Leopold,	144
Charlotte,	106
Bathurst,	113
Gloucester,	258
Regent town,	432
Kissey,	158
Wilberforce,	75
Kent,	77
Waterloo,	86
Hastings,	57
Wellington,	16

2097

SIERRA MADRE, a great ridge of mountains in North America, forming part of that vast chain which, under the different appellations of the Andes and Rocky Mountains, runs through the whole extent of the American continent, beginning at Terra del Fuego, and ending at the Icy Ocean in the north. The term of Sierra Madre, or Topia, is however, more strictly applied to that elevated part of this immense ridge which commences near Guadalaxara, and extends 450 miles in a northerly direction into New Mexico. The breadth of all its ridges or parallel crests, at this part, is sometimes 120 miles, where the chain is called more distinctively by the appellation of Sierra Madre, or Mother Ridge, on account of its great altitude above the other parts. It has by some writers been compared with the Cordillera of Peru; and the chasms and precipitous terminations of its sides are said to present the most sublime specimens of mountain scenery that can anywhere be found. This part of the chain, and indeed nearly the whole of it, is in general densely covered with forests of the most gloomy appearance, composed principally of pines and oaks. In these impracticable wilds, birds of every description, peculiar to the country, inhabit; and their variegated and beautiful plumage throws a ray of lustre on the sombre scene. On the summits of some of these mountains snow eternally lodges, and the cold in consequence is intense. Many rivers take their rise in the sides and near the tops of this Cordillera, and rush with impetuous force into the valleys below, whence they take their courses to the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans. During the rainy season (from June to September), and when the upper snows lose their solidity and become fluid, these rivers, and the smaller streams, are turned into torrents, inundating the low lands; and their devastations, to the distance of 10 or 12 miles, are inconceivable. During this period, when the natives are forced to much manual labour and bodily exertion in the open air, to repress the ravages of the waters, these pests of warm climates, the mosquitoes become intolerable. The Sierra Madre sends off a branch in the west part of the province of New Mexico. This ramification, the summits of which are very lofty, is called Gemes, and bears a south-easterly direction; whilst on the eastern side it throws off another arm, called the ridge of Nahmi, which is, however, of inferior height, and of shorter duration, than that of Gemes. From the shore of the Pacific to the great Topian ridge, the general distance may be computed at 140 miles; in many places, however, it is greater, and in some, where the continent begins to straighten its bounds, not one half that distance. The

Topian

Topian chain takes the name of Sierra de las Grullas from 38. to 40. north lat.; beyond that, to 42. north lat., it receives the name of Sierra Verde. During its southern course it bears several distinct names, besides the general one of Sierra Madre.

SIERRA DE QUINERÓPUCA and **PACARAIMO**, a chain of the Andes, in New Granada, which branches eastward from the main chain, near the Lake Parima and the Amazons. It stretches towards the mountains of French Guiana, where its form is little known, as the interior of that country is inhabited by Carribs and negroes, who keep the settlers at bay. The rivers of Berbice, Surinam, Marony, and Essequibo, rise in this part of the chain.

SIERRA MORENA. See **MORENA.**

SIERRA SALADA, a river of Brazil, in the province of Seara, which runs into the Atlantic.

SIETE, a small river of Quito, in the province of Cuença, which enters the sea in the gulf of Guayaquill.

SIEVE, *s.* [rife, rufe, Sax.] Hair or lawn strained upon a hoop, by which flour is separated from bran, or fine powder from coarse; a boulder; a searce.

Thy counsel

Falls now into my ears as profitless

As water in a sieve.

Shakspeare.

A basket.—It is well known, that *sieves* and half-sieves are baskets to be met with in every quarter of Covent-Garden market.—Dr. Farmer adds, that, in several counties of England, the baskets used for carrying out dirt, &c., are called *sieves*. *Stevens.*

SIEVERNOIPESOCK, a small sandy island in the Frozen ocean, near the continent of Asiatic Russia. Lat. 76. 54. N. long. 105. 14. E.

SIEVERO VOSTACHNOI, a cape on the northern coast of Asiatic Russia, called by Captain King Cape Taimura. Lat. 78. N. long. 101. 14. E.

SIEVERO ZAPADNOI, a cape on the northern coast of Asiatic Russia. Lat. 77. N. long. 94. 14. E.

SIEVERSDORF, a large village of Prussia, in the Middle Mark of Brandenburg, near Ruppın, with 1100 inhabitants.

SIEVERHAUSEN, a petty village of Germany, in Hanover; 19 miles north-west of Gottingen, remarkable for a battle in 1553, between Albert of Brandenburg and the celebrated Maurice of Saxony, in which the latter received a mortal wound.

SIEWIERZ, a town of Poland, situated near a large lake; 40 miles north-west of Cracow, with 1300 inhabitants.

SIEZETH, a populous town of Austrian Galicia, in the Bukowina, on the river Sereth, near the frontiers of Turkish Moldavia.

SIFEED ROOD, the name given to the Kizilozen a river of Persia, during the latter part of its course.

SIFFLET, [Fr.] A cat-call. According to M. Laborde, it was during the reign of Augustus that clapping of hands and cat-calls were introduced in the Roman theatres. *Essai sur la Musique.*

To **SIFT**, *v. a.* [rīftan, Saxon; *siften*, Dutch.] To separate by a sieve.—In the *sifting* of such favour, all that came out could not be expected to be pure meal, but must have a mixture of padar and bran. *Wotton.*—To separate; to part.

When yellow sands are *sifted* from below,
The glittering billows give a golden show.

Dryden.

To examine; to try.—We have *sifted* your objections against those pre-eminences royal. *Hooker.*

SIFTER, *s.* One who sifts.

SIG was used by the Saxons for victory: *Sigbert*, famous for victory; *Sigward*, victorious preserver; *Sigard*, conquering temper: and almost in the same sense as Nicocles, Nicomyachus, Nicander, Victor, Victorinus, Vincentius, &c. *Gibson.*

SIGAGIK, a small sea-port of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 14 miles south-west of Smyrna

SIGAH-GUSH, or **SIYAH-GHUSH**, or Black-Ear, in Zoology, the name of a Persian animal.

SIGEAN, or **SIJEAN**, a small town of the south of France, department of the Aude, situated on the river Berre, near the Etang of Sigean. It has considerable salt-works; and is 9 miles south of Narbonne. Population 1800.

SIGEAN, ETANG DE, an inlet of the sea, on the south coast of France, department of the Aude. Lat. 43. 5. N. long. 3. 5. E.

SIGER, a small river of Silesia, in the principality of Glogau, which falls into the Oder, 6 miles below Beuthen.

SIGESBECKIA [so named from John George Siegesbeck, a German botanist], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia superflua, natural order of compositæ, oppositifoliæ, corymbifere (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common exterior five-leaved: leaflets linear, round, spreading very much, longer than the lower, permanent: interior subquincangular; leaflets many, ovate, concave, obtuse, equal. Corolla: compound, half-radiate. Corollets hermaphrodite, many in the disk: female five or fewer in the ray, only on one side of the flower. Proper of the hermaphrodite funnel-form, exceeding the calyx in length, five-toothed or three-toothed. Female ligulate, wide, three-toothed, very short; or funnel-shaped, trifold, the interior division deeper. Stamina, in the hermaphrodites: filaments five or three, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil, in the hermaphrodites: germ oblong, curved in, size of the calyx. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma bifid.—In the females: germ oblong, curved in, size of the calyx. Style filiform, length of the hermaphrodite. Stigma bifid. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds in the hermaphrodites solitary, oblong, obtusely four-cornered, thicker above, obtuse, naked. Pappus none.—In the females very like the others. Receptacle chaffy: chaffs very like the scales of the calyx, concave, wrapping up the seeds on one side and deciduous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx exterior five-leaved, proper, spreading. Ray halved. Pappus none. Receptacle chaffy.

1. *Sigesbeckia orientalis*, or oriental *Sigesbeckia*.—Petioles sessile, exterior calyxes linear, larger, spreading. Plant annual, near four feet high, sending out many branches. Flowers terminating, small, yellow. Stem upright. Leaves ovate, acuminate at both ends, finishing in the petioles, opposite, three-nerved, veined, serrate. Branches from each upper axil, shorter than the stem. Peduncles terminating and lateral from the upper branches solitary, brachiate, sustaining a fulvous flower, in form of a spider, with a spreading involucre, fenced by five hispid rays, or hairs having a clammy head on the top of each. When the ripe seeds are gathered, they move in the hand as if they were alive. It is remarkable for having the ray of the flower on one side, as in *Milleria*. Receptacle narrow, flat. Seeds inversely pyramidal, rugged with tubercles, glutinous, brown, bald, smooth, of a livid lead-colour, or brown.—Native of India, China, Media, Otaheite and New Zealand. Cultivated in 1730, by Mr. Miller. It flowers in July and August.

2. *Sigesbeckia occidentalis*, or American *Sigesbeckia*.—Petioles decurrent; calyxes naked.

3. *Sigesbeckia flosculosa*, or small-flowered *Sigesbeckia*.—Floscules three-toothed; the hermaphrodites three-stamened. Plant annual, three feet high. Stem very much branched, round, slightly striated, somewhat villose, jointed, the thickness of a reed, dusky purple: branches opposite, when flowering dichotomous, diffused, striated, marked with rings, villose, purplish. Leaves opposite, embracing, remote, spreading, ovate, acute, unequally serrate, with appendages surrounding the stem at the base, three-nerved, veined, wrinkled, the upper surface shining, the lower paler, two-inches long and fifteen lines wide. On the flowering branchlets the leaves are alternate, sessile, but not margined at the base, ovate-lanceolate, gradually less and less. Panicle terminating, very loose, leafy, dichotomous, from the stem itself. Flowers within the forkings of the branchlets or opposite to a leaf, solitary, peduncled, the upper ones closely heaped in a sort of corymb, herbaceous with a yellow disk. Peduncles

Peduncles erect, filiform, villose four inches long. Calyx glandular-hairy; exterior five-leaved, interior ten-leaved, converging, angular. Compound corolla almost uniform, resembling a floscular flower, globular; having many hermaphrodite florets in the disk, and five female in the ray. Seeds to both florets obovate, curved in, somewhat rugged, brown. This species is distinguished at first sight from the *orientalis* by its floscular-like flowers, and dichotomous, diffused branches. Perhaps it is the only plant which is triandrous, in the class syngenesia.—Native of Peru, whence it was sent by Dombey. It is an annual plant, flowering in June and July; and was introduced in 1784 by Chevalier Thunberg.

Propagation and Culture.—1. Sow the seeds on a hot-bed, and set out the plants in a warm border the beginning of June, supplying them with water in dry weather.

2. Is a perennial hardy plant.

3. Soon ripens its seeds, and may be propagated by them or by cuttings.

SIGETH, NAGY, or SZIGETHVAR, a market town in the west of Hungary, near the river Almasch, situated among marshes, from which it takes its name, Szigeth signifying an island. It has a Catholic and a Greek church, a Catholic and Calvinist seminary, and 3000 inhabitants. It is divided into the fortress, which stands in a marsh now drained; the town properly so called, and the suburb. It has been repeatedly besieged by the Turks; 44 miles south-east of Canischa, and 160 south-south-east of Vienna. Lat. 46. 31. 5. N. long. 17. 48. 48. E.

SIGETH, or SZIGETH, a small town of Hungary, and the chief place of the county of Marmarosch, situated at the confluence of the Itza and the Theyss. It has 6500 inhabitants, with a Catholic, a Calvinist, and a United Greek church. It has also a government office for the salt-works of the mines of Rhonaszek; 48 miles north-by-east of Nagy-Banya, and 243 east-by-north of Pest.

SIGG, or СИГГЕ, a river in the western part of Algiers, which rises in the Atlas, and unites with the Habran, when their combined stream falls into the Mediterranean, near Oran.

SIGGESTON, a village of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-north-east of Northallerton.

SIGGLESTHORPE, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles north-east of Beverley.

SIGGU, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 65 miles north-east of Meaco.

To SIGH, v. n. [*ſican, ſicetan, Saxon; ſuchten, Dutch.*] And thus the old Eng. pret. was *sight*; as in Chaucer, "privily he *sighte*," Man of Lawes Tale; and in Spenser, "Full many a one for me deep groan'd and *sight*," F. Q. vi. viii. 20. Pronounced *si*.] To emit the breath audibly, as in grief.

I lov'd the maid I married; never man
Sigh'd truer breath.

Shakspeare.

I'll not be made a soft dull-ey'd fool,
To shake the head, relent, and *sigh*, and yield
To Christian intercessors.

Shakspeare.

To SIGH, v. a. To lament; to mourn. *Not in use.*

Ages to come, and men unborn,
Shall bless her name and *sigh* her fate.

Prior.

SIGH, *s.* A violent and audible emission of the breath which has been long retained, as in sadness.

Love is a smoke rais'd with the fume of *sighs*;
Being purg'd, a fire sparkling in lovers' eyes.

Shakspeare.

SIGHER, *s.* One who sighs.

I could wish myself a sigh to be so chid,
Or at least a *sigher* to be so comforted.

Beaum. and Fl.

SIGHILL, or SEDGEHILL, a village of England, in Northumberland; 6 miles north-west of North Shields.

SIGHING, *s.* The act of emitting the breath audibly, as in grief.—For the oppression of the poor, for the *sighing* of the needy will I arise. *Ps.*

SIGHING is an effort of nature, by which the lungs are put into greater motion, and more dilated, so that the blood passes more freely, and in greater quantity, to the left auricle, and thence to the ventricle. Hence we learn, says Dr. Hales, how sighing increases the force of the blood, and consequently proportionately cheers and relieves nature, when oppressed by its too slow motion, which is the case of those who are dejected and sad. *Hale's Statistical Ess.*

SIGHT, *s.* [*ſeide, Sax.; ſicht, geſicht, Dutch.*] Perception by the eye; the sense of seeing.—If bees go forth to a right place, they must needs have *sight*. *Bacon.*—Open view; a situation in which nothing obstructs the eye.

Undaunted Hotspur

Brings on his army, eager unto fight,
And plac'd the same before the king in *sight*.

Daniel.

Act of seeing or beholding; view.

Nine things to *sight* required are;
The power to see, the light, the visible thing,
Being not too small, too thin, too nigh, too far,
Clear space and time the form distinct to bring.

Davies.

Notice; knowledge.—It was writ as a private letter to a person of piety, upon an assurance that it should never come to any one's *sight* but her own. *Wake.*—Eye; instrument of seeing.

From the depth of hell they lift their *sight*,
And at a distance see superiour light.

Dryden.

Aperture pervious to the eye, or other point fixed to guide the eye: as, the *sights* of a quadrant.

Their armed staves in charge, their beavers down,
Their eyes of fire, sparkling through *sights* of steel.

Shakspeare.

Spectacle; show; thing to be seen.

Thus are my eyes still captive to one *sight*;
Thus all my thoughts are slaves to one thought still.

Sidney.

Them seem'd they never saw a *sight* so fair
Of fowls so lovely, that they sure did deem
Them heavenly born.

Spenser.

SIGHTED, *adj.* Seeing in a particular manner. It is used only in composition, as *quicksighted, shortsighted.*—As they might, to avoid the weather, pull the joints of the coach up close, so they might put each end down, and remain as discovered and open *sighted* as on horseback. *Sidney.*—The king was very quick *sighted* in discerning difficulties, and raising objections, and very slow in mastering them. *Clarendon.*

SIGHTFULNESS, *s.* Perspicuity; clearness of sight. *Not in use.*

SIGHTLESS, *adj.* Wanting sight; blind.

The latent tracts, the giddy heights explore,
Of all who blindly creep, or *sightless* soar.

Pope.

Not sightly; offensive to the eye; unpleasing to look at. Full of unpleasing blots, and *sightless* stains,—
Patch'd with foul moles, and eye-offending marks.

Shakspeare.

Invisible.

You murdering ministers,
Wherever in your *sightless* substances
You wait on nature's mischief!

Shakspeare.

SIGHTLINESS, *s.* Appearance pleasing or agreeable to the eye.—Glass-eyes may be used, though not for seeing, for *sightliness*. *Fuller.*

SIGHTLY, *adj.* Pleasing to the eye; striking to the view.

It lies as *sightly* on the back of him,
As great Alcides shews upon an ass.

Shakspeare.

A great many brave *sightly* horses were brought out, and only one plain nag that made sport. *L'Estrange.*

SIGIL, *s.* [*ſigillum, Lat.*] Seal; signature.

Sorceries

Sorceries to raise the infernal pow'rs,
And *sigils* fram'd in planetary hours.

Dryden.

SIGILLARIA, a solemn feast held among the ancient Romans; thus called from a custom which obtained therein, of sending little presents from one to another, consisting of seals, little figures, and sculptures, made of gold, silver, brass, or even earthenware, and of devoting them to Saturn, as an atonement for themselves and their friends.

SIGILLATA TERRA, a name given to several kinds of medicinal earths formerly marked with seals, to express their being genuine.

SIGILLATIVE, *s.* [*sigillatif*, Fr., from *sigillum*, Lat.] Fit to seal; belonging to a seal; composed of wax. *Un-used.*

SIGILLO, in Geography, a town of Italy, in Umbria; 12 miles north of Nocera.

SIGILLUM MARIE, or **LADY'S SEAL**, in Botany, a name by which some authors have called the *bryonia nigra*, or black bryony.

SIGMARINGEN, a small town in the south-west of Germany, on the Danube, with 800 inhabitants. It is the residence of the princes of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen; 29 miles north of Constance.

SIGMARINGEN, (the principality). See **HOHENZOLLERN**.

SIGMOID, in Anatomy, an epithet applied to various parts of the body, from their figure being similar to that of the Greek letter σ . Thus, we have the sigmoid cavities of the ulna, sigmoid flexure of the colon, and sigmoid valves of the aorta and pulmonary artery. See **ANATOMY**.

SIGMOIDAL, *adj.* [*sigmoidal*, Fr.; from the Greek letter called *sigma*, and *eidōs*, *figure, form*.] Curved, like the Greek letter already named; a medical term.—It must necessarily thrust the blood through the open passage of the vena arteriosa, where the *sigmoidal* portals hindering its return, it must pass through the strainer of the lungs. *Smith.*

SIGN, *s.* [$\text{[ʒɛgn]$, Sax.; *signe*, Fr.; *signum*, Lat.] A token of any thing; that by which any thing is shown.—*Signs* for communication may be contrived from any variety of objects of one kind appertaining to either sense. *Holder.*—When any one uses any term, he may have in his mind a determined idea which he makes it the *sign* of, and to which he should keep it steadily annexed. *Locke.*—A wonder; a miracle; a prodigy.—If they will not hearken to the voice of the first *sign*, they will not believe the latter *sign*. *Exod.*—Compell'd by *signs* and judgments dire. *Milton.*—A picture or token hung at a door, to give notice what is sold within.—Underneath an alehouse' paltry *sign*. *Shakspeare.*

True sorrow's like to wine,
That which is good does never need a *sign*. *Suckling.*

A monument; a memorial.—An outward and visible *sign* of an inward and spiritual grace. *Common Prayer.*—A constellation in the zodiac.

There stay until the twelve celestial *signs*
Have brought about their annual reckoning. *Shakspeare.*

Note or token given without words.—They made *signs* to his father. *Luke.*—Mark of distinction; cognizance.

The ensign of Messiah blaz'd,
Aloft by angels borne, his *sign* in heaven. *Milton.*

Typical representation; symbol.—The holy symbols or *signs* are not barely significative; but what they represent is as certainly delivered to us as the symbols themselves. *Brerewood.*—A subscription of one's name; as, a *sign* manual.

To **SIGN**, *v. a.* [$\text{[ʒɛgn]$, Sax.; *signer*, Fr.; *signo*, Lat.] To mark.—We receive this child into the congregation of Christ's flock, and do *sign* him with the sign of the cross. *Common Prayer.*—To denote; to show.

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You *sign* your place and calling in full seeming
With meekness and humility; but your heart
Is cramm'd with arrogancy.

Shakspeare.

To ratify by hand or seal. [To *sign*, as to sign a writing, is an expression drawn from the practice of our ancestors the Anglo-Saxons, who, in attesting their charters, prefixed the *sign* of the cross to their names.—Hence it comes to pass, that when a person that cannot write is to make his mark, he usually makes a cross. And I apprehend that such Saxons as could not write, made their crosses; and the scribe wrote their names. *Pegge. Anonym.*]

Be pleas'd to *sign* these papers: they are all
Of great concern!

Dryden.

To betoken; to signify; to represent typically.—The sacraments and symbols are just such as they seem; but because they are made to be signs of a secret mystery, they receive the names of what themselves do *sign*. *Bp. Taylor.*

To **SIGN**, *v. n.* To be a sign, or omen.

Musick ↑ the air?—Under the earth.—

—It *signs* well, does't not?—No.

Shakspeare.

SIGNAL, *s.* [*senñale*, Spanish.] Notice given by a sign; a sign that gives notice.

The weary sun hath made a golden set,
And, by the bright track of his fiery car,

Gives *signal* of a goodly day to-morrow. *Shakspeare.*

SIGNAL, *adj.* [*signal*, Fr.] Eminent; memorable; remarkable.—The Thames frozen twice in one year, so as men to walk on it, is a very *signal* accident. *Swift.*

SIGNALITY, *s.* Quality of something remarkable or memorable.—Of the ways whereby they enquired and determined its *signality*, the first was natural, arising from physical causes. *Brown.*

To **SIGNALIZE**, *v. a.* [*signaler*, Fr.] To make eminent; to make remarkable.—Some one eminent spirit, having *signalized* his valour and fortune in defence of his country, or by popular arts at home, becomes to have great influence on the people. *Swift.*

SIGNALLY, *adv.* Eminently; remarkably; memorably.—Persons *signally* and eminently obliged, yet missing of the utmost of their greedy designs in swallowing both gifts and giver too, instead of thanks for received kindnesses, have betook themselves to barbarous threatenings. *South.*

SIGNAN, a village and castle of the Swiss canton of Bern, in the Emmenthal; 12 miles south-east of Bern.

SIGNATION, *s.* [from *signo*, Lat.] Sign given; act of betokening.—A horseshoe Baptista Porta hath thought too low a *signation*, he raised unto a lunary representation. *Brown.*

SIGNATURE, *s.* [*signatura*, from *signo*, Lat.] A sign or mark impressed upon any thing; a stamp; a mark.

Vulgar parents cannot stamp their race
With *signatures* of such majestic grace.

Pope.

A mark upon any matter, particularly upon plants, by which their nature or medicinal use is pointed out.—All bodies work by the communication of their nature, or by the impression and *signatures* of their motions: the diffusion of species visible, seemeth to participate more of the former, and the species audible of the latter. *Bacon.*—Proof drawn from marks.—The most despicable pieces of decayed nature are curiously wrought with eminent *signatures* of divine wisdom. *Glanville.*—[Among printers.] Some letter or figure to distinguish different sheets.

SIGNATURIST, *s.* One who holds the doctrine of *signatures*. A word little used.—*Signaturists* seldom omit what the ancients delivered, drawing unto inference received distinctions. *Brown.*

SIGNER, *s.* One that signs.

SIGNES, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Var, on a river called the Tay. Population. 1500; 11 miles north of Toulon.

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SIGNET,

SIGNET, *s.* [*signette*, Fr.] A seal commonly used for the seal-manual of a king.

I've been bold
To them to use your *signet* and your name. *Shakspeare.*

Here is the hand and seal of the duke: you know the character, I doubt not, and the *signet*. *Shakspeare.*

SIGNETT, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire; 1 mile south-by-west of Burford.

SIGNIFICANCE, or SIGNIFICANCY, *s.* Power of signifying; meaning.—If he declares he intends it for the honour of another, he takes away by his words the *significance* of his action. *Stillingfleet*.—Force; energy; power of impressing the mind.—The clearness of conception and expression, the boldness maintained to majesty, the *significance* and sound of words, not strained into bombast, must escape our transient view upon the theatre. *Dryden*.—Importance; moment; consequence.—How fatal would such a distinction have proved in former reigns, when many a circumstance of less *significance* has been construed into an overt act of high treason? *Addison*.

SIGNIFICANT, *adj.* [*significans*, Lat.] Expressive of something beyond the external mark: Betokening; standing as a sign of something.—It was well said of Plotinus, that the stars were *significant*, but not efficient. *Raleigh*.—Expressive or representative in an eminent degree; forcible to impress the intended meaning.—Whereas it may be objected, that to add to religious duties, such rites and ceremonies as are *significant*, is to institute new sacraments. *Hooker*.—Important; momentous. *A low word*.

SIGNIFICANT, *s.* That which expresses something beyond the external mark.

Since you are tongue-tied, and so loth to speak,
In dumb *significants* proclaim your thoughts. *Shakspeare.*

A token; that which stands as a sign of something.—An erect and forward stature, a large breast, neat and pliant joints, and the like, may be good *significants* of health, of strength, or agility; but are very foreign arguments of wit. *Wotton*.

SIGNIFICANTLY, *adv.* With force of expression.—Christianity is known in Scripture by no name so *significantly* as by the simplicity of the Gospel. *South*.

SIGNIFICATION, *s.* [*significatio*, Lat.] The act of making known by signs.—A lie is properly a species of injustice, and a violation of the right of that person to whom the false speech is directed; for all speaking, or *signification* of one's mind, implies an act or address of one man to another. *South*.—Meaning expressed by a sign or word.—An adjective requireth another word to be joined with him, to show his *signification*. *Accidence*.

SIGNIFICATIVE, *adj.* Betokening by an external sign.—The holy symbols or signs are not barely *significative*, but what by divine institution they represent and testify unto our souls, is truly and certainly delivered unto us. *Brewerwood*.—Forcibly; strongly expressive.—Neither in the degrees of kindred they were destitute of *significative* words; for whom we call grandfather, they called caldfader; whom we call great-grandfather, they called thirda-fader. *Camden*.

SIGNIFICATIVELY, *adv.* So as to betoken by an external sign.—This sentence must either be taken tropically, that bread may be the body of Christ *significatively*, or else it is plainly absurd and impossible. *Abp. Usher*.

SIGNIFICATOR, *s.* A significatory.—They are principal *significators* of manners. *Burton*.—See whether the *significators* in her horoscope agree with his. *Burton*.

SIGNIFICATORY, *s.* That which signifies or betokens.—Here is a double *significatory* of the spirit, a word and a sign. *Bp. Taylor*.

To SIGNIFY, *v. a.* [*signifer*, Fr.; *significo*, Lat.]

To declare by some token or sign; sometimes simply to declare.

The maid from that ill omen turn'd her eyes,
Nor knew what *signify'd* the boding sign,
But found the pow'rs displeas'd. *Dryden.*

To mean; to express.

Life's but a walking shadow; a poor player,
That struts and frets his hour upon the stage,
And then is heard no more! It is a tale,
Told by an idiot, full of sound and fury,
Signifying nothing. *Shakspeare.*

To import; to weigh. This is seldom used but interrogatively, *what signifies?* or with *much*, *little* or *nothing*.—*What signifies* the people's consent in making and repealing laws, if the person who administers hath no tie. *Swift*.—To make known; to declare.

I'll to the king, and *signify* to him,
That thus I have resign'd to you my charge. *Shakspeare.*

To SIGNIFY, *v. n.* To express meaning with force.—If the words be but comely and *signifying*, and the sense gentle, there is juice; but where there wanteth, the language is thin. *B. Jonson*.

SIGNINUM, among the Romans, a kind of pavement much esteemed: it was made of powdered shells mixed with lime.

SIGNIOR, *s.* [*signore*, Ital.] A title of respect, among the Italians: with the Turks the grand signior is the emperor.—Who is he comes here? This is *signior* Antonio. *Shakspeare*.

To SIGNORIZE, *v. n.* To exercise dominion over; to subject.—[If] love held me not so enthralled and subject to his laws as he doth, and to the eyes of the ungrateful fair whose name I secretly mutter, then should the eyes of this beautiful damsel presently *signiorize* my liberty. *Shelton*.

To SIGNIORIZE, *v. n.* To have dominion.—At the time that He was to come, Judah must lose the sceptre; not then to rule *signorize* in Judah. *Hewyt*.

SIGNIORY, *s.* [*signoria*, Ital.] Lordship; dominion.

At that time
Through all the *signiories* it was the first,
And Prospero the prime duke. *Shakspeare.*

It is used by Shakspeare for seniority.

If ancient sorrow be most reverent,
Give mine the benefit of *signiory*,
And let my griefs frown on the upper hand. *Shakspeare.*

SIGNORELLI (Luca), was born at Cortona in 1439, and was a disciple of Pietro della Francesca. He was among the first of the Italian artists who designed the naked figure with fidelity and accuracy; though still impeded by the shackles of stiffness and formality, and too much adherence to common nature. His greatest work is his celebrated fresco in the chapel of the Virgin in the cathedral at Orvieto, representing the final dissolution and judgment of the world; a work of extraordinary quality, in which variety and originality of ideas are rendered with force and effect. Vasari, who was related to Signorelli, says that Michael Angelo adopted, in his Last Judgment, many of the ideas of this artist; of which most probably he only took the characters of actions, and clothed them with his own emphatic style of design.

Though grace of form, and harmony of colouring, are not the most prominent features in the style of Signorelli, yet one of his works is extolled by Lanzi as possessing these qualities in a superior degree; viz., his Communion of the Apostles, in the church del Gesa at Cortona. He was invited to Rome to assist in decorating the apartments of the Sistine,

Sistina, where he painted the Journey of Moses and Ziporah, and the Promulgation of the old Law; exhibiting a superior arrangement of composition. He painted at Urbino, Volterra, Arezzo, Siena, and Florence, and established a name among the most eminent of the Florentine painters. He died in 1521, aged 82.

SIGNPOST. *s.* That upon which a sign hangs.—This noble invention of our author's hath been copied by so many *signpost* daubers, that now 'tis grown fulsome, rather by their want of skill than by the commonness. *Dryden.*

SIGNY LE GRAND, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes, on the Vaux. Population 2100; 14 miles north-west of Mezieres.

SIGNY LE PETIT, a village in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes, with 1700 inhabitants; 11 miles west of Rocroy.

SIGONIO (Carlo), was born of a good family at Modena, about the year 1524. At the age of seventeen he went to Bologna, where he passed three years in the study of philosophy and medicine, to which last profession he was destined by his father. But having no turn for physic, he spent a year at Pavia, and then entered into the service of cardinal Grimani. At the age of twenty-two he was taken by invitation from his native city to occupy the chair of Greek, vacant by the departure of Poita, the master under whom he had formerly studied. In 1550 he made himself advantageously known to the learned world by publishing the "Fasti Consulares," with a commentary, which quickly went through several editions. In 1552 he was invited to the professorship of belles-lettres at Venice, and in that city he published seven discourses on important topics of literature, and his valuable notes and conjectural emendations of Livy. In 1560 he was removed to the chair of eloquence at Padua, then the most celebrated of the Italian universities, but in 1563 he accepted an invitation to Bologna, which was from this time the usual place of his residence. In this situation he rendered himself so acceptable to the city, that he was presented with its freedom, together with a large increase of salary. Here he employed himself in the composition of learned works, which have handed down his name to posterity with high honour, and he was so well satisfied with his condition, that he refused a very flattering proposal from Stephen, king of Poland, to occupy a professorship in that country. He visited Rome in 1578, where he was honourably received by pope Gregory XIII., by whom he was engaged to compose an ecclesiastical history. Of this, however, he executed no more than some learned illustrations of Sulpicius Severus; for he died at Modena in the year 1584. He was a most able and successful elucidator of ancient history and antiquities. He was indefatigable in searching to the bottom all subjects which he undertook to examine, so that in many he left little to be added by later enquirers, and his works are all carefully composed in a pure, and even an elegant, Latin style. Besides the pieces already mentioned, he published many valuable tracts on the Roman laws and customs, also on the republics of the Hebrews, Athenians, and Lacedæmonians. He composed twenty books of a history relating to the western empire, from the time of Dioclesian to its final destruction, and he performed the more arduous task of framing from the rude and obscure chronicles of the times, a history of the kingdom of Italy, from the arrival of the Lombards to the year 1286. Sigonio was involved in several controversies, in one of which he is supposed to have disgraced himself. About twelve months before he died, an intimate friend of his edited a pretended treatise of Cicero, entitled "Consolatio." Its authenticity was immediately impugned by critics, and there is now no doubt that it was not genuine; but Sigonio wrote so warmly in defence of it, that he is generally supposed to be the author. The works of this learned man were published collectively in 1732-3, by Argelati, at Milan, in six vols. fol. with his Life, by Muratori, prefixed.

SIGRAMMA, two small islands of the Hebrides, on the west coast of the Isle of Lewis.

SIGRI, CAPR, the north-west point of the island of Mitylene. Lat. 39. 26. N.

SIGTUNA, a small town of Middle Sweden, in the province of Upland, on a creek of the lake of Malar. It was anciently a place of note, and is supposed by some antiquaries to have been founded by the celebrated Odin or Sigge. It was at one time pillaged by the Norwegians; at another by the Russians; and having long been deserted by the Swedish nobility, for Stockholm, it is now a petty place, with hardly 500 inhabitants; 10 miles north of Stockholm.

SIGUAN-GUYACU, a small river of Quito, in the province of Mainas, which runs north-north-west, and enters the Yana.

SIGUAS, a river of South America, in the province of Veragua, which enters the Pacific Ocean.

SIGUENZA, anciently **SEGONTIUM**, a city of Spain, in Old Castile, province of Guadalaxara, situated on the edge of a mountain near the source of the Henares. It contains 5000 inhabitants, is the see of a bishop, and was the seat of an university founded in 1441, by cardinal Ximenes, but suppressed in 1807. It contains three churches, three convents, two hospitals, a castle, and an arsenal. In the environs there are salt springs. A battle was fought here between Pompey and Sertorius; and, in the beginning of the 7th century, the Goths were defeated here by a Roman army; 75 miles north-east of Madrid, and 95 south-south-east of Burgos. Lat. 40. 58. N. long. 2. 57. W.

SIGUETTE, in the Manége, was a semicircle of hollow and vaulted iron, with teeth like a saw, to be put upon the nose of a fiery horse, in order to keep him in subjection.

SIHAM, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si.

SIHO, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si.

SIHOA, a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan.

SIHON, or **SIRR**, the ancient *Javartes*, a large river of Independent Tartary, rising on the western side of the mountains which separate that region from Cashgar, in Chinese Tartary. After a long course, chiefly to the north-west, it falls into the Aral sea, on its eastern side. The country through which it flows, though little known, is described as very fertile; and on its banks are the great cities of Koukan Khojund, Taschkent, and others.

SIHUTLA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan; 25 miles west of Zacatula. Lat. 18. 45. N. long. 103. 26. W.

SI KAKAP, a strait in the Eastern seas, separating the Pogy or Nassau islands, two miles long, and a quarter of a mile in width, containing several islets, and forming a safe road for ships.

SIK, or **SIKE**, *adj.* Such. Retained in the north of England: as, *sik* a thing; *siklike*. See **SUCH**.

Sike mister bene all misgone,
They heapen hills of wrath;
Sike syrlie shepherds han we none,
They keepen all the path.

Spenser.

SIKAR, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, subject to the rajah of Jyenagur. Lat. 27. 32. N. long. 75. 5. E.

SIKARIA, or **SAKARIA**, a considerable river of Asia Minor, which rises in the heart of Caramania, near Sevrihissar and the Salt Lakes. For a long time it pursues a north-west course, passing near Eskishehr and Isnik, then turns to the north-east, and falls into the gulf of Erekli, in the Black Sea. Lat. 41. 10. N. long. 30. 45. E.

SIKE, *s.* [sic, rich, Sax., a water-furrow; *sijke*, Icel., a streamlet.] A small stream or rill; one which is usually dry in summer. A water-furrow, and a gutter. *Used in the north of England.*

SIKER, *adj.* and *adv.* The old word for *sure* or *surely*. Mr. Mason affects to doubt that, though Spenser frequently uses

uses the word as an adverb, he ever uses it as an adjective; and imagines that Dr. Johnson was misled by the explanatory word *sure* in some glossaries to Spenser, where it was certainly intended for the adverb. The impropriety of this assertion will be obvious by referring to *sicker*, the same word; which is Spenser's adjective, which in older writers is *siker*, and is common enough, though Mr. Mason knew not an instance of it as an adjective.—[They] holden the *siker* way. *Chaucer*.—A lord is *syker* that hath a true advocate. *Lib. Fest.*

SICKERNESS, *s.* Sureness; safety.—See SICKERNESS.

Brotelnesse

They finden, when they wenen *sikernesse*. *Chaucer*.

SIKEVI, a small sea-port of Circassia, on the Black Sea; 30 miles south east of Anapa.

SIKHS, or SEIKS, an appellation formed of the Sanscrit term *Sikh*, or *Siesha*, denoting a disciple or devoted follower, and in the Panjabi corrupted into *Sikh*, which is applicable to any person that follows a particular teacher. See HINDOSTAN.

SIKI, a town of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey, on the Draganto; 27 miles west of Selefkeh.

SIKIANG, or WEST RIVER, a river of China, which rises near Fong-tcheou, in Quang-tong, and falls into the sea to the south of Canton.

SIKIATSKOI, a village of Asiatic Russia, on the Lena; 140 miles north of Gigansk.

SIKINO, a small island of the Grecian Archipelago, between Polyandro and Nio. It was long famous for its wine, and at present produces wheat, figs, and some cotton. Its petty capital, also called Sikino, is situated on a rock overhanging the sea. Lat. 36. 43. N. long. 25. 10. E.

SIKINO, the ancient *Enoe*, a small island of the Grecian Archipelago. It is hilly, but contains several fruitful valleys, producing both pasturage and fruit of different kinds. It has a small town of the same name, with a harbour, and 900 Greek inhabitants; 18 miles south of Paros.

SIKKE. See SIGG.

SIKLOS, a market town of the south-west of Hungary. It is remarkable chiefly for the wine produced in the environs. Here are also marble quarries and a mineral spring; 16 miles south-by-east of Funfkirchen, and 118 south of Pest.

SIKOVOE, a small island in the Eastern Seas. Lat. 7. 12. S. long. 131. 51. E.

SIKSO. See SZIKSCO.

SIL, in Natural History, a name given by the ancients to a red ochre, of which they had three distinct kinds, the *sil syricum*, *sil atticum*, and *sil marmorosum*; all of which are to be had at this time, and all very valuable paints.

SIL, a small but rapid river of Switzerland, which rises in the canton of Schweitz, and falls into the Limmat near Zurich.

SIL, a river in the north-west of Spain, which rises in the province of Asturias, and joins the Minho in Galicia. It yields occasionally grains of gold; and the Romans, in order the more easily to obtain them, dug a new passage for the river through the mountains of Laronco or Furado, in Galicia, by which it still flows.

SILA. See GEIL.

SILACH, a word used by old medical authors for a disorder of the eye-lid, consisting in a preternatural thickness of it, or a swelling without inflammation.

SILADING, a small island in the Eastern Seas, near the north coast of Celebes. Lat. 1. 21. N. long. 124. 25. E.

SILALI, an abundant river of Quito, which enters the Cahuapana to join the Amazons.

SILAKANI, a small sea-port of Madagascar, the inhabitants of which are mild and tractable; 30 miles south-east of Mouzangaie.

SILAMBOE, a town on the south coast of the island of Java. Lat. 7. 33. S. long. 107. 15. E.

SILANCHI, a river of Quito, in the province of Esme-

raldas, which, after a winding course, joins the Caoni, with which it enters the river Blanco by the north part, in lat. 9. S.

SILAO, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan, containing 1000 families of Indians, Spaniards, mestizoes and mulattoes.

SILARO, a small river in the east of Italy, in the district of Ravenna, which falls into an arm of the Reno.

SILATUM, a word used by the ancient Romans to express a morning's draught of wine. This was usually of a wine medicated with the plant sili, or seseli, and thence had its name. It has always been the custom to medicate the morning draughts of any strong liquor; we do it with wormwood, or the common bitter tincture; the Indians with ginger.

SILAVENGA, a small town in the east of the continental Sardinian states, on the river Sesia; 10 miles north-west of Novara.

SILAUM, in Botany, a name used by some authors for the *saxifraga pratensis*, or common meadow saxifrage.

SILBE, a village of Western Africa, on the Senegal, in the country of the Foulahs. Lat. 17. 5. N.

SILBERBERG, a small town of Prussian Silesia. It stands on a hill, contains 1600 inhabitants, and took its name from a mine of lead and silver in the neighbourhood, the working of which is now relinquished. In 1777, a strong fortress was erected here, which includes six elevations, and is capable of containing 5000 men; 11 miles north of Glatz, and 40 south-south-west of Breslau.

SILBERSCHLAG (John Isaiah), a German mathematician and mechanist, was born in 1721. He studied at the college of Klosterberge, near Magdeburg, and afterwards went through a course of theology at Halle, from which place he returned to the college at which he had been before, where he taught natural philosophy and mathematics for nine years. After this he became pastor of one of the churches at Berlin, and rector of the royal school. He was a member of the Academy of Sciences in that city; and, besides writing various works on mechanical and mathematical subjects, constructed a great many machines, instruments, and models, for the use of the students in the seminary which had been placed under his care. He died in November 1791. He left behind him a great number of works, among which are, "A Treatise on the warlike Machines of the Ancients," "Letters on the Northern Lights;" "A Treatise on Hydraulic Architecture;" "The Chronology of the World rectified by the Scriptures." *Gen. Biog.*

SILBERSTRASSE, a large village of Germany, in Saxony, on the Mulda; 4 miles south-south-east of Zwickau. It has a beautiful bridge across the Mulda.

SILBURY HILL, one of the largest barrows or tumuli in England, and probably in the world, is situated on the Marlborough Downs, about six miles west of the town of Marlborough, in Wiltshire. The origin, appropriation, and history of this extraordinary mound of earth, are alike unknown to the topographer and antiquary. In the vicinity of the immense druidical temple at Avebury. It is rationally supposed to have been originally connected with that structure: and as the most remote antiquities of this island, and of the civilized world, have given rise to much fabulous dissertation, and fanciful hypothesis, so the barrow now called Silbury Hill has been referred to various tribes of people, applied to different purposes, and attributed to the most remote origin. Dr. Stukeley was of opinion that its present name is of Saxon derivation, and signifies "the great or marvellous hill;" while others contend that it is either a corruption for Sil-barrow, which they translate "the peaceful grave;" or of Sel barrow, meaning "the large or elevated barrow." The most common supposition respecting its nature ranks it among the sepulchral class of monuments. Stukeley calls it the tomb of Cunedha, whom he characterizes as a celebrated British king, who resided at Cunetio (then supposed to have been Marlborough),

borough), and gave his name to that town, and to the river Kennet, or Kunnet. The Rev. Samuel Greathead, in a letter to Mr. Britton, printed in the account of Wiltshire, in the 15th volume of the "Beauties of England and Wales," regards Silbury as the burial-place of Prydain, a later king of the Britons, to whom he ascribes the union of the British tribes under one monarchy, and the construction of Avebury, as a place of assembly for the chiefs and people on great national occasions. Another opinion respecting this tumulus is, that it was the mount on which the Druids lighted up fires, when they wished to give notice to the surrounding country of some intended religious ceremonial. This view of the subject is of course confined to those who consider Avebury as having been a druidical temple; among whom is the Rev. Edward Davies, author of "Celtic Researches," and of "The Mythology and Rites of the British Druids." To these opinions relative to Silbury Hill may be added a third, which may be regarded as equally probable with any of the conjectures above stated. It is, that, like the Tinwald of the Isle of Man, and the Moote-hill of Scone, it was the mount of justice, the eminence from the summit of which the king promulgated the laws enacted in the national assemblies, and on which he and his judges sat to decide all important causes, whether of a civil or criminal nature.

SILCHESTER, a village and parish of England, in the county of Hants; 7 miles from Basingstoke. This is supposed to have been at one time a populous city, called by the Romans Segontiaci, and by the Britons Caer Segont, and by the Saxons Silchester, or the great city. According to Leland, the walls were two miles in compass, and contained 80 acres of ground. They still remain, and consist of nine unequal sides, formed of rows of stones and flints alternately, being about 13 feet high and 15 thick. The remains of the ditches are in some places 12 yards over, with the appearance of having had four principal gates. Many British coins have been dug up here at different times. Without the walls on the north-east is a pond, which was the site of an amphitheatre. A military road called Loanbank and Grimside, pitched with flints, runs from the south gate to Winchester; and another called the Portway, leads from the south gate by Andover, to Old Sarum.

SILE, a small river of the Venetian territory, which rises near Treviso, and joining an arm of the Piave, takes the name of the Piavecello, and falls into the gulf of Venice.

To SILE, *v. a.* [*sila*, Su. Goth.] To strain, as fresh milk from the cow: used in the north of England: whence a *sile*-dish, a strainer. *Siled* milk is also sometimes another term for *skimmed* milk. To *sile* is likewise used for *subside*, or *sink down*, from the primary meaning.

SILEBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 1½ mile east of Mount Sorrel. Population 1200.

SILENCE, *s.* [*silentium*, Lat.] The state of holding peace; forbearance of speech.

Speech submissively withdraws
From rights of subjects, and the poor man's cause,
Then pompous *silence* reigns, and stills the noisy laws.
Pope.

Habitual taciturnity; not loquacity.
I think the best grace of wit will shortly turn into *silence*,
And discourse grow commendable in none but parrots.
Shakspeare.

Secrecy. Stillness; not noise.
Hail happy groves, calm and secure retreat
Of sacred *silence*, rest's eternal seat.
Roscommon.

Not mention; oblivion; obscurity.
Nameless in dark oblivion let them dwell;
For strength from truth divided, and from just,
Illaudable, nought merits but dispraise
And ignominy; yet to glory aspires,
Vain-glorious, and through infamy seeks fame;
Therefore eternal *silence* be their doom.
Milton.

SILENCE, *interj.* An authoritative restraint of speech.
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Sir, have pity; I'll be his surety.—

—*Silence*; one word more

Shall make me chide thee, if not hate thee. Shakspeare.

To SILENCE, *v. a.* To oblige to hold peace; to forbid to speak.

Silence that dreadful bell: it frights the isle
From her propriety. Shakspeare.

To still.

The thund'rer spoke, nor durst the queen reply;
A reverend horror *silenc'd* all the sky. Pope.

SILENE [so named by Linnæus, from *Σιαλος*, *Σιαλεις*, or *Σιελος*, Gr., *spuma*; saliva, foam or spittle], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of caryophyllei, caryophylleæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, ventricose, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla: petals five: claws narrow, length of the calyx, margined: border flat, obtuse, often bifid. Nectary composed of two toothlets in the neck of each petal, forming a crown at the throat. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, alternately inserted into the claws of the petals, and later than the other five. Anthers oblong. Pistil: germ cylindrical. Styles three, simple, longer than the stamens. Stigmas bent contrary to the sun's apparent motion. Pericarp: capsule cylindrical, covered, one or three-celled, opening at the top into five or six parts. Seeds very many, kidney-form. It differs from cucubalus in the nectarous crown of the corolla.—*Essential Character.* Calyx ventricose. Petals five, with claws, crowned at the throat. Capsule three-celled.

I.—Flowers solitary, lateral.

1. *Silene Anglica*, or English catchfly.—Hirsute viscid; petals emarginate; flowers lateral, erect, alternate; lower fruits divaricate-reflexed. Root annual, fibrous. Stem erect.—Native of England and France, in sandy fields: flowering in June and July.

2. *Silene Lusitanica*, or Portugal catchfly.—Hirsute; petals toothed, undivided; flowers erect; fruits divaricate-reflexed, alternate. It is an annual plant.—Native of Portugal and Barbary.

3. *Silene quinquevulnera*, or variegated catchfly.—Hirsute; petals roundish, quite entire; flowers lateral, alternate, and fruits erect. From a small fibrous annual root arise several flaccid spreading stems, round, hairy, and a little viscid.—Native of the South of Europe, Siberia and Barbary.

4. *Silene ciliata*, or fringed catchfly.—Root simple, filiform. Stems somewhat branched, a finger's length, pubescent. Root-leaves roundish-spatulate. Stem-leaves oblong, acute. Flowers erect, on very short peduncles.—Native of the island of Candia.

5. *Silene sericea*, or silky silene.—Petals bifid; flowers opposite, peduncled, erect; leaves oblong-spatulate, silky-hoary. Root annual, not very fibrous. Stem round, divided from the bottom alternately or forked into procumbent branches.—Native of Piedmont, on the sandy coast between Oneglia and Porto Maurizio.

6. *Silene nocturna*, or spiked night-flowering catchfly.—Flowers in spikes, alternate, directed one way; sessile; petals bifid. This is an annual plant with a low branching stem.—Native of France and Spain. There remain in this section *Silene gallica* and *cerastoides*.

II.—Flowers lateral, in clusters.

7. *Silene mutabilis*, or changeable catchfly.—Petals bifid; calyxes angular, peduncled; leaves lanceolate-linear. Stem eighteen inches high, round, hairy, red towards the bottom. It is annual plant.—Native of the south of Europe.

8. *Silene chlorantha*, or pale-flowered catchfly.—Petals linear, bifid; flowers lateral, directed one way, drooping; root-leaves rugged at the edge. Root perennial.—Native of Germany.

9. *Silene nutans*, or Nottingham catchfly.—Flowers panicled, directed one way, drooping; petals two-parted, with
3 G linear

linear segments; leaves lanceolate, pubescent. Root somewhat woody, perennial. Stems several, simple, a foot or more in height.—Native of several parts of Europe, chiefly on limestone rocks; also of Barbary, on hills about Algiers, in England; on the walls of Nottingham castle and thereabout; and in other countries. Mr. Woodward has since observed it on rocks in Dovedale, Derbyshire; Archdeacon Pierson, about Knaresborough, Yorkshire; Mr. Pennant, near Gloddaeth, in Caernarvonshire. Mr. Mackay observed it in Scotland, in 1793, near North Queen's-ferry. It flowers in June and July.—This section also contains *Silene amoena*, *paradoxa*, *maritima*, *fruticosa*, *bupleuroides*, *longiflora*, *gigantea*, *crassifolia* and *viridiflora*.

III.—Flowers from the forks of the stem.

10. *Silene conoidea*, or conoid catchfly.—Calyxes of the fruit globular, acuminate, with thirty streaks; leaves smooth; petals entire. Annual, with an upright branching stalk, a foot and half high, having swelling viscid joints.—Native of France, Spain and Italy, among corn.

11. *Silene conica*. Conic or corn catchfly.—Stem dichotomous; petals bifid; leaves soft; calyxes of the fruit conical, with thirty streaks. Root annual, small, somewhat branched. Stem erect, round, pubescent, leafy, dichotomous.—Native of Germany, France, Spain, Italy, the Levant, and Barbary. In England, it is found only in Kent.

12. *Silene bellidifolia*, or daisy-leaved catchfly.—Calyxes cylindrical-conic, pubescent, erect; petals bifid; racemes geminate, terminating, directed one way; the middle flower peduncled; leaves lanceolate, pubescent. This has an upright, round, subvillose, and rather glutinous simple stem, slightly dichotomous at the top, with but few flowers.—It is an annual, rising from a slender root.

13. *Silene dichotoma*, or forked catchfly.—Calyxes ovate, viscid-hairy, erect; petals bifid; racemes geminate, terminating, directed one way; middle flower peduncled; leaves petioled, ovate-lanceolate, ciliate at the base. This is an annual or biennial plant.—Native of Hungary.—This section contains also *Silene vespertina*, *behen*, *stricta*, *pendula*, *procumbens*, *noctiflora*, *ornata*, *undulata*, *Virginica*, *antirrhina*, *sedoides*, *apetala*, *rubella*, *inaperta*, *clandestina*, *portensis*, *Cretica*, *muscipula* and *polyphylla*.

IV.—Flowers terminating.

14. *Silene armeria*. Common or lobel's catchfly.—Panicles dichotomous, fastigate, many-flowered; petals emarginate, acutely crowned; upper leaves cordate; smooth. This is an annual plant with erect stalks, a foot and half high, for more than an inch below each joint very glutinous.—Native of Denmark, Germany, France, Switzerland, Carniola, Piedmont and England.

15. *Silene orchidea*, or orchis-flowered catchfly.—Petals two-lobed; the borders having on each side of the base an awl-shaped process; leaves even; the lower roundish-spatulate; petioles ciliate. Root annual. Stem erect.—Native of the Levant.

16. *Silene Ægyptiaca*, or Egyptian catchfly.—Petals emarginate, toothed on both sides; leaves subtomentose. Stem herbaceous, a palm high, brachiate, very slightly tomentose.—Native of Egypt.

17. *Silene Catesbæi*, or Catesby's catchfly.—Calyxes cylindrical; petals four-cleft, acute; panicle terminating; leaves lanceolate.—Native of Carolina.

18. *Silene cordifolia*, or heart-leaved catchfly.—Calyxes pubescent, angular, cylindrical; petals bifid; flowers terminating; leaves roundish, acute, nerved, hairy. Root fibrous, perennial. Stems many, forming a tuft, filiform, a finger's length and a half.—Native of the higher rocks of Piedmont, the county of Nice and the Col de Tende.

19. *Silene chlorefolia*, or yellow-wort-leaved catchfly.—Calyxes smooth, club-shaped; petals semibifid; leaves glaucous; lower oval; upper cordate embracing.—Native of Armenia.

20. *Silene alpestris*, or Austrian catchfly.—Petals four-toothed; stem dichotomous; capsules ovate-oblong; leaves

linear-lanceolate, smooth, erect; peduncles viscid. Root perennial—Native of the mountains of Austria.

21. *Silene rupestris*, or rock catchfly.—Flowers erect; petals emarginate; calyxes round; leaves lanceolate; glaucous smooth. This is a little plant which spreads and branches out dichotomously. Flowers small, funnel-shaped. It is biennial. The crown is scarcely apparent; and the hollow or funnel shape of the calyx and corolla distinguishes this species.—Native of Lapland, Sweden, Germany, Dauphiné, Piedmont and Siberia.—There are also in this section, *Silene saxifraga*, *vallisnia*, *pumilio* and *acaulis*. Species from Desfontaines: *Silene hispida*, *imbricata*, *reticulata*, *bipartita*, *psuedo-atocion*, *ramosissima*, *arenaria*, *cinerea*, *patula*, *arenarioides*.

Propagation and Culture.—Most of these plants are hardy annuals, which rise easily from seeds sown in the autumn, or spontaneously from scattered seeds. The perennial species may be raised by slips or cuttings. *Silene ornata* and *undulata*, require the shelter of the greenhouse.

SILENI, in Ancient Geography, a people of India, placed by Pliny in the vicinity of the river Indus.

SILENI, in Antiquity, a sort of heathen demigods, the same with satyrs, which were called *Sileni* when they came to be advanced in age.

Yet was there one principal Silenus, elder than any of the rest. He is represented as having a long tail hanging behind, which is likewise an attribute of all his posterity. The poets always mount him on an ass, always drunk, and hardly able to support himself; "titubantem annisque moroque," as Ovid (*Met.* l. v.) says. Upon all the antiques that represent him, he has the air of a drunken man dozing over his wine; and when Virgil, in one of his *Eclogues*, describes him, it is like a man gorged with wine as usual:

"Inflatum hesterno venas ut semper iaccho."

Some ancient authors, however, express more favourable sentiments of him. Silenus, according to their account, was a profound philosopher; and the drunkenness so often mentioned was merely mystical, signifying that he was profoundly immersed in speculation. Cicero, Plutarch, and many others, had formed the same idea of Silenus, and always regarded him as a very ingenious man, and a great philosopher.

SILENT, *adj.* Not speaking; mute.

Silent, and in face

Confounded, long they sat as stricken mute. *Milton.*

Not talkative; not loquacious.—Ulysses, adds he, was the most eloquent and most *silent* of men; he knew that a word spoken never wrought so much good as a word concealed *Broome*.—Still; having no noise.

Now is the pleasant time,
The cool, the *silent*, save where silence yields
To the night-warbling bird. *Milton.*

Wanting efficacy.

The sun to me is dark,
And *silent* as the moon,
When she deserts the night,
Hid in her vacant interlunar cave. *Milton.*

Not mentioning.

This new created world, whereof in hell
Fame is not *silent*. *Milton.*

Not making noise or rumour.

The pious youth; more studious how to save
His aged sire, now sinking to the grave,
Prefer'd the power of plants, and *silent* praise
Of healing arts, before Phœbean bays. *Dryden.*

SILENTIARY, *s.* [*silentarius*, low Lat.] One who is appointed to take care that silence and proper order be kept in court. One who is sworn not to divulge secrets of state.—The emperor afterwards sent his rescript by Eustathius, the *silentiary*, again confirming it. *Barrow.*

SILENTIARY,

SILENTIARY (*Silentiarius*), an officer among the ancient Roman slaves; being, according to some authors, a slave placed over the rest, to prevent any noise and uproar, and to keep them silent.

SILENTLY, *adv.* Without speech.

For me they beg, each *silently*
Demands thy grace, and seems to watch thy eye. *Dryden.*

Without noise.

You to a certain victory are led;
Your men all arm'd stand *silently* within. *Dryden.*

Without mention.—The difficulties remain still, till he can show who is meant by right heir, in all those cases where the present possessor hath no son: this he *silently* passes over. *Locke.*

SILENTNESS, *s.* State or quality of being silent. *Ash.*

SILESIA, a large and highly important province of the Prussian dominions, situated between Poland on the east, and Bohemia on the west, and extending from lat. 49. 40. to 51. 59. N., and from long. 14. 25. to 18. 12. E. The county of Glatz, and a portion of Lusatia, are now annexed to it. The form of the whole is oblong, extending in length, from south-east to north-west, 210 miles, in breadth about 100. It contains an area computed at 15,000 square miles, with a population of more than 2,000,000. Silesia was formerly divided into Upper and Lower, and sub-divided into a number of smaller principalities or duchies; but these distinctions are now abolished, and this province is placed on the same footing with the rest of Prussia. It forms a military division along with Posen, and is divided into the four governments of Breslau, Reichenbach, Liegnitz and Oppeln. The chief towns are—

	Population.
Breslau, the capital	63,000
Liegnitz	10,000
Glogau	9,500
Neisse	9,000
Schweidnitz	8,000
Langen-Bielau	6,800
Glatz	6,700
Hirschberg	6,000
Jauer	4,600
Frankenstein	4,200
Schneideberg	3,800
Oels	3,600
Oppeln	3,500
Leobschutz	3,400
Reichenbach	3,350
Landshut	3,000

Face of the Country, Soil and Climate.—A long range of mountains bearing different names, such as the Riesengebirge, the Glatz mountains, Moravian mountains, &c., but all included in the Sudetic chain, divides Silesia from Bohemia and Moravia. From Hungary it is separated by the Carpathians. The Sudetic mountains are steep, and full of narrow defiles, particularly on the north-west; but they become broader as they stretch to the southward, till they in a manner cover the surface of the county of Glatz. The effect of so great an extent of high ground on the climate is very sensible, the south of Silesia being often covered with snow, while over Breslau, and farther to the north, the progress of spring is very sensibly felt. After these mountains, the great natural feature of Silesia is the Oder, which flowing from south to north, traverses it nearly in the middle, passes Breslau, and receives all the lesser rivers flowing from east and west, such as the Bober, the Queiss, the Bartsch. The country to the east of the Oder is called the Polish side: it is perfectly level, with a soil often sandy or marshy, and consequently unproductive; while the western or German side, though hilly, and even mountainous, is cultivated by a more improved race, and is superior not only in mineral,

but in vegetable products. It is in fact the best portion of the Prussian territory, containing mines of coal and iron, and, on a smaller scale, mines of copper, vitriol and cobalt. This is likewise a great manufacturing country, so that the population requires an annual import of corn and cattle. The linen manufactures being as general here as in Normandy or the north of Ireland, great attention is bestowed on the culture of flax, the quality of which is equal to that of any part of Europe. The wool of this province has also been improved since the latter part of the 18th century, by the introduction of the Spanish breed. Foxes and other beasts of game abound in the forests: the lynx is sometimes found in the mountains, as well as the beaver, but the latter is now rare. The forests, though too remote from water conveyance to be subservient to ship-building, are of great importance to the local manufactures, affording an abundant supply of fuel.

Manufactures.—The extent of the linen manufacture of Silesia, conducted as it is with little aid from machinery, is surprising, the value annually made being estimated at 1,500,000*l.* sterling, of which more than half is exported. It is a received notion, that the water on the Silesian side of the Sudetic mountains, is better calculated for bleaching than that on the Bohemian side. The linen made in different parts of the continent, in particular in the north of France, is, and has been for many ages, of a thick texture; but the Silesian linen is in general as light as the Irish. The spinning of flax for so large a manufacture, necessarily occupies a great number of hands. In many houses it is the sole occupation; and almost every family is employed, either in spinning or weaving. The distaff, and not the wheel, is generally employed, it being a traditional notion that the threads formed by the latter are harder, less glossy, and less fit for bleaching. All this industry is carried on with a very limited capital. There are here no factories or collective establishments. Every one works at home, and on his own account, selling his thread or his linen to the itinerant dealer, who makes periodical visits for that purpose, according to the practice of Scotland nearly a century ago:

After linen, woollens are the chief object of manufacture, but they are in general coarse, and the value as yet made in Silesia is computed at little more than half a million sterling: they are made chiefly at Goldberg and Grunberg. Cotton works date only from the latter part of the 18th century, and hardware has been made extensively only within the same period. Of tanneries, there are hardly enough to supply the consumption of the country. The total annual value of manufacture in this province is computed at 3,000,000*l.* sterling. In these, and in the raw produce of the country, coal, timber, and madder, Silesia carries on a considerable traffic. The Oder affords a ready conveyance to Frankfort, and other towns in Prussia: to the Baltic, its course from Silesia is not short of 300 miles; still it is the best channel for the conveyance of bulky commodities, part of which are warehoused at Stettin and Swinemundy, to be re-shipped for various ports, while part are sent direct to Dantzic in the east, and to Lubeck or Hamburg in the west. The imports into Silesia are various; hemp, lint-seed, and hides from Russia; wine, potash, and hardware from Austria; colonial produce, silk, and the fruits of southern climates from different countries, all, or almost all, conveyed by the Oder.

Character, Religion, Education.—The Silesians are in general a people of good moral habits, with little information; sober, attentive to their duty, but credulous, and impressed with a blind veneration for aristocracy and the minutiae of etiquette. The gentry, or, as they are styled, the *noblesse*, are here as numerous and as poor as in any part of Germany: a number of them find employment in the military service of Prussia. As to religion, the reformation was introduced here early, and with considerable success. In 1609, Rodolph II. found it necessary to grant the Protestants full liberty of conscience. His successors, however, revoked the concession, and began a persecuting course, the effect

overran

of which was to deprive Silesia of a number of its industrious inhabitants. In 1708, when the Swedes under Charles XII. overran Poland, occupied Saxony, and threatened Austria, the emperor, to ward off this formidable assailant, consented to restore to the Protestants of Silesia the free exercise of their worship. On the conquest of Silesia by Prussia, Frederick II. put all religious creeds on an equal footing. The proportion of Protestants, long inferior to that of Catholics, has of late begun to exceed it. Each counts nearly a million of followers; of Jews, the number in Silesia is about 12,000.

Education was in a very backward state on the acquisition of this country by Prussia: a number of parish schools were founded by the aid of government; but on the eastern or Polish side, there still prevails much ignorance. At Breslau there is an university, partly Protestant, partly Catholic. In the provincial towns there are six gymnasia or high schools, seven Protestant colleges, and four seminaries for educating Catholic priests. The common language of the country is German, though in the mountainous districts of the south, and on the tracks bordering on Poland, the ancient dialect of the country, which holds a middle rank between the Polish and Bohemian, is still preserved.

History.—The Aborigines of Silesia appeared to have been the tribes called the Quadi and Lygii, who, like their brethren in Bohemia, seem to have yielded in the 6th century, to a Sclavonic tribe who bore or adopted the name of Zlesy. At present the Polish name of this country is Zlesien, and for a long time it remained a province of Poland. It was afterwards ceded to the sons of Boleslaus, II., the expelled king of Poland, in the 11th century; and being thus divided and subdivided, was without much difficulty subdued by the kings of Bohemia in the 14th century. The inhabitants were allowed to retain their laws, usages, and a semblance of a representative body; the crown, however, seizing as vacant fiefs, the possessions of such of the great families as became extinct. Silesia passed with Bohemia to the house of Austria, in the early part of the 16th century, and continued in its undisturbed possession, until the death of the emperor Charles VI., in 1740, led to a general attack on dominions considered comparatively defenceless when transmitted to a female. Of these assailants the first in the field was Frederick II., who revived a long dormant claim to the western part of Silesia, viz., the principalities of Leignitz, Brieg, and Wohlau, supporting it by an immediate invasion. Austria took up arms, and on being attacked on another side by Bavaria and France, received the aid of England. The result was a military contest, conducted with alternate success, but terminated, as far as regarded Silesia, by the cession of that country to Prussia. But the proud house of Austria had no intention of definitively relinquishing this valuable province. It formed in 1756, against Prussia, a coalition of France, Russia, Saxony, and Sweden, which threatened the entire subversion of that kingdom. From that danger Prussia was saved by the talents of its sovereign, the aid of England, and a heavy sacrifice of its wealth and population. The peace of Hubertsburg in 1763, left Silesia conclusively in the hands of Frederick. It was now allowed to breathe from its ravages, and enjoyed a peace of 40 years, the Prussian government aiding the inhabitants to rebuild their villages, and inviting colonists from Germany and Poland, to repair the havoc of war. In 1807, Silesia was overrun by the French, but it was not separated at the peace of Tilsit, from the Prussian territory.

It has been questioned by German writers whether this province properly formed a part of the empire, having no vote at the diet. It is, however, comprised in the official returns of territory and population, made in 1815 by Prussia, of her possessions.

SILESIA, AUSTRIAN, that part of Silesia which was retained by Austria in 1742, when the province described in the foregoing article was ceded to Prussia. It has an area of 1845 square miles, with nearly 350,000 inhabitants. It is divided into the circles of Troppau and Teschen, and is now completely incorporated with Moravia, being subject

to the same courts of appeal, and the same military and civil administration. It is hilly, and does not produce a sufficiency of corn for its population; but it has good pasturage, abundance of flax and hemp, and flourishing manufactures of linen and woollen.

SILEX, [*Kieselerde*, Germ.,] in Mineralogy, a species of earth. See **MINERALOGY**.

SILFIELD, a parish of England, in Norfolk, near Wyndham.

SILHET, an extensive district of Bengal, lying between the 24th and 26th degrees of northern latitude. It is situated on the east side of the Brahmapootra river, and constitutes the north-east boundary of Bengal. It is not more than 350 miles in a direct line from China; but the intervening space, with the exception of Cachar, being occupied by barren mountains or unhealthy woods and swamps, there is no communication between the two countries, nor is it the interest of the British that there should be. Silhet is composed either of steep mountains or level plains. The latter are, during the rainy season, generally inundated, and produce prodigious crops of coarse rice; but the price of it is so very low, that the revenue of the district is very trifling, when compared with others. In consequence of the cheapness of food, the price of labour is extremely small, and the current money is *cowries*, a small shell, about 800 of which go to a rupee. Being intersected by several rivers, it also abounds with fish; and during the inundation, large boats may sail over great part of the country. Besides rice, its only exports are lime, ivory, timber, and oranges. Boat-building was formerly a source of emolument; and the honourable D. Lindsay, while collector of the district, built a ship of 400 tons, which was first floated down the rivers to Chittagong, and from thence proceeded to Calcutta; but the experiment was not found to answer, and has not been repeated. Elephants are found in the woods, but they are not reckoned valuable. The Megnah and Soomah are the principal rivers, and Silhet and Azmurgunge the chief towns. This district, when called Azmurdun, was first invaded by the Mahometans in 1254. Under the Mogul government it was one of the frontier military stations dependent on Dacca; and as two-fifths of the inhabitants are now Mussulmans, it appears they were very successful in making proselytes. It is now a separate collectorship.

SILHET, properly **SIRIHAT**, the capital of the above-mentioned district, and the residence of the judge, collector, &c., who are answerable to the court of circuit of Dacca. Lat. 24. 55. N. long. 91. 40. E.

SILLI, in Botany, a name given by the old Greeks to a plant called also *seseli*.

SILICA. See **MINERALOGY**.

SILICEOUS, in Mineralogy, denotes composed principally of silex.

SILICEOUS SCHISTUS, the hornstone slate of some geologists; flinty slate of Jameson; a rock of the nature of slate, but containing a great portion of siliceous earth. See **MINERALOGY**.

SILICIATE, in Mineralogy, a term introduced by professor Berzelius, to denote the combination of silex with other earths or oxyds, in which the silex is supposed to act as an acid. These substances he denominates siliciates.

SILICIOUS, *adj.* Made of hair.—The *silicious* and hairy vests of the strictest orders of friars, derive their institution from St. John and Elias. *Brown*.—[*Siliceus* or *silicicus*, Lat. from *silex*, a flint.—Flinty; full of stones.—*Silicious* earth is often found in a stony form, such as flint or quartz; and still more frequently in that of a very fine sand, such as that whereof glass is made. *Kirwan*.

SILICULA, in Botany, the diminutive of **SILICUA**, (see that article), is a Pouch, or pod of a short, or rounded figure, along both the edges of whose partition the seeds are inserted; witness the *Draba verna*, or Whitlow-grass, and the *Thlaspi Bursapastories*.

SILICULOSA, the first of the two orders of the 15th class in the Linnæan system. See **BOTANY**.

SILICULOSE,

SILICULOSE, *adj.* [*silicula*, Lat.] Husky; full of husks. *Dict.*

SILIFREY. See **JILLIFREE**.

SILIGINOSE, *adj.* [*siliginosus*, Lat.] Made of fine wheat. *Dict.*

SILICON, in Botany, a name given by some of the old Latin writers to the carob tree, *siliqua dulcis*. The Latins borrowed this name from the Greek *xyloglycon*, ξυλογλυκων, the sweet, or sweet-fruited tree.

SILIN, or **ABU AIT**, a village of Upper Egypt; 12 miles south-south-east of Siut.

SILING, a town of China, of the third rank, in Quang-see.

SILINO, a small island among the Philippines, near the north coast of Mindanao. Lat. 9. 2. N. long. 121. 40. E.

SILING-DISH, *s.* A strainer; a colander. *Barret.*

SILIPICA, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman, on the shore of the river Dulce; 20 miles south of St. Jago del Estero.

SILLIQUA, *s.* [Latin.] [With gold-finers.] A carat of which six make a scruple. [*Silique*, Fr., with botanists.] The seed-vessel, husk, cod, or shell of such plants as are of the pulse kind. *Johnson.*

SILLIQUA, [*κεφαλον*, Gr.] among the ancients, the third part of an obolus, or, what comes to the same, the sixth part of a scruple.

SILLIQUA NABATHÆA. See **NABATHÆA SILLIQUA**.

SILLIQUA, in Botany, a Pod, is a sort of **PERICARP**. (See that article.) The *Siliqua* is a solitary seed-vessel, of an elongated form, and dry substance, consisting of two parallel valves, separated by a parallel linear partition, or receptacle, along each of whose edges the seeds are ranged in alternate order.

SILLIQUA. See **CAROA**.

SILLIQUASTRUM, the appellation of the Judas-tree in Tournefort and preceding authors, alluding to its partial resemblance to the fruit of the Carob, which was called *Siliqua*, the Pod, by way of eminence. See **CERATONIA** and **CERCIS**.

SILLIQUASTRUM, in Natural History, the name given by Mr. Lhuys, and others, to the bony palates of fishes, when found fossil.

SILLIQUATICUM, among the Romans, a custom or toll paid for merchandize. This the Greeks called *ceratistimus*.

SILLIQUOSA, in Botany, the second order of the Linnean 15th class, *Tetradynamia*; which order is characterized by the oblong form of the seed-vessel. See **SILLIQUA** and **SILICULA**.

SILLIQUOSÆ, the 39th natural order, among the *fragmenta* of Linnaeus, exactly analogous to the **CRUCIFERÆ** of Jussieu. See **BOTANY**.

SILLIQUOSE, or **SILLIQUOUS**, *adj.* [from *siliqua*, Lat.] Having a pod or capsula.—All the tetrapetalous *siliquose* plants are alkaliescent. *Arbutnot.*

SILISTRIA, or **DRISTRIA**, a large town in the north of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, situated on the Danube, on its south bank, at the influx of the small river Missovo. It is well fortified, tolerably built, has several handsome mosques and baths, and contains a population of 20,000. Being out of the usual road from Turkey to Germany, it is rarely visited by travellers. In the environs are to be seen the ruins of the wall erected by the Greek emperors, against the incursions of the barbarians. It is at present one of the frontier towns of Turkey; and in 1773 several sharp actions took place here between the Russians and Turks. It is the see of an archbishop; 155 miles north-north-east of Adrianople. Lat. 44. 15. N. long. 27. 6. E.

SILIUS ITALICUS (Caius), an Italian poet, was born about the year 15 of the Christian era. He has been supposed to have been a native of Italica in Spain; but his not being claimed as a fellow countryman by Martial, who has bestowed upon him the highest praises, renders the

supposition improbable. It is certain that he lived chiefly in Italy, in which he possessed several estates. The knowledge of him come down to these times is derived from a letter of Pliny the Younger to Caninius Rufus, announcing his death. From this it appears that he incurred some reproach in the reign of Nero, as having been forward in accusations, and that he was consul at the time of the tyrant's death; that he made a discreet and humane use of the friendship of Vitellius; and that having acquired much honour, from his conduct in the proconsulate of Asia, he thenceforth withdrew from public offices, and maintained the rank of the principal persons of the city without power and without envy. It appears, likewise, that he passed his time chiefly in literary conversations, and in composing verses, which he sometimes recited in public. He had great taste for elegance, and purchased a number of villas, which, after enjoying for a time, he deserted for new ones. He collected a number of statues, books, and busts, to some of the latter of which he paid a kind of religious veneration. This was particularly the case with respect to that of Virgil, whose birth-day he kept with much more ceremony than his own, and whose tomb was included in one of his villas. He is said also to have possessed a villa that had been Cicero's. In his latter years he retired altogether to his seat in Campania, which he did not quit upon any account; and the general tide of his prosperity did not cease to flow, except in the instance of the death of the younger of his two sons, which was in some degree compensated by the consular dignity of the elder. In his 75th year he was attacked with an incurable ulcer, and he is said to have put an end to his life, by abstaining from food.

The work of Silius, which has come down to the present time, is an epic poem on the second Punic war. In this he scarcely deviates from Livy, in the narration of transactions; but occasionally introduces a machinery, copied from Virgil, of whose style and manner he is an imitator. Pliny says, that "he writes with more diligence than genius." The best editions of this work are those of Drakenborch, 1717; and of Lefebvre de Villebrune, 4 vols. 12mo., 1782.

SILIVRI, or **SELIVREA**, the ancient *Selymbria*, a seaport of European Turkey, in Romania, near the sea of Marmora, situated on the western side of a promontory. It contains 6000 inhabitants, of whom 1500 are Greeks, and 200 Jews. It commands a beautiful prospect of the Propontis, but its harbour admits only small vessels; 32 miles west of Constantinople.

SILJAN, a small town in the middle part of Sweden, in Dalecarlia, on a lake to which it gives name; 29 miles north-west of Fahlun.

SILK, *s.* [Æolc, Saxon. "Vocabulum Anglicanum *selk*, Lat. *sericum*,—nuncupatum est quasi *selik*, pro *serik*, literæ *r* in *l* facili commut. fact." *Seren.*] The thread of the worm that turns afterwards to a butterfly.

The worms were hallow'd that did breed the *silk*;

And it was dy'd in mummy, which the skilful

Conserv'd of maidens' hearts.

Shakspeare.

The stuff made of the worm's thread.—Let not the creaking of shoes, or rustling of silks betray thy poor heart to woman. *Shakspeare.*

SILK is a very soft, fine, bright, delicate thread; the work of an insect, called *bombyx*, or the silk-worm.

The ancients were but little acquainted with the use and manufacture of silk; they took it for the work of a sort of spider or beetle, who spun it out of his entrails, and wound it with its feet about the little branches of trees. This insect they called *ser*, from *Scres*, a people in Scythia, whom we now call the Chinese, who, as they thought, bred it; whence the silk itself they called *sericum*. But this *ser* of theirs has very little affinity with our silk-worm, the former living five years; but the latter dying annually enveloped in a yellowish bag or ball, which, wound out into little threads, makes what we call silk.

It was in the isle of Cos that the art of manufacturing it

was first invented; and Pamphila, daughter of Piatis, is honoured as the inventress. The discovery was not long unknown to the Romans. Silk was brought them from Serica, where the worm was a native. But so far were they from profiting by the discovery, that they could not be induced to believe so fine a thread should be the work of a worm; and thereupon formed a thousand chimerical conjectures of their own.

Silk was a very scarce commodity among them for many ages: it was even sold weight for weight with gold; inso-much that Vopiscus tells us, the emperor Aurelian, who died A. D. 275, refused the empress, his wife, a suit of silk, which she solicited of him with much earnestness, merely on account of its dearness.

Others, however, with greater probability, assert that it was known at Rome so early as the reign of Tiberius, about A. D. 17.

Galen, who lived about the year of our Lord 173, speaks of the rarity of silk, being no where but at Rome, and only among the rich.

Heliogabalus, the emperor, who died A. D. 220, is said by some to be the first person who wore a holosericum, i. e. a garment of all silk.

The Greeks of Alexander the Great's army are said to have been the first who brought wrought silk from Persia into Greece, about 323 years before Christ; but the manufacture of it was confined to Berytus and Tyre, in Phoenicia, whence it was dispersed over the West.

At length, two monks, coming from the Indies, to Constantinople, in 555, under the encouragement of the emperor Justinian, brought with them great quantities of silk-worms, with instructions for the hatching of their eggs, rearing and feeding the worms, and drawing out the silk, and spinning and working it. Upon this, manufactures were set up at Athens, Thebes, and Corinth. The Venetians, soon after this time, commencing a commerce with the Greek empire, supplied all the western parts of Europe with silks for many centuries; though sundry kinds of modern silk manufactures were unknown in those times, such as damasks, velvets, sattins, &c.

About the year 1130, Roger II., king of Sicily, established a silk manufactory at Palermo, and another in Calabria; managed by workmen, who were a part of the plunder brought from Athens, Corinth, &c., of which that prince made a conquest in his expedition to the Holy Land. By degrees, Mezeray adds, the rest of Italy and Spain learned, from the Sicilians and Calabrians, the management of the silk-worms, and the working of silk; and at length the French got it by right of neighbourhood, a little before the reign of Francis I., and began to imitate them. Thuanus, indeed, in contradiction to most other writers, makes this manufacture of silk to be introduced into Sicily two hundred years later, by Robert the Wise, king of Sicily, and count of Provence.

It appears by 33 Hen VI. cap. 5. that there was a company of silk-women in England so early as the year 1455; but these were probably employed in needle-works of silk and thread; and we find that various sorts of small haberdashery of silk were manufactured here in 1482; but Italy supplied England, and all other parts, with the broad manufacture, till the year 1489. In Spain, indeed, the culture and manufacture of silk seem to have been introduced in an early period by the Moors, particularly in Murcia, Cordova, and Granada. The silk manufactures of this last town were very flourishing, when it was taken by Ferdinand, &c., at the close of the fifteenth century.

In 1521, the French, being supplied with workmen from Milan, commenced a silk manufacture; but it was long after this time before they could obtain raw silk from the worms; and even in the year 1547, silk was scarce and dear in France; and Henry II. is said to have been the first who wore a pair of silk knit stockings; though the first invention originally came from Spain, whence silk stockings were brought over to Henry VIII. and Edward VI. After the civil wars in France, the plantations of mulberry-trees were

greatly encouraged by Henry VI. and his successors; and the produce of silk is at this day very considerable.

The great advantage which the new manufacture afforded, made our king James I. very earnest for its being introduced into England: accordingly it was recommended several times from the throne, and in the most earnest terms, particularly in the year 1608, to plant mulberry-trees, &c., for the propagation of silk-worms; but unhappily without effect; though from the various experiments we meet with in the Philosophical Transactions, and other places, it appears that the silk-worm thrives and works as well, in all respects, in England, as in any part of Europe.

However, towards the latter end of this king's reign, i. e. about the year 1620, the broad silk manufacture was introduced into this country, and prosecuted with great vigour and advantage. In 1629, the silk manufacture was become so considerable in London, that the silk throwsters of the city, and parts adjacent, were incorporated under the name of master, wardens, &c., of the silk throwsters; and in 1661, this company of silk-throwsters employed above forty thousand persons. The revocation of the edict of Nantes, in 1685, contributed in a great degree to promote the silk manufacture in this kingdom; as did also the invention of the silk throwing machine at Derby, in 1719; for an account of which, see *SILK, Manufacture of*.

So high in reputation was the English silk manufacture, that even in Italy, as Keysler (*Travels*, vol. i. p. 289.) informs us, in 1730, the English silks bore a higher price than the Italian.

The silk-worm is an insect not more remarkable for the precious matter it furnishes for divers stuffs, than for the many forms it assumes, before and after its being enveloped in the rich cod or ball which it weaves for itself. From a small egg, about the size of a pin's head, which is its first state, it becomes a pretty big worm, or caterpillar, of a whitish colour, inclining to yellow. In this state it feeds on mulberry-leaves, till, being come to maturity, it winds itself up in a silken bag, or case, about the size and shape of a pigeon's egg; and becomes metamorphosed into an aurelia: in this state it remains without any signs of life, or motion; till at length it awakes to become a butterfly, after making itself a passage out of its silken sepulchre; and, at last, dying indeed, it prepares itself a successor, by an egg which it casts, which the warmth of the summer weather brings to life.

As soon as the silk-worm, or caterpillar, is arrived at the size and strength necessary for beginning his cod, he makes his web; for it is thus they call that slight tissue, which is the beginning and ground of this admirable work. This is his first day's employment. On the second, he forms his folliculus, or ball, and covers himself almost over with silk. The third day, he is quite hid; and the following days he employs himself in thickening and strengthening his ball; always working from one single end, which he never breaks by his own fault; and which is so fine, and so long, that those who have examined it attentively, think they speak within compass, when they affirm that each ball contains silk enough to reach the length of six English miles.

In ten days' time, the ball is in its perfection; and it is now to be taken down from the branches of the mulberry-trees, where the worms have hung it. But this business requires a great deal of attention; for there are some worms more lazy than others; and it is very dangerous waiting till they make themselves a passage, which usually happens about the fifteenth day.

The first, finest, and strongest balls are kept for the breed; the rest are carefully wound. If there be no more than can be well wound at once, they lay them for some time in an oven, moderately hot, or else expose them, for several days successively, to the greatest heats of the sun, in order to kill the insect; which, without this precaution, would not fail to open itself a way to go and use those new wings abroad, which it has acquired within. Ordinarily, they only wind the more perfect balls. Those that are double, or too weak, or too coarse, are laid aside; not as altogether

altogether useless, but that, being improper for winding, they are reserved to be drawn out into skeins. The balls are of different colours; the most common are yellow, orange-colour, isabella, or flesh-colour. There are some also of a sea-green, others of a sulphur colour, and others white; but there is no necessity for separating the colours and shades, to wind them apart, as all these colours are to be lost in the future scouring and preparing of the silk.

SILK, MANUFACTURE OF. In England, where silk is not produced in any quantities to be employed by the manufacturer, he must commence his operations upon the raw silk, with no other preparation than that of being wound off into skeins or hanks from the balls, or cocoons, which the silk-worms form.

In this state the silk is imported from those countries where it is produced, as Italy, Flanders, Spain, Portugal, Turkey, the East Indies and China. A thread of this raw silk, drawn from the skein, is found to be composed of an assemblage of several of the fine fibres or threads produced by the worms; the fibres being united together by a natural gum, which is in the silk, and which is soluble in the hot water in which the cocoons are immersed when the silk is wound off.

To prepare this raw silk for use, it is wound from the skeins upon bobbins; the compound thread is then twisted, to unite the constituent fibres more firmly than they can be by the gum alone; and afterwards, being wound again upon fresh bobbins, two or three threads are twisted together to produce a stronger thread, fit for the weaver, who warps and finally weaves the silk into various articles of ornaments or utility, by processes very similar to the weaving of cotton or linen, but more delicately conducted.

In the countries where the silk is produced, the manufacture may be more properly said to commence with the operation of winding or reeling off the threads into skeins from the cocoons, or balls, in which the worms envelope themselves. These balls become an article of trade, as soon as the insect within them is killed by exposing them to heat, either of the sun, or in an oven, or by the steam of boiling water; and, in general, the breeders of silk-worms sell them, in this state, to persons who make a business of the operation of winding. In Piedmont, where capital silk is produced, it is conducted, as follows, by the aid of the silk reel represented in Plate *Silk Manufacture*, fig. 1.

The balls are thrown into hot water, contained in a copper basin or boiler, A, which is about eighteen inches in length and six deep, set in brick-work, so as to admit a small charcoal fire beneath it; or if a fire of wood is intended to be made, the fire-place must have a small flue or chimney of iron plate to carry off the smoke. At the side of the boiler is placed the reel, which is very simple. BB marks the wood-framing which sustains its parts: these are, the reel D, upon which the silk is wound; the layer a, which directs the thread upon it; and the wheel-work b c, which gives motion to the layer. The reel, D, is nothing more than a wooden spindle, turned by a handle at the end; and within the frame, at each end, it has four arms mortised into it, to support the four battens or rails on which the silk is wound. The rails are parallel to the axis, and at such a distance, that they will form a proper-sized skein by the winding of the silk upon them, (it is usually a yard for each revolution.) One of each of the four arms is made to fold in the middle of its length with hinges, so as to cause the rail, which these two arms support, to fall in or approach the centre, and thus diminish the size of the reel, and admit the skeins of silk to be taken off at the end of the reel when the winding is finished.

Upon the end of the wooden spindle of the reel, and within the frame B, is a wheel of twenty-two teeth, to give motion to another wheel, c, which has about twice the number of teeth, and is fixed upon the end of an inclined axis, c b; this, at the opposite end, carries a wheel, b, of twenty-two teeth, which gives motion to an horizontal cog-wheel of thirty-five teeth. This wheel turns upon a pivot fixed

in the frame, and has a pin fixed in it, at a distance from the centre, to form an excentric pin or crank, and give a backward and forward motion to the slight wooden rail or layer a, which guides the threads upon the reel: for this purpose, the threads are passed through wire-loops or eyes, a, fixed into the layer, and the end thereof opposite the wheel and crank, b, is supported in a mortise or opening made in the frame, B, so that the revolution of the crank will cause the layer to move and carry the threads alternately towards the right or left. There is likewise an iron bar, e fixed over the centre of the boiler at e, and pierced with two holes, through which the threads pass to guide them.

To describe the operation of reeling, it should be understood, that if the thread of each ball or cocoon was reeled separately, it would be totally unfit for the purposes of the manufacturer; in the reeling, therefore, the ends or threads of several cocoons are joined, and reeled together out of warm water, which softens their natural gum, and makes the fibres stick together, so as to form one strong smooth thread; and as often as the thread of any single cocoon breaks or comes to an end, its place is supplied by a new one, so that by continually keeping up the same number, the united thread may be wound to any length. The single threads of the newly added cocoons are not joined by any tie, but simply laid on the compound thread, to which they will adhere by their gum; and their ends are so fine, as not to occasion the least perceptible unevenness in the place on which they are laid.

The woman who conducts the reeling is seated before the basin A, and employs a boy or girl to turn the handle of the reel: a fire is lighted beneath the basin A; and when the water becomes nearly boiling hot, she throws into the basin two or three handfuls of cocoons, and leaves them some minutes, to soften that natural gum with which the silk is impregnated; then she stirs up or brushes the cocoons with a wisk of birch or of rice-straw, about six inches long, cut stumpy, like a worn-out broom; the loose threads of the cocoons stick to the wisk, and are drawn out: she then disengages these threads from the wisk, and by drawing the ends through her fingers, cleans them from that loose silk which always surrounds the cocoon, till they come off entirely clean: this operation is called *la battue*: and when the threads are quite clean, she passes four or more of them, if she intends to wind fine silk, through each of the holes in the thin iron bar e, which is placed horizontally over the centre of the basin A; afterwards she twists the two compound threads (which consist of four cocoons each) twenty or twenty-five times round each other, that the four ends in each thread may the better join together by crossing each other, and that the thread of the silk may be round, which otherwise would be flat.

The threads, after passing through the holes in the iron bar e, and being twisted together, are passed through the eyes of the loops, a, of the layer, and thence being conducted to the reel, are made fast to one of its rails. The child who turns the reel, gives it the most rapid movement possible, and thus draws off the threads from the cocoons in the basin A. The slow traversing motion of the layer prevents the threads lying over each other upon the reel, until it has made so many revolutions in the air as to dry the gum of the silk so far, that the threads will not adhere together. After the reel is covered for about the breadth of three inches, by the gradual progression of the layer, it returns and directs a second course of threads over the first laid, and so on until the required length for the skeins is obtained. The machine winds two skeins at one time. As it is essential to the production of good silk, that the thread should have lost part of its heat and gumminess before it touches the bars of the reel, the Piedmontese are by law obliged to have a distance of thirty-eight French inches between the guides a, and the centre of the reel: and the layer must also, under a penalty, be moved by cog-wheels instead of an endless cord, which is sometimes used in Italy, and which, if suffered to grow slack, will cause the layer to stop and not lay the threads distinctly, and that

part of the skein will be glued together, whereas the cog-wheels cannot fail.

When the skeins are quite dry the reel is removed from the frame, and by the folding of two of its arms the skeins are taken off. A tie is made with some of the refuse silk on that part of each skein where it bore upon the bars of the reel, and another tie on the opposite part of the skein; after which it is doubled into a hank, and usually tied round near each extremity, when it is laid by for use or sale.

This operation appears very simple, but to produce a good thread requires much attention. The reeler must not wait until the thread of a cocoon is entirely exhausted before she joins on another, because the threads near the end have not above a quarter of their full thickness. The cocoons produce a very unequal length; some may be met with which yield 1200 ells, whilst others will scarcely afford 200 ells. In general the production of a cocoon may be estimated from 500 to 600 ells in length. As often as the cocoons she winds are exhausted, or break, or only diminish, she joins fresh ones to keep up the requisite number, or the proportion; because, as the cocoons wind off, and the thread becomes finer, she must join two cocoons half wound to replace a new one. Thus she can wind three new ones and two half wound, and the silk will be equal to that produced from four to five cocoons. When she would join a fresh thread she must lay one end on her finger, throw it lightly on the other threads which are winding, and the gum will join it immediately, and it will continue to go up with the rest. She must not wind off her cocoons to the last, because when they are near at an end the husk of the worm joins in with the other threads, and makes the silk foul. The silk may be wound of any size from one cocoon to 100, but it is difficult to wind more than thirty in a thread.

The nicety of the operation, and that part in which lies the greatest difficulty, is to wind an even thread, because as the cocoon winds off the end is finer, and other cocoons must be joined on to keep up the same size. This difficulty of keeping the silk always even is so great, that (excepting a thread of two cocoons, which is called such) they do not say a silk of three, four or six cocoons; but a silk of three to four, four to five or six to seven cocoons. In a coarser silk it cannot be calculated even so nearly as to four cocoons more or less; they say, for example, from 12 to 15, from 15 to 20, and so on.

During the operation of winding, the woman must always have a bowl of cold water by her, to dip her fingers in, and to sprinkle frequently upon the iron bar *e*, that the heat of the basin may not burn the threads, also to cool her fingers every time she dips them in the hot water, and to pour into the basin when necessary, that is, when the water begins to boil. The water must be just in a proper degree of heat; for when it is too hot, the thread is dead, and has no body; and when too cold, the ends which form the thread do not join well, and form a harsh silk. The heat of the water from which the cocoons are wound, causes that adhesion of the fibres which compose the silk: a thread can with difficulty be wound off when cold water is employed; but in this manner the adhesion is very slight, and the thread breaks with a slight force, or the least moisture will separate the fibres; but the silk wound from hot water cannot be separated except by hot water.

The old cocoons require the water to be very hot: if the threads break very frequently, it may be concluded that the water is too cold; or, on the other hand, if the silk comes off entangled, and in the state of wool, the water is too hot. When the first parcel of cocoons is finished, the basin, *A*, is cleaned, taking out all the striped worms, as well as the cocoons, on which there remains a little silk: these are thrown into a basket, into which the loose silk that comes off in making the battue is likewise put as waste silk, to be carded and spun into threads. The water in the basin must be changed four times a day for coarse silk, and twice only for good cocoons of fine silk: if the water is not changed, the silk will not be bright and glossy, because the worms contained in the cocoons foul it very con-

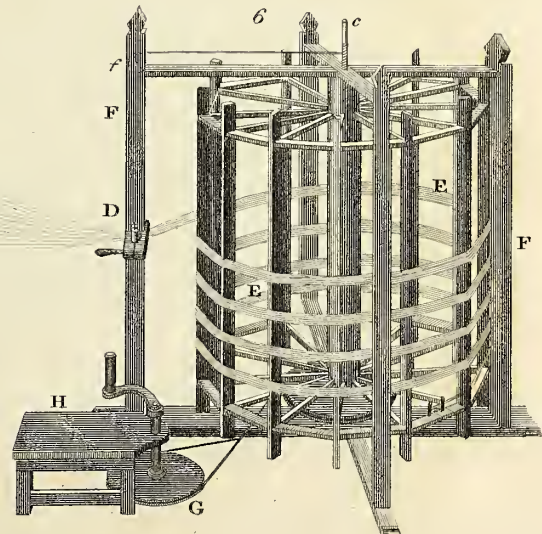
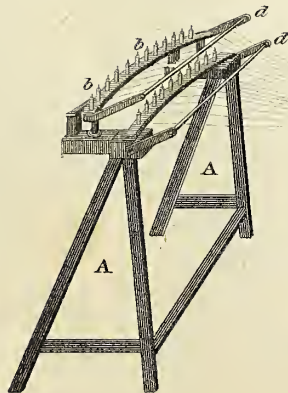
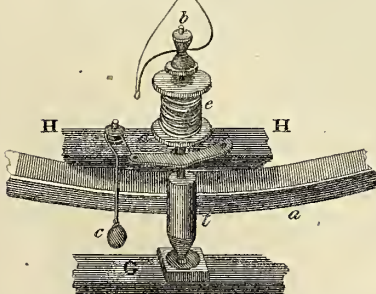
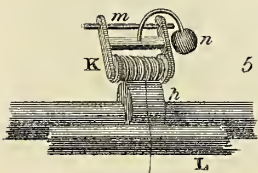
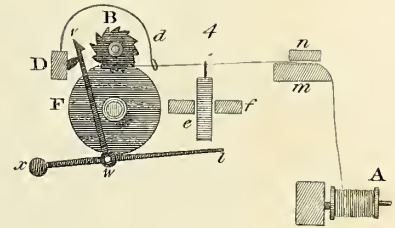
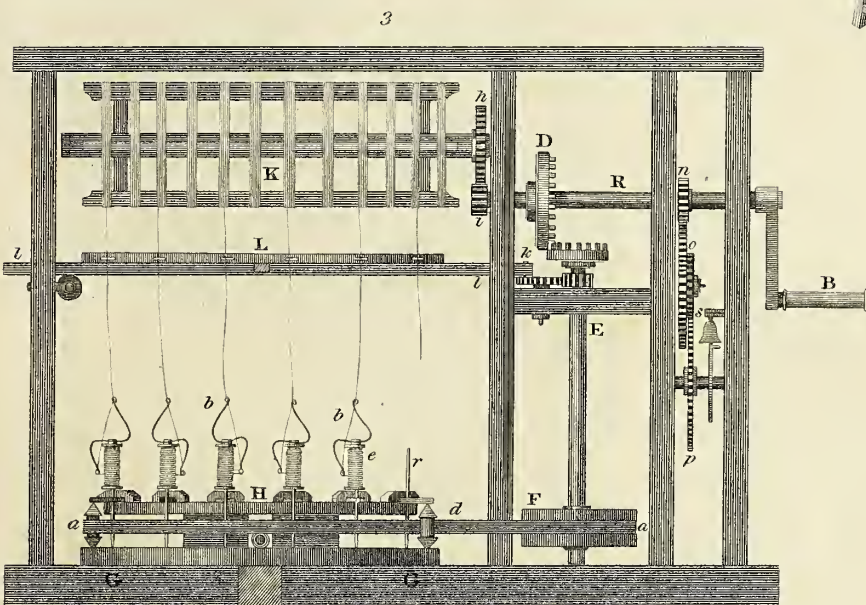
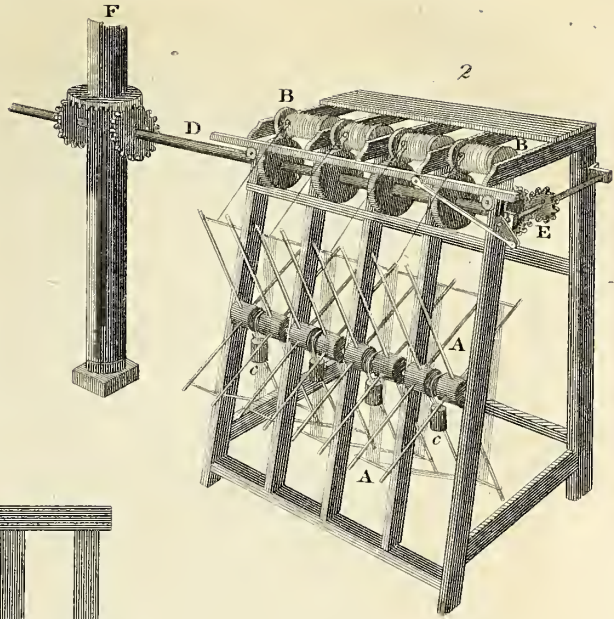
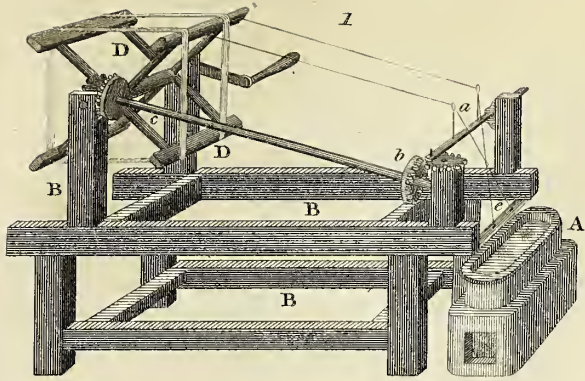
siderably. The reeler must endeavour to wind as much as possible with clear water, for if there are too many worms in it, the silk will be covered with a kind of dust, which afterwards attracts moths, which destroys the silk.

From the gummy or viscid material which silk gives out to water when the cocoons are infused in it, Chappe found that he was able to blow up the water into bubbles, or small balloons, far more permanent than those of soap and water, and offering all the colours of the rainbow. So close, indeed, is the texture of these silky bladders, that even the most subtile gas does not penetrate them. Chappe filled many of them, the diameter of each not exceeding three inches, with hydrogen gas, and found several of them continued in a state of suspension, in an apartment, for considerably more than twenty-four hours. It is not all silk, however, that is sufficiently glutinous for this purpose; that which is of a very deep yellow will not answer the same purpose. This silk, from its colour, is supposed to be produced by the worm in a peculiar disease, yet this is a state by no means uncommon.

All kind of silk which is simply drawn from the cocoons by the reeling, is called raw silk, but it is denominated fine or coarse according to the number of fibres of which the thread is composed. In general, the raw silk requires dyeing; to prepare for which the thread is very slightly twisted, to render it strong, and more able to bear the action of the hot liquor, without separating the fibres or furring up. Silk-yarn, which is employed by the weavers for the woof or weft of the stuffs which they fabricate, is composed of two or more threads of the raw silk, slightly twisted in a machine; and the thread employed by the stocking weaver is of the same quality, but composed of a greater number of threads, according to the thickness desired. Organzine silk is composed of two, three or four threads of raw silk twisted, and so combined as to obtain the greatest strength: for this purpose, each thread of raw silk is twisted separately upon itself by a mill: the twist is given in a right-handed direction, and extremely tight. By a second operation of twisting, two of these threads are combined together, the twist being given in a contrary direction, and not above half as tight: this forms a thread similar to a rope. This description of silk, used for the warp of stuffs, is of the utmost importance to the manufacturer, for none of the principal articles can be fabricated without it. The Italians, from whom we formerly imported the silk in the state of organzine, for a long time kept the art of throwing it a profound secret. It was introduced into this country by the enterprise and skill of Messrs. Thomas and John Lombe, the latter having, at the risk of his life, and with wonderful ingenuity, taken a plan of one of these complicated machines in the king of Sardinia's dominions, from which, on his return, they established a similar set of mills in the town of Derby. In consideration of the great hazard and expence attending the undertaking, a patent was granted to Sir Thomas Lombe in 1718, for securing to him the privilege of working organzine for the term of fourteen years; but the construction of buildings and engines, and the instruction of the workmen, took up so much time, that the fourteen years were nearly expired before he could derive any advantage from it; in consequence of which he petitioned parliament, in 1731, to grant him a further term: but parliament, considering it an object of national importance, granted him the sum of £14,000 on condition that he should allow a perfect model of the machinery to be taken, and deposited in the Tower of London for public inspection.

The process which the silk undergoes to bring it into this state, consists of six different operations. 1. The silk is wound from the skein upon bobbins in the winding machines. 2. It is then sorted into different qualities. 3. It is spun or twisted on a mill in the single thread, the twist being in the direction of from right to left, and very tight. 4. Two or more threads thus spun are doubled or drawn together through the fingers of a woman, who at the same time cleans them, by taking out the slubs which may have been

SILK MANUFACTURE.





been left in the silk by the negligence of the foreign reeler. 5. It is then thrown by a mill, that is, the two threads are twisted together, either slack or hard, as the manufacture may require; but the twist is in an opposite direction to the first twist, and it is wound at the same time in skeins upon a reel. 6. The skeins are sorted according to their different degrees of fineness, and then the process is complete.

The first operation which the raw silk undergoes is winding, that is, drawing it off from the skeins in which it is imported, and winding it upon wooden bobbins, in which state it can go to the other machines. The winding-frame is shewn at fig. 2. of the plate, or rather a part of it, which will wind six threads at once, and by increasing the length it may be made to receive any number. Each of the skeins is extended upon a slight reel AA, called a swift; it is composed of four small rods, fixed into an axis, and small bands of string are stretched between the arms to receive the skein, but at the same time the bands admit of sliding to a greater or less distance from the centre, so as to increase the effective diameter of the reel, according to the size of the skein, because the skeins, which come from different countries, vary in size, being generally an exact yard, or other similar measure, of the country where the silks are produced. The swifts are supported upon wire pivots, upon which they turn freely when the silk is drawn off from them; but in order to cause the thread to draw with a gentle force, a looped piece of string, or wire, is hung upon the axis withinside the reel and a small leaden weight, *c*, being attached to it, will cause a sufficient friction. B, B, are the bobbins which draw off the threads; they are received in the frame, and are turned by means of a wheel beneath each, the bobbin having a small roller upon the end of it, which bears by its weight upon the circumference of the wheel, and the bobbin is thereby put in motion to draw off the silk from the swift. D is the layer, a small light rod of wood, which has a wire-eye fixed into it, opposite to each bobbin, so as to conduct the thread thereupon; and as the layer moves constantly backwards and forwards, the thread is regularly spread upon the length of the bobbin. The motion of the layer is produced by a crank fixed upon the end of a cross-spindle, E, which is turned by means of a pair of bevelled wheels from the end of the horizontal axle, upon which the wheels for turning all the bobbins are fixed.

These winding machines are usually situated in the top building of the mill, the frames being made of great length, and also double, to contain a row of bobbins and swifts at the back as well as in front. Two of these double frames are put in motion by cog-wheels from the vertical shaft, F, which ascends from the lower apartments of the mill, where the twisting-machines are placed. The winding-machines require a constant attendance of children to mend the ends or threads which are broken; or when they are exhausted, they replace them by putting new skeins upon the swifts. When the bobbins are filled they are taken away, by only lifting them up out of their frame, and fresh ones are put in their places.

A patent was taken out by Messrs. Gent and Clarke, for a new construction of the swifts for winding-machines: they were made with six single arms instead of four double ones; and the arms are small flat tubes, made to contain the stems of wire forks, which receive the skein instead of the bands of string in the common swifts. These forks admit of drawing out from the tubes until the swift is sufficiently enlarged to extend it; but as they extend the skein at six points instead of four, as in the common one, the motion is more regular. Instead of the weight which causes the friction, a spring is used to press upon the end pivot of the axis, and make the requisite resistance.

The twisting of the silk is always performed by a spindle and bobbin, with a flyer, but the construction of the machine which puts the spindle in motion is frequently varied. The limits of our plate do not admit a representation of the great machines, or throwing-mills, such as are used at Derby,

and at almost all the other great silk-mills in England. In fig. 3. we have given a drawing of a small machine, which is similar in the parts which act upon the silk; and indeed many mills employ such machines constructed on a large scale. The one in our plate contains only thirteen spindles, and is intended to be turned by hand, a method which is too expensive for this country, but is common in the south of France, where many artisans purchase their silk in the raw state, and employ their wives or children to prepare it by these machines, which they call ovals, because the spindles *b, b*, are arranged in an oval frame, G H. B is the handle by which the motion is given; it is fixed on the end of a spindle, R, which carries a wheel, D, to give motion to a pinion upon the upper end of a vertical axle, E: this, at the lower end, has a drum or wheel F, to receive an endless strap or band, *a, a*, which encompasses the oval frame G, and gives motion to all the spindles at once. The spindles *b, b*, are placed perpendicularly in the frame G H, their points resting in small holes in pieces of glass, which are let into the oval plank G; and the spindles are also received in collars affixed to an oval frame H, which is supported from the plank, G, by blocks of wood; *d* and *a* are small rollers, supported in the frame G H, in a similar manner to the spindles: their use is to confine the strap, *a*, to press against the rollers of the spindles with sufficient force to keep them all in motion.

The thread is taken up as fast as it is twisted by a reel, K, which is turned by a wheel, *h*, and a pinion, *i*, upon the end of the principal spindle, R. The threads are guided by passing through wire-eyes, fixed in an oval frame, L, which is supported in the frame of the machine by a single bar or rail, *l, l*, and this has a regular traversing motion backwards and forwards, by means of a crank, or excentric pin, *k*, fixed in a small cog-wheel, which is turned by a pinion upon the vertical axis E; the opposite end of the rail, *l*, is supported upon a roller, to make it move easily. By this means the guides are in constant motion, and lay the threads regularly upon the reel K, when it turns round, and gathers up the silk upon it, as shewn in the figure.

One of the spindles is shewn at *r* without a bobbin, but all the others are represented as being mounted and in action. A bobbin, *e*, is fitted upon each spindle, by the hole through it being adapted to the conical form of the spindle, but in such manner, that the bobbin is at liberty to turn freely round upon the spindle: a piece of hard wood is stuck fast upon each spindle, just above the bobbin, and has a small pin entering into a hole in the top of the spindle, so as to oblige it to revolve with the spindle; this piece of wood has the wire-flyer, *b*, fixed to it: the flyer is formed into eyes at the two extremities; one is turned down, so as to stand opposite the middle of the bobbin *e*; and the other arm *b*, is bent upwards, so that the eye is exactly over the centre of the spindle, and at a height of some inches above the top of the spindle. The thread from the bobbin, *e*, is passed through both the eyes of this wire, and must evidently receive a twist when the spindle is turned; and at the same time, by drawing up the thread through the upper eye, *b*, of the flyer, it will turn the bobbin round and unwind therefrom. The rate at which the thread is drawn off from the bobbin, compared with the number of revolutions which the flyers make in the same time, determines the twist to be hard or soft; and this circumstance is regulated by the proportion of the wheel *h*, to the pinion *i*, from which it receives motion; and these can be changed when it is required to spin different kinds of silk. The operation of the machine is very simple; the bobbins filled with silk in the winding-machine, fig. 1, are put loose upon the spindles at *e*, and the flyers are stuck fast upon the top of the spindles: the threads are conducted through the eyes of the flyers *b*, and of the layers L, and are then made fast to the reel K, upon which it will be seen that there are double the number of skeins to that of the spindles represented, because one-half of the number of the spindles is on the opposite side of the oval frame, so that they are hidden. With this preparation the machine is put in motion, and continues

to spin the threads by the motion of the flyers, and to draw them off gradually from the bobbins, until the skeins upon the reel are made up to the requisite lengths. This is known by a train of wheel-work at *n o p*, consisting of a pinion, *n*, fixed upon the principal spindle *R*, turning a wheel *o*, which has a pinion fixed to it, and turning a larger wheel *p*; this has another wheel upon its spindle, with a pin fixed in it, which at every revolution raises a hammer, and strikes upon a bell, *s*, to inform the attendant that the skeins are made up to a proper length. When this machine is employed for the first operation of twisting the organzine, the wheel, *h*, must be larger, and the pinion, *i*, smaller than represented, in order that the reel, *K*, may be turned slowly, and threads will therefore receive a stronger and closer twist. Also, the handle *B* is turned in an opposite direction to that in which it must move for the final throwing off the two or three twisted threads together; and as it must also move for twisting the raw threads together for the warp of silk-stuffs, and for weaving stockings, this reverse movement makes no alteration in the machine, except that it will give twist in a contrary direction; for it is always necessary, when two or more twisted threads are combined by twisting, that the twist of the original threads shall be in the opposite direction to that twist which unites them into one thread, in the same manner as for making ropes, organzine silk being in fact small rope, and stocking-silk or warp being only yarn. The silk which is intended to be dyed, is previously twisted very slightly in this machine, and of course in that direction which will suit the purpose for which it is ultimately intended, viz., whether for yarn or organzine.

The great mills for twisting silk, originally introduced by Messrs. Lombe, though very complicated, are simple in their operation, because the complexity arises from the great number of spindles which are actuated by the same movement, every one of which produces its effect independent of the others, and in the same manner as the oval which we have described. A machine is contained in a circular frame, of which the diameter varies from 11 to 13, 15, and even 17 feet; but 15 feet is the general size of the original Piedmontese machines. In the centre of the frame is a perpendicular axis or spindle, coming up through the floor of the chamber, and rising to the ceiling; it is put in motion by a communication of wheelwork from a water-wheel or otherwise from a horse-wheel. The axis has upon it two, three, or four horizontal wheels, according to the height of the machine, which revolve with it, and are of a sufficient size to fill nearly all the interior of the circular frame, and act upon the pulleys or rollers of the spindles, which are supported vertically in the frame, and arranged round the machine, at equal distances, in a circle, the number being proportioned to the dimensions of the machine. The spindles are also arranged in as many different stages of height as there are wheels upon the vertical spindle; for the circumference of each wheel presses against the rollers of the spindles which are arranged round it; and thus, when the wheel revolves, it gives a very rapid motion to all the spindles at once, by the contact of the edge of the wheel, but without any strap, as in the oval. Each spindle has a bobbin, filled with silk, fitted upon the top of it, and from this the silk is carried up to a horizontal reel, which is turned round slowly by the machine, and draws off the thread gradually from the bobbin: the flyer, being all the while in rapid motion, twists the thread upon itself, or, if two or three threads are previously wound together upon the bobbin, they will be twisted round each other. Each reel serves to take up the thread from several spindles which are situated beneath it: thus, in a mill of fifteen feet diameter, there will be six spindles beneath each reel.

To explain this machine more clearly, we will give a description of one of thirteen feet diameter, which has four large wheels and stages of spindles, two of which are for giving the first preparation to the organzine: the spindles revolve in a direction from right to left. The spindles of the other two stages are for the finishing the twist; and also for

twisting the single threads which are to be used for warp or stocking-weaving: they revolve in a contrary direction to the former. The frame of the machine consists of two wooden circles of thirteen feet diameter, one placed upon the floor of the mill, and the other at a height of fifteen feet above, the two being united by fourteen upright pillars of wood, which altogether compose a large cylindrical frame or lantern. Each stage contains eighty-four iron spindles, placed vertically, and supported in the stage, which is formed of two wooden circles, extended round between the fourteen uprights of the lantern, and fixed one above the other, at about a distance of four inches asunder, so as to support the spindles between them, in the same manner as the pieces, *G, H*, of the oval last described.

The circles of the stage are of a rather less diameter than the two circles which compose the top and bottom of the lantern; so that the spindles will be rather within the circle of the frame of the lantern, and admit the wheels of the central axis to act upon them. For this purpose, each of the circles of the stage is made up by fourteen segments fixed between the uprights, and each segment supports six spindles, making up the number of eighty-four in the whole circle. The spindles, like those of the oval, are sharp-pointed at the lower end, and the points rest in small holes made in pieces of glass, which are let into the lower circle of the stage, whilst the upper circle sustains the spindle at a height of four or five inches above the point, leaving full one-third of the length of the spindle projecting above, for the purpose of fitting the bobbing upon it. The upper circle of the stage is rather smaller than the lower, because the spindles do not pass through it, but through holes in small pieces of hard wood, which project from it, so as to be exactly above the pieces of glass which sustain the points of the spindles. Each spindle has a small roller fixed upon it in the space between the two circles of the stage, and it is the contact of the rim of the great wheel upon these that causes the revolution of the spindles when the wheel revolves. In order to make the contact certain, the exterior rim of the great central wheel is made in several segments, and each segment has a constant tendency to recede from the central axis by the action of a weight, and thus press against the rollers of the spindles. In order to give the reverse movement of the spindles, which we have before spoken of in the description of the oval, the great wheels for two of the stages are made differently from those which we have just described, so that the segments of the rim will act upon the outsides of the rollers of the spindles, instead of the insides; for this purpose the wheels are made larger than the stages in which the spindles are placed, and from the rim of the wheel small pillars rise up to support the segments, which act upon the rollers of the spindles in front or withoutside of the circles, instead of the inside, as is the case with the other stages, in consequence of which the spindles of these stages turn in opposite directions. The reels are placed over the bobbins, to take up the threads when twisted; and the rollers of the different spindles are made smaller or larger, as is required, to give more or less twist to the silk operated upon by them; for the velocity with which the spindles revolve, compared with the rate at which the reels take up the thread, determines the degree of twist which the thread will have; and to render this equable, the reels which draw off the silk from the bobbins of the spindles are turned regularly with the motion of the machine by means of wheel-work, which is more easily conceived than described: it is sufficient to state that it receives its motion from the central vertical axis. There is also a layer adapted to each reel, with a wire-eye to receive each thread; and the layers having a slowly reciprocating motion, distribute the threads regularly upon the reels, in a similar manner to that first described for the oval. One of these reels is placed between each of the uprights of the machine, so as to make fourteen reels in the whole circle of each stage, and every reel serves to take the silk from the bobbins of six spindles. The whole machine in the four stages contains 336 spindles.

A machine of four stages is so high, as to reach through two floors of the mill, and for this purpose the upper floor is made with a large round opening, to admit the machine: this floor serves the people who attend the machine, and change the bobbins when exhausted, and also remove the finished silk from the reels.

The spindles in the upper stages are usually devoted to the first twisting of the single threads for the organzine, and therefore turn the reverse way, as before mentioned: and as the silk is afterwards to be thrown, or re-twisted, they are drawn off from the bobbins by large bobbins of three inches diameter, and four inches long, instead of the reels. These bobbins are stuck six together upon a long spindle, situated horizontally, and turned by similar wheel-work to that which actuates the reels; they have similar layers to conduct the silk regularly upon the bobbins from one end to the other, so that the operation is not at all different.

In many of the best silk-mills, they have abandoned the original method of turning the spindles, for the preparation of organzine, the reverse way, by making the action of the wheels upon the outside, instead of the inside, of the circle of spindles. Instead of them they employ two different machines, one for the first operation on organzine, and the other for the second operation, both of them constructed with the wheels withinside: but the motion of the two machines is reversed to each other.

Fig. 5. represents a single spindle of a throwsting machine, which, though the same in its action as the great mill, is different in its construction. G and H represent portions of the rails or circles of the stage which support the spindle, and *a a* is a part of the rim of the great wheel of the central axle. This wheel is not made in segments, as before described, but is made very truly circular, and covered with leather on the edge, that it may act with more force to turn the roller, *t*, of the spindle. The point of the spindle rests in a glass cap, supported by the rail G, and the roller, *t*, is always made to press against the rim of the great wheel, *a a*, by a small lever, *d*, and a string, which, after turning over a pulley, has the weight, *c*, made fast to it, to press the spindle always towards the wheel. In this machine, instead of the reel, the thread is taken up by a bobbin, K, is put into a frame, *m*, which moves on pivots, and by a weight, *n*, is pressed down so as to make the bobbin bear upon the edge of a wheel, *h*, which is kept in constant and regular motion, by the same kind of movement which turns the reels of the great machine. The intention of this is, that the action of the wheel, *h*, to turn the bobbin, being communicated by pressure against the part upon which the silk is to wind, will be constant, and will not draw more when the bobbin is large and full, or less when it is empty, as must be the case when the motion is given to the axis of the bobbin.

After the silk is twisted in a right-hand direction, if it is intended for yarn, or for dyeing; or in a left-hand direction, if it is prepared for organzine; it must be wound on fresh bobbins, with two or three threads together, preparatory to twisting them into one thread. In the original machines at Derby this was done by women, who, with hand-wheels, wound the threads from two or three of the large bobbins, upon which the silk is gathered, instead of the reels, and assembled them two or three together upon another bobbin, of a proper size to be returned to the twisting mill. We have seen an attempt for a machine to perform the doubling, which is represented in fig. 4. The whole machine itself is very similar to the winding-machine, fig. 2, but instead of the swift, the bobbins from the throwsting-mill are placed in front at A, fig. 4, two or three in a row. The threads from these are passed over the rail *m*, and beneath a piece of wood, *n*, both which, being covered with cloth, have the same effect to clean the silk by drawing through them, as the fingers of the winder. B is the bobbin upon which the two or three threads are to be wound together; it is turned by a wheel, F, upon which it rests, the same as the bobbins of the winding-machine; and D is the layer, which, for convenience, is in this case placed behind the bobbin, B;

and the wire-eye, *d*, which receives the three threads, is made to reach over to the front. The additional apparatus consists of a small piece of wood, *e*, which slides freely up and down, in a hole, through a fixed board, *f*. On the top of the slider, *e*, is an eye of wire, through which one of the single threads of silk passes in its passage from between the pieces *m*, *n*, to the bobbin B: there is one of these sliders, *e*, to each of the three threads; *t v* is a lever moving on the centre *w*; the end *t* is immediately beneath the small sliders *e*, and the end *v* is formed to a hook, to catch into the notches which are made in the end of the bobbin B. A small counter weight, *x*, always causes the hook, *v*, of this lever to recede from the bobbin; but if any one of the three threads break, it suffers the slider *e*, which belongs to it, to descend upon the end, *t*, of the lever, and depresses the end of the lever, so as to bring the hook, *v*, in a situation to catch a tooth of the bobbin B, and stop its motion. By this means the winding of the three threads together is rendered equally certain with the winding of one; for when any one breaks, the operation of winding on that bobbin stops, until the attendant repairs the broken thread, and puts the machine again in motion. We have lately been informed, that a machine for winding two and three threads together is becoming common in the silk-mills, but we do not know if it is the same with this one, which however is not evidently impracticable.

The bobbins, being thus filled with double or triple threads, are carried back to the throwsting machine, and are there spun or twisted together, the manner of doing which does not differ from the operation which we have before described. In this second operation the silk is taken up by reels instead of bobbins, and is thus made up into skeins. The degree of twist varies with the purpose for which the silk is intended; and the wheels which give motion to the reels are for this purpose adapted to the degree of twist which the silk is desired to have. The silk, being now spun, requires only the preparation of boiling to discharge the gum, and render the silk fit to receive the dye, and also to render it soft and glossy. The silk is boiled for about four hours, in a boiler filled with water, into which a small quantity of soap is put; this operation dissolves the gum, which before could be felt upon the silk, and rendered it harsh. After the boiling, it is well washed in a current of clear water, and when dried, will be found to have lost about one-fourth of its weight: at the same time the volume of the silk is sensibly increased, and it has acquired that soft texture and glossiness, which are the principal beauties of silk. This change is produced by the dissolution of the gum, which, in the first instance, was the only adherence of the fibre to form a thread, but by the operation of the twisting the fibres are firmly united, and no longer require the gum. It is also necessary, in order to give a fine dye to the silk, that the gum should be removed, because it would prevent the entrance of the dyeing matter to the centre of the thread, and thus impair the beauty of the colour. If the silk was thus boiled before the twisting, nothing but a fine entangled down or wool would be obtained, and it would require spinning, by a similar process to that of cotton, before a thread could be obtained. This, indeed, is necessary for that portion of waste silk which is drawn from the cocoons in the first operation of reeling; also for those cocoons which are reserved for breeding, and from which the moths eat their way out by holes, which render it impracticable to wind off the silk. This waste silk, when carefully spun by a spinning wheel, is called spun silk, and the thread is not inferior to the regular silk which is wound off; indeed, the winding off the silk into a thread united by its gum, is of no advantage farther than as a preparation for spinning, from which process the thread obtains its strength.

The silk is now in a state for use: if it is for stocking-weaving, or sewing, or if intended for weaving into stuff, it only requires warping to be put into the loom. The operation of warping is to put together all the threads which are to compose the warp of the intended piece of stuff, and lay them

them parallel, so that the warp, being put into the loom, will have no slack threads, nor any which are strained too tight. Formerly, this operation was performed by stretching the threads out at length in a field, or by extending them in a frame, and winding them backwards and forwards over pegs. The warping machine now universally employed is shewn in fig. 6, where A A is a tressel or stool, which supports the small bobbins *b, b*, upon which the silk is wound. The number of these is equal to the number of threads which the warp of the intended piece of stuff is to have in its breadth. The threads from all these bobbins are drawn over wires *d, d*, which are in front of the bobbins, and are then all brought together, and passed through an opening in a piece of wood D; this conducts the threads all together upon a large reel E E, which is supported in a frame F F F, and turned round by means of a pulley at the lower end of its axle, from which an endless band is continued to a second wheel G, mounted on a spindle, and turned by a handle. This latter spindle is supported in a sort of stool H, upon which a child sits down, and at the same time turns the handle and puts the reel in motion, so as to draw the warp or assemblage of threads off from the several bobbins, and lay it upon the reel E. The piece of wood D is fitted upon one of the upright pieces, F, of the frame, to slide freely up and down upon it, and is suspended by a cord, which, after passing over a pulley *f*, is wrapped round the spindle of the machine at *c*: by this means, the motion of the reel, E, draws the cord, and raises up the piece D, so as to lay the warp upon the circumference of the reel, in a regular spiral, from one end to the other, and prevent the coils lapping one upon another. When the required length of warp is wound upon the reel, the ends of all the threads are cut off, tied together, and thus drawn off from the reel and rolled up into a large ball, in which state the weaver takes it, and mounts it in his loom.

For the subsequent operations of weaving, we shall refer to the article WEAVING.

Statement of the quantities of raw and thrown Silk, imported into all the ports of Great Britain; the official values assigned in each of the eleven years, 1814—1824:—

Years.	Quantities.		Quantities.	
	Thrown.	Official Val.	Raw.	Official Val.
	lbs.	£.	lbs.	£.
1814.	645,722	774,867	1,634,501	703,009
1815.	357,739	429,287	1,442,594	601,968
1816.	192,130	230,590	945,792	365,219
1817.	245,592	294,712	932,102	398,545
1818.	456,972	548,365	1,644,647	708,365
1819.	287,645	345,175	1,483,546	621,648
1820.	333,295	399,954	2,213,918	985,157
1821.	339,032	406,837	2,118,646	935,000
1822.	492,594	591,113	2,052,934	943,966
1823.	359,642	431,570	2,452,130	1,067,265
1824.	333,652	401,583	3,382,357	1,464,994

Statement of the official and declared values of Silk Manufactures, exported from Great Britain to all parts of the World (except Ireland) in each of the eleven years, 1814—1824:—

Years.	Official Values.	Declared Values.
	£.	£.
1814.	173,348	530,020
1815.	224,873	622,120
1816.	161,874	480,522
1817.	152,734	408,523
1818.	167,559	499,175
1819.	126,809	376,798
1820.	118,370	371,114
1821.	136,402	373,938
1822.	141,007	381,455
1823.	141,320	350,880
1824.	159,648	442,582

Statement of the number of square yards of Silk charged with Excise Duty in each of the eleven years, 1814—1824:—

Years.	Silk, @ 6d.
1814.	821,180
1815.	770,506
1816.	704,948
1817.	848,935
1818.	501,609
1819.	534,226
1820.	638,350
1821.	747,780
1822.	876,766
1823.	768,495
1824.	

The act of 7 Geo. IV. cap. 53., entitled, "An Act to regulate the Importation of Silk Goods until the 10th of October, 1828, and to encourage the Silk Manufactures by the Repeal of certain Duties," enacts, that from and after the 5th of July 1826, until the 10th of October 1828, the following rates of duties shall be payable, viz.:—

SILK; raw, knubs or husks.	£	s.	d.
ib.	0	0	1
Thrown	not dyed	Singles	2 0
		Tram	3 0
	dyed	Organzine & Crape	5 0
		Singles or Tram	4 0
	dyed	Organzine & Crape	6 8

Manufactures of SILK only, or whereof ninth parts are of Silk, and no part is of Gold, Silver, or other Metal £ lb. wt.

	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.	
Stuffs	Plain	0	15	0	1	10	
		1	0	0	1	16	
	Satin	Plain	0	16	0		
		Figured	1	1	0		
Gauze	Tissue or brocaded	1	0	0	2	0	
	Plain	0	17	0			
		Striped, figured, or bro.	1	7	6		
	Mixed with cotton thread or worsted	0	15	0	1	10	
Crape	Common	0	16	0			
	Lisse	0	17	4			
	China, plain or figured	0	18	0			
Velvets or Shags of Silks	Plain	1	2	0	2	4	
	Figured	1	7	6			
	Shot with cotton or thread only	0	15	0	1	10	
Ribbons	Plain	0	15	0	1	10	
		0	17	0	1	16	
	Of Gauze, Plain or Figured	1	11	6	2	10	
	Satin	Plain	0	16	0		
		Figured	0	18	0		
Velvet	Plain	1	2	0			
	Figured	1	7	6			
Fancy Silk, net or tricot	1	4	0				

There is no provision against any of the following articles being mixed with gold or silver:—

	£.	s.	d.
Stockings; the dozen pairs (or if Half Stockings, the two dozen pairs) $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. weight, not weighing more	4	0	0
than 9 oz.	9	12	0
9	12	16	0
12	16	24	0
16	24	32	0
24	32	0	12
32	0	12	0
and further $\frac{1}{2}$ lb. if with figured or laced work	0	12	0
Stocking web	$\frac{1}{2}$ lb.	0	12
Gloves	0	15	0
Plain silk lace, called net or tulle	$\frac{1}{2}$ square yard	0	1

Silks, the produce of and imported from places within the limits of the East India Company's Charter, viz.:—
Bandannoes

	£.	s.	d.
Bandannoes and all other handkerchiefs, in pieces not exceeding 6 yards in length	per piece	0	6 0
Exceed 6 yards in length, but not exceeding 7 yards	..	0	7 0
And further, for every additional length, not exceeding a yard	..	0	1 0
Taffaties and other plain or figured Silks, not otherwise described	per lb.	0	10 0
Canton or China crapes	..	0	10 0
If flowered or tamboured with Silk	..	1	4 0
All piece goods, whether otherwise enumerated or not, and however imported, if entered for Home Use before the 5th of January 1827	per cent. on Value.	30	
Millinery of Silk, or of which the greater part of the material is of Silk	each	2	10 0
Dresses	..	1	5 0
Hats or bonnets	..	0	15 0
Turbans or caps	..	0	15 0
Or, and at the option of the officers of Customs	per cent. on Value.	50	
Manufactures of Silks, or of Silk and any other material, and also articles of manufactures of Silk, or of Silk and any other material, wholly or in part made up not particularly enumerated or otherwise charged with Duty	per cent. on Value.	30	

RESTRICTIONS ON IMPORTATION.

Ports of Importation.—Wrought Silks shall not be imported into any Port other than the Port of London till after the 5th day of July 1827: except into the Port of Dublin direct from the Port of *Bordeaux*:

And except—Silks the produce of and imported from places within the limits of the *East India Company's Charter*, into any Port into which goods in general, the produce of such places may be imported:

And except—Crape, gauze, lace, net or tulle, fancy net or tricot, millinery and dresses, imported into the Port of *Dover*, or into any Port into which goods, the produce of places within the limits of the *East India Company's Charter* may be imported:

And except—Silks imported to be warehoused for exportation only, into Ports into which goods, the produce of places within the limits of the *East India Company's Charter* may be imported.

Tonnage of Vessels.—Wrought Silks shall not be imported in vessels of less burthen than 70 tons, except direct from the Port of *Calais* into the Port of *Dover*, in vessels of 60 tons or upwards:

Wrought Silks shall not be imported unless in packages, each of which shall contain at least 100lbs. weight of wrought Silk:

Or, (being crape, gauze, lace, net or tulle, fancy net or tricot, millinery or dresses), in packages, each of which shall be of the capacity of 9 cubic feet at least, and shall contain only such Silks:

Being broad Silks or ribbons (except handkerchiefs, shawls, scarfs, net or tulle, fancy net or tricot, and except Silks the produce of and imported from places within the limits of the *East India Company's Charter*), shall not be imported for Home Use, unless in pieces or half pieces, of the respective lengths hereinafter mentioned; (that is to say),

Lengths.—Broad Silks in pieces, not less than 60 yards in length, nor more than 66 yards, or, (being velvet, or Silks mixed with other materials), in half pieces not less than 29 yards in length, nor more than 32 yards in length:

Ribbons, in pieces not less than 35 yards in length, nor more than 37 yards; or in half pieces not less than 17 yards in length, nor more than 19 yards.

All such pieces and half pieces shall be separate and entire, and each of uniform quality throughout; and, if of broad Silks, shall be finished in the loom with ferrels or marks at each end wove in:—Wrought Silks in pieces wound or rolled, whether on blocks or rollers, or not, shall

not be imported for Home Use:—except—Silks, the produce of and imported from places within the limits of the *East India Company's Charter*.

The following articles, although partly composed of Silk, shall not be subject to the regulations or restrictions contained in this table (that is to say);

Artificial flowers and other similar imitations:
Umbrellas, parasols, fans, screens, and other articles not for dress or furniture:

Articles of materials, other than Silk made up with Silk, or to which Silk is only applied by needle work or embroidery:

Stuffs, of the materials of which Silk shall not amount to one-tenth part.

Sec. 3. of the above Act provides, that "nothing in this Act contained shall extend to prohibit the entering, for Home Use, of any wrought Silks which shall have been warehoused before the 15th day of March, 1826; nor to prevent any passenger coming into the United Kingdom from bringing with him or her, into any Port, any wrought Silks, in pieces which may legally be imported for Home Use, and any articles made up, whether worn or not, although not in packages of the weight or size hereinbefore required, provided such piece of such articles be *bona fide* for his or her own use, and not for sale, and the quantity in the whole be not more than *ten pounds weight*: provided also, that the duties on such articles, whether worn or not, be paid, and be in all cases ascertained according to the value thereof."

SILKEBORG, a small town of Denmark, in Jutland; 18 miles west of Aarhus.

SILKEN, *adj.* [æolcen, Sax.] Made of silk.

Now, will we revel it
With *silken* coats, and caps, and golden rings.
Shakspeare.

Soft; tender.
All the youth of England are on fire,
And *silken* dalliance in the wardrobe lies.
Shakspeare.

Dressed in silk.
Shall a beardless boy,
A cocker'd, *silken* wanton, brave our field,
And flesh his spirit in a warlike soil,
Mocking the air with colours idly spread,
And find no check?
Shakspeare.

To SILKEN, *v. a.* To make soft or smooth.
If your sheep are of Sulurian breed,
Nightly to house them dry, on fern or straw,
Silkening their fleeces.
Dyer.

SILKINESS, or SILKNESS, *s.* Softness; effimnaey; pusillanimity.

Sir, your *silkiness*
Clearly mistakes Mecænas and his house,
To think there breathes a spirit under his roof
Subject unto these poor affections
Of undermining envy and detraction,
Moods only proper to base groveling minds.
B. Jonson.

Smoothness.—The claret had no *silkiness*. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

SILKMAN, *s.* A dealer in silk.—Master Smooth's, the *silkman*. *Shakspeare.*

SILKME'RCER, *s.* A dealer in silk.—Being born without prospect of hereditary riches, he was sent to London in his youth, and placed apprentice to a *silkmercer*. *Johnson.*

SILKSTONE, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Barnesly. Population 555.

SILKSWORTH, a village of England, county of Durham; 3 miles south-west of Sunderland.

SILKWEA'VER, *s.* One whose trade is to weave *silken* manufactures.—The Chinese are ingenious *silkweavers*. *Watts.*

SILK WILLOUGHBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5 miles from Keighley.

SILKWORM, *s.* The worm that spins silk.

Broad were the banners, and of snowy hue,
A purer web the *silk-worm* never drew.

Dryden.

SILK-WORM, or **BOMBYX**. This insect, a species of the *PHALÆNA*, (the *P. Mori*.) consists of eleven rings, and each of these of a great number of other small ones, joined to each other; and the head, which terminates these rings, is furnished with two jaws, which work and cut the food, not by a perpendicular but a lateral action.

The humours found in the body of this creature all seem approaching to the nature of the silk which it spins; for on being rubbed in the hands, they leave a hard or solid crust behind them. Under the skin there is always found a mucous rosy-coloured membrane, enveloping the animal, and supposed to be the new skin in which it is to appear, on throwing off the old one. The heart of this creature reaches from the head to the tail, running the whole length of the body; it is, indeed, rather a series of many hearts connected together, than one: the motion of systole and diastole is very evident in this whole chain of hearts; and it is an elegant sight to observe the manner of the vital fluid's passing from one of them to the other. The stomach of this animal is as long as the heart, reaching, like it, from one end of the body to the other. This large receptacle for food, and the sudden passage of it through the animal, are very good reasons for its great voracity.

In the sides of the belly, all about the ventricle, there is deposited a vast number of vessels, which contain the silky juice: these run with various windings and meanders to the mouth, and are so disposed, that the creatures can discharge their contents at pleasure at the mouth; and, according to the nature of the juices that they are supplied with, furnish different sorts of silk from them, all the fluid contents of these vessels hardening in the air into that sort of thread, of which we find the web or balls of this creature consist.

These creatures never are offended at any stench, of whatever kind; but they always feel a southern wind, and an extremely hot air always makes them sick. *Malpighi de Bombyce.*

SILKY, *adj.* Made of silk.—In *silky* folds each nervous limb disguise. *Shenstone.*—Soft; tender. Dr. Johnson has noticed *silky* as *tender*, only in the sense of *pliant*, by a citation from Shakspeare's *Dear*, where the true word is "*silky* ducking observants," not *silky*.

Silky soft

Favonius breathe still softer.

Young.

SILL, *s.* [*pile*, Sax.] The timber or stone at the foot of the door.—He can scarce lift his leg over a *sill*. *Burton.*

The farmer's goose,
Grown fat with corn and sitting still,
Can scarce get o'er the barn-door *sill*:
And hardly waddles forth.

Swift.

The bottom piece in a window frame Shafts of a waggon; thills.

SILLA, a large town of Bambarra, in Central Africa, situated on the southern bank of the Niger, only two days journey above Jenno. Here Mr. Park was obliged to terminate his first journey, after having penetrated 1090 miles in a direct line east from Cape Verd. Lat. 14. 48. N. long. 1. 34. W.

SILLA POINT, a cape on the north-west coast of the island of Mindanao. Lat. 9. N. long. 123. 51. E.

SILLA DE CARACCAS, an elevated peak of that chain of the Andes which stretches across the country of the Caraccas. It is in the vicinity of the city of Caraccas, which raises itself to the height of 8420 feet, and forms an enormous and frightful precipice fronting the Carribean sea. Lat. 10. 31. 15. long. 74. 40. 55. W.

SILLABAR, or **CELLABAR**, a sea-port town on the west coast of the island of Sumatra, with a good and safe harbour; 30 miles south-south-east of Bencoolen.

SILLABUB, *s.* Curds made by milking upon vinegar.

This is Dr. Johnson's definition, in conformity to his derivation of the word; which after all is very obscure. A *sillabub* usually means a liquor made of milk and wine or cider, and sugar.

Joan takes her neat rubb'd pail, and now
She strips to milk the sand-red cow;
Where, for some sturdy foot-ball swain,
Joan strokes a *sillabub* or twain.

Wotton.

SILLAH MEW, a considerable town of the Birman empire, situated on the eastern bank of the river Irrawaddy. The houses are all built of wood, and raised several feet from the ground; but there are several handsome temples built of brick, dedicated to Godama or Boodh. It has a considerable manufacture of silk, tartans, &c. The raw material is chiefly brought from Yunan, the south-west province of China. The colours are bright and beautiful, and the texture very strong. But not the least remarkable circumstance in this manufacture is, that the weavers are all women, the men considering such employment as beneath their dignity. Lat. 20. 50. N. long. 94. 30. E.

SILLE LE GUILLAUME, a small town of the interior of France, department of the Sarthe, near the source of the Vegre. It has manufactures of linen, and in the neighbourhood, iron mines. Population 2000.

SILLEE, the capital of a small district of the same name in Bengal. Lat. 23. 22. N. long. 85. 56. E.

SILLERY, a seigniory of Lower Canada, in the country of Quebec.

SILLEYRO, a promontory of Spain, on the west coast of Galicia. Lat. 42. 7. N. long. 8. 54. W.

SILLIAN, a neat town of Austria, in Tyrol, on the Drave; 60 miles east-south-east of Inspruck.

SILLILY, *adv.* In a silly manner; simply; foolishly.

I wonder much, what thou and I

Did till we lov'd? were we not wean'd till then,

But suck'd on childish pleasures *sillily*?

Or slumber'd we in the seven sleepers' den?

Donne.

SILLINESS, *s.* Simplicity; weakness; harmless folly.—The *silliness* of the person does not derogate from the dignity of his character. *L'Estrange.*

SILLON, in Fortification, an elevation of earth, made in the middle of the moat, to fortify it, when too broad.

The *sillon* is more usually denominated an envelope.

SILLS, in Agriculture, a term signifying the shafts of a cart, waggon, &c.

SILLY, *adj.* [Dr. Johnson merely cites the German *selig*, from Skinner. Our word *scely* or *sely*, at first meaning fortunate, also was used for silly, simple, inoffensive.] Harmless; innocent; inoffensive; plain; artless.—There was a fourth man in a *silly* habit. *Shakspeare.*—Weak; helpless.

After long storms,

In dread of death and dangerous dismay,

With which my *silly* bark was tossed sore,

I do at length descry the happy shore.

Spenser.

Foolish; witless.

Perhaps their loves, or else their sheep,

Was that which did their *silly* thoughts so busy keep.

Milton.

Weak; disordered; not in health.—"You look main *silly* to day, i e. you look ill in health." *Pegge.*

SILLY, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, with 2000 inhabitants. It has some breweries and distilleries.

SILLYHOW, *s.* [Perhaps from *relij*, happy, and *heopz*, the head. *Dr. Johnson.*] The membrane that covers the head of the fœtus.—Great conceits are raised of the membranous covering called the *sillyhow*, sometimes found about the heads of children upon their birth. *Brown.*

SILONG, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quang-see. Lat. 24. 34. N. long. 105. 18. E.

SILOS,

SILOS, a settlement of South America, in New Granada, and province of Pamplona. Population 200, Indians and Spaniards.

SILOXERUS, [so named by Labillardiere, from *συλος*, the style, and *ογκησος*, swelling; on account of the tumid base of that part], in Botany, a genus of the tumid base of that part, in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-segregata, natural order of compositæ, nomenclaturæ (Linn.) Corymbiferæ (Juss.)

Siloxerus humifusus, is a small, diffuse, herbaceous plant, with a tapering, apparently annual root. Stems several, spreading, simple, leafy, an inch or two long. Leaves mostly opposite, simple, linear, obtuse, smooth, near an inch in length; several of them crowded under the heads of flowers, which are terminal, solitary, ovate or nearly globular, scarcely an inch long. Nothing is mentioned concerning the colour, scent or properties of this little inconspicuous, but singular, plant.

SILPHA, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera, of which the generic character is, antennæ clavate, the club perfoliate; shells margined; head prominent; thorax somewhat flattened and margined. This genus of insects, from its habits, is known by the trivial name of the carrion-beetle. The several species are commonly found among decayed animal or vegetable substances, frequenting also dung-hills, carrion, and other offensive matter: they lay their eggs chiefly in the dead and putrid carcasses of animals. The larvæ are of a lengthened shape, and of an unpleasant appearance, being generally roughened with minute spines and protuberances. There are about 120 species, in eight separate divisions or sections. The following are most worthy of notice:—

I. is characterised by a dilated and bifid lip, and a one-toothed jaw; in which, among others, are the following:

1. *Silpha Surinamensis*.—Black; shells with a yellow band behind; hind-thighs toothed.—It is found in South America.

2. *Silpha littoralis*.—This is a black insect; the shells are naked, with three raised lines; thorax rounded and polished.—This is an European insect, and found in our own country.

3. *Silpha livida*.—This is brown; thorax, shells and legs livid.—It is found in Germany.

4. *Silpha Indica*.—This, as its name imports, is an Indian insect; it is black; the shells are marked with two ferruginous bands; thorax one-toothed before.

5. *Silpha micans*.—Black, with a green polish; shells striate, truncate, one-toothed.—This is an inhabitant of the Cape of Good Hope. Tail rufous; shells black, with three elevated striæ, one-toothed at the suture.

6. *Silpha Americana*.—This, as its name shews, is found in divers parts of America. It is depressed and black; thorax is yellow and black in the centre. The shells are rugged and immaculate.

7. *Silpha thoracica*.—This is black; the shells are marked with a single elevated line; the thorax is testaceous.—This and the following are English insects. According to Mr. Donovan's figure and description, the shells of this species have three raised lines. It is distinguishable by its red thorax, every other part being black.

8. *Silpha rugosa*.—Blackish; the shells are ridged with three raised lines; the thorax is ridged and sinuate behind. This insect consumes dead carcasses, fish, and flesh of all kinds: when caught it emits a very fetid humour.

9. *Silpha astrata*.—This is of a size similar to the thoracica, but is totally black, and has the wing-sheaths marked by three rising lines; its larva, which may be found in gardens, is of a lengthened shape, and of a black colour.

10. *Silpha levigata*.—Black; shells smooth and sub-punctured. The shells are without raised lines.

11. *Silpha obscura*.—Black; the shells are punctured, with three raised lines; the thorax is truncate before. This species is figured by Donovan. The thorax has a bluish gloss.

12. *Silpha opaca*.—This is brown; the shells have three raised lines; the thorax is truncate before.

13. *Silpha sinuate*.—The thorax of this species is emarginate and rough; the shells have three raised lines, sinuate at the tip. This is a beautiful species; the thorax is brown, with a silvery gloss; it is rough, with raised dots.

14. *Silpha 4-punctata*.—The thorax is yellow, with a large black spot; the shells are yellow with four black spots.

15. *Silpha grisea*.—Grey; the shells are smooth; the thorax is emarginate.

II. is distinguished by an entirely rounded lip, and a one-toothed jaw.

16. *Silpha 4-maculata*.—Thorax and shells black, the latter with two rufous spots; the body is rufous; the antennæ are ferruginous, brown before the tip; shells striate.

17. *Silpha multipunctata*.—Rufous; shells substriate, with numerous rufous dots.—This is chiefly found in Sweden.

18. *Silpha picea*.—Pitchy; shells striate, black, the base and band behind are ferruginous.—This is a very small insect, and is found in Germany.

19. *Silpha metallica*.—This is of a brassy colour; the legs are ferruginous.—It is found in divers parts of Saxony.

III.—Lip horny, entire; the jaw is bifid.

20. *Silpha notata*.—Black; the shells are truncate, with two rufous spots.—It is found in some parts of Germany. The antennæ are long; the five last joints are perfoliate; the shells are a little shorter than the body; the abdomen is acute.

21. *Silpha pustulosa*.—Black, polished; edge of the thorax and spots on the shells are sanguineous.—It is found in New Holland; the shells are truncate, shorter than the abdomen.

22. *Silpha agaricina*.—This also is black and polished; the antennæ and legs are yellow.—It is found in many parts of Europe, but not in our own country. The shells are truncate, shorter than the abdomen; the body is black and immaculate; the abdomen pointed.

IV.—Lip emarginate, conic; jaw bifid.

23. *Silpha fasciata*.—Black; the shells are marked with two rufous bands, the fore-one spotted with black.—It inhabits North America, and is a rather large insect; though less than the

24. *Silpha grandis*, which is an African insect, and so named on account of its size. This is black, and the shells are marked with two rufous spots.

25. *Silpha pustulata*.—Black; the shells are marked with two ferruginous dots.—This is found in England, and in many other parts of Europe. The larva is long, hairy, and grey.

26. *Silpha pustulata*.—Black; shells striate, with three rufous spots.—This is found chiefly in the northern parts of Europe. It is reckoned a very beautiful species; the antennæ are pitchy; the thorax is ferruginous at the edge; spot at the base of the shells sinuate, the middle one is uniform; that at the tip is small and round; the body beneath is rufous.

27. *Silpha nigripennis*.—Rufous; the antennæ, shells, and breast are black.—This is found chiefly on trees.

28. *Silpha rufipes*.—This is a black insect; the head, thorax, and legs are ferruginous. The abdomen is black.

29. *Silpha ænea*.—This is of a fine scarlet colour; the shells are brassy and immaculate.

30. *Silpha rufifrons*.—Black; but the front, two spots on the shells, and legs, are ferruginous.—This is found in divers parts of England, and is reckoned a small insect.

V.—The insects of this section are characterised by a heart-shaped lip, emarginate and crenate.

31. *Silpha Germanica*.—Black; front and edge of the shells are ferruginous. Sometimes the shells are marked with a ferruginous

a ferruginous spot or two. It deposits its eggs in the carcasses of other insects, and buries them under ground. It is very like the

32. *Silpha vespillo*.—This insect, which is not uncommon in our own country; is the most remarkable of the European species. It is distinguished by having the wing-sheaths considerably shorter than the abdomen, or as if cut off at the tips; they are also marked by two waved, orange-coloured transverse bars, the rest of the insect being black; the general length of the animal is about three quarters of an inch. The vespillo seeks out some decaying animal substance in which it may deposit its eggs, and in order to their greater security, contrives to bury it under ground. Three or four of these insects, working in concert, have been known to drag under the surface, the body of a mole in the space of an hour, so that not a trace of it has appeared above ground. The eggs are white, and of an oval shape: from these are hatched the larvæ, which, when full grown, are about an inch long, of a yellowish-white colour, with a scaly orange-coloured shield, or bar, across the middle of each division of the body. Each of these larvæ forms for itself an oval cell in the ground, in which it changes to a yellowish chrysalis, resembling that of a beetle; out of which, in the space of three weeks, proceeds the perfect insect. This species is reckoned very elegant in form, but it generally diffuses a very strong and unpleasant smell; it flies with strength and rapidity, and is usually seen on the wing during the hottest part of the day.

33. *Silpha mortuorum*.—Black; shells marked with two ferruginous bands; the club of the antennæ is black; the hind-thighs are unarmed.—This is found in many parts of Germany, preying on carcasses and fungi.

VI.—Lip square and emarginate.

34. *Silpha scarabæoides*.—Oval, black; the shells are marked with two ferruginous spots.

35. *Silpha lunata*.—Oval, black; shells with a lunate yellow spot at the tip. It is about the size of the last, and is found in Germany.

36. *Silpha colon*.—Yellow; the spots on the thorax, and marginal spot on the shells, black.—It is found in Sweden. The head is black; the antennæ are yellow; the club is black; the thorax is downy, with six spots disposed in a streak; the abdomen is black, edged with yellow.

37. *Silpha atomaria*.—This insect is smooth and black; the shells have crenate striæ; the legs are pale.

38. *Silpha melanocephala*.—This is black and smooth; the shells are grey, with a common black spot at the base.

39. *Silpha unipuncta*.—This is black; shells yellowish, with a common black spot. The shells are sometimes immaculate.

40. *Silpha fimetaria*.—Black, immaculate; the shells are very smooth.—It is found chiefly in dung.

41. *Silpha minuta*.—This is black and small; the shells are striate; legs of the same colour.—It is found in many parts of England.

42. *Silpha pulicaria*.—This is oblong and black; the shells are abbreviated; the abdomen pointed.—This is found chiefly among flowers.

VII.—The insects of this section have a long and entire lip; the antennæ are serrate.

43. *Silpha saxicornis*.—Smooth, polished, and of a chestnut colour; the antennæ are black.

44. *Silpha depressa*.—Smooth, ferruginous; the shells are sub-striate, and the body is depressed.—It is found under the bark of oak-trees.

VIII.—Lip and jaw unknown.

Of this section there are no English species; it will be sufficient to mention the following:—

45. *Silpha insignita*.—Black; shells obsoletely striate, with two large scarlet spots.—Common at Berlin; as is the next.

46. *Silpha nigricans*.—Blackish; the shells are smooth, with four yellow spots.

47. *Silpha histeroides*.—Black; the antennæ and legs are red; the shells are abbreviated with a red spot.—It inhabits Upsal, and is the size of a louse.

SILPHIUM [of Pliny. *Σιλπιον* of Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia, necessaria, natural order of compositæ, oppositifoliæ, corymbifera (Juss.)—Generic Character. Calyx, common ovate, imbricate, squarrose: scales ovate-oblong, bent back in the middle, prominent every way, permanent. Corolla, compound radiate. Corollets hermaphrodite in the disk many: females in the ray fewer. Proper of the hermaphrodites one-petalled, funnel-form, five-toothed; the tube scarcely narrower than the border:—of the females lanceolate, very long, often three-toothed. Stamina in the hermaphrodites: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil in the hermaphrodites: germ round, very slender. Style filiform, very long, villose. Stigma simple:—in the females, germ obovate. Style simple, short. Stigmas two, bristle-shaped, length of the style. Pericarp. none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds in the hermaphrodites none: in the females solitary, sub-membranaceous, obovate, with the edge membranaceous, two-horned, emarginate. Receptacle chaffy: chaffs linear.—*Essential Character*. Calyx squarrose. Seed-down margined-two-horned. Receptacle chaffy.

1. *Silphium laciniatum*, or jagged-leaved silphium.—Leaves alternate, pinnate-sinuate. Root perennial. Stem twice the height of a man, as thick as the thumb, quite simple, smooth below, above rugged with brown tubercles and white spreading hairs, round. Leaves petioled, two feet in length and a foot in breadth, embracing at the base, pinnatifid; margin of the upper leaves purplish. Calyx of ten scales, ending in large awl-shaped spines. Petals of the ray thirty, length of the calyx, with a bifid slender style. Florets of the disk yellow, many, separated by chaffs, attenuated at the base, with a simple style. Seeds in the ray membranaceous, oval, emarginate, with two small awns:—in the disk columnar, four-cornered, abortive.—Native of North America.

2. *Silphium terebinthinum*, or broad-leaved silphium.—Leaves alternate, ovate, serrate, rugged; root-leaves cordate. The terminal flower on the stem flowers first, and when this begins to seed the lateral peduncles of the panicle begin to extend and proceed to flower.—Native of North America.

3. *Silphium perfoliatum*, or square-stalked silphium.—Leaves opposite deltoid, petioled, perfoliate; stem four-cornered, even, taller than a man. Root perennial.—Native of North America.

4. *Silphium connatum*, or round-stalked silphium.—Leaves opposite, sessile, perfoliate. Root perennial. Stem the height of a man, as thick as the thumb, erect.—Native of North America.

5. *Silphium Asteriscus*, or hairy-stalked silphium.—Leaves undivided, sessile, opposite; lower alternate. Root perennial. Stem four or five feet high, thick, solid, set with prickly hairs, and having many purple spots.—Native of North America.

6. *Silphium trifoliatum*, or three-leaved silphium.—Leaves in threes. Root perennial and woody. Stems annual, rising five feet high or more in good land, of a purplish colour, and branching towards the top. Flowers upon pretty long peduncles, solitary. Calyx of three rows of imbricate leaves, the outer row smallest.—Native of many parts of North America.

7. *Silphium trilobatum*, or three-lobed silphium.—Leaves opposite, sessile, wedge form. This is a weakly plant, creeping far among other vegetables, but more luxuriant and upright towards the top.—Native of the West Indies. Frequent in Jamaica, in low marshy lands.

8. *Silphium arborescens*, or tree silphium.—Leaves lanceolate, alternate, rugged, slightly serrate; stem shrubby.—Native of Vera Cruz, in New Spain.

Propagation and Culture.—All these plants except the last, may

may be increased by parting the roots, in the same manner as is practised for the perennial sun flower. To increase which, slip off the young shoots in July, plant them in a pot filled with light loam, plunge it in a gentle hot-bed, covering the pot closely with a bell or hand-glass, and shade it from the sun. When the slips are rooted, plant each in a separate pot; place them, during the warm months, in the open air, in a warm situation; but in winter keep them in a moderate stove.

SILPHOE, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-west of Scarborough.

SILSDEN ON THE MOOR, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-by-west of Keighley. Population 1608.

SILSOE, or **SILVISHOE**, a village, and formerly a market town of England, in Bedfordshire, with annual fairs in May and September; 10½ miles south-by-east of Bedford, and 14½ north-north-west of London. Population 480.

SILT, *s.* Mud; slime.—In long process of time, the *silt* and sands shall so choak and shallow the sea in and about it. *Sir T. Brown.*

SILTON, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 8 miles north-west of Shaftesbury.

SILTON, NETHER and OVER, adjoining villages of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-by-east of Thirsk.

SILVAN, *adj.* Woody; full of woods.

Betwixt two rows of rocks, a *silvan* scene
Appears above, and groves for ever green.

Dryden.

SILVER, *s.* [*silubr*, Goth.; *jeolpep*, Sax.; *silber*, Germ.; *silver*, Dutch.] *Silver* is a white and hard metal, next in weight to gold. *Watts*.—Any thing of soft splendour. See **MINERALOGY**.

Pallas, piteous of her plaintive cries,
In slumber clos'd her *silver* streaming eyes.

Pope.

Money made of silver.

SILVER, *adj.* Made of silver.—The *silver*-shafted goddess of the place. *Pope*.—White like silver.

Old Salisbury, shame to thy *silver* hair,
Thou mad misleader of thy brain-sick son.

Shakspeare.

Having a pale lustre.

So sweet a kiss the golden sun gives not
To those fresh morning drops upon the rose,
As thy eye beams, when their fresh rays have smote
The night of dew that on my cheeks down flows;
Nor shines the *silver* moon one half so bright,
Through the transparent bosom of the deep,
As doth thy face through tears of mine give light.

Shakspeare.

Soft of voice; soft in sound. This phrase is Italian, *voce argentina*.

It is my love that calls upon my name,
How *silver* sweet sound lovers' tongues by night,
Like softest music to attending ears.

Shakspeare.

Soft; gentle; quiet.

The whyles his lord in *silver* slumber lay,
Like as the evening star adorn'd with dewy ray.

Spenser.

To **SILVER**, *v. a.* To cover superficially with silver.

There be fools alive, I wis,
Silver'd o'er, and so was this.

Shakspeare.

To adorn with mild lustre.

Here retired the sinking billows sleep,
And smiling calmness *silver'd* o'er the deep.

Pope.

SILVER BLUFF, a headland on the coast of South Carolina, at the mouth of the river Savannah, about 30 feet higher than the low lands of the opposite shore. It extends about two miles on the river, and is about one mile wide. It is of a fertile soil, and exhibits vestiges of antiquity.

SILVER BUSH, in Botany, a species of **ANTHYLLIS**; which see.

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SILVER CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the river Kentucky. Lat. 37. 41. N. long. 84. 40. W.

SILVER FIR, the name of a tree of the pine kind. See **PINUS**.

SILVER GRAIN, in Vegetable Physiology, is described by Mr. Knight, Phil. Trans. for 1801, 344, as consisting of numerous thin plates, "diverging in every direction from the medulla to the bark, having little adhesion to each other at any time, and less during spring and summer, than in autumn and winter; whence the greater brittleness of wood in the former seasons." The same writer remarks, that these plates are visible in every wood which he had examined, except some of the Palm tribe; but are of a different width in different kinds, lying between, and pressing upon, the sap-vessels of the albumum. It may be observed, that in the oak, "every tube is touched by them at short distances, and slightly diverted from its course. If these," continues Mr. Knight, "are expansible under changes of temperature, or from any cause arising from the powers of vegetable life, I conceive that they are as well placed as is possible, to propel the sap to the extremities of the branches; and their restless temper, after the tree has ceased to live, inclines me to believe, that they are not made to be idle whilst it continues alive." In support of this opinion, we would remark, that the plates in question are found where the spiral coats of the sap-vessels either no longer exist, or have lost their elasticity.

SILVER LAKE, a post village of the United States, in Luzerne county, Pennsylvania.

SILVER RIVER, a river of Ireland, in King's county, which runs into the Brosna; about 8 miles north-east of Banagher.

SILVER TREE, in Botany. See **PROTEA**.

SILVER WEED, a species of **POTENTILLA**; which see.

SILVERBEATER, *s.* One that foliates silver.—*Silver-beaters* chuse the finest coin, as that which is most extensive under the hammer. *Boyle.*

SILVERDALE, a village of England, in Lancashire; 10½ miles north-by-west of Lancaster.

SILVERHILL, the name of a strong military post in England, in the county of Sussex; 6 miles from Battle. It commands an extensive view of the surrounding country.

SILVERING, the covering of any work with a thin coating of silver.

The only metals to which silvering is applied are copper and brass, and very rarely iron; and there are three modes of performing this operation, viz., by amalgamation, by muriated silver, and by silver in substance. The first mode is performed by adding plates of copper to a solution of nitrated silver, which will precipitate the silver in its metallic state, and very finely divided; scrape this from the copper, and let it be well washed and dried. With half an ounce of this powder, of common salt and sal ammoniac two ounces, and one drachm of corrosive sublimate, well rubbed together, make a paste by the addition of a little water, then clean the vessel to be silvered with a small quantity of diluted aquafortis, or by scouring it with a mixture of common salt and tartar. Rub it, when perfectly clean, with the paste already mentioned, until it is entirely covered with a white metallic coating; which coating is an amalgam produced by the decomposition of the corrosive sublimate by means of the copper, to the surface of which it applies very closely and expeditiously. The copper thus silvered over is then to be washed, dried, and heated nearly red, for the purpose of driving off the mercury: the silver remains behind and adheres firmly to the copper, in a state capable of receiving a high polish. The second method of silvering is that by luna cornea. For this purpose, prepare the luna cornea in the usual manner, by pouring a solution of common salt into nitrate of silver, as long as any precipitation occurs, and boiling the mixture; then mix the white curdy matter thus obtained with three parts of good pearl-ash, one part of washed

whiting, and a little more than one part of common salt. After the surface of the brass, cleared from scratches, has been rubbed with a piece of old hat and rotten stone, in order to remove any grease, and then moistened with salt and water, a little of the composition, being now rubbed on with the finger, will presently cover the surface of the metal with silver. Then wash it well, rub it dry with soft rag, and then, as the coat of silver is very thin, cover it with transparent varnish to preserve it from tarnish. As this kind of silvering is very imperfect, it is only used for the faces of clocks, the scales of barometers, or similar objects. The third mode of performing this operation is by means of silver in substance: and of doing this there are three different methods. The first is by mixing together 20 grains of silver precipitated by copper, two drachms of tartar, two drachms of common salt, and half a drachm of alum. Now rubbing this composition on a perfectly clean surface of copper or brass will cover it with a thin coating of silver, which may be polished with a piece of soft leather. Another and better method, called French plating, consists in burnishing down upon the surface of the copper successive layers of leaf-silver to any required thickness. Although the silver in this operation is more solid than in any of the former modes, the process is tedious, nor can the junctures of the leaves of silver be always entirely concealed.

Brass may be silvered, by boiling it with filings of good pewter and white tartar, in equal quantities.

Silvering in the cold is performed by the following compositions: 3lbs. of cream of tartar; 3lbs. of common salt; and 1 oz. of muriate of silver, which is the precipitate formed by adding common salt to nitrate of silver, till no more is precipitated. This composition is made into a pulp. The surface of the copper or brass to be silvered must first be cleaned with diluted acid, and then made dry, and kept free from grease. The surface, being now rubbed with the above paste, will assume a white colour, by the silver adhering to it. This process is generally employed for silvering clock-faces, and the scales of instruments. The surface should always be varnished to prevent its tarnishing, as the silver is too thin to bear cleaning.

SILVERING of Mirrors, is the application of a coating of quicksilver to their posterior surface. A perfectly flat slab of free-stone (or sometimes of thick wood), a little larger than the largest plate, is inclosed in a square wooden frame or box, open at the top, and with a ledge rising a few inches on three sides, and cut down even with the stone on the fourth. A small channel or gutter is cut at the bottom of the wooden frame, serving to convey the waste mercury down into a vessel below, set to catch it. The slab is also fixed on a centre pivot, so that one end may be raised by wedges (and of course the other depressed) at pleasure, when working freely in the box.

The slab being first laid quite horizontal, and covered with grey paper stretched tight over it, a sheet of tin-foil, a little bigger than the plate to be silvered is spread over it, and every crease smoothed down carefully; a little mercury is then laid upon it, and spread over with a tight roll of cloth, immediately after which as much mercury is poured over it as will lie on the flat surface without spilling. That part of the slab which is opposite the cut-down side of the wooden frame is then covered with parchment, and the glass plate is lifted up with care and slid in (holding it quite horizontally) over the parchment, and lodged on the surface of the slab. The particular care required here is, that the under surface of the glass should from the first just dip into the surface of the mercury (skimming it off as it were), but without touching the tin-leaf in its passage, which it might tear. By this means no bubbles of air can get between the glass and the metal, and also any little dust or oxyd floating on the mercury is swept off before the plate without interfering. The plate being then let go, sinks on the tin-foil, squeezing out the superfluous mercury, which passes into the channel of the wooden frame above-mentioned. The plate is then covered with a thick flannel, and is loaded over the whole surface with lead or iron,

weights, and at the same time is tilted up a little, by which still more of the mercury is squeezed out. It remains in this situation for a day, the slope of the stone slab being gradually increased to favour the dripping of the mercury. The plate is then very cautiously removed, touching it only by the edges and upper side, and the under side is found uniformly covered with a soft pasty amalgam, consisting of the tin-leaf thoroughly soaked with the quicksilver, and about the thickness of parchment. It is then set up in a wooden frame, and allowed to remain there for several days, the slope of its position being gradually increased, till the amalgam is sufficiently hardened to adhere so firmly as not to be removed by slight scratches, after which the plate is finished and fit for framing.

SILVERLING, s. A silver coin.—A thousand vines, at a thousand *silverlings*, shall be for briars and thorns. *Isaiah.*

SILVERLY, adv. With the appearance of silver.

Let me wipe off this honourable dew
That *silverly* doth progress on thy checks. *Shakspeare.*

SILVERMINES, a village of Ireland, now ruinous and deserted, though bearing evident marks of having formerly been populous. In the stupendous mountains overhanging this village, rich veins of lead ore have been discovered, and for some considerable time profitably wrought; 77 miles west-south-west of Dublin.

SILVERSMITH, s. One that works in silver.—Demetrius, a *silversmith*, made shrines for Diana. *Acts.*

SILVERSTONE, a village of England, in Northamptonshire; 3 miles from Towcester. Population 696.

SILVERTHISTLE, s. [*acanthium vulgare*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

SILVERTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5½ miles south-west of Columpton.

SILVERY, adj. Besprinkled with silver.

Of all the enamell'd race whose *silvery* wing
Waves to the tepid zephyrs of the spring,
Once brightest shin'd this child of heat and air. *Pope.*

SILVES, a small town of the south of Portugal, in Algarva, on the river Silves, which is navigable as far as this town. It has only 2000 inhabitants, but its circuit is capable of containing, as it formerly did, a much greater number. It was also a bishop's see for 400 years, but this dignity was transferred to Faro in 1580. The environs are very pleasant; 24 miles east-north-east of Lagos, and 45 west-north-west of Tavira.

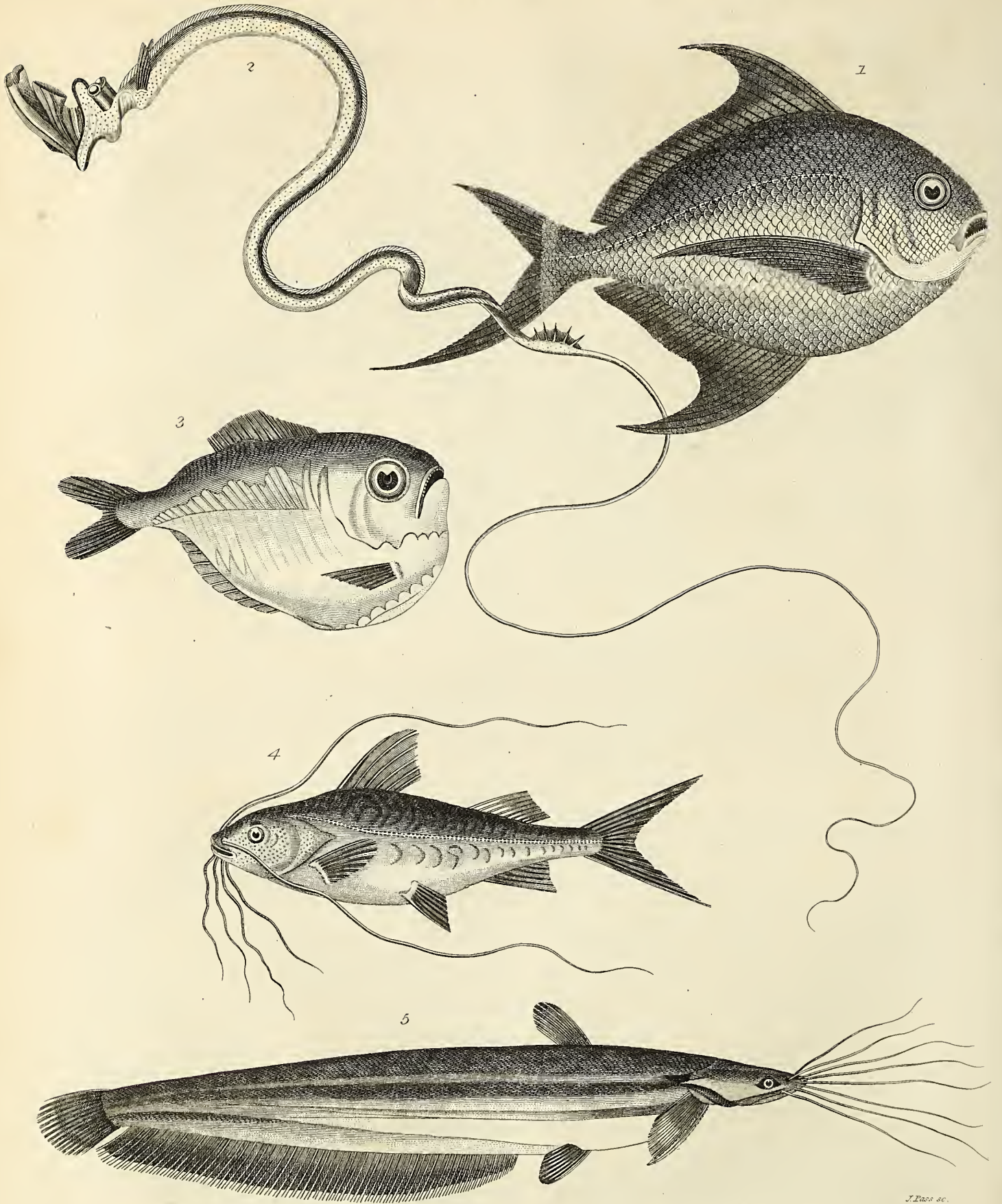
SILVESTRE GRANUM, or **COCCUS SILVESTRIS,** a term used by some authors to express the *coccus Polonicus*; and by others, for a coarse or bad kind of cochineal.

SILVINGTON, a parish of England, in Salop; 8½ miles north-east of Ludlow.

SILURES, or according to the orthography of Ptolemy, *Sylures*, a people of the isle of Albion, who possessed, besides the two English counties of Hereford and Monmouth, Radnorshire, Brecknockshire, and Glamorganshire, in South Wales. The northern part of Herefordshire has been supposed by some to belong to the Ordovices. The name of this ancient British nation is derived, by some of our antiquaries, from *coil*, a wood, and *ures*, men, because they inhabited a woody country; and by others, from the British words *es heuil ilir*, which signify brave or fierce men. Tacitus has conjectured, with little probability, and no sufficient evidence, that the Silures had come originally from Spain, grounding the conjecture on a supposed, or perhaps fancied resemblance between them and the ancient Spaniards, in their persons and complexions.

SILURUS, [from the words *σειω*, to move or shake, and *ογα*, a tail; this fish, being almost continually moving its tail in the water,] in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order abdominales, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—The head is naked, large, broad, and compressed; the mouth is furnished with cirri, resembling the feelers of insects;

SILURUS, STERNOPTYX, STROMATEUS, AND STYLEPHORUS.



J. Ross sc.

1 *Str. cinerius*. 2 *Sty. chordatus*. 3 *Stern. diaphana*. 4 *Sil. larias*. 5 *Sil. fossilis*.

insects; the gape is very large, extending almost the whole length of the head; the lips are thick, jaws furnished with teeth; the tongue thick, smooth, and very short; the eyes are small; the gill-membrane is characterized with from four to seventeen rays; body elongated, compressed, with scales, mucous; lateral line near the back; the first ray of the dorsal or pectoral fins serrate, with reversed spines. There are twenty-eight species, divided into sections, according to the number of their cirri, as follows:—

I.—Two Cirri.

1. *Silurus militaris*.—The specific character of this is, that its second dorsal fin is fleshy; cirri bony, toothed.—It inhabits many rivers in Asia; feeds on smaller fishes, and grows to a large size. It is from twelve to eighteen inches long; the head and fore-parts are broad and depressed; the mouth is very wide; the teeth are small and numerous; the eyes are large; on each side the head, near the nostrils, a very strong subcrest, spine, or bony process; first ray of the dorsal fin excessively large, strong, and sharply serrated, both on the middle part and towards the tip; the tail slightly bilobate, with rounded lobes. It is a native of the Indian rivers.

2. *Silurus inermis*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy; fins unarmed. It inhabits the rivers of Surinam. This is denominated by some naturalists the subolivaceous silurus. It is transversely banded with brown spots, with unarmed fins, and flexuous lateral lines. It is about twelve inches in length; the head is bony, but smooth, and it is destitute of spiny processes.—It is a native of the Indian and South American rivers.

II.—Four Cirri.

3. *Silurus asotus*.—The back of this fish has only one fin: it inhabits Asia: there are two cirri above the mouth, and two beneath; the teeth are numerous; the dorsal fin is without spinous rays; the first ray of the pectoral is serrate: the anal fin is long, and connected with the caudal.

4. *Silurus Chilensis*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy; the tail is lanceolate:—it inhabits the fresh waters of Chili: it is about ten inches long; the body is brown; beneath it is white. The flesh is said to be excellent.

5. *Silurus bagre*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy; first ray of the dorsal and pectoral fins setaceous.—It inhabits South America.

6. *Silurus callichthys*.—Second dorsal fin one-rayed; a double row of scales on the sides.—It inhabits the small running streams of Europe, and when these are dried up, it crawls across meadows in search of water: it is said to perforate the sides of reservoirs, for the purpose of making its escape.

III.—Six Cirri.

7. *Silurus glanis*, or European *Silurus*.—This is also called the great or common silurus, and may be considered as the largest of all European river-fish, growing, in some cases, to the length of eight, ten, twelve, or even fifteen feet, and to the weight of 300 pounds. Its more general length, however, is from two to four feet. The head is broad and depressed; the body thick, and of a lengthened form, with the abdomen very thick and short. It is of a sluggish disposition, being rarely observed in motion, and commonly lying half imbedded in the soft bottom of the rivers which it frequents, under the protecting roots of trees, rocks, logs, or other substances. In this situation it remains, with its wide mouth half open, gently moving about the long cirri situated on each side the jaws, which the smaller fishes mistaking for worms, and attempting to seize, become a ready prey to the silurus. The colour of this species is dark olive, varied with irregular spots of black; the abdomen and lips are of a pale flesh-colour, and the fins are tinged with violet.—It is an inhabitant of the larger rivers Europe, as well as some parts of Asia and Africa, but it

appears to be most plentiful in the north of Europe. It is not much esteemed as food, the flesh being of a glutinous nature; but from its cheapness, it is in much request among the inferior ranks of society, and is eaten either fresh or salted. The skin, which is smooth, and destitute of apparent scales, is dried and stretched, and after rubbing with oil, becomes of a horny transparency and strength, and is used in some of the northern regions instead of glass for windows. The silurus is not a very prolific fish, depositing a small quantity of spawn, consisting of large globules or ova; these, as well as the newly hatched young, are frequently the prey of other fishes, frogs, &c., and thus the great increase of the species is prevented. The ova are said to be hatched in about a week after their exclusion.

8. *Silurus electricus*.—The dorsal fin is single and fleshy. The head is depressed; the eyes are moderate, covered with the common skin; the teeth are crowded, small, and sharp in each jaw; the nostrils are very minute; each side approximate; upper lip bearded with two cirri, the lower with four, of which the exterior ones are longer.—It inhabits the rivers of Africa. It is about twenty inches long; the body is long and broad on the fore part, depressed, pale ash-colour, with a few blackish spots towards the tail; when touched, it communicates a trifling shock, attended with a sort of trembling and pain in the limbs, but less violent than that given by the torpedo.

9. *Silurus torpedo*, otherwise named *GYMNOTUS ELECTRICUS*, which see.

10. *Silurus felis*.—The second dorsal fin of the fish of this species is fleshy; it has 23 anal rays; the tail is bifid.—It is found in Carolina; the body above is blueish.

11. *Silurus galeatus*.—The second dorsal fin of this fish is fleshy; it has 24 anal rays, and the tail is entire.—It inhabits South America. The head is covered with a hard coriaceous shield; the spinous rays of the pectoral and dorsal fins are rigid.

12. *Silurus carinatus*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy; the lateral line is spinous; the cirri under the lower lip are connected.—It inhabits Surinam; the body is compressed.

13. *Silurus niloticus*.—The second dorsal fin of this is fleshy; the anal rays are ten in number.—It is found in the Nile; is fourteen inches and a half long; the body is of a brownish-grey; the sides of the head are blueish; the end of the nose, under part of the head, pectoral fins and cirri, are tinged with red: there is a semicircle of reddish at the commencement of the tail.

14. *Silurus clarius*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy; anal rays eleven.—It inhabits the rivers of South America and Africa; is from twelve to fifteen inches long; the body is of a blackish-ash, beneath it is hoary; it is said to inflict venomous wounds with the serrated pectoral fin.

15. *Silurus fasciatus*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy; the anal rays are thirteen.—It inhabits Surinam and the Brazils: the body is black, with white bands on each side, beneath it is white; the flesh is in high esteem; the head is depressed, rounded on the fore part; a third part as long as the whole body; the fins are all spotted with black.

16. *Silurus ascita*.—The second dorsal fin fleshy; it has eighteen anal rays.—It inhabits India, and appears to be of a mixed kind between oviparous and viviparous.

17. *Silurus costatus*.—Second dorsal fin is fleshy; a single row of scales on the sides; the tail is bifid.—It inhabits South America and India.

18. *Silurus cataphractus*.—Second dorsal fin of one ray; a single row of scales on the sides; the tail is entire.—It inhabits South America.

IV.—Eight Cirri.

19. *Silurus aspredo*.—Dorsal fin single, five-rayed.—It is found in the rivers of America. The base of the lateral cirri broad; the back carinate; the anal fin reaching to the tail; the tail is forked.

20. *Silurus mystus*.—The dorsal fin is single, and single-rayed.—It inhabits the Nile; the tail is forked.

21. *Silurus anguillaris*.—Dorsal fin single, seventy-rayed.

—It is found in the Nile; the upper part of the head is greenish; the body above the lateral line is marbled with blackish and grey; the belly and lower jaw are of a reddish-grey; the pectoral fins are transversely divided by a broad red band.

22. *Silurus batrachus*.—Dorsal fin is single, and sixty-rayed.—It inhabits Asia and Africa: the tail entire.

23. *Silurus undecimalis*.—The dorsal fin is single, and eleven-rayed.—It inhabits Surinam: the tail is forked.

24. *Silurus catus*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy, anal twenty-rayed.—It inhabits Asia and America.

25. *Silurus cous*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy, and eight-rayed; tail forked.—It inhabits Syria: the cirri are shorter than the head.

26. *Silurus docmac*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy, anal ten-rayed. The length of the fish of this species is about three feet. It is of a grey colour, whitish beneath: the head is depressed; body convex above; mouth furnished with eight beards, the exterior ones of the upper lip extending half the length of the body; the lateral line is straight, and situated nearer the back than the abdomen; the first ray of the dorsal and anal fins long and serrated, with a soft tip.—It is a native of the lower Nile, towards the Delta.

27. *Silurus bajad*.—Second dorsal fin fleshy, anal twelve-rayed. It is about a foot in length; the colour is glaucous; the head obtuse, depressed, and marked on each side, before the eyes, by an unequal pit or depression; the upper jaw is longer than the lower; exterior beards of the upper lip very long: lateral line at first descending, then straight; above the pectoral fins on each side is a very strong spine, serrated in a reversed direction; the fins are rufous; the second dorsal or adipose fin is long; the tail is long, dilated towards the tip, and forked.—It is a native of the Nile.

V.—Without Cirri.

28. *Silurus comutus*.—First ray of the first dorsal fin serrate; pectoral unarmed. It is not more than eight or nine inches long; the shape is oval; body carinated beneath; the snout is straight, compressed, a little recurved at the tip, and about half the length of the body; the first ray of the first dorsal fin extending as far as the middle of the tail, and serrated beneath for about half its length.—It is a native of the Mediterranean.

29. *Silurus imberbis*.—The gill-covers with two spines on the hind part.—It inhabits Japan, and is about six inches long; the body is funnel-shaped, and coated with scales.—It is a native of the Indian and South American rivers.

SILURUS is also a name given by some authors to the sturgeon, called by others *accipenser*.

SILYBUM, in Botany, a name borrowed from Dioscorides, whose *σικυβον* is described as a large kind of thistle, eatable when young, if dressed with oil and salt. Gärtner, has applied the name to a genus of his own, under which he brings together *Carduus marianus* and *Cnicus cernuus* of Linnæus.

SIMA, or *CYMA*, in Architecture, a term used by Wolfius, and some other writers, for what we otherwise call *cymatium*, or *simatium*.

SIMABA, in Botany, the name of a shrub in Guiana, described by Aublet, 400. t. 153; for which, being barbarous, Schreber has substituted *ZWINGERA*; see that article.

SIMAGRE, *s.* [*simagrée*, Fr. “a wry mouth, or filthy face, the countenance of a jester or clown in a play, made to provoke laughter; also an hypocritical look.” *Cotgrave*.] Grimace: used by Dryden but not adopted.

The Cyclops—felt the force of love,—

Assum'd the softness of a lover's air;

Now with a crooked sithe his beard he sleeks,

And mows the stubborn stubble of his cheeks;

Now in the chrysal stream he looks, to try

His *simagres*, and rolls his glaring eye.

Dryden.

SIMANA, a small river of South America, in New Granada, and province of Santa Martha, which enters the Rio Magdalena.

SIMANCAS, a small town in the north of Spain, in the province of Valladolid, situated on an eminence where the river Pisuerga falls into the Douro. It has a castle, in which, on account of its strength, the ancient archives of Castile are kept. It is a place of antiquity. The Moors received a signal defeat here in 931, and took the town in 967. Population 1000; 15 miles south-west of Valladolid.

SIMANCHI, a river of Quito, in the province of Jaen de Bracamoros, which unites itself with the Palanda to enter the Amazons.

SIMAND, a village in the east of Hungary, in the palatinate of Arad. This village was formerly inhabited solely by blind and lame persons, who went about the country as singers, had a language of their own, and were free of all taxes. This singular community was tolerated so late as the middle of the 16th century; 18 miles south-south-east of Gyula.

SIMAR, *s.* A robe.

The ladies dress'd in rich *simars* were seen,
Of Florence satin, flower'd with white and green. *Dryden.*

SIMARA, a small river of Guiana, which runs east, and enters one of the arms by which the Orinoco runs into the sea.

SIMARA, one of the smaller Philippine islands; 24 miles east of Mindanao. Lat. 12. 51. N. long. 121. 40. E.

SIMARONA, a name given by the Spaniards in America to a species of vanilla. See *VANILLA*.

SIMAROUBA, or *SIMARUBA*, in Botany, is the bark of the roots of a tree, first imported into Europe in the year 1713, but since botanically ascertained to be a species of the *QUASSIA*; which see.

SIMARUM MUSCULUS, a name given by some of the old writers to a muscle, called by the moderns the *serratus magnus*.

SIMATIUM, or *SIMAISE*, in Architecture.

Simatium and *cymatium* are generally confounded together, yet they ought to be distinguished; the latter being the genus, and the former the species.

Simatium, or *sima*, camous, according to Felibien, is the last and uppermost member of grand corniches, called particularly the great *doucine*, or *gula recta*; and by the Greeks, *epititheta*.

In the antique buildings, the *simatium*, at the top of the Doric cornice, is generally in form of a cavetto, or semi-scotia; as we see particularly in the theatre of Marcellus. This some modern architects have imitated; but, in the Ionic order, the *simatium* is always a *doucine*.

The *simatium*, or *doucine*, then, is distinguished from the other kinds of *cymatia*, by its being camous or flat-nosed.

SIMATLAN, a river of Mexico, in the province of Teocoatepec, which enters the Pacific Ocean, between the river Capalita and the port of Salinas.

SIMBALATH, a name given by Avicenna and others to the spikenard, or *nardus Indica*.

SIMBANI, a track of desert and wooded wilderness in Western Africa, extending north-east from the Gambia, and separating the kingdom of Woolly from that of Bondou. On the north it has the kingdom of Foota Torra, and on the south-west that of Tenda. The natives, in journeying through this desert, are accustomed to hang up scraps of cloth, as saphies, to secure a prosperous journey.

SIMBING, a village of Ludamar, in Central Africa, on the frontier of Kaarta. From this place Major Houghton wrote his last letter, falling a victim soon after to the treachery and ferocity of the Moors.

SIMBIRSK, a government or province of European Russia, on the borders of Asia. It lies along both sides of the Wolga, being between 52. and 57. of north lat., having the government of Kasan on the north, and that of Saratov on the south. Its superficial extent is calculated at 30,000 square miles; its population at 850,000. The latter are of various origin, consisting of Russians, Tartars of six or seven distinct

distinct tribes, Persians, Arminians, and descendants of German colonists. The majority profess the religion of the Greek church, but a number are Mahometans and Arminians. The surface of the country is generally flat; the only hills are ramifications of the Oural mountains towards the east of the province, but these are not of great height. Large tracks consist of unproductive steppes, but between these there are also districts of great fertility; and the climate being in general good, it is very seldom necessary to import corn. Flax, hemp, and various kinds of fruit, thrive here very well; and iron, salt, and sulphur mines, are found in the hilly districts. The principal rivers are the Wolga and the Sura. The lakes are very numerous, being said to amount, great and small, to the number of 566. The province contains a few manufactures, chiefly of leather and linen; but the general employment, particularly of the Tartar tribes, is grazing. The exports are very various; hemp, leather, cattle, distilled spirits, and in good years, some corn. The province is divided into ten circles.

SIMBIRSK, the capital of the above government, is situated at the confluence of the Sviaga and the Wolga; 410 miles east-south-east of Moscow, and 730 south-east of St. Petersburg. It is a town of considerable size, having between 11,000 and 12,000 inhabitants, and contains 10 churches or chapels, and several other public buildings. It stands partly on a plain, partly on a hill, the height of which, with the number of large buildings and spires in the town, the gardens that surround it, and the size of the Wolga, here nearly two miles wide, give it an imposing appearance. Its position is favourable to trade. The chief articles of export are corn and fish. Wood is unluckily scarce in the neighbourhood, and is brought by the Wolga from a considerable distance.

SIMCOE, a lake of Upper Canada, communicating with Lake Huron.

SIMELIUM, a Latin term, used by some to signify a tale, with ranges of little cavities in it, for the disposing of medals in chronological order.

The word is but ill written; it should rather be *cimelium*, as being formed of the Greek *κειμηλιον*, curiosities, or a cabinet of precious things.

SIMEON, named **STYLITES**, a distinguished person in the annals of fanaticism, was born about the year 392 at Sison, a town on the borders between Syria and Cilicia. He was the son of a shepherd, and followed the same occupation to the age of thirteen, when he entered into a monastery. After some time he left it, in order to devote himself to a life of greater solitude and austerity, and he took up his abode on the tops of mountains, or in caverns of rocks, fasting sometimes, it is said, for weeks together, till he had worked himself up to a due degree of extravagance. He then, to avoid the concourse of devotees, but probably to excite still greater admiration, adopted the strange fancy of fixing his habitation on the tops of pillars, whence the Greek appellation; and with the notion of climbing higher and higher towards heaven, he successively migrated from a pillar of 6 cubits to one of 12, 20, 36, and 40. This feat was considered as a proof of extraordinary piety, and multitudes flocked from all parts to pay their veneration to the holy man. Simeon passed 47 years upon his pillars, exposed to all the inclemency of the seasons. At length an ulcer put an end to his life, at the age of 69. His body was taken down from his last pillar by the hands of bishops, and conveyed to Antioch, with an escort of 6000 soldiers; and he was interred with a pomp equal to any thing that had been displayed for the most potent monarchs. These honours produced imitators, whose performances surpassed the original. One of them inhabited his pillar 68 years. The madness remained in vogue till the twelfth century, when it was suppressed.

SIMEREN, a river which runs through the desert track on the northern border of Syria, and falls into the Euphrates at Roumkala.

SIMFEROPOL, or **AKMETSCHEP**, a small town of European Russia, in the Crimea, and the seat of the government of Taurida. It stands on the river Salgir, at the foot

of a chain of mountains which extend quite across the peninsula from Kaffa. Under the Tartars it was the residence of the Kalgha sultan, or commander of the khan's army, and was sometimes called Sultan Sarai. At present it is an insignificant place, with 1600 inhabitants; 136 miles south-by-east of Cherson. Lat. 45. 12. N. long. 24. 8. E.

SIMI. See **SYMI**.

SIMIA, a genus of the class and order of Mammalia Primates, of which the Generic Character is, that the individuals have four front teeth in each jaw, which are approximate; the tusks are solitary, longer, and more remote; the grinders obtuse. The animals of this genus greatly resemble man in the uvula, eye-lashes, hands, feet, fingers, toes, nails, and other parts of the body; they, however, differ widely in the total want of reason: they have retentive memories, are imitative, and full of gesticulations; chatter with their teeth, and grin: they macerate their food in the cheeks before they swallow it: they are filthy, lascivious, thieving, gregarious, and the prey of leopards and serpents, the latter pursuing them to the summits of trees and destroying them.

This race of animals, which is very numerous, is almost confined to the torrid zone; they fill the woods of Africa, from Senegal to the Cape, and from thence to Ethiopia: a single species is found beyond that line, in the province of Barbary: they are found in all parts of India, and its islands; in Cochinchina, in the south of China, and in Japan; and one kind is met with in Arabia: they swarm in the forests of South America, from the isthmus of Darien as far as Paraguay.

These animals, from the structure of their members, have many actions in common with the human kind; most of them are fierce and untameable; some are of a milder nature, and will shew a degree of attachment: they feed on fruits, leaves, and insects; inhabit woods, and live in trees: they go in large companies. The different species never mix with each other, but always keep apart: they leap with great activity from tree to tree, even when loaded with their young, which cling to them: they are not carnivorous, but, for the sake of mischief, will rob the nests of birds of the eggs and young; and it is observed, that in those countries where apes most abound, the feathered tribe discover singular sagacity in fixing their nests beyond the reach of these invaders.

Mr. Ray first distributed the animals of this genus into three classes, viz., the *simia*, or apes, such as wanted tails; the *cercopithecii*, or monkies, such as had tails; and *papiones*, or baboons, those with short tails.

From Ray, Linnæus formed his method, which was followed by M. de Buffon, who made a farther sub-division of the long-tailed apes, or true monkies, into such as had prehensile tails, and such as had not.

The genus is divided into the following sections:

- Section I. APES without any tail.
- II. BABOONS with short tails.
- III. MONKIES. Tails long, not prehensile; cheeks pouched; haunches naked.
- IV. SAJAPOUS. Tails prehensile; no cheek pouches, and their haunches are covered.
- V. SAGOINS. Tails not prehensile; no cheek pouches; haunches covered.

Of the whole genus, says Dr. Shaw, it may be observed that the baboons are commonly of a ferocious and sullen disposition. The larger apes are also of a malignant temper, except the orang-outang and the gibbons. The monkies, properly so called, are extremely various in their dispositions; some of the smaller species are lively, harmless, and entertaining; while others are as remarkable for the mischievous malignity of their temper, and the capricious uncertainty of their manners. It is no easy task to determine with exact precision the several species of this extensive genus; since, exclusive of the varieties in point of colour, they are often so nearly allied as to make it difficult to give real and distinctive characters. We shall, as usual, follow Gmelin's

Systema Naturæ of Linnæus, in which there are sixty-four species delineated.

I.—Apes without Tails.

1. *Simia troglodytes*, or Angola ape.—The Generic Character is, that the head is conic, body brawny, back and shoulders hairy, the rest of the body smooth.

2. *Simia satyrus*, or orang-outang.—Rusty-brown, hair of the fore-arms reversed, haunches covered. Besides this there are two varieties: 1. Without cheek-pouches, or callosities on the haunches. This variety always walks erect. Its trivial name is Pongo.—It inhabits Java and Guinea, and is from five to six feet high. 2. The other variety resembles the former, but is above half as high: it is docile, gentle, and grave, and by some thought to differ from the other only in age.

Of these animals, the species which has most excited the attention of mankind is the orang-outang, or, as it is often denominated, the satyr, great ape, or wild man of the woods.—It is a native of the warmer parts of Africa and India, and also of several of the Indian islands, where it resides principally in the woods, and is supposed to feed, like most other of this genus, on fruits. The orang-outang appears to admit of considerable variety in point of colour, size, and proportion; and there is reason to believe, that in reality there may be two or three kinds, which, though nearly approximated as to general similitude, are yet specifically distinct. The specimens imported into Europe have rarely exceeded the height of two or three feet, though full-grown ones are said to be six feet in height. The general colour seems to be of a dusky brown; the face is bare; the ears, hands, and feet nearly similar to the human; and the whole appearance is such as to exhibit the most striking approximation to the human figure. The likeness, however, is only general, and will not bear the test of examination; and the structure of the hands and the feet, when observed with anatomical correctness, seems to prove that the animal was principally designed by nature for walking on four legs, and not for an upright posture, which is only occasionally assumed, and which is thought to be the effects of instruction rather than truly natural.

The manners of the orang-outang, when in captivity, are gentle, and perfectly void of that disgusting ferocity which is often conspicuous in some of the larger baboons and monkeys. It is mild and docile, and may be taught to perform a variety of actions in domestic life. But, however docile and gentle when taken young, and instructed in its behaviour, it is possessed of great ferocity in its native state, and is considered a very dangerous animal, capable of readily overpowering the strongest man. Its swiftness is equal to its strength; and hence it can rarely be obtained in its full-grown state.

M. Vosmaer's account of the manners of the orang-outang brought into Holland in 1776, and presented to the Prince of Orange, is nearly as follows:—It was a female, about 2½ Rhenish feet. It shewed no symptoms of fierceness and malignity, and was of rather a melancholy appearance. It was fond of company, and shewed a marked preference to those who took daily care of it, of which it seemed very sensible. When the company retired, it would frequently throw itself on the ground, as if in despair, uttering lamentable cries, and tearing in pieces the linen within its reach. Its keeper having sometimes been accustomed to sit near it on the ground, it took the hay off its bed and laid it by its side, and seemed, by every demonstration, to invite him to be seated near. Its usual manner of walking was on all fours, but it could walk on its two hinder feet only. One morning it got unchained, and was seen to ascend the beams and rafters of the building with wonderful agility, and it was with the utmost difficulty retaken and secured. During its state of liberty it had taken out the cork from a bottle of Malaga wine, which it drank to the last drop. It would eat every thing that was offered, but was not observed to hunt for insects like other monkeys; it was fond of eggs,

but fish and roasted meat seemed its favourite food. It had been taught to eat with a spoon and fork. Its common drink was water, but it would drink any kind of wine. At the approach of night it lay down to sleep, and prepared its bed by shaking well the hay on which it slept, and putting it in proper order, and lastly covering it with a coverlet. This animal lived seven months in Holland. On its first arrival, it had but little hair, except on its back and arms, but on the approach of winter it became well covered, and the hair on the back was full three inches long. The whole animal then appeared of a chesnut-colour; the skin of the face, &c., was of a mouse-colour, but about the eyes and round the mouth it was of a dull flesh-colour. It was imported from the island of Borneo.

In Dr. Gmelin's edition of the Systema Naturæ, says Dr. Shaw, the smaller variety, or the jocko, in its less shaggy or more naked state, is given as a distinct species under the name of *Simia troglodytes*. The print published many years past, by the name of Chimpanzee, is of this kind. The animal described in the 59th volume of the Philosophical Transactions is by Gmelin referred to the orang-outang; but Mr. Pennant describes it under the title of Golok. It has a pointed face; long and slender limbs; arms, when the animal is upright, not reaching lower than the knees; head round, and full of hair; grows to the height of a man. It inhabits the forests of Mevat, in the interior parts of Bengal. In its manners it is gentle and modest, distinguished from the orang-outang by its slender form. In colour it is entirely black. In the Philosophical Transactions the description is as follows:—"The animal is said to be the height of a man, the teeth white as pearls; the arms in due proportion, and the body very genteel."

3. *Simia lar*, or long-armed ape, has its haunches naked; its arms as long as its body: it is found in India, is gentle, slothful, impatient of cold and rain, and is four feet high. There are two other varieties, of which the first is about eighteen inches high, the face and body brown. The second has its body and arms covered with silvery hair; the face, ears, crown, and hands, are black.—It inhabits the forests of Deval, in Bengal; is playful, gentle, and elegant: about three feet high. The lar, or, as it is sometimes denominated, the gibbon, is distinguished by the length of its arms, which, when the animal stands upright, are capable of touching the ground with its fingers; hence its trivial name. Notwithstanding the apparent ferocity of the lar, and the deformity of its figure, which is extremely well given by Dr. Shaw, it is of a tractable and gentle nature, and has even been celebrated for the decorum and modesty of its behaviour. Considered with respect to the rest of the genus, it ranks among the genuine apes, or those which have not the least vestige of a tail; and, says the naturalist already quoted, alarms the pride of mankind, by too near an approach to the real primates of the creation.

4. *Simia sylvanus*, or pigmy.—Haunches naked; head roundish; arms shorter.—It inhabits Africa and the island of Ceylon; is mild and easily tamed; it uses threatening gestures when it is angry, chatters when pleased, salutes after the manner of the Hottentots, and drinks from the palm of the hand. The face is short and flat; the forehead transversely projecting at the regions of the eye-brows; the skin is rough; the hair on the neck and fore-arms reversed: it is about eighteen inches high.

5. *Simia innus*, or denominated by Buffon the Magot, and by Pennant the Barbary Ape.—Its haunches are naked, and the head oblong.—Inhabits Africa, is fond of the open air, deformed, dirty, and melancholy. It a good deal resembles the *Simia sylvanus*, but its snout is longer, colour paler, nails rounded, and is about three feet and a half high. This is what is commonly seen in the exhibition of such kind of animals: it is not remarkable for docility or good temper; but, by force of discipline, it is made to exhibit a greater degree of intelligence than many others. Its colour is an olivaceous-brown, paler or whiter beneath; the face is of a swarthy flesh-colour. The hands and feet have nails resembling the human. It is destitute of any real tail, but there



1 *S. satyrus*. 2 *S. lar*. 3 *S. sinus*. 4 *S. sphyus*.

there is commonly a short skinny appendix in the place of one.

This animal inhabits many parts of India, Arabia, and all parts of Africa, except Egypt, and a small number is found on the hill of Gibraltar, which breed there. These apes are very ill-natured, mischievous, and fierce, agreeing with the character of the ancient *ynocephali*: they are often exhibited to play tricks; assemble in great troops in India; and will attack women going to market, and rob them of their provisions. The females carry their young in their arms, and will leap from tree to tree with them.

6. *Simia suilla*, or hog-faced ape.—Nose blunt, truncate, resembling that of a hog.

II.—Baboons with short Tails.

7. *Simia nemestrina*.—Beard thin; colour grey; eyes hazel; haunches naked.—It inhabits Sumatra and Japan; is lively, gentle, tractable, and impatient of cold. The face is naked and tawny; the nose is flat; lips thin, with hairs resembling whiskers; hair on the body olive-black; belly reddish-yellow: it is about two feet high. This species is figured by Mr. Edwards, who was in possession of the living animal, and who, in order to compare his specimen with a much larger animal of the same species, carried it to Bartholomew fair, and he said they seemed highly delighted with each other's company, though it was the first time of their meeting: the best figure of this species is said to be that given by Buffon.

8. *Simia apedia*, or little baboon.—Thumb close to the fingers; nails oblong, thumb-nails rounded; haunches covered.—This is an inhabitant of India. The nails are oblong and compressed, except the thumb and great toenails, which resemble those of a man; the tail is scarcely an inch long; the face is brown, with a few scattered hairs.

9. *Simia sphinx*, or great baboon.—Mouth with whiskers; nails acuminate; haunches naked.—This is found in the island of Borneo; it is lascivious, robust, and fierce; it feeds on fruits and seeds; it makes great havoc in the produce of cultivated lands. The head is oblong, resembling that of a dog, but more obtuse; the neck is long; the tail is short and erect; the haunches red, edged with purple; it is from three to four feet high in its sitting posture. It is extremely strong and muscular in its upper parts, and slender towards the middle. It is, says Dr. Shaw, ferocious in its manners, and its appearance is at once grotesque and formidable. The region surrounding the tail to a considerable distance on each side is bare and callous.—It is a native of Borneo, and inhabits the hotter parts of Africa.

10. *Simia mormon*, or tufted ape.—Beard thin; cheeks tumid, naked, blue, obliquely furrowed; haunches naked, red.—It inhabits India. This, in an upright posture, is full five feet high. It is the most remarkable of the whole genus for brilliancy and variety of colour. The general tinge is a rich and very deep yellowish-brown; the hairs, if viewed near, are speckled with yellow and black. The form of the face is long, with the snout ending somewhat abruptly; the whole length of the nose, down the middle, is of a deep blood-red; but the parts on each side are of a fine violet blue, marked by several oblique furrows. The remainder of the face is of a pale whitish-yellow. On the top of the front the hair rises, in a remarkable manner, into a pointed form, and beneath the chin is a pointed beard of a light orange-yellow. Round the back of the neck the hair is much longer than in other parts, and inclines downwards and forwards, somewhat in the manner of a wreath or tippet. The hands and feet are of a dusky colour, and are furnished with broad pointed claws.—It is a native of the interior parts of Africa, but has been found in India.

11. *Simia maimon*, or ribbed-nose ape.—Beard thin; cheeks blue, striate; haunches naked.—It inhabits Guinea; weeps and groans like men, when in trouble; it is libidinous, ugly and disgusting. The general likeness which it bears to the former species is such as to give the idea of the same animal in a less advanced state of growth, and with less brilliant colours. The chin is furnished with a small sharp-

pointed beard of a pale orange colour. The feet are armed with claws, and have no flattened nails. This baboon is not uncommon in exhibitions of animals.

12. *Simia porcaria*, or hog baboon.—The head of this species resembles that of a hog; the snout is naked; the body of an olive-brown; the haunches are covered, and the nails are acuminate. It is said to be three feet six inches in length; its colour is of a deep olive-brown; the face is large and black; the nose is truncated at the end, somewhat like that of a hog.

13. *Simia sylvatica*, or wood baboon.—Face, hands and feet naked, black, smooth; nails white.—It inhabits Guinea, and is about three feet high. It is of a robust frame. Its general colour is ferruginous, owing to the alternate blackish-brown rings with which every hair is marked, and which give a kind of speckled appearance to the whole. The nails on the hands are somewhat long, but rounded at their extremities; those on the toes longer and acuminate. The space on each side the tail is large, bare and red: the tail is about three inches long.

14. *Simia variegata*, or yellow baboon.—This species is of a bright yellow colour, mixed with black; the face is long, black, naked; the hands are covered on the back with hair. It very much resembles the *sylvatica*, and is found in Africa. Above the eyes are several long dusky hairs: it is about two feet high.

15. *Simia cinerea*, or cinereous baboon.—The face of this is dusky; the beard is of a pale brown; the crown is variegated with yellow; the body is cinereous.—It is found in divers parts of Africa, and is about two feet high.

16. *Simia livea*, or blue-faced baboon.—The face of this species is blueish; it has two broad flat fore-teeth; the head is pale brown. Over the eyes are long hairs; the ears with a tuft of hair behind each; the hair is black mixed with cinereous and rusty-brown: this is three feet high.

17. *Simia platypygos*, or brown baboon.—The face is of a dirty white, surrounded with short straight hairs. The upper part of the body is brown, under cinereous; tail tapering, almost bare; it is naked beneath. This species, according to La Cépède, is the same with the long-legged baboon described in the additions to Buffon. The figure there given is the same with that in Mr. Pennant's *Quadrupeds*. The distinguishing character of the animal seems to be the great length of its limbs.

18. *Simia cristata*, or crested baboon.—In this species the hair on the crown of the head and cheeks is long and dishevelled. The body is covered with long black hair; the breast is whitish; the face, hands and feet are black and naked; the tail is tapering, and about seven inches long; the animal is two feet high.—It is an inhabitant of India.

III.—Monkeys with long tails, that are not prehensile; the cheeks are pouched, and the haunches naked.

19. *Simia cynosurus*, or dog-tailed monkey.—It has no beard; the face is long; the forehead sooty; it has a whitish band over the eyes; male genitals coloured; the nails are convex. It is about two feet high, and is said to be faithless, restless and lascivious. The face of this animal appears uncommonly mild and placid. It was very fond of snuff, which it would occasionally rub over its body in a very ridiculous style.

20. *Simia hamadryas*, or Tartarian monkey.—This is described as cinereous; the ears are hairy; the nails sharpish; the haunches red.—It inhabits Africa, is fierce and very singular in its appearance. The face is prominent; the nose smooth and red; the ears are pointed, and almost hidden in fur; the hair on the sides of the head, and so far as the waist, long and shaggy; the nails of the fingers are flat; those of the toes acute and narrow: it is about five feet high. There is a variety, of which above the forehead is prominent, terminating in a ridge.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, is very gregarious, pillages gardens, and is watchful of surprise; the head is large; the nose is long and thick; the ears short; the crown is covered with long upright hairs; the body is rough and hairy; the tail is about half the length

length of the body, arched at the end; the nails are flat and rounded; the haunches are red, and the animal is from four to five feet high.

21. *Simia veter*, or lowando. The beard is black; the body is white. There is a variety with a white beard.—It is found in Ceylon, is wild, ferocious and mischievous. The tusks of this species are long and large; the head is surrounded with a broad mane; the body is long and tapering; it is between three and four feet high.

22. *Simia siliens*, or wanderu.—The beard of this animal is long and black; and the body is black. There are three other varieties of this species. The first has a bushy beard, is found in Ceylon, and other parts of India. The second is of a jet black colour; the beard is white, and very long: it inhabits Guinea, and is about two feet high. The third has a white beard, which is triangular, short and pointed, extending on each side beyond the ears.—It inhabits Ceylon, is harmless, and lives in the woods; it feeds on leaves and buds, and is easily tamed; the body is black; the face and hands are purple; the tail is long, ending in a dirty white tuft.

23. *Simia faunus*, or malbrouck.—This species is bearded; the tail is bushy at the end.—It is an inhabitant of Bengal; the face is grey; the eyes are large; the eye-lids are flesh-coloured; forehead with a grey band, instead of eye-brows; the ears are large, thin, flesh-coloured; body is blackish; the breast and the belly are white; the beard is hoary and pointed: it is scarcely a foot high.

24. *Simia cynomolgus*, or long-tailed beardless monkey, with callosities behind, rising bifid nostrils, and arched tail.—This by Pennant is called the hare-lipped monkey, who includes in the species the cynomolgus and cynocephalus of Linnaeus. It is of a thick clumsy form, resembling the Barbary ape, except in having a long tail. It varies in size very greatly; some specimens scarcely exceed the size of a cat, while others are full as large as a grey-hound. The colour also is various, being sometimes olive-brown, at other times grey-brown. The head is large; the eyes are small; the nose thick, flat and wrinkled; on each side the tail is a bare space; the under sides of the body, and the insides of the limbs, of a light ash-colour.—It is a native of Guinea and Angola. The nostrils are divided like those of a hare.

25. *Simia cynocephalus*, or dog-monkey.—This has no beard: it is of a yellowish colour, has a projecting mouth, a straight tail, and bald haunches.—It is found in divers parts of Africa, and resembles the *simia inuus*, except that it has a tail.

26. *Simia diana*, or spotted monkey.—This species is bearded; the forehead is projecting; the beard is pointed. This is described by Mr. Pennant as of a middling size, and of a reddish colour on the upper parts, as if singed, and marked with white specks; the belly and chin whitish; the tail is long. According to Linnaeus, it is of the size of a large cat, and is black, spotted with white; the hind part of the back is ferruginous; the face is black; from the top of the nose is a white line, passing over each eye to the ears in an arched direction.

27. *Simia sabæa*, or green monkey.—This animal has no beard; it is a yellowish-green colour; the face is black; the tail is grey; the haunches naked.—It inhabits the Cape de Verd islands, the Cape of Good Hope, and other neighbouring countries. The body in the upper parts is a mixture of grey, green and yellowish; throat, breast, belly and thighs are white; the hairs are long and reversed: the eye-brows are black and bristly; the tail is straight, as long as the body, and hoary; the feet are cinereous; the nails round, those of the hands ovate. It is about the size of a cat.

28. *Simia cephus*, or moustache.—Tailed; cheeks bearded; crown yellowish; feet black; tail rusty at the point.—It inhabits Guinea. The body above is brown; beneath it is of a blueish-white; the head with white erect hairs; eye-brows with a white transverse arch; upper eye-lids white; hair on the cheeks standing out; the mouth is blueish; under the ears are two large tufts of yellow hairs, like mustachios.

29. *Simia æthiops*, or white eye-lidded monkey.—This is without tail and beard; the fore-top is white, erect; the arch of the forehead is white. There is a variety, of which the neck and cheeks are surrounded with a broad collar of white hair.—It is found in Madagascar. Its face is thick and broad; the eyes are surrounded by a prominent ring; the eye-lids are naked, very white; the ears are black, almost naked; the tail is arched, covered with long bushy hair: it is about eighteen inches high.

30. *Simia aygula*, or egret.—This is tailed; the beard is scanty; the colour is grey; crown with an erect tuft of hair reversed longitudinally.—It inhabits India and Java. The body is a good deal like that of a wolf; the throat, breast, and belly whitish; the tail is longer than the body, cinereous and tapering; the face is flattish, whitish, naked; the nose is depressed, short, and distant from the mouth, with a double furrow on the upper lip; the cheeks are a little bearded; the hairs are turned back; the eye-brows are gibbous, bristly, prominent; the feet are black, semi-palmate: the nails of the thumbs and great toes are rounded, the rest oblong; the ears are pointed; an arched suture from the ears towards the eyes and back to the base of the lower jaw, and a longitudinal seam on the fore-arm. There is a variety that has a rounder head; the face is less black; the body is of a paler brown.

31. *Simia nictitans*.—Tailed, beardless, black, sprinkled with pale spots; the nose is white; the thumb very short; the haunches are covered. This is called the nodding monkey. There is a variety of it having a long white beard.—It inhabits Guinea, is playful, and continually nodding its head; the face is hairy; the mouth short; the orbits naked; the irids of a pale yellow; the hair is black, with a few pale rings; lips and chin whitish; the tail is straight, cylindrical, longer than the body; the thumb is no longer than the first joint of the fore-finger.

32. *Simia sinica*, or Chinese monkey.—Tailed, beardless; fore-top horizontally placed, and shading the whole head. There is a fore-top erect, having the appearance of a round black bonnet; the body is brown; the legs and arms black.—This species is found in Bengal, and the variety in India. The tail is longer than the body; the nails of the thumbs and great toes are rounded, the rest oblong; the upper parts of the body are pale brown, and mixed with yellow; the lower whitish. It is about the size of a rat.

33. *Simia nemæus*, or Cochin-china monkey.—This is without tail and beard; the cheeks are bearded; and the tail white.—It inhabits, as its trivial name imports, Cochin-china: also Madagascar, and other places. The face and ears are of a light red; the forehead is marked with a double brown band, covered with black hair; the hair surrounding the face is whitish, mixed with yellow; neck, on the upper part, with a wreath of the same colour as that of the forehead; the shoulders and upper parts of the arms black; hands and groin whitish; thighs on the upper part and toes black; feet to the knees brown; it is from two to four feet high. From this species is procured the bezoar of the ape.

34. *Simia mona*, or varied monkey.—This species is tailed and bearded; it has a prominent, whitish-grey, semi-lunar arch over the eye-brows.—It inhabits Morocco, and the warmer parts of Asia; is gentle, docile and patient of cold. The head is small and round; the face is bright, and of a tawny brown; the hair on the crown is yellow, mixed with black; it has a dark band from the eyes to the ears, and to the shoulders and arms; tail is greyish-brown; the rump is marked with two white spots on each side. It is eighteen inches high.

35. *Simia rubra*, or red monkey.—This species is tailed and bearded; the cheeks are bearded; the crown, the back, and the tail, are of a deep blood-red. There are two other varieties; the first has a yellow beard; the band over the eyes is black: the second has a white beard; the band over the eyes is white. This is found in Senegal, Congo, and other hot parts of Africa. The crown is flat; the body and legs are long; the hair on the upper parts is of a bright red, beneath

beneath it is of a yellow-grey; over the eyes to the ears is a band. One variety is black; and another is white; the tail is longer than the body. It is from eighteen inches to two feet in height.

36. *Simia talapoia*.—This is tailed and bearded; the cheeks are bearded; the ears, nose and soles of the feet black.—It inhabits India. The body is of a brownish-green, and elegant. A variety is of a black colour. The head is roundish; the face is tawny, with a few black hairs; the ears are like those on the human subject: the breast, belly and thighs on the inside are of a dusky flesh-colour; it is extremely gentle and playful, and is of the size of a cat.

37. *Simia petaurista*, or agile monkey.—This animal is tailed and bearded; its back, upper part of the tail, anterior parts of the legs, dark olive; its face is black, and the nose is marked with a triangular white spot.—It inhabits Guinea; and is, like the last, gentle and docile; it is little more than a foot high, though the tail is twenty inches long.

38. *Simia maura*, or negro monkey.—This is tailed and bearded; the cheeks, whole face, except the region extending from the eyes to the tip of the nose, are bearded; the body is of a reddish brown.—It inhabits Ceylon and Guinea; is active and gentle. The tail is longer than the body; the face is tawny and flesh-coloured; the feet and hands are black, naked and soft. In a sitting posture it is only about seven inches high.

39. *Simia rolowa*.—This species is tailed and bearded; the head, back, and outside of the hands and feet, are black; the inside, belly, and circular beard, enclosing a triangular face, are white.—This is an inhabitant of Guinea; is gentle and docile. The beard is long and forked: it is eighteen inches long, with a tail of the same length.

40. *Simia nasua*.—This has no beard; the face is long, slender, naked, flesh-coloured; the nose is projecting.—It inhabits Africa, and is good tempered. The head is covered with thick longish hair, falling backwards; the ears are small, pointed, and almost naked; the hair on the upper parts and limbs is long, rusty-brown mixed with black; on the breast and belly it is ash-coloured; the tail is very long: in a sitting posture it is only two feet high.

41. *Simia luteola*, or yellow monkey.—In this species the tusks are very large; the ears also are large, black, naked; the cheeks have long pale-yellow locks reversed.—It inhabits Guinea. The crown, upper parts of the body, arms and thighs, are of an ash-colour, mixed with yellow; the lower parts are cinereous; the face is black, with long hairs over the eyes; the throat and breast are of a yellowish-white; the hair is coarse; the tail is as long as the body, and it is about the size of a fox.

42. *Simia fulva*, or tawny monkey.—This has tusks in the lower jaw, which are long; the face is long, and of a flesh-colour; the nose is flattish. The hair on the upper part of the body is pale tawny, though cinereous at the roots; the hind part of the back is of an orange-colour; the legs are cinereous and the belly white. It is of the size of a cat.—It inhabits India. Pennant, who seems to be the only describer of this animal, took the description from one in an exhibition in London, which was an extremely ill-tempered animal. It is said to vary with a black face, and long black hairs on the cheeks; the body is of a dull pale-green; the limbs are grey and the tail dusky.

43. *Simia viridens*.—The face of this is black; the cheeks have long black hairs; the body is of a pale-green; the limbs are grey; the tail is dusky. It is thought by some naturalists not to be a distinct species, but a variety of the *Simia fulva*.

44. *Simia hircina*.—Face naked, blue, obliquely ribbed; the beard is long, and like that of a goat; the tail is long, and the body of a deep brown.

45. *Simia regalis*.—To this species there is no thumb; the head, cheeks, throat and shoulders, are covered with long coarse flowing hairs.—It inhabits the forest of Sierra Leona. The head is small; the face is short, black, naked; the toes are long and slender; the nails are narrow and pointed; the

tail is long, covered with snow-white hairs, and a tuft at the end; the body and limbs are slender: it is three feet high. The skin of this animal is, by the natives, made into pouches and gun cases.

46. *Simia bodia*, or bay monkey.—This has no thumbs; the tail is long, slender and black; the body and limbs are slender.—It inhabits Sierra Leona. The crown is black; the back is of a deep bay; limbs on the outside black; cheeks, under parts of the body, and legs, of a bright bay.

47. *Simia fusca*, or brown monkey.—The tail shorter than the body, alternately annulate with dark and light-brown. The face is flat; the cheeks and forehead are covered with long hairs; the body above is of a tawny-brown, belly cinereous; hands black and naked.

IV.—Tails prehensile; no cheek-pouches; haunches covered. These are denominated Sapajous.

48. *Simia Beelzebul*, or bearded black monkey.—By Pennant it is denominated the preacher monkey. It is tailed, bearded and black. The tail at the tip and feet are brown.—It inhabits South America; wanders in herds at night, and howls hideously; it is exceedingly fierce; the beard is round and black; the hair long, black and smooth.

49. *Simia seniculus*, or old man of the woods.—This is tailed and bearded; the colour is red. The body is uniformly of a dirty red; it has a mouth like that of the human subject, placed in the anterior part of the face; the chin is prominent and it is as large as a middling-sized calf. This, which by some has been regarded as a variety of the *Simia beelzebul*, is denominated by Mr. Pennant the royal monkey. There were formerly two in the Leverian Museum, which were probably young, being of the size of a squirrel. They were entirely of a very bright ferruginous or reddish chesnut colour, with the face naked and black, surrounded on the lower parts by a straggling beard of black hairs, and the tail was strongly prehensile.—This species is common in Cayenne, but very rare in Brazil: on the contrary, the former species is very common in Brazil, but is not found in Guiana. Both species have the same voice and manners. The following is an interesting description given by an observer, who had seen and kept these animals at Cayenne:—

“The *Allouates*, or howlers, inhabit the moist forests, in the neighbourhood of waters or marshes. They are commonly found in the woody islets of large flooded savannahs, and never on the mountains of the interior of Guiana. They go in small numbers, often in pairs, and sometimes singly. The cry, or rather horrible rattling scream which they make, may well inspire terror, and seems as if the forest contained the united howlings of all its savage inhabitants together. It is commonly in the morning and evening that they make this clamour: they also repeat it in the course of the day, and sometimes in the night. The sound is so strong and varied, that one often imagines it produced by several of the animals at once, and is surprised to find only two or three, and sometimes only one. The *allouate* seldom lives long in a state of captivity: it in a manner loses its voice, or at least does not exert it in the same manner when wild. The male is larger than the female, which latter always carries her young on her back.

“Nothing is more difficult than to kill one of these animals. It is necessary to fire several times in order to succeed, and as long as the least life remains, and sometimes even after death, they remain clinging to the branches by the hands and tail. The sportsman is often chagrined at having lost his time and ammunition for such wretched game; for, in spite of the testimony of some travellers, the flesh is not at all good; it is almost always excessively tough, and is, therefore, excluded from all tables: it is merely the want of other food that can recommend it to needy inhabitants and travellers.”

50. *Simia paniscus*—This is the four-fingered monkey of Pennant; it is tailed, black, beardless, and without a thumb; hence its trivial name. This animal is distinguished by the gracility of its body and limbs; its uniform black colour,

except on the face, which is of a dark flesh-colour; and by want of thumbs on the fore-feet, instead of which are very small projections or appendices. It is one of the most active and lively of animals, and is besides, of a gentle and tractable disposition in a state of confinement.—It inhabits the woods of South America; associating in great multitudes, assailing such travellers as pass through their haunts with an infinite number of sportive and mischievous gambols, chattering and throwing down dry sticks, swinging by their tails from the boughs, and endeavouring to intimidate the passengers by a variety of menacing gestures. This is the Coaita of Buffon.

51. *Simia exequina*.—Bearded; back variegated with black and yellow; throat and belly white.—It inhabits South America. In size and disposition it resembles the *Simia paniscus*.

52. *Simia trepida*.—Tailed, but without a beard: the fore-top is erect; hands and feet are blue; the tail is hairy. A variety has the hair round the face grey; it is brownish-yellow on the body.—It inhabits Surinam, is nimble, dexterous and amusing, and about twelve inches high. The body is brown, beneath it is rusty; the hair of the head is formed into a black erect hemispherical tuft; the tail is hairy; the nails are rounded; the face and ears downy and flesh-coloured; the eyes are approximate chestnut.

53. *Simia fatuellus*.—The horned sapaïou is tailless and without beard; two tufts on the head resembling horns.—It is found in several parts of South America, is harmless and gentle. The face, sides, belly and front part of the thighs, are brown; the crown, the middle of the back, tail and feet, and hind part of the thighs, are black; the nails are long and blunt; the tail is spiral.

54. *Simia apella*. Brown sapaïou, or saïou of Buffon.—This also is without tail and beard; the body is brown; the feet are black.

55. *Simia Capucina*. Capuchin monkey, or sai of Buffon, and weeper of Pennant.—This has no beard; the skin is brown; the hair and limbs are black; the tail is shaggy and the haunches are covered. There is a variety of this, of which the hair on the breast, throat, round the ears, and cheeks, is white. The face is sometimes black, sometimes flesh-coloured on the forehead; the tusks are approximate; the nose is carinate towards the eyes; a black varicose retractile wrinkle just under the hair of the forehead; the tail is long, always curved, and covered with long shaggy hair; it is of the size of a cat.—It inhabits divers parts of South America; it is mild, docile, timid; walks on its heels, and does not skip. It has a crying wailing voice, and repels its enemies by horrid howlings; it shrieks sometimes like a cricket. When made angry it will yelp like a puppy; it carries the tail spirally rolled up, which is often coiled round the neck: it smells of musk.

56. *Simia sciurea*. Orange monkey, or saimiri of Buffon.—Beardless; the hind part of the head is prominent; the nails of the four smaller toes unguulate; the haunches are covered. The body is of a greenish-grey, under parts whitish; the legs and arms are rusty; the tail is shaggy, black at the tip, and twice as long as the body; the nails of the thumbs and great toes are rounded; the face of a blueish-brown; the eye-brows are bristly; the ears are scantily covered with whitish hairs; it is of the size of a squirrel.—It is found in South America; is pleasant in its disposition, beautiful and graceful; it rests by lying on its belly. It looks full in the face of such as speak to it. It is impatient of European climates.

57. *Simia morta*.—Without beard, but it has a tail; it is of a chestnut colour; the face is brown; the tail is naked and scaly.—It is found in different parts of America. It differs from the *Simia sciurea* only in being less, and on that account it has been supposed to be of the same species.

58. *Simia syricta*.—This is without tail and beard; the mouth and eye-brows are covered with long hairs. This is an obscure and doubtful species.

59. *Simia variegata*.—The hair on the sides and back is

mixed with orange and black.—It inhabits Antigua, is lively, docile, and full of amusing tricks.

V.—Monkeys with tails that are not prehensile; that have no cheek-pouches; the haunches are covered. These are denominated Sagoins.

60. *Simia pithecia*, or fox-tailed monkey.—Tailed, but without beard; the hairs of the body are long and black at the tips; the tail is black, and very shaggy.—It inhabits South America; is very amusing, and easily tamed. It is entirely of a dusky brown colour, with a slight ferruginous cast, except on the head and face. This is the Saki of Buffon.

61. *Simia jacchus*. Striated monkey, or ouistiti of Buffon, and sanglin or cagui minor of Edwards.—This is tailed; its ears are hairy, broad; tail curved, very hairy; nails subulate, those of the thumbs and great toes are rounded. There is a variety, which is of a yellowish colour, smelling like musk.—It inhabits Brazil; is active, restless, climbing like a squirrel; it feeds on insects, fruits, milk, bread and small birds; it gnaws the bark of trees, is untameable, biting, tormenting cats by fixing under their bellies, and emits a hissing cry.

62. *Simia œdipus*, or red-tailed monkey.—This is tailed and beardless; locks hanging; the tail is red; nails subulate. The body is grey, underneath it is white; the head has long white hanging locks; its face is black, and it has a few white hairs behind the ears; a wart on each cheek; the irides are rusty; the ears are roundish, black and naked; nails subulate, except the thumb; the tail is twice as long as the body, and is a little hairy, black, red at the base; the region of the anus is red.—It inhabits South America, is active, brisk, imitating the lion in its gestures. It is something less than the *Simia jacchus*; it smells of musk, and the voice resembles that of a mouse.

63. *Simia rosalia*, or silky monkey.—Tailed; beardless; the head is hairy; circumference of face and feet are red; the nails are subulate. This species derives its trivial name from the appearance of its hair, which is very fine, soft, long, and of a bright yellow colour, resembling yellow silk. Round the face the hair is much longer than in other parts, so as to form a large mane, like that of a lion; near the face this mane is of a reddish colour, and it grows paler as it recedes from the cheeks; the face itself is of a dusky purple; the ears are round and naked; the hands and feet are also naked, and of the same dull purple colour as the face; the claws are small and sharp; the tail is very long, and rather bushy at the extremity.—It is a native of Guiana, and is a lively, active species, and gentle in a state of confinement. This is the marikina of Buffon.

64. *Simia Midas*, or tamarin.—This species is tailless; beardless; the upper lip is cleft; the ears are square and naked; the nails are subulate. The tamarin, or great-eared monkey, is about the size of a squirrel; it is a coal-black, except on the lower part of the back, which is of a reddish colour, and on the hands and feet, which are orange-coloured; the face is naked and flesh-coloured; the ears are very large, naked, of a squarish form, and of a dusky flesh-colour; the tail is very long and black.—It inhabits the hotter parts of South America. The claws are small and sharp. It sometimes varies in having the face black, instead of flesh-coloured.

SIMIA MARINA, the Sea-Ape, a species of *Squalus*.

SIMICON, in Antiquity, an ancient musical instrument of the stringed kind, with thirty-five strings.

SIMICUS, an ancient Greek musician, said to have been a great improver of music. He lived after Homer, and has the reputation of having invented the instrument above-mentioned; but Plutarch says, that the ancient Fables attribute this instrument to Pythocleus. He also informs us, that the Argians fined the first person that used it; but does not tell us how it was used, or whether there was a complete scale for every one of the genera: 35 notes in the diatonic scale would mount it above the additional compass of modern piano-fortes.

S I M I A.



1. *S. maimon*. 2. *S. nemestrina*. 3. *S. thlops*. 4. *S. micra*.

SIMILAR, or **SIMILARY**, *adj.* [*similaire*, Fr., from *similis*, Lat.] Homogeneous; having one part like another; uniform.—Minerals appear to the eye to be perfectly *similar*, as metals; or at least to consist but of two or three distinct ingredients, as cinnabar. *Boyle*.—Resembling; having resemblance.—The laws of England, relative to those matters, were the original and exemplar from whence those *similar* or parallel laws of Scotland were derived. *Hale*.

SIMILARITY, *s.* Likeness; uniformity.—The blood and chyle are mixed, and by attrition attenuated; by which the mixture acquires a greater degree of fluidity and *similarity*, or homogeneity of parts. *Arbutnot*.

SIMILARLY, *adv.* With resemblance; without difference; in the same manner.—The two pictures of the same object are formed upon points of the retina which are not *similarly* situate. *Reid*.

SIMILE, *s.* A comparison by which any thing is illustrated or aggrandized.

Their rhimes,

Full of protest, of oath, and big compare,
Want *similes*.

Shakspeare.

SIMILITUDE, *s.* [*similitudo*, Lat.] Likeness; resemblance.—*Similitude* of substance would cause attraction, where the body is wholly freed from the motion of gravity; for then lead would draw lead. *Bacon*.—Comparison; simile.—Plutarch, in the first of his tractates, by sundry *similitudes*, shews us the force of education. *Wotton*.

SIMILITUDE, in Arithmetic, Geometry, &c., denotes the relation of two things similar to each other, or which are only distinguishable by comprehension.

SIMILITUDINARY, *adj.* Denoting resemblance or comparison. *Unused*.—It is *similitudinary*. *Coke*.

SIMILOR is a name given to an alloy of red copper and zinc, made in the best proportions to imitate the colour of gold.

SIMLER (Josias), was born at Cappel, in Switzerland, in the year 1530. He was minister at Zurich, and a professor of the school of that town. He wrote several controversial works against some of the heretical sects, as they were esteemed, and denominated by him. He taught mathematics with great reputation, illustrating his lessons by various machines of his own invention. Of his writings the principal were "De Helvetiorum Republica," which contained an account of the original constitution of the Swiss confederacy; "Vallesie Descriptio," being an account of the Valais, and the adjacent Alps; and an abridgement of the Bibliotheca of Conrad Gesner, with the life of that distinguished person. In this last work he has not only given a good summary of the original, but has rendered it more complete, by the addition of a number of books. He died at Zurich in 1576, at the time when he was preparing a history of his native country.

SIMITAR, *s.* A crooked or falcated sword with a convex edge.

SIMLASORE, a town of Hindostan, district of Chuta Nagpore, province of Gundwaneh, belonging to the rajah of Nagpore. Lat. 20. 29. N. long. 80. 55. E.

SIMMENTHAL, a valley of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, surrounded by lofty mountains, and traversed by the small river Simme. It is 24 miles long, and is divided by the river into Upper and Lower Simmenthal, the latter sometimes called Wimmis, from its chief town. The soil is productive in corn and in pasturage; and the chief occupations of the inhabitants are rearing cattle, and making cheese for sale.

To **SIMMER**, *v. n.* [*etymology unknown*.] To boil gently; to boil with a gentle hissing.—Place a vessel in warm sand, increasing the heat by degrees, till the spirit *simmer* or boil a little. *Boyle*.

SIMMERING, a village of Lower Austria; 2 miles south-east of Vienna. It has, including its parish, 2500 inhabitants, and a large cannon foundry.

SIMMERN, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, formerly the chief place of a principality. In 1689, it was almost entirely destroyed by the French, but was repaired after the peace of Ryswick. Population 1500; 23 miles south-south-west of Coblentz.

SIMMINGTON, a village of England, in Wiltshire; 1 mile south-east of Melksham.

SIMMON'S ISLAND, a small island in the United States, on the coast of South Carolina. Lat. 32. 38. N. long. 80. 10. W.

SIMNEL, *s.* [*simenel*, ancient French; *simnellus*, low Lat.] In our old lexicography, a kind of sweet bread or cake; a cracknell.—Sodden bread, which be called *simnels* or cracknells, be verie unwholsome. *Bullein*.

SIMOGA, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore, district of Bednoor. It is situated on the bank of the Tunga or Toom river. It is fortified, but not capable of withstanding a regular attack, and has a manufacture of cotton cloths. It also contains the temple and convent of Kudali Swami, the high priest of a sect of Mahratta Bramins. In the year 1790, a battle was fought in the vicinity of this place, between one of the armies of Tippoo Sultan and the Mahrattas, aided by a British detachment under the command of Captain Little, in which the latter were victorious. On this occasion the Mahrattas plundered the town, and carried off several of the women; they also plundered the convent of Kudali Swami, who thereon threatened to excommunicate the peshwa, but was appeased by a present of 400,000 rupees. This unfortunate town was again plundered by the Mahrattas in 1798. In the following year, after the capture of Seringapatam, it was made over to the young rajah of Mysore, and is now recovering its prosperity. Lat. 13. 51. N. long. 75. 35. E.

SIMOIS, a river of Asia Minor, in the Lesser Phrygia, the source of which was in mount Ida, and which discharged itself into the Xanthus, or the Scamander, according to Pliny. The source of the Simois lies south-west of Cotylus; it flows nearly to the west, traverses a space of from twelve to fifteen leagues; receives the Andrius above Inchavi, and several other rivulets, and discharges itself into the Hellespont, half a league to the north-north-east of cape Sigeum. This stream is not now sufficiently considerable to deserve the name of river; it is rather a torrent swelled by the rains, at the end of the autumn, in winter, and in the spring, or by the sudden melting of the snow, which falls on mount Ida and Cotylus.

SIMOJOSIKI, one of the smaller Japanese islands, near the south-west coast of Ximo.

SIMON (Richard), a biblical critic, was born at Dieppe in 1638. He received his early education in the college of the Fathers of the Oratory in that place, and afterwards entered into that congregation. Quitting the college in a very short time, he pursued the study of theology, and of the Oriental languages, in which he made a great proficiency. He entered himself again a member of the Oratory in 1662, when his singular turn of thinking, and unaccommodating temper, involved him in differences, which had nearly caused him to abandon the society for that of the Jesuits. These were, after a time, compromised, and he was sent as professor of philosophy to one of their colleges. The house of the Oratory in Paris possessing a library rich in Oriental writings, Simon was engaged to draw up a catalogue of them, on which occasion he became known to M. de Lamignon, first president of the parliament of Paris. Having performed the task, he returned to his professorship, and there employed himself in literary labours. In the year 1670 he was ordained priest, and in the same year he gave a proof of the liberality of his mind, by undertaking the defence of the Jews at Metz, who had been accused of sacrificing the child of Christian parents. In 1674 he published, under the name of Richard Simeon, "A Treatise on the Ceremonies and Customs at present preserved among the Jews, translated from the Italian of Leo of Modena, with a Supplement respecting the Sects of the Caraites and Samaritans."

Samaritans." It was reprinted in 1681, with a supplement, containing "A Comparison between the Ceremonies of the Jews and Discipline of the Church." In 1678 he published "A Critical History of the Old Testament," which, by the boldness of some of its opinions, gave a considerable degree of offence.

He published a number of works, and in addition to those already noticed, we may mention, "Histoire critique du Texte du Nouveau Testament;" "Histoire critique des Versions du Nouveau Testament;" "Histoire critique des principaux Commentateurs du Nouveau Testament;" "Nouvelles Observations sur le Texte et les Versions du Nouveau Testament;" "Une Traduction Française du Nouveau Testament avec Remarques Litérales et Critiques," 2 vols. 8vo. This was condemned in the pastoral letters of Noailles, archbishop of Paris, and Bossuet, bishop of Meaux. "Bibliothèque Critique," 4 vols. published under the name of Soinjore, a work suppressed by order of council. "Nouvelle Bibliothèque Choisie," being a sequel to the former. "Lettres Critiques," 4 vols. "Critique de la Bibliothèque des Auteurs Ecclesiastiques de M. Dupin, et des Prolegomenes sur la Bible du même," 4 vols. 8vo. "Histoire Critique de la Croyance et des Coutumes des Nations du Levant." M. Simon left his MSS. and a number of printed books, with marginal notes written with his own hand, to the cathedral library of Rouen.

There was another Simon of some celebrity, a doctor of laws, the author of "A Dictionary of the Bible," explaining the geography of the Old and New Testament, and the ceremonies of the Jews, first printed at Lyons in 1693, and again in 1703, with considerable additions, forming two vols. folio.

SIMON, a great musician among the ancients, who, rejecting former rules of his art, invented a new mode, which was called "Simodia," from his name, in the same manner as the genus invented by Lyses, was called Lysodia.

SIMON, a small island in the gulf of California, near the coast.

SIMON, a river of Quito, in the province of Moxos which runs into the Itenes.

SIMON, ST., a town of the north-east of France, in the department of the Aisne, on the Somme; 7 miles south-south-west of St. Quentin.

SIMON, ST., the name of various settlements in different parts of South America, all inconsiderable, consisting chiefly of a few Indian families.

SIMON'S, ST., the easternmost of the three large islands situated at the mouth of the Alatomaha river, in Georgia, having on the north-north-east Little St. Simon's island; and between these is the eastern mouth of the river. The southern end of the island is near the north mouth of the Alatomaha. It formerly had a strong battery erected here, for the defence of Jekyl sound, in which 10 or 12 forty-gun ships may ride in safety. This island is about 45 miles in length, and from two to four in breadth, has a rich and fruitful soil, full of oak and hickory trees, intermixed with meadows and old Indian fields. In the middle of the island is the town of Frederica. The bar or entrance of St. Simon's is south-by-west, 19 leagues from Tybee inlet.

SIMON'S BAY, a bay of Southern Africa, in the territory of the Cape of Good Hope, forming the head of False bay, and bounding on the east the Cape peninsula. Lat. 34. 12. S.

SIMONBURN, a township of England, in Northumberland; 9 miles north-west of Hexham. Population 498.

SIMONDLEY, a village of England, in the High Peake of Derbyshire; 10 miles north-by-west of Chapel-in-le-Frith.

SIMONETTA, a castle of Austrian Italy, about 4 miles from Milan, with a remarkable echo, which at first repeats the three last syllables of a word pronounced, and afterwards the last alone.

SIMONETTA (Giovanni), an historian, was a native of Cassaro, in Sicily. In 1414 he entered into the service of

Francesco Sforza, duke of Milan, of whom his brother Cicco was the confidential minister. After the death of Francesco, he attached himself to his son Galeazzo Maria, to whom he, with his brother, continued so faithful, that when Ludovico Sforza usurped the dukedom, they were arrested and sent prisoners to Pavia. Cicco, in the following year was beheaded, and Giovanni was banished to Vercelli. He, however, returned to Milan, where he was buried about the year 1491. Simonetta composed in Latin "A History of the actions of Francesco Sforza from 1423 to 1466," which is accounted one of the best works of that time. It was several times printed. It is also found in Muratori's collection of Italian historians.

SIMONIA'CAL, *adj.* Guilty of buying or selling ecclesiastical preferment.

SIMON'NIAC, *s.* [*simoniaque*, Fr.; *simoniacus*, Lat.] One who buys or sells preferment in the church.

SIMONI'ACALLY, *adv.* With the guilt of simony.

SIMONIANS, or SIMONITES, a sect of ancient heretics, the first that ever disturbed Christianity; if they might be said to do so, who were little more than mere philosophers, and chiefly made profession of magic.

Simon Magus, so often mentioned in the Acts, was their leader, and died under the emperor Nero; St. Peter still surviving; so that Clemens Alexandrinus is mistaken, when he makes Simon posterior to Marcion.

SIMONIDES, a celebrated Grecian poet, born in the isle of Chios, was the son of Leoprepes, and flourished in the fifth century before the Christian era. He excelled in various kinds of poetry, but especially in the elegiac, for which, as we learn from Horace and Quintilian, he was almost proverbially famous in antiquity. One of his most famous compositions was entitled "The Lamentations," of which a small fragment is all that remains.

Simonides was endowed with a most extraordinary memory, and some have attributed to him the invention of the art of mnemonics. The introduction of some of the compound letters of the Greek alphabet is also ascribed to him. He lived to an advanced age, and at the age of eighty gained a prize for poetry. According to Pliny, Simonides added the eighth string to the lyre. In his old age, he became somewhat mercenary and avaricious. He was frequently employed by the victors at the games to write panegyrics and odes in their praise, before his pupil Pindar had exercised his talents in their behalf; but Simonides would never gratify their vanity in this particular, till he had first tied them down to a stipulated sum for his trouble; and, upon being upbraided for his meanness, he said, that he had two coffers, in one of which he had, for many years, put his pecuniary rewards; the other was for honours, verbal thanks, and promises; that the first was pretty well filled, but the last remained always empty. And he made no scruple to confess, in his old age, that of all the enjoyments of life, the love of money was the only one of which time had not deprived him. It is mentioned as a subject of dispraise, that Simonides was one of the first who wrote verses for money, and that he travelled through the cities of Asia, selling eulogies on the victors in the public games. He paid a visit, in advanced life, to Hiero, king of Syracuse, to whom he gave the celebrated answer respecting the nature of God that has been handed down from generation to generation to the present time in the writings of Cicero. Hiero having asked his opinion on the subject, he requested a day to consider of it; when this was expired, he doubled the time, and thus he did repeatedly, till the monarch desired to know his reason for this proceeding: "It is," said he, "because the longer I reflect on the question, the more difficult it appears to be." Undergoing shipwreck on a voyage, while the other passengers encumbered themselves with their most valuable effects, he left his behind him, saying, "I carry with me all that is mine;" and when he arrived safe at Clazomene, his fellow sufferers being either drowned or pillaged, he met with a citizen acquainted with his poetry, who liberally supplied all his wants. It was a witty

witty reply which this author made to Hiero's queen, who demanded of him whether knowledge or wealth was most to be preferred: "Wealth," said he; "for I see every day learned men at the doors of the rich." When he was accused of being so sordid, as to sell part of the provisions with which his table was furnished by Hiero, he said he had done it, in order "to display to the world the magnificence of that prince, and his own frugality." In justification of his passion for wealth, he said, "I choose rather to be useful to my enemies after I am dead, than burdensome to my friends while I am living." He is said to have been sufficiently eloquent to reconcile two princes extremely irritated against each other, and actually at war. He was unquestionably one of the most conspicuous characters of his time. Of his numerous works only a few fragments remain, which are published in the *Corpus Poetarum Græcarum*.

SIMONOR, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 4. 59. N. long. 119. 50. E.

SIMONSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Southampton county, Virginia.

SIMONSHALL, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire, adjoining to Wootton-under-Edge.

SIMONSHILL, in Northumberland, England, 1407 feet high.

SIMONSTONE, a village of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles west-by-north of Burnley.

SIMONSWOOD, a hamlet of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles south-by-east of Ormskirk.

SIMONY, *s.* The crime of buying or selling church preferment.—Many papers remain in private hands, of which one is of *simony*; and I wish the world might see it, that it might undeceive some patrons, who think they have discharged that great trust to God and man, if they take no money for a living, though it may be parted with for other ends less justifiable. *Walton*.

No *simony* nor sinecure is known;
There works the bee, no honey for the drone.

Garth.

The word *Simony* or *Simonia*, is borrowed from Simon Magus, who is mentioned in the Acts of the Apostles, as offering to buy the power of working miracles with money: Judge Blackstone, says, 1. That to purchase a presentation, the living being actually vacant, is open and notorious simony.

2. That for a clerk to bargain for the next presentation, the incumbent being sick and about to die, was simony, even before the statute of queen Anne; and now, by that statute, to purchase, either in his own name or another's, the next presentation, and be thereupon presented at any future time to the living, is direct and palpable simony.

But, 3. It is held, that for a father to purchase such a presentation, in order to provide for his son, is not simony; the son not being concerned in the bargain, and the father being by nature bound to make a provision for him.

4. That if a simoniacal contract be made with the patron, the clerk not being privy thereto, the presentation for that turn shall indeed devolve to the crown, as a punishment of the guilty patron; but the clerk who is innocent, does not incur any disability or forfeiture.

5. That bonds given to pay money to charitable uses, on receiving a presentation to a living, are not simoniacal, provided the patron or his relations be not benefited thereby; for this is no corrupt consideration, moving to the patron.

6. That bonds of resignation in case of non-residence, or taking any other living, are not simoniacal, there being no corrupt consideration therein, but such as is only for the good of the public. So also bonds to resign, when the patron's son comes to canonical age, are legal; upon the reason before given, that the father is bound to provide for his son.

7. Lastly,—general bonds to resign at the patron's request are held to be legal; for they may possibly be given for one of the legal considerations before-mentioned, and where there is a possibility that the transaction may be fair, the law will not suppose it iniquitous without proof; but if the

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party can prove the contract to have been a corrupt one; such proof will be admitted, in order to shew the bond simoniacal, and therefore void. Neither will the patron be suffered to make an ill use of such a general bond of resignation; as by extorting a composition for tithes, procuring an annuity for his relations, or by demanding a resignation wantonly, and without good cause, such as is approved by the law, as for the benefit of his own son, or on account of non-residence, plurality of livings, or gross immorality in the incumbent. *Blackst. Comm.*

SIMONY is also committed by buying or selling the sacrament, baptism, ordination, or absolution.

SIMONYTORNIA, or **SIMONTHURM**, a small town in the south-west of Hungary, at the confluence of the Kaproneza and the Sio; 57 miles south-south-west of Buda, with 2800 inhabitants.

SIMORRE, a town in the south of France, department of the Gers. There are some lead mines in the neighbourhood. Population 1400; 13 miles south-east of Auch.

To **SIMPER**, *v. n.* [from *rymbelan*, Saxon, to keep holiday.] To smile; generally to smile foolishly.—A made countenance about her mouth between *simpering* and smiling, her head bowed somewhat down, seemed to languish with over-much idleness. *Sidney*.

SIMPER, *s.* Smile; generally a foolish smile.

Great Tibbald nods: the proud Parnassian sneer,
The conscious *simper*, and the jealous leer,
Mix on his look.

Pope.

SIMPERER, *s.* One who simpers.—A *simperer*, that a court affords. *Neville*.

SIMPERINGLY, *adv.* With a foolish smile.—Why looks neat Curus all so *simperingly*? *Marston*.

SIMPLE, *adj.* [*simplex*, Latin; *simple*, Fr.] Plain; artless; unskilled; undesigning; sincere; harmless.—Were it not to satisfy the minds of the *simpler* sort of men, these nice curiosities are not worthy the labour which we bestow to answer them. *Hooker*.

They meet upon the way,
A *simple* husbandman in garments gray.

Spenser.

In *simple* manners all the secret lies,
Be kind and virtuous, you'll be blest and wise.

Young.

Uncompounded; unmingled; single; only one; plain; not complicated.—*Simple* philosophically signifies single, but vulgarly foolish. *Watts*.—Silly; not wise; not cunning.—The *simple* believeth every word; but the prudent man looketh well to his going. *Proverbs*.

SIMPLE, *s.* A single ingredient in a medicine; a drug. It is popularly used for an herb.

He would ope his leathern scrip,
And shew me *simples* of a thousand names,
Telling their strange and vigorous faculties.

Milton.

To **SIMPLE**, *v. n.* To gather simples. *Unused*.
As once the foaming boar he chas'd,
Lascivious Circe well the youth survey'd,
As *simpling* on the flowery hills she stray'd.

Garth.

SIMPLE-MINDED, *adj.* Having a simple, unskilled, and artless mind.

[They,] bending off their sanctimonious eyes,
Take homage of the *simple-minded* throng.

Akenside.

SIMPLENESS, *s.* The quality of being simple.

I will hear that play:
For never any thing can be amiss,
When *simpleness* and duty tender it.

Shakspeare.

SIMPLER, *s.* A simplist; an herbarist.—An English botanist will not have such satisfaction in shewing it to a *simpler*. *Barrington*.

SIMPLESS, *s.* [*simplesse*, Fr.] Simplicity; silliness; folly. *Obsolete*.

Their weeds been not so nighly were,
Such *simplesse* mought them shend,
They been yclad in purple and pall,
They reign and rulen over all.

Spenser.

SIMPLETON, *s.* A trifler; a foolish fellow. *A low word.*—Those letters may prove a discredit, as lasting as mercenary scribblers, or curious *simpletons* can make it. *Pope.*

SIMPLICIAN, *s.* [Lat. *simplex, simplicis.*] An undesigning, unskilled person: opposed to *politician*, one of deep contrivance.—Sometimes the veriest *simplicians* are most lucky, the wisest politician least, especially where orders are unobserved. *Archdeacon Arnway.*

SIMPLICITY, *s.* [*simplicitas*, Latin; *simplicité*, Fr.] Plainness; artlessness; not subtilty; not cunning; not deceit.—They keep the reverend *simplicity* of ancients times. *Hooker.*

In low *simplicity*,
He lends out money gratis, and brings down
The rate of usance.

Shakspeare.

Plainness; not subtilty; not abstruseness. Plainness; not finery.—They represent our poet, when he left Mantua for Rome, dressed in his best habit, too fine for the place whence he came, and yet retaining part of its *simplicity*. *Dryden.*—Singleness; not composition; state of being uncompounded.—Mandrakes afford a papaverous unpleasant odour in the leaf or apple, discoverable in their *simplicity* and mixture. *Brown.*—Weakness; silliness.—How long, ye simple ones, will ye love *simplicity*, and fools hate knowledge? *Prov.*

SIMPLICIUS, a Greek philosopher of the sixth century, was a native of Cilicia. He was a disciple of Ammonius the Peripatetic, and Damascius the Stoic; but in his own mode of philosophising, he endeavoured to unite the Platonic and Stoical doctrines with those established by Aristotle. Of this combination of heterogeneous tenets, his "Commentary upon the Enchiridion of Epictetus" is said to be a good example. Of this work, Fabricius affirms there is nothing in pagan antiquity better calculated to form the morals, or afford juster views of divine providence. *Simplicius* wrote commentaries upon Aristotle. He was one of the philosophers who took refuge with Chosroes, king of Persia, from an apprehended persecution by Justinian; but they returned to Athens, upon a truce between the Romans and Persians in 549, having stipulated for a toleration. His commentaries upon Aristotle have been several times published in Greek. Those on Epictetus were published in Greek and Latin, with the notes of Wolsius and Salmasius. They have been translated into the English and French languages.

SIMPLIFICATION, *s.* Act of reducing to simplicity, or uncompounded state.—This *simplification* of the principles of languages renders them less agreeable to the ear. *A. Smith.*

To **SIMPLIFY**, *v. a.* [*simplifier*, Fr., *simplex* and *facio*, Lat.] To render plain; to bring back to simplicity.—Philosophers have generally advised men to shun needless occupations, as the certain impediments of a good and happy life: they bid us endeavour to *simplify* ourselves, or to get into a condition requiring of us the least that can be to do. *Barrow.*

SIMPLIFYING, in Ecclesiastical Matters, is the taking away of a cure of souls from a benefice, and dispensing the beneficiary from residence.

SIMPLIST, *s.* One skilled in simples.—A plant so unlike a rose, it hath been mistaken by some good *simplists* for amomum. *Brown.*

SIMPLOCE, in Rhetoric, a figure which comprehends both the anaphora and epistrophe. In this figure the several members begin and end with the same word. Thus St. Paul: Are they Hebrews? So am I. Are they Israelites? So am I. Are they the seed of Abraham? So am I. 2 *Cor. xi. 22.*

SIMPLON, or **SIMPELN**, a great mountain in the south

of Switzerland, which separates the canton called the Valais, from the Piedmontese territory, and which, high as it is, forms the least difficult communication over the Alpine barrier. The old road across it being impracticable for heavy carriages, a new one was formed at the joint expence of France and the kingdom of Italy, in the reign of Buonaparte. This was a work of great labour, and occupied several years; to avoid steepness of ascent, it was made more circuitous than the preceding; and from the small town of Glis or Glys, near Brieg, where it begins, to Domo d'Ossola on the Italian side, where it ends, the distance is about 36 English miles, which may be travelled in 11 hours with a change of horses, or in 15 hours with the same, allowing an interval for rest. The breadth of the road is nowhere less than 25 feet, and parapets are erected along the brinks of these precipices, around which it frequently winds. The hazard to the traveller, particularly in spring, is from the occasional descent of avalanches from the higher part of the mountain. From this cause, and from the masses of earth and stone detached from the high grounds after heavy rains, the road is exposed to periodical injury, and an expence of from 2000*l.* to 3000*l.* a-year would be necessary to keep it in repair. But neither the Swiss nor the Piedmontese government seem inclined to make any sacrifice for preserving this, the only road over the Alps that can be passed by artillery. It forms the usual access to the central part of Lombardy, in the same manner as Mont Cenis to the west of Piedmont. The traveller, on proceeding from Switzerland, sees little remarkable except forests and bridges over mountain streams, until arriving at the small village of Simpel. The latter half of his journey is more picturesque. The scenery becomes awful, and the road goes through no less than six galleries or passages, cut through the superimpendent rocks. Though the ascent is every where gradual, the highest point of the road is nearly 6000 feet above the level of the sea, and the top of the mountain is seen rising to 11,000 feet above the same level.

SIMPLY, *adv.* Without art; without subtilty; plainly; artlessly.

Accomplishing great things by things deem'd weak;
Subverting worldly strong and worldly wise,
By *simply* meek.

Milton.

Of itself; without addition.—This question about the changing of laws concerneth only such laws as are positive, and do make that now good or evil, by being commanded or forbidden, which otherwise of itself were not *simply* the one or the other. *Hooker.*—Merely; solely.

I will eat and drink, and sleep as soft
As captain shall; *simply* the thing I am
Shall make me live.

Shakspeare.

Foolishly; sillily.

SIMPLUDIARIA, in Antiquity, a kind of funeral honours paid to the deceased at their obsequies.

The word is formed from the Latin *simplex*, and *ludus*; whence *simpludaria*, or *simpliludaria*, *q. d.* simple games. Some will have *simpludaria* to be the funerals at which games were exhibited: such is the sentiment of Paulus Diaconus. Festus says, they were those, in the games of which nothing was seen but dancers and leapers, called *corvitores*; who, according to M. Dacier, were persons who run along the masts and yards of vessels or boats, called *corbes*.

In other respects, those two authors agree as to the kind of funerals called *simpludaria*; viz., that they were opposite to those called *indictiva*; in which, besides the dancers and leapers observed in the *simpludaria*, there were desultores, or people who vaulted on horses; or perhaps horse-races, in which the cavaliers leaped from horse to horse at full speed.

SIMPRIN, a parish of Scotland, in Berwickshire, united to that of Swinton in 1761. Also a small village in that parish.

SIMPSON (Thomas), a celebrated self-taught mathematician, was born at Market-Bosworth, in Leicestershire, in

in 1710. His father, who was a weaver in that town, intended to bring him up to his own trade, and took little heed of his education. Nature, however, had endowed him with fine talents, and an ardour of disposition, which excited him to nobler pursuits. At an early period he gave indications of his turn for study, by eagerly perusing every book that fell in his way, and omitting no opportunity to acquire instructions from others. His father, finding that he was thus led to neglect his work, endeavoured to restrain him from what he regarded as idle pursuits; but after some fruitless attempts, a difference was produced between them, which at length terminated in an open rupture, and Thomas left his father's house, and married the widow of a tailor, with whom he resided at Nuneaton, where he continued some time working at his trade, and improving his knowledge. Here he became acquainted with a travelling pedlar, who lodged in the same house, and who, to the profession of an itinerant merchant, had united the more profitable one of a fortune-teller. An intimacy was formed between them; and as the pedlar was going to Bristol, he lent, during his absence, Cocker's Arithmetic to Simpson, to which was subjoined a short appendix on Algebra; and a book on Genitures, by Partridge, the almanack-maker. These books he studied so closely, that on the pedlar's return, he was astonished to find that Simpson was little inferior to himself in the art of calculating nativities; and he predicted that he would shortly be his superior. Encouraged by this prophecy, he at first determined to embark in the trade of a fortune-teller; and by this occupation, and teaching a school, he found means to support himself without weaving, which he now entirely abandoned, and was soon regarded as the oracle of the neighbourhood. From this time he seems to have lived very comfortably, till an unfortunate event involved him in a deal of trouble. Having undertaken to raise the devil, in order to answer certain questions to a young woman, who consulted him respecting her sweetheart, then absent at sea, the credulous girl was so frightened on the appearance of a man from beneath some straw, who represented the devil, that she fell into violent fits, from which she was with difficulty recovered, and which for a considerable time threatened insanity or fatuity. In consequence of this exertion of his art, he was obliged to leave the place, and he removed to Derby, where he remained a few years, working at his trade by day, and instructing pupils in the evening. He became a writer in the *Lady's Diary* in the year 1736: his first questions were stated in verse, and are of such a kind as shew that at this period he had made some progress in mathematical knowledge. He from this time applied himself with great ardour to every branch of the analytic science, and acquired a deep insight into the doctrine of fluxions, upon which he afterwards published a work, which is even now regarded as among the best, if not the very best, existing in our language. After he had given up astrology, and its emoluments, he found himself reduced to great straits, notwithstanding his industry to provide a subsistence for his family at Derby; and on that account he determined to remove to London, which he did in the year 1736. When he arrived at the capital, unknown and without recommendation, he for some time followed his business in Spitalfields, and taught mathematics in the evening, and at other spare hours. His exertions were attended with such success, that he returned to the country, and brought to town his wife, with her three children. The number of his scholars increased, and he was encouraged to make proposals for publishing by subscription "A New Treatise of Fluxions." The book was printed in 1737. In the year 1740 he published "A Treatise on the Nature and Laws of Chance." This is a very thin and small quarto; and to this treatise are annexed full and clear investigations of two important problems, added to the second edition of De Moivre's Book of Chances, as also two new methods for the summation of series. Mr. Simpson's next publication was a volume, in quarto, of "Essays on several curious and interesting Subjects in speculative and mixed Mathematics," printed in

1740. Soon after the publication of this book, he was chosen member of the Royal Academy at Stockholm. This was followed by a smaller volume, on "The Doctrine of Annuities and Reversions, deduced from general and evident Principles, with useful Tables, shewing the Values of single and joint Lives." Next year came out an "Appendix, containing Remarks on De Moivre's Book on the same Subject, with Answers to some personal and malignant Representations, in the Preface to it." In 1743 he published his "Mathematical Dissertations on a variety of physical and analytical Subjects." Shortly after this he published "A Treatise on Algebra," which in the year 1755 he enlarged and considerably improved. After this he gave the public his "Elements of Geometry," with their application to mensuration, to the determination of maxima and minima, and to the construction of a great variety of geometrical problems. This work has passed through many editions, and is still read in some places devoted to the education of the young; though generally it has been superseded by other treatises of more modern date. The first edition of this book occasioned some controversy between Mr. Thomas Simpson and Dr. Robert Simson, the author of a well-known edition of Euclid's Elements.

In the year 1748, Mr. Simpson published "Trigonometry, plane and spherical, with the Construction and Application of Logarithms." In 1750 he published a new edition of his "Treatise on Fluxions," which, however, he wished to be considered rather as a new work than a new edition of an old one. In 1752 appeared in 8vo. a work, entitled, "Select Exercises for young Proficients in Mathematics;" and in 1757 he published his last work, entitled "Miscellaneous Tracts,"—"which," says Dr. Hutton, "was a valuable bequest, whether we consider the dignity and importance of the subjects, or the sublime and accurate manner in which they are treated." Such are the scientific works of Mr. Simpson. Through the interest of Mr. Jones, the father of the celebrated Sir William Jones, Mr. Simpson was, in 1743, appointed to the professorship of mathematics, then vacant, in the Royal Academy of Woolwich; and in 1745 he was admitted a fellow of the Royal Society. On this occasion, in consequence of his very moderate circumstances, he was excused his admission fees, and from giving bond for the settled future annual payments. As a professor, he exerted all his talents in instructing the pupils committed to his care. He had, it has been said, a peculiar and happy method of teaching, which, united to a great degree of mildness, engaged the attention, and conciliated the esteem and friendship of his scholars. Mr. Simpson died in the year 1761, in the 51st year of his age. Besides the works already mentioned, he wrote several papers, which were read before the Royal Society, and printed in their Transactions. He was not only a contributor to, but for some years editor of, the *Lady's Diary*, during which, viz., from the year 1754 to 1760, he raised that work to a high degree of respectability. In 1760, when a plan was in agitation for erecting Blackfriars bridge, he was consulted by the committee in regard to the best form for the arches. On this occasion he preferred the semicircular form; and besides his report to the committee, he wrote some letters on the subject, which were afterwards published in the *Gentleman's Magazine*.

SIMPSON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire, near Fenny-Stratford. Population 372.

SIMPSON, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham.

SIMPSON'S ISLAND, a small island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Carteret in 1767; 4 miles west from Carteret's island. Lat. 8. 26. S. long. 159. 20. E.

SIMPSONVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Montgomery county, Maryland.

SIMPULUM, among the Romans, a vessel with a long handle, and made like a cruet. It was used in sacrifices and libations, for taking a very little wine at a time.

SIMSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Hartford

Hartford county, Connecticut; 11 miles north-west of Hartford. Population 1966.

SIMSIA [so called by Mr. Brown, in honour of Dr. John Sims], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of proteaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx none, unless the corolla be taken for such. Corolla: petals four, inferior, linear-oblong, equal, deciduous; reflexed at the extremity. Nectary none. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, prominent, inserted into the disk of each petal; anthers roundish, cohering, so that the adjoining lobes of each make one common cell, at length separating. Pistil: germen superior, obovate; style cylindrical; stigma dilated, concave. Pericarp: nut inversely conical, of one cell, naked.—*Essential Character.* Petals four, equal, reflexed, without nectariferous glands. Stamens prominent; anthers cohering; their adjoining lobes making a common cell. Stigma dilated, concave. Nut inversely conical.

1. *Simsia tenuifolia*, or slender leaved *Simsia*.—Heads naked, mostly solitary on each branch of the panicle, accompanied by small partial bracteas.—Found in New Holland.

2. *Simsia anethifolia*, or fennel-leaved *Simsia*.—Heads numerous in each panicle, and about as long as its partial branches, accompanied by imbricated involucreal leaves.—Gathered on the sandy sea-shores of the same country.

SIMSON (Robert), was born in the year 1637, of a very respectable family, in the county of Lanark. He was educated in the university of Glasgow, where he made great progress in his studies, and acquired in every branch of science a large stock of information, which, if it had never been greatly augmented afterwards, would have done great credit to any professional man. He became, at an early period, an adept in what was denominated the philosophy and theology of the schools, and was able to supply with great credit the place of a sick relation in the class of oriental languages. While he was pursuing a course of theology, as preparatory to his entering into orders, mathematics took hold of his fancy, and he would, in after-life, say that he amused himself in his favourite pursuit, while he was actually preparing his exercises for the divinity hall. When fatigued with speculations, in which he could not meet with certainty to reward his labours, he relieved his mind, ardent in the pursuit of truth, by turning to mathematics, with which he never failed to meet with what would satisfy and refresh him. For a long time he restricted himself to a very moderate use of the cordial, fearing that he should soon exhaust the stock which so limited and abstract a science was capable of yielding; at length, however, his fears were dissipated on this head, for he found that the more he learned, and the farther he advanced, the more there was to learn, and a still wider field opened to his view. He accordingly determined to make the mathematics the profession of his life, and gave himself up to the study without reserve. It is said, that his original incitement to this science as a treat, as something to please and refresh the mind in the midst of severer tasks, gave a particular turn to his mathematical pursuits, from which he could never deviate. He devoted himself chiefly to the ancient method of pure geometry, and felt a decided dislike to the Cartesian method of substituting symbols for the operations of the mind, and still less was he willing to admit symbols for the objects of discussion, for lines, surfaces, solids, and their affections. He was rather disposed in the solution of an algebraical problem, where quantity alone is to be considered, to substitute figure and its affections for the algebraical symbols, and to convert the algebraic formula into an analogous geometrical theorem. In so little respect did he come at last to consider algebraic analysis, as to denominate it a mere mechanical knack, in which he would say we proceed without ideas of any kind, and obtain a result without meaning, and therefore without any conviction of its truth.

About the age of twenty-five Dr. Simson was chosen professor of mathematics in the university of Glasgow. He immediately went to London, and there formed an acquaintance with the most eminent men who at that time flourished in the metropolis. Among these was the celebrated Halley, of whom he always spoke with the most marked respect, saying

that he had more acute penetration, and the most just taste in that science, of any man he had ever known. Dr. Simson also admired the masterly steps which Sir Isaac Newton was accustomed to take in his investigations, and his manner of substituting geometrical figures for the quantities which are observed in the phenomena of nature. He was accustomed to say, that the 39th proposition of the first book of the Principia, was the most important proposition that had ever been exhibited to the physico-mathematical philosopher, and he used to illustrate to the higher classes of his pupils, the superiority of the geometrical over the algebraic analysis, by comparing the solution given by Newton, of the inverse problem of centripetal forces, in the 42d proposition of that book, with the one given by John Bernoulli, in the memoirs of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, for the year 1713.

Returning to his mathematical chair, Dr. Simson discharged the duties of a professor, for more than half a century, with great honour to the university and to himself. It is scarcely necessary to add, that in his lectures he always made use of the geometry of Euclid, in preference to those works which he thought leaned too much to analysis. His method of teaching was simple and perspicuous, his elocution clear, and his manner easy and impressive. He uniformly engaged the respect and affection of his pupils.

It was owing to the advice of Dr. Halley that our author so early directed his efforts to the restoration of the ancient geometers. He had recommended this to him as the most certain means of acquiring a high reputation, as well as to improve his taste, and he presented him with a copy of Pappus's Mathematical Collections, enriched with his own notes. The perspicuity of the ancient geometrical analysis, and the elegance of the solutions which it affords, induced him to engage in an arduous attempt, which was nothing less than the entire recovery of this method. His first task was the restoration of Euclid's Porisms, from the scanty and mutilated account of that work in a single passage of Pappus. He, however, succeeded, and so early as 1718, seems to have been in possession of this method of investigation, which was considered by the eminent geometers of antiquity as their surest guide through the intricate labyrinths of the higher geometry. In 1723, Dr. Simson gave a specimen of this discovery in the Philosophical Transactions; and after that period he continued with unremitting assiduity to restore those choice porisms which Euclid had collected, as of the most general use in the solution of difficult problems. Having obtained the object of which he was in pursuit, he turned his thoughts to other works of the ancient geometers, and the Porisms of Euclid had now only an occasional share of his attention. The Loci Plani of Apollonius were the next task in which he engaged, and which he completed in the year 1738; but after it was printed he was far from being satisfied that he had given the identical propositions of that ancient geometer; he withheld the impression several years, and it was with extreme reluctance that he yielded to the entreaties of his mathematical friends in publishing the works in 1746, with some emendations in those cases in which he thought he had deviated the most from the author. Anxious for his own reputation, and fearing that he had not done justice to Apollonius, he soon recalled all the copies that were in the hands of the booksellers, and the impression lay by him several years. He afterwards revised and corrected the works, and even then did not, without some degree of hesitation, allow it to come into the world as the restoration of Apollonius. The work was, however, received by the public with great approbation; the author's name became better known; and he was now considered as among the very first and most elegant geometers of the age. He had, previously to this, published his Conic Sections, a treatise of uncommon merit, whether considered as a complete restitution of the celebrated work of Apollonius Pergæus, or as an excellent system of this useful branch of mathematics. This work was intended as an introduction, or preparatory piece, to the study of Apollonius, and he has accordingly accommodated it to this purpose. The intimate acquaintance which Dr. Simson had now acquired with all the

the original works of the ancient geometers, as well as with their commentators and critics, encouraged him to hope that he should be able to restore to its original state that most useful of them all, the Elements of Euclid, and under the impression of this idea, he began seriously to make preparation for a new and more perfect edition. The errors which had crept into this celebrated work appeared to require the most careful efforts for their extirpation; and the data also, which were in like manner the introduction to the whole art of geometrical investigation, seem to call for the noblest exertions of a real master in the science. The data of Euclid have fortunately been preserved, but the work was neglected, and the few ancient copies, which amount only to three or four, are said to be wretchedly mutilated and erroneous. It had, however, been restored, with some degree of success, by previous authors; but Dr. Simson's view of the whole analytical system pointed out to him many parts which still required amendment. He therefore made its restitution a joint task with that of the Elements, and all lovers of geometry are ready gratefully to acknowledge their obligations to him for his edition, which contains the Elements and the Data, and which has gone through many impressions in quarto and octavo, in the Latin and English languages.

Another work on which Dr. Simson bestowed great labour and pains, was the Sectio Determinata of Apollonius, which, though begun early, was not given to the world till after his death, when it was printed with the work on Porisms of Euclid, at the expense of the late Earl Stanhope, who was himself deeply read in mathematics, and who for many years had kept up a constant correspondence with Dr. Simson; and at the death of the professor, in 1768, the noble lord engaged Mr. Clow, professor of logic in the university of Glasgow, to whose care he had left all his papers, to make a selection of such as might serve to support and extend his well-earned reputation as the restorer of ancient geometry.

"The life of a literary man," says his biographer, "is seldom marked with much variety; and a mathematician immersed in study, is more abstracted, perhaps, than any other person from the ordinary occurrences of life, and even the ordinary topics of conversation. Such was the case with Dr. Simson. As he never entered into the marriage state, and had no occasion for the commodious house in the university to which as professor he was entitled, he contented himself with chambers, spacious enough for his own accommodation, and for containing his large, but well-selected, collection of books, but without any decoration, or even convenient furniture. His official servant acted as valet, footman, and bed-maker; and as this retirement was entirely devoted to study, he entertained no company at his chambers, but on occasions, when he wished to see his friends, he repaired to a neighbouring house, where an apartment was kept sacred to him and his guests. He enjoyed a long course of uninterrupted health, but towards the close of life he suffered from acute disease, which obliged him to employ an assistant in his professional labours. He died in 1768, at the age of 81, leaving to the university his valuable library, which is now kept apart from the rest of the books. It is still regarded as the most complete collection of mathematical works and manuscripts in the kingdom, many of them being rendered doubly valuable by the addition of Dr. Simson's notes. It is open for the public benefit, but the use of it is limited by particular rules and restrictions. Dr. Simson was of a good stature, and he had a fine countenance, and even in his old age he retained much gracefulness and dignity of manner. He was naturally disposed to cheerfulness, and though he seldom made the first advances towards acquaintance, he always behaved with great affability to strangers." See Dr. William Trail's Account of the Life and Writings of Dr. Simson.

SIMULACHRE, *s.* [*simulacrum*, Lat.] An image. *Not in use.* *Bullokar.*—Phidias made of ivory the *simulachre* or image of Jupiter. *Sir T. Elyot.*

SIMULAR, *s.* [from *simulo*, Latin.] One that counterfeits.

Hide thee, thou bloody hand,
Thou perjur'd, and thou *simular* of virtue,
That art incestuous.

Shakspeare.

SIMULAR, *part. adj.* [*simulatus*, Lat.] Feigned; pretended.—They had vowed a *simulate* chastity. *Bale.*

To SIMULATE, *v. a.* [*simulo*, Lat.] To feign; to counterfeit.—I have known many young fellows, who, at the first setting out into the world, have *simulated* a passion which they did not feel. It has been used by medical writers for diseases putting on the appearance of others. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

SIMULATION, *s.* [*simulation*, French; *simulatio*, from *simulo*, Lat.] That part of hypocrisy which pretends that to be which is not.—For distinction sake, a deceiving by word is commonly called a lie; and deceiving by actions, gestures, or behaviour, is called *simulation* or hypocrisy. *South.*

SIMULTANEOUS, *adj.* [*simultaneus*, Latin.] Acting together; existing at the same time.—Let not the distinct touches be so *simultaneous*, but that it may appear where the word begins, and where it ends. *Dalgarno.*

SIMULTANEOUSLY, *adv.* At the same time; together; in conjunction.—He introduces the deities of both acting *simultaneously*. *Shenstone.*

SIMULTY, *s.* [*simultas*, Lat., *secret hatred*.] Private quarrel: a word used by Ben Jonson, but not adopted, and hardly worthy of notice.—In things unknown to a man, not to give his opinion;—nor seek to get his patron's favour, by embarking himself in the factions of the family; to enquire after domestic *simulties*, their sports, or affections. *B. Jonson.*

SIMUS, in Ichthyology, the name used by some authors for the nasus, or nose, a fish common in the large rivers in Germany, and somewhat resembling our chud, and in some respects our common rudd.

SIN, *s.* [jyn, Sax.] An act against the laws of God; a violation of the laws of religion.

It is great *sin* to swear unto a *sin*,
But greater *sin* to keep a sinful oath.

Shakspeare.

Habitual negligence of religion.

Sin, death, and hell, have set their marks upon him,
And all their ministers attend on him.

Shakspeare.

It is used by Shakspeare emphatically for a man enormously wicked.

Thy ambition,
Thou scarlet *sin*, robb'd this bewailing land
Of noble Buckingham.

Shakspeare.

To SIN, *v. n.* To neglect the laws of religion; to violate the laws of religion.—Many also have perish'd, err'd, and *sinn'd* for women. *Esdr.*—To offend against right.

I am a man,
More *sinn'd* against than *sinning*.

Shakspeare.

SIN, *adv.* [*sen*, *sedan*, Swedish.] Since. *Used in the north.*

But when as Calidore was comen in
And gan aloud for Pastorell to call,
Knowing his voice, although not heard long *sin*
She sudden was revived therewithall.

Spenser.

SIN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Shantung.
SIN, or **BURSIN**, a small kingdom of Western Africa, extending about 10 leagues along the Atlantic, and containing a surface of about 140 square leagues. The territory, being very fertile, supports a population of about 60,000. There are three anchoring places on the coast, the best of which is at Joal, whence oxen, poultry, and provisions are shipped in considerable quantities for Goree. The other ports are Serena and Faghioup.

SINA, a cape of the Mediterranean, on the east coast of Sardinia. Lat. 40. 7. N. long. 9. 58. E.

SINAAB, the ruins of an ancient city of Algiers, in the province

province of Tlemsan, nearly three miles in circumference, and situated on the eastern side of the Shelliff; 72 miles south-west of Algiers.

SINAI, a mountain of Arabia, near the head of the Red Sea, celebrated in scripture history as the spot whence the law was given to Moses. It is situated in the heart of a vast and gloomy desert, the few inhabited spots of which are occupied by hordes of Arabs, who subsist by plunder, and render the road impassable, unless for a large and well defended caravan; but the range to which Sinai belongs is called by the Arabs Jibbel Musa, and consists of several lofty summits, the valleys of which are composed of frightful gulleys, between rugged and precipitous rocks. At the foot of the mountain is the Greek convent of St. Catharine, which was found there in 1331, by William Bouldesell, and has ever since continued to afford hospitality to the few pilgrims whose zeal impels them to brave the perils of this road. It is situated on the slope of the mountain, and requires the traveller to ascend considerably before he reaches it. The edifice is 120 feet in length, and almost as many in breadth, built entirely of hewn stone, which, in such a desert, must have cost prodigious labour and expense. The monks are kept, as it were, imprisoned in this convent by the wild Arabs of the surrounding country. The gate of entrance, which is in a small adjoining building, is never opened, unless on occasion of the visit of the archbishop. At all other times, men, as well as provisions, are introduced by a basket drawn up by a cord and pulley, to the height of 30 feet. The Arabs often fire upon the convent from the adjacent rocks, and seize the monks when they find them without the walls, refusing to release them without a considerable ransom. They take advantage of the entry of the archbishop, to accompany him in great numbers, and prove most unwelcome visitors, the monks being obliged to subsist them for a considerable time. There is an excellent garden at a little distance from the convent, which is reached by a subterraneous passage, secured by iron-gates. It produces fruits, plants and vegetables, in the utmost profusion. The climate is temperate, in consequence of the elevation; and snow even falls in winter. The interior of the convent presents little remarkable, all the apartments and chapels being built of rough stone, without symmetry or order, communicating by crooked and dark passages. The church of the Transfiguration alone possesses any pretension to magnificence. It is 80 feet long, and 53 broad, paved with marble, adorned with a variety of figures. The event to which it relates is represented in Mosaic. There are many lamps of gold and silver, and the great altar is gilt over, and embellished with jewels.

From the convent, the ascent of Mount Sinai is steep, and rendered practicable only by steps cut in the rock, or loose stones piled in succession. After a short ascent, the traveller comes to a most delightful spring of fresh and cold water, a little above which is a chapel dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and where pilgrims were formerly obliged to confess themselves, and obtain absolution, before they were allowed to proceed farther. Higher up is shewn the impression made by the foot of the camel on which Mahomet was carried up to heaven, under the guidance of the angel Gabriel; but the Greeks acknowledge that this impression was made by themselves, in order to inspire the Mahometans with a reverence for the mountain, which otherwise they would never have entertained. The summit of Sinai is marked at once by a Christian church and a Turkish mosque, the former of which was once much more extensive, but is now greatly dilapidated. It commands a most extensive view over the Red Sea and the opposite coast of the Thebais; immediately beneath being the port of Tor, once the main channel by which the commodities of India were conveyed to Egypt. The descent is still steeper and rougher than the ascent, and terminates at the monastery of the Forty Saints, which has suffered still more deeply from the depredations of the Arabs, who, according to the most recent accounts, have now driven out the monks, and obtained

entire possession of it. On the other side of it is the mountain of St. Catharine, still loftier than Sinai, which many pilgrims ascend; 150 miles south-east of Suez.

SINALUNGA, a small town of Italy, in Tuscany, in the province of Sienna.

SINAMARI, a large river of French Guiana, which falls into the Atlantic, between the river Marowine and the island of Cayenne, in Lat. 5. 39. N.

SINAN, a small and winding river of Algiers, distinguished by the flight of the elder Barbarossa, who strewed his treasure, on its banks, in the vain hope of retarding the pursuit of the Spaniards. It falls into the Wed el Mailah, about five miles before its junction with the sea.

SINANO, a village of Greece, in the Morea, supposed to occupy the site of the ancient Megalopolis. The ruins of a theatre, and of the stadium, still remain; but the modern village is merely an assemblage of mud huts.

SINAPI PERSICUM, or Persian Mustard, a name by which some botanical authors have called the thlaspi, or treacle mustard.

SINAPIS [*Σινητι*, of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class tetradynamia, order siliquosa, natural order of siliquosa or cruciformes, cruciferae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved, spreading; leaflets linear, concave-channelled, cruciform-spreading, deciduous. Corolla: four-petalled, cruciform. Petals roundish, flat, spreading, entire: claws erect, linear, scarcely the length of the calyx. Nectarious glands four, ovate: one on each side between the shorter stamen and the pistil; and one on each side between the longer stamens and the calyx. Stamina: filaments six; awl-shaped, erect: two of them opposite, the length of the calyx, and four longer. Anthers from erect spreading, acuminate. Pistil: germ cylindrical. Style length of the germ, height of the stamens. Stigma capitate, entire. Pericarp: silique oblong, torose below, rugged, two-celled, two-valved: partition for the most part twice the length of the valves, large, compressed. Seeds many, globular. Hence *sinapis* differs from *brassica*, in having the calyx spreading, but the claws of the corolla erect. Crantz unites this genus with *raphanus*.—*Essential Character*. Calyx spreading. Corolla, claws erect. Gland between the shorter stamens and pistil, and between the longer stamens and calyx.

1. *Sinapis arvensis*, wild mustard, or charlock.—Root annual, fusiform; stem from nine inches or a foot to a foot and a half in height, upright, rough with a few stiff hairs or bristles bent somewhat downwards; branches spreading. Leaves petioled, rugged, serrate, sometimes entire, but most frequently jagged at the base, and sometimes lyriate or pinatifid. Flowers at the ends of the stem and branches, each on a pedicel the length of the calyx and slightly hispid. Corolla always yellow. Siliques spreading, slightly hairy or sometimes smooth, torose or swelling, ending in a short, compressed, ensiform, grooved beak. Seeds dark brown, shining, eight or nine.—Native of Europe, in corn fields: flowering in May and June, and perfecting its seeds before harvest; it is therefore very abundant in spring corn.

Its classical name in English is wild mustard; but it is known among husbandmen by the names of Charlock, Garlock, Warlock, Chadlock, Cadlock, and Kedlock, all evidently the same name originally, only variously pronounced in different counties.

The young plants, and particularly the tender tops before they flower, are boiled and eaten as greens by the peasants in Scandinavia, Ireland, and many parts of England.

2. *Sinapis Orientalis*, or Oriental mustard.—Like the preceding, but the beak only of the pod smooth.—Native of the Levant.

3. *Sinapis brassicata*, or cabbage mustard.—Leaves obovate tooth-letted even. Stature of cabbage or lettuce, but the calyx of mustard. Stem a foot and a half high, very smooth. Flower very like that of the common cabbage. Calyx yellow, scarcely emarginate. Pod like that of cabbage.—Native of China.

4. *Sinapis*

4. *Sinapis alba*, or white mustard.—Root annual. That and the stem nearly as in the *arvensis*.—Native of Germany, France, Flanders, Switzerland and Britain.

White mustard is generally cultivated in gardens as a salad herb, with cresses, raddish, &c., for winter and spring use. The seeds have nearly the same properties with those of common mustard.

5. *Sinapis nigra*, common, or black mustard.—Root annual, small. Stem upright, round, streaked, three or four feet in height, with many distant spreading branches.—Native of Europe.

6. *Sinapis Pyrenaica*, or Pyrenean mustard.—Siliques streaked, rugged; leaves runcinate, even. Root biennial. Flowers racemed, small, yellow.—Native of the Pyrenees, Mount Cenis, the Alps of the Vaudois and di Viu. There is a variety of this species.—Native of the coast of Uneglia, the descent of the Col di Tenda and the following mountains towards Nice, &c.

The remaining species of this genus are *Sinapis pubescens*, *hispida*, *Chinensis*, *juncea*, *allioni*, *erucoides*, *cernua*, *Hispanica*, *Japonica*, *incana*, *frutescens*, *radicata* and *lævigata*.

Propagation and Culture.—All the species, when they are weeds among corn, being annuals, may be destroyed, or at least checked, by spring-feeding with sheep, or by weeding with the hook, to prevent their flowering. The seed will lie in the ground, till turned up within the sphere of vegetation; by which means they may be destroyed on fallows.

White mustard is chiefly cultivated in gardens for a salad herb in the winter and spring. For this purpose sow the seeds very thick in drills, upon a warm border, or in very cold weather upon a moderate hot-bed.

Common mustard is cultivated only for the seeds, which should be sown in the same way as those of the preceding, and treated in the same manner, only allowing the plants twice as much room, or hoeing them out to the distance of eighteen inches.

The other sorts are cultivated only for variety, and may be treated in the same way.

SINAPISIS, a word used by some writers as a name for Armenian bole.

SINAPISM [σινάπισμος, Gr.], in Pharmacy, a cataplasm formed of equal parts of mustard seed and linseed meal.

SINAPISTRUM, in Botany, Tourn. 231. t. 116, a name of Hermann's, alluding to the resemblance of the plant, or at least of its pods, to *Sinapis*, or Mustard. See **CLEOME**.

SINARA, the name of the male dancers, who according to the mythology of the Hindoos, amuse their god Indra regent of the firmament.

SINARUCO, or **SINARUCA**, a large river of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, which rises at the foot of the snowy desert of Chiggas, in the mountains of Bogota. It receives an accession to its waters from the overflowings of the Apure and the Arauca, and enters the Orinoco between the Capanapa and the Meta.

SINASBARIUM, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the sisymbrium, or water-mint, common in all our ditches and watery places.

SINASSE, a village of Abyssinia; 40 miles north-east of Mine.

SINAY, a large village of the Netherlands, in East Flanders, with 3400 inhabitants; 16 miles north-east of Ghent.

SINAY, a small island near the west coast of the island of Lucon. Lat. 18. 11. N. long. 120. 36. E.

SINGAPORE, or **SINGAPORA**, an island, with a town of the same name, near the south coast of Malacca, which gives name to the narrow sea called the straits of Singapura. The depth of water through these straits is generally from 16 to 17 fathoms, and the scenery along the shores is highly beautiful. The port of Singapore is extremely fine, and through its straits pass multitudes of vessels from various countries. Sir Stamford Raffles formed a British settlement there in 1819, which is so rapidly increasing that it promises to eclipse the

older one of Pulo-fenang, and indeed to become one of the greatest emporiums of the Eastern world. Its being a free port, of course conduces as much to its success as its beauty and situation. Lat. 1. 12. N. long. 103. 30. E.

SIN-CARPOU, a port of Chinese Tartary; 555 miles east-north-east of Peking.

SINCE, *conj.* [formed by contraction from *sithence*, or *sith thence*, from *sith*, Saxon.] Because that.

Since truth and constancy are vain,
Since neither love, nor sense of pain,
Nor force of reason can persuade,
Then let example be obey'd.

Granville.

From the time that.—He is the most improved mind *since* you saw him that ever was. *Pope.*

SINCE, *adv.* Ago; before this.—A law was made no longer *since* than the twenty-eighth of Henry the eighth. *Davies.*

SINCE, *preposition.* After; reckoning from some time past to the time present.—He *since* the morning hour set out from heaven. *Milton.*

SINCENY, a small town of France, department of the Aisne, on the Oise, near Chauny, with a large manufacture of stoneware.

SINCE'RE, *adj.* [*sincerus*, Lat.; *sincere*, Fr.] Unhurt; uninjured.

He try'd a tough well-chosen spear;
The inviolable body stood *sincere*.

Dryden.

Pure; unmingled.

Pardon my tears, 'tis joy which bids them flow;
A joy which never was *sincere* till now;
That which my conquest gave, I could not prize,
Or 'twas imperfect till I saw your eyes.

Dryden.

Honest; undissembling; uncorrupt.

This top-proud fellow,
Whom from the flow of gall I name not, but
From *sincere* motions by intelligence,
I do know to be corrupt.

Shakespeare.

SINCE'RELY, *adv.* Perfectly; without alloy.

Joy shall overtake us as a flood,
When every thing that is *sincerely* good
And perfectly divine,

With truth, and peace, and love, shall ever shine. *Milton.*

Honestly; without hypocrisy; with purity of heart.—The purer and perfecter our religion is, the worthier effects it hath in them who stedfastly and *sincerely* embrace it. *Hooker.*

SINCE'RENESS, *s.* Sincerity. *Unused.*

SINCE'RITY, *s.* [*sincerité*, French.] Honesty of intention; purity of mind.—Jesus Christ has purchased for us terms of reconciliation, who will accept of *sincerity* instead of perfection; but then this sincerity implies our honest endeavours to do our utmost. *Rogers.*—Freedom from hypocrisy.

In thy consort cease to fear a foe;
For these she feels *sincerity* of woe.

Pope.

SINCIPUT, in Anatomy, the fore-part of the head, in opposition to occiput.

SINCLAIR'S BAY, a bay on the east coast of Scotland, in the county of Caithness. Lat. 58. 28. N. long. 2. 58. W.

SINCLAIR'S ROCKS, four small rocky islets off the coast of New Holland, included by Captain Flinders in Nuyt's archipelago.

SINCLAIRTOWN, a village of Scotland, in Fifeshire, immediately adjoining Pathhead, containing in 1811, 947 inhabitants, who are mostly weavers.

SIND, in Agriculture, provincially to rinse or wash out, as a milking pail, dish, &c.

SINDANGAN BAY, a bay on the north-west coast of Mindanao, extending from north to south about 100 miles. Lat. 8. 15. N. long. 123. 5. E.

SINDE,

SINDE, an extensive province of Hindostan, formerly included in that of Moultan, and situated on both sides of the river Indus, lying principally between the latitudes of 24. and 27. N. This country bears a very striking resemblance to Egypt. It consists of a level plain, with a noble river fertilising the banks as far as the inundation extends, after which the face of the earth becomes a sandy desert, beyond which rises a range of barren mountains. During the months of June, July and August, while the rains are falling in other parts of India, the sky becomes overcast with clouds; but it is seldom that the rain falls. During these months the thermometer ranges from 90° to 100°; but in the northern parts it is cool from August to March. The islands in the Delta of the Ganges are composed of sand, and are covered with a prickly shrub, very nourishing to camels, on which account a great number are bred in this district. The cultivation in Sinda depends on the proper management of the irrigation by means of canals and drains from the river, from which the water is frequently raised by wheels. The produce is sugar, indigo and all kinds of grain; they have also extensive pasturage; but agriculture and commerce have both much declined since the accession of the present rapacious rulers of Sinda, whose government is that of military despotism; and their revenues are supposed not to exceed 525,000*l.* per annum. The principal towns are Hyderabad the capital of Tatta, Bhukor and Corachie: the latter is the chief port, the river being now unnavigable for ships up to Tatta, and Lary or Lahary Bunder, having fallen to decay, in consequence of the impediments in the navigation. Sinda produces but few articles of commerce. Its exports are confined to rice, butter, pot-ash, hides, saltpetre, assafœtida, frankincense, indigo, horses and camels. Its imports are sugarcandy, spices, pepper, cocoa-nuts, ivory, metals of all kinds, Bengal and China silks, porcelain and pearls. The present rulers of Sinda do not keep up a standing army, but there are 42 tribes who hold their lands on a military tenure, and are obliged to furnish a certain number of cavalry when called on, by which means a numerous army is shortly collected. They have also a considerable number of fortresses dispersed throughout the country, and garrisoned by local troops. The natives of Sinda are now mostly Mahometans of the Soony sect. The men are generally of a middle size, well made, and more robust than those of the South of India. The women are also much fairer, and some of them handsome.

Of the ancient history of Sinda, little is known from the period when it was overrun by the Greeks under Alexander, till about the middle of the 6th century. It was then governed by a dynasty who bore the title of Sasee, whose dominions are said to have extended as far north as Cabul, and to the south-east as far as Surat. During the reign of Suheer Sing, an army of Persians invaded Sinda, and having killed the rajah in a general engagement, returned home loaded with plunder and captives. After three successive reigns, the dynasty of Sasee was put an end to by a Brahmin named Chuch, who mounted the throne, and is said to have died in the year 671. He was quietly succeeded by his son Daher, but his repose was soon disturbed by an invasion of Arabs, who are said to have been instigated by an affront offered to the dignity of the khalif. This event took place in A. D. 712; the Arabs were commanded by Mohammed Ben Kasim; a general engagement took place, the rajah was killed, and his troops entirely routed. From this period till the end of the 10th century, Sinda was governed by a viceroy nominated by the khalifs; but during the reign of Kadir Billah, he found it requisite to withdraw the troops from Sinda, for the defence of his own dominions. On this event, Sinda was for many years the scene of extreme anarchy and confusion, owing to the numerous competitors for the sovereignty, till at length the Hindoo family of Soomrah acquired the superiority over all their rivals, and became masters of the southern districts, while Moultan and the northern parts became subject to the Afghans. The Soomrah dynasty were succeeded in the beginning of the 14th century, by a Hindoo, who took the title of Jam, the

fourth person in succession from whom was converted to the Mahometan faith, and took the title of Salah addeen, the purifier of religion. One of his successors named Jam Babeenah was taken prisoner by the army of Feroze III., emperor of Delhi, in the year 1364, but was permitted to govern Sinda as viceroy of the Afghan monarch; which system continued under their respective successors, till the beginning of the 16th century, when the throne of Hindostan was transferred to the Moguls. On this event, Sinda was taken possession of by a Mahometan named Meerza Eesa Toorkhan, under the modest title of nabob. His successors continued to pay tribute to the Moguls, till the decline of their empire, when a tribe of Arabian descent obtained the superiority in Sinda. They were styled the Kulora or Calore nabobs, and paid or withheld the tribute, according to the exigency of the case. In 1739, all the territories west of the river Indus were ceded by the emperor Mohammed Shah, to the Persian usurper Nadir Shah. The assassination of that person in the year 1747, liberated the rulers of Sinda from their allegiance to Persia, and they again nominally professed themselves subjects of the court of Delhi. In 1756, the feeble emperor of Hindostan, Alumgeer II. made over the provinces of Sinda and Punjab, to the Afghan prince Timour, as the dower of his daughter; but political events did not permit the Afghans to take possession. In the month of June 1779, a Mahometan tribe of Balooch origin, called Talpoories, rebelled against the authority of the Kulora nabob of Sinda, and after putting some hundreds of his adherents to death, compelled him to flee to Cabul. Timour Shah immediately dispatched an army to reinstate the nabob in his rights, in which they succeeded without difficulty; but no sooner had the Afghans returned home, than the Talpoories again rebelled and were victorious. In consequence of this success, they were enabled to raise a considerable force, and to set the Afghans at defiance. It was not till the year 1786, that Timour Shah again attempted to interfere with the politics of Sinda: the Afghans were, however, completely routed; after which a negotiation was set on foot, which terminated in the Sindian chiefs acknowledging themselves feudatories of Cabul, and agreeing to pay an annual tribute, while the Shah issued a commission to Futteh Aly and his three brothers, constituting them Ameer, or rulers of Sinda, on his behalf. A little more than three years elapsed before the Ameer declined paying any tribute, and the Afghans were not then at leisure to enforce it. As soon as Zeman Shah found himself firm on the throne of his father, he marched in the year 1793, with a powerful army, to the boundaries of Sinda; but finding the Ameer very powerful, he accepted 350,000*l.*, being a quarter of his demand, and returned to his own dominions. The frequent revolutions at the court of Cabul, enabled the Sindians to accumulate their riches and strength; and it was not till 12 years afterwards that they could be compelled to pay a further tribute of about 400,000*l.* On the nomination by Timour Shah in 1786, of Futteh Aly to the supreme authority of Sinda, that chief made over extensive tracts of country to different branches of his own family who had assisted him in usurping the government, and these chiefs are now become independent of the supreme authority. On the death of Futteh Aly, the three remaining brothers agreed to govern the province conjointly, and that their successors should continue the same system. The whole of the revenue, amounting to about 460,000*l.*, was divided in four shares; two of which were assigned to Ghoolam Aly, the eldest, on condition of his paying the permanent civil and military expenses; each of the other brothers received a share. In 1812, Ghoolam Aly was killed by accident, on which event his son, took the lower seat in the triumvirate, and the two brothers ascended a step each. It is difficult to conjecture how long this very peculiar system of government may endure, but at present the members appear to act with great concord and unanimity. The total amount of the revenues of Sinda may be calculated at 700,000*l.* per annum; but as the chiefs are gradually extending their territories, they are supposed to be increasing. In the strong fortress of Amerkote,

kote, situated in a desert, 30 miles east of the Indus, they have placed all their treasures. The tribute to Cabul, is about 40,000*l.* per annum, but is never paid unless enforced; so that five-sixths of the amount is still due. In the year 1808, the Bombay government sent an embassy to the Ameers of Sinde; and a native agent, or *chargé d'affaires*, resides at Hyderabad, on the part of the East India Company.

SINDE, a river of Hindostan. This river has its rise in the province of Malwah, and after a winding course, falls into the Jumna; 7 miles below the town of Calpie.

SINDE SAGOR, a district of Hindostan, province of Lahore, belonging to the Seiks. It is principally situated between the 31st and 32d degrees of northern latitude. It is bounded on three sides by the rivers Indus, Ravy, and Jhy-lum, and on the north by a range of mountains. Under a good government it would be extremely productive.

SINDELFFINGEN, a small town of the south-west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 9 miles south-west of Stutgard. It contains 3000 inhabitants, and was once the seat of an Augustinian monastery, the funds of which were applied in 1477, to the establishment of the university of Juingen. The environs are uncommonly fertile.

SINDERBY, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Thirsk.

SINDI, a people of Asiatic Sarmatia, in the number of those who inhabited the Cimmeric Bosphorus. *Strabo*.

SINDIA, a town of Asia Minor, in Lycia. *Steph. Byz.*

SINDIANI, a Scythian people who inhabited the vicinity of the Palus Mæotis, according to Lucian.

SINDION, a village of Lower Egypt, on the western bank of the Nile; 4 miles north of Faoua.

SINDKERA, a town of Hindostan, province of Khandesh, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 21. 11. N. long. 74. 40. E.

SINDON, *s.* [Most take *sidinim*, (Heb.) from whence the word *indon* seems to come, for such linen cloths as the whole body may be wrapped in. *Patrick on Judges.*] A fold; a wrapper.—There were found a book and a letter, both written in fine parchment, and wrapped in *indons* of linen. *Bacon*.—Others say the word properly signifies a shroud, and is thus used by the evangelist to denote the linen cloth in which Joseph of Arimathea wrapped the body of Jesus, after its embalment, &c.

“ Ridebis ventos, hoc munere tectus, et imbres
Nec sic in Syria Sindone tectus eris.” Mart. l. iv. ep. 19.

SINDON, in old Surgery, was a little round piece of linen, or silk, or lint, used in dressing the wound after trepanning.

SINDOURY, a town of Hindostan, province of Gund-waneh, belonging to the Nagpore rajah. Lat. 22. 7. N. long. 82. 40. E.

SINDSCAR. See SINJAR.

SINE, *s.* [*sinus*, Latin.] A right *sine*, in geometry, is a right line drawn from one end of an arch perpendicularly upon the diameter drawn from the other end of that arch; or it is half the chord of twice the arch. *Harris*.—Whatever inclinations the rays have to the plane of incidence, the *sine* of the angle of incidence of every ray, considered apart, shall have to the *sine* of the angle of refraction a constant ratio. *Cheyne*.

SINE DIE, in Law. When judgment is given against the plaintiff, he is said to be *in misericordia pro falso clamore suo*; and for the defendant, it is said, *eat inde sine die*; i. e. he is dismissed the court.

The phrase is also used in parliament, for the adjournment of any debate, without fixing the day when it shall come on again; which is looked upon as a genteeler dismissal of the thing in question.

SINECURE, *s.* [*sine* without, and *cura*, care, Latin.] An office which has revenue without any employment.

No simony nor *sinecure* is known,
There works the bee, no honey for the drone. *Garth*.

SINEGAR CREEK, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into the Potomac. Lat. 39. 8. N. long. 77. 33. W.

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SINEMAHONING, a north-western branch of the Susquehanna river.

SINEPUXENT, a long and narrow bay on the south-east coast of Maryland and Virginia, in the United States, extending north-north-east and south-south-west, parallel with the sea coast. It is separated from the Atlantic by Asatigue, a long and narrow island. This inlet is situated in about Lat. 38. 11. 30. N.

SINES, a small sea-port in the south-west of Portugal, province of Alentejo. It contains 1400 inhabitants, and has some fisheries; but is more noted for having given birth to the celebrated navigator Vasco de Gama; 40 miles south of Setubal. Lat. 37. 57. 30. N. long. 8. 44. 45. W.

SINEU, a town of the Spanish dominions, in the interior of the island of Majorca; 20 miles east of Palma. It is situated in one of the finest and richest districts of the island, and contains 5500 inhabitants, with a handsome church, a convent, and a monastery. It was a town so far back as the time of the Romans; afterwards the residence of the Moorish princes, and finally of the Christian kings of Majorca.

SINEW, *s.* [ἰνῆψ, ἰνῆψα, Sax.; *sinewen*, Dutch.] A tendon.

The torrent roar'd and we did buffet it
With lusty *sinews*.

Shakspeare.

Applied to whatever gives strength or compactness: as, money is the *sinews* of war.—Some other *sinews* there are, from which that overplus of strength in persuasion doth arise. *Hooker*.—Nerve. *But this is improper.*

The feeling power, which is life's root,
Through every living part itself doth shed

By *sinews*, which extend from head to foot;
And, like a net, all o'er the body spread.

Davies.

To SINEW, *v. a.* To knit as by sinews. *Not in use, but elegant.*

Ask the Lady Bona for thy queen;
So shalt thou *sinew* both these lands together.

Shakspeare.

SINEW RIVER, a river of North America, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, between the 55th and 56th degrees of north latitude, and falls into the Peace river, after a course of about 100 miles.

SINEWED, *adj.* Furnished with sinews.—Strong *sinewed* was the youth, and big of bone. *Dryden*.—Strong; firm; vigorous.

He will the rather do it when he sees
Ourselves well *sinewed* to our defence.

Shakspeare.

SINEWLESS, *adj.* Having no sinews; without power or strength. *Huloet*.—All that ever was said against these helps to beauty, seems to many women weak and *sinewless*. *Bp. Taylor*.

SINEW SHRUNK, *adj.* A horse is said to be *sinew-shrunk* when he has been overridden, and so fatigued that he becomes gauntbellied by a stiffness and contraction of the two sinews which are under his belly. *Farrier's Dict.*

SINEWY, *adj.* Consisting of a sinew; nervous. The nerves and sinews are in poetry often confounded.

The *sinewy* thread my brain lets fall
Through every part,
Can tie those parts, and make me one of all.

Donne.

Strong; nervous; vigorous; forcible.

And for thy vigour,
Bull-bearing Milo his addition yields
To *sinewy* Ajax.

Shakspeare.

The northern people are large, fair-complexioned, strong, *sinewy*, and courageous. *Hale*.

SINFARS, a small town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, with 2500 inhabitants.

SINFAN, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire; 3½ miles south-by-west of Derby.

SINFUL, *adj.* [ἰνῆψ, Saxon.] Alien from God; not holy; unsanctified.

Drive out the *sinful* pair,
From hallow'd ground the unholy.

Milton.

Wicked ; not observant of religion ; contrary to religion.
It is used both of persons and things.

Thrice happy man, said then the father grave,
Whose staggering steps thy steady hand doth lead,
And shews the way his *sinful* soul to save,
Who better can the way to heaven aread ?

Spenser.

SINFULLY, *adv.* Wickedly ; not piously ; not according to the ordinance of God.

All this from my remembrance brutish wrath
Sinfully pluckt, and not a man of you
Had so much grace to put it in my mind.

Shakspeare.

SINFULNESS, *s.* Alienation from God ; neglect or violation of the duties of religion ; contrariety to religious goodness.—Peevishness, the general fault of sick persons, is equally to be avoided for the folly and *sinfulness*. *Wake.*

To SING, *v. n.* preterite *I sang*, or *sung* ; participle *pass. sung*. [*ſingān*, Saxon ; *ſingia*, Icelandic ; *ſinghen*, Dutch.] To form the voice to melody ; to articulate musically.

They rather had beheld
Dissentious numbers pestering streets, than see
Our tradesmen *singing* in their shops, and going
About their functions friendly.

Shakspeare.

To utter sweet sounds inarticulately.—You will sooner
bind a bird from *singing* than from flying. *Bacon.*—To
make any small or shrill noise ; to tell in poetry.

Bid her exalt her melancholy wing,
And rais'd from earth, and sav'd from passion, *sing*
Of human hope by cross event destroy'd,
Of useless wealth and greatness unenjoy'd.

Prior.

To SING, *v. a.* To relate in poetry.

I sing the man who Judah's sceptre bore,
In that right hand which held the crook before.

Cowley.

Arms and the man *I sing*. *Dryden.*—To celebrate ; to
give praises to, in verse.

The last, the happiest British king,
Whom thou shalt paint or I shall *sing*.

Addison.

To utter harmoniously.

Inces, caddisses, cambricks, lawns, why
He *sings* them over as they were gods and goddesses.

Shakspeare.

SING, or SIGN, a small town and fortress of Austrian Dalmatia, on a steep hill called Vukuschitza. It was built by the Turks in 1686, but taken by the Venetians, who strengthened its fortifications ; 18 miles north of Spalatro, and 9 miles north of Clissa.

SINGAN, a city of China, of the first rank, in the frontier province of Shan-si. It formed at one time the imperial residence, and is still one of the largest and finest cities in China. Being situated on the Tartar frontier, it is the rendezvous of the troops appointed to defend the empire on its north-western side. The inhabitants are taller and more robust than in the other provinces. The mules of the surrounding country are so much esteemed, that they sell for a high price at Pekin. Lat. 35. 14. N. long. 108. 29. E.

SINGAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Pechelée.

SINGBHOOM, a district of Hindostan, province of Orissa, situated between the 22d and 23d degrees of northern latitude. It is extremely hilly and full of woods ; consequently badly cultivated, and far from populous. It belongs to various Hindoo chiefs, who are tributary to the Mahrattas, but seldom pay without compulsion. Many of the inhabitants are said to make robbery their profession ; and they used formerly to make predatory excursions into Bengal.

SINGBHOOM, the capital of the abovementioned district, belonging to a native chieftain, who is tributary to the rajah of Nagpore. Lat. 22. 37. N. long. 85. 55. E.

To SINGE, *v. a.* [*ſrængān*, Saxon ; *ſengen*, Teut.] To scorch ; to burn slightly or superficially.

They bound the doctor,
Whose beard they have *sing'd* off with brands of fire.

Shakspeare.

I singed the toes of an ape through a burning-glass, and he never would endure it after. *L'Estrange.*

SINGE, *s.* A slight burn.

SINGEN, a village of the south-west of Germany, in Baden, adjacent to Hohentwiél, and 17 miles west-north-west of Constance. Population 1000.

SINGEPOORAM, a town of Hindostan, province of Orissa. It belongs to a Hindoo chief, who is tributary to the Nagpore Mahrattas. Lat. 19. 35. N. long. 83. 24. E.

SINGER, *s.* One that sings ; one whose profession or business is to sing.—His filching was like an unskilful *singer*, he kept not time. *Shakspeare.*

SINGHEA, or SINGEE, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, district of Hajypore. It is situated on the eastern bank of the river Gunduck, and is surrounded by land, which produces the finest saltpetre. The East India Company have long had a factory here, and now monopolize the whole of that article throughout their provinces. Near to Singhea is the site of an ancient city, supposed to have been Lukhore, where there stands a remarkable pillar, with a Sanscrit inscription, stating that it was built by a person who, having no children, wished to hand down his name to posterity. Lat. 25. 52. N. long. 85. 15. E.

SINGHERICONDA, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, and district of Ongole. Lat. 15. 14. N. long. 80. 2. E.

SINGING, *s.* Act of modulating the voice to melody ; musical articulation ; utterance of sweet sounds.—The time of the *singing* of birds is come. *Cantic.*

SINGING-BOOK, *s.* A book of tunes.—When shall we hear a new set of *singing-books*, or the viols ? *Brewer.*

SINGINGING, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of the island of Nassau. Lat. 3. 50. S. long. 100. 2. E.

SINGINGLY, *adv.* With a kind of tune.—Counterfeite courtiers which simper it in outward shewe, making pretie mouthes, and marching with a stalking pace like cranes, spetting over their own shoulder, speaking lispingly, and answering *singingly*, with perfumed gloves under their girdles ! *North* (1575).

SINGING-MAN, *s.* One who is employed to sing ; a term still used in our cathedrals.—The prince broke thy head for liking his father to a *singing-man* of Windsor. *Shakspeare.*

SINGING-MASTER, *s.* One who teaches to sing.—He employed an itinerant *singing-master* to instruct them rightly in the tunes of the Psalms. *Addison.*

SINGLE, *adj.* [*ſingulus*, Latin.] One ; not double ; not more than one.—The words are clear and easy, and their originals are of *single* signification without any ambiguity. *South.*—Particular ; individual.—If one *single* word were to express but one simple idea, and nothing else, there would be scarce any mistake. *Watts.*—Not compounded.—As simple ideas are opposed to complex, and *single* ideas to compound, so propositions are distinguished : the English tongue has some advantage above the learned languages, which have no usual word to distinguish *single* from simple. *Watts.*—Alone ; having no companion ; having no assistant.

Servant of God, well hast thou fought
The better fight, who *single* hast maintain'd
Against revolted multitudes the cause
Of truth.

Milton.

Unmarried.—Is the *single* man therefore blessed ? no : as a walled town is more worthy than a village, so is the forehead of a married man more honourable than the bare brow of a bachelor. *Shakspeare.*—Not complicated ; not duplicated.—To make flowers double is effected by often removing them into new earth ; as, on the contrary, double flowers, by

by neglecting and not removing, prove *single*. *Bacon*.—Pure; uncorrupt; not double minded; simple. *A scriptural sense*.—The light of the body is the eye; if thine eye be *single*, thy whole body shall be full of light. *St. Matt*.—That in which one is opposed to one.

He, when his country, threaten'd with alarms,
Shall more than once the Punick bands affright,
Shall kill the Gaulish king in *single* fight. *Dryden*.

Singular; particular; small.

They will scarce

Serve to beg *single* beer. *Beaum. and Fl.*

Weak; silly.—Is not your voice broken? your wind short? your chin double? your wit *single*? *Shakspeare*.—He utters such *single* matter, in so infantly a voice. *Beaum. and Fl.*

To SINGLES, *v. a.* To choose out from among others.

I saw him in the battle range about,
And how he *singled* Clifford forth. *Shakspeare*.

To sequester; to withdraw.—Yea simply, saith Basil, and universally, whether it be in works of nature, or of voluntary choice, I see not any thing done as it should be, if it be wrought by an agent *singling* itself from consorts. *Hooker*.—To take alone.—Many men there are, than whom nothing is more commendable when they are *singled*; and yet, in society with others, none less fit to answer the duties which are looked for at their hands. *Hooker*.—To separate.—Hardly they herd, which by good hunters *singled* are. *Sidney*.

SINGLEBOROUGH, a hamlet of England, in Buckinghamshire; 3 miles north of Winslow.

SINGLENESS, *s.* Not duplicity or multiplicity; the state of being only one.—Simplicity; sincerity; honest plainness.—It is not the deepness of their knowledge, but the *singleness* of their belief, which God accepteth. *Hooker*.—State of being alone.

Hear next, that Athelwold's sad widow swears
Never to violate the holy vow
She to his truth first plighted; swears to bear
The sober *singleness* of widowhood
To her sad grave. *Mason*.

SINGLETON, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5½ miles south-by-west of Midhurst.

SINGLETON, a township of England, in Lancashire; 2½ miles east-by-south of Poulton.

SINGLY, *adv.* Individually; particularly; only; by himself.

Look thee, 'tis so; thou *singly* honest man,
Here take: the gods out of my misery
Have sent thee treasure. *Shakspeare*.

Without partners or associates.

Belinda

Burns to encounter two adventurous knights,
At ombre *singly* to decide their doom. *Pope*.

Honestly; simply; sincerely.

SINGROWLA, a district of Hindostan, province of Gundwaueh, situated about the 24th degree of northern latitude, and bounded on the east by the province of Bahar. It is mountainous, and abounds with woods; consequently poorly cultivated, and thinly inhabited. It is governed by Hindoo chieftains, who are tributary to the Nagpore Maharrattas. Some of the hills produce iron, and others of them contain several mythological excavations and images, but very inferior to those of Ellora, or the south of India. The principal of the native chieftains is the rajah of Shahpoor.

SING-SING, a village and landing place of the United States, in West Chester county, New York, finely situated on a rising bank on the Hudson, where the river is about three miles wide; 36 miles north of New York.

SING-SONG, *s.* A contemptuous expression for bad singing.—Campanella tells us, that the German and Gallican heresy began with *sing-song*, and is carried on by comedy and tragedies. *Rymer*.

SINGULAR, *adj.* [*singulier*, Fr.; *singularis*, Latin.] Single; not complex; not compound.—That idea which represents one particular determinate thing is called a *singular* idea, whether simple, complex, or compound. *Watts*.—[In grammar.] Expressing only one; not plural.—If St. Paul's speaking of himself in the first person *singular* has various meanings, his use of the first person plural has a greater latitude. *Locke*.—Particular; unexampled.

So *singular* a sadness

Must have a cause as strange as the effect. *Denham*.

Having something not common to others. It is commonly used in a sense of diapprobation, whether applied to persons or things.

His zeal

None seconded, as *singular* and rash. *Milton*.

Alone; that of which there is but one.—These busts of the emperors and empresses are all very scarce, and some of them almost *singular* in their kind. *Addison*.

SINGULAR, *s.* Particular; single instance.—We cannot o'er run through all *singulars*. *More*.

SINGULARIST, *s.* One who affects singularity.

SINGULARITY, *s.* [*singularité*, Fr.] Some character or quality by which one is distinguished from all, or from all, from most others.—Pliny addeth this *singularity* to that soil, that the second year the very falling down of the seeds yieldeth corn. *Ralegh*.—Any thing remarkable; a curiosity; uncommon character or form.—I took notice of this little figure for the *singularity* of the instrument: it is not unlike a violin. *Addison*.—Particular privilege or prerogative.—Catholicism, which is here attributed unto the church, must be understood in opposition to the legal *singularity* of the Jewish nation. *Pearson*.—Character or manners different from those of others.—The spirit of *singularity* in a few ought to give place to public judgment. *Hooker*.

To SINGULARIZE, *v. a.* [*se singulariser*, French.] To make single.

SINGULARLY, *adv.* Particularly; in a manner not common to others.—Solitude and singularity can neither daunt nor disgrace him, unless we could suppose it a disgrace to be *singularly* good. *South*.—So as to express the singular number.—Tertullian spake of bishops by succession, which were still *singularly* one by one. *Bp. Morton*.

SINGULT, *s.* [*singultus*, Latin.] A sigh.

So when her tears were stopt from either eye,
Her *singults*, blubbrings, seem'd to make them fly
Out at her oyster-mouth, and nostrils wide. *Brown*.

SINGULTUS, in Medicine, a spasmodic affection of the diaphragm, which, from the sound which accompanies it, is commonly called *hickup*. See *PATHOLOGY*.

SINGUMNERE, a district of Hindostan, province of Aurungabad, belonging to the Maharrattas. It is situated about the 20th degree of northern latitude, and, although hilly, is supposed to yield a revenue of 125,000*l.* per annum. The chief towns are Singunnere, Batowal, and Bejapore.

SINGUMNERE, the capital of the above-mentioned district, and residence of the Mahratta collector. Lat. 19. 46. N. long. 74. 40 E.

SINHOA, a small sea-port of Cochin-china. Lat. 17. N. long. 88. 14. E.

SINIA, a small river of Siberia, which falls into the Obi; 52 miles north of Beresof.

SINIGALLIA, a town of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical State, duchy of Urbino, situated on the Misa, at its influx into the Adriatic. It is well built, and surrounded with a mound and bastions, but fresh water is unfortunately scarce, and the air is, in some seasons, unhealthy; so that the population does not exceed 6200. Its cathedral, of the Corinthian order, and some other churches, are worth notice. The principal source of its wealth is its well known fair, held annually in July, and resorted to at one time by foreigners from almost all parts of Europe, but now considerably decayed. It is sometimes called Senogallia, a name derived from

from the Galli Senones; 17 miles south-east of Pesaro. Lat. 43. 43. 16. N. long. 13. 11. 45. E.

SIN-ING, a town of Corea; 25 miles east-south-east of Long-Kouang.

SIN-ING, a town of Corea; 8 miles north-east of Sing-cheou.

SINING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chan-si. It is one of the fortified places constructed for the defence of the great wall. Lat. 36. 40. N. long. 101. 24. E.

SINISTER, *adj.* [*sinister*, Latin.] Being on the left hand; left; not right; not dexter. It seems to be used with the accent on the second syllable, at least in the primitive, and on the first in the figurative sense.

My mother's blood
Runs on the dexter cheek, and this *sinister*
Bounds in my sire's.

Shakspeare.

Bad; perverse; corrupt; deviating from honesty; unfair. —The Duke of Clarence was soon after by *sinister* means made clean away. *Spenser.*—[*sinistre*, Fr.] Unlucky; inauspicious. The accent is here on the second syllable.

Tempt it again; that is thy act, or none:
What all the several ills that visit earth,
Brought forth by night, with a *sinister* birth,
Plagues, famine, fire, could not reach unto,
The sword, nor surfeits, let thy fury do.

B. Jonson.

SINISTER-HANDED, *adj.* Left-handed; unlucky.
That which still makes her mirth to flow,
Is our *sinister-handed* woe.

Lovelace.

SINISTERLY, *adv.* Perversely; corruptly; unfairly.
—Persons which most *sinisterly* and maliciously labour.
Injunctions of 2. Eliz.

SINISTRUM, a sect of ancient heretics, thus called, because they held the left hand in abhorrence.

SINISTROUS, *adj.* [*sinister*, Lat.] Absurd; perverse; wrong-headed: in French *gauche*.—Many, who are *sinistrous* unto good actions, are ambidexterous unto bad.

Brown.

SINISTROUSLY, *adv.* With a tendency to the left.—Many in their infancy are *sinistrously* disposed, and divers continue all their life left-handed, and have but weak and imperfect use of the right. *Brown.*—Perversely; absurdly.—Fall not—to accuse, calumniate, backbite, or *sinistrously* interpret others. *Brown.*

SINJAR, a range of lofty mountains, situated in Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey, on which stood the ancient fortress of Sangara, surrendered to the Persians by the pusillanimous successor of Julian. They are occupied and infested by a tribe called Yezedi, the mortal enemies of the Turks, and who have been completely subdued by them. They abound in pasturage, and yield grain sufficient for the use of the rude inhabitants. These mountains occur in the route between Mosul and Merdin.

To SINK, *v. n. pret.* *I sunk*, anciently *sank*; part. *sunk* or *sunken*. [*rencan*, *rencan*, Saxon; *sinken*, German; *sigcan*, M. Goth. from *sigan*, to subside, to fall down. Junius, and Serenius.] To fall down through any medium; not to swim; to go to the bottom.

In with the river *sunk*, and with it rose,
Satan, involv'd in rising mist; then sought
Where to lie hid.

Milton.

To fall gradually.—The arrow went out at his heart, and he *sunk* down in his chariot. 2 *Kings.*—To enter or penetrate into any body.—David took a stone and slang it, and smote the Philistine, that the stone *sunk* into his forehead. 1 *Sam.*—To lose height; to fall to a level.

In vain has nature form'd
Mountains and oceans to oppose his passage;
He bounds o'er all, victorious in his march;
The Alps and Pyreneans *sink* before him.

Addison.

To lose or want prominence.—What were his marks?—A lean cheek, a blue eye and *sunken*. *Shakspeare.*—To be overwhelmed or depressed.

Our country *sinks* beneath the yoke;
It weeps, it bleeds, and each new day a gash
Is added to her wounds.

Shakspeare.

To be received; to be impressed.—Let these sayings *sink* down into your ears. *St. Luke.*—Truth never *sinks* into these men's minds, nor gives any tincture to them. *Locke.*
—To decline; to decrease; to decay.

Then down the precipice of time it goes,
And *sinks* in minutes which in ages rose.

Dryden.

To fall into any state worse than the former; to tend to ruin.

Nor urg'd the labours of my lord in vain,
A *sinking* empire longer to sustain.

Dryden.

To SINK, *v. a.* To put under water; to disable from swimming or floating.—A small fleet of English made an hostile invasion, or incursion, upon their havens and roads, and fired, *sunk*, and carried away ten thousand ton of their great shipping. *Bacon.*—To delve; to make by delving.—At Saga in Germany they dig up iron in the fields by *sinking* ditches two feet deep, and in the space of ten years the ditches are digged again for iron since produced. *Boyle.*
—To depress; to degrade.—Trifling painters or sculptors bestow infinite pains upon the most insignificant parts of a figure, 'till they *sink* the grandeur of the whole. *Pope.*—To plunge into destruction.

Heaven bear witness,
And if I have a conscience, let it *sink* me,
Ev'n as the axe falls, if I be not faithful.

Shakspeare.

To make to fall.—These are so far from raising mountains, that they overturn and fling down some before standing, and undermine others, *sinking* them into the abyss. *Woodward.*—To bring low; to diminish in quantity.

When on the banks of an unlook'd-for stream,
You *sunk* the river with repeated draughts,
Who was the last in all your host that thirsted?

Addison.

To crush; to overbear; to depress.—That Hector was in certainty of death, and depressed with the conscience of an ill cause: if you will not grant the first of these will *sink* the spirit of a hero, you'll at least allow the second may. *Pope.*—To diminish; to degrade.—They catch at all opportunities of ruining our trade, and *sinking* the figure which we make. *Addison.*—To make to decline. To suppress; to conceal; to invert.—If sent with ready money to buy any thing, and you happen to be out of pocket, *sink* the money, and take up the goods on account.

Swift.

SINK, *s.* [unc, Saxon, a heap, a collection, which Serenius conjectures to be derived from the Su. Goth. *sanka*, to collect. Our word is rather perhaps from *rencan*, Sax., *sinken*, Germ. to go to the bottom.] A drain; any place where corruption is gathered.

Should by the cormorant belly be restrain'd,
Who is the *sink* o' the body.

Shakspeare.

Gather more filth than any *sink* in town. *Granville.*
Our soul, whose country's heav'n, and God her father,
Into this world, corruption's *sink*, is sent.

Donne.

SINKEL, a town of Sumatra, situated on a river of the same name. This town stands on the west coast, about 40 miles from the sea, and the natives carry on a good deal of trade in benjamin, camphor, bees' wax, and gold dust, which are frequently adulterated. Their business is not transacted at the town, but at a small woody island called South Leaga. They have the character of being treacherous. Lat. 2. 15. N. long. 98. 2. E.

SINKEL, a river of Sumatra, the largest on the western coast, which rises in the mountains of Dalholi, in the territory of Achin, and, after a long course, empties itself into the sea, by a mouth three quarters of a mile wide. It overflows a considerable portion of the low country during the rains, but there is a bar at the mouth, with shallow water.

SINKING

SINKING SPRING, or **MIDDLETOWN**, a post village of the United States, in Highland county, Ohio.

SINKOUAN, a town on the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 1. 12. N. long. 98. 13. E.

SINLESS, *adj.* [mleap, Sax.] Exempt from sin.

Infernal ghosts and hellish furies round
Environ'd thee; some howl'd, some yell'd, some shriek'd,
Some bent at thee their fiery darts, while thou
Satt'st unappall'd in calm and *sinless* peace. *Milton.*

SINLESSNESS, *s.* Exemption from sin.—We may then admire at his gracious condescensions to those, the *sinlessness* of whose condition will keep them from turning his vouchsafements into any thing but occasions of joy and gratitude. *Boyle.*

SIN-LO, a town of China, of the third rank, in Pechelee.

SINN, a small river of Germany, which falls into the Franconian Saale, near Gemunden.

SINN, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 40 miles south-east of Diarbekir.

SINNER, *s.* One at enmity with God; one not truly or religiously good. An offender; a criminal.—Here's that which is too weak to be a *sinner*, honest water, which ne'er left man i' th' mire. *Shakspeare.*

Over the guilty then the fury shakes
The sounding whip, and brandishes her snakes,
And the pale *sinner* with her sisters takes. *Dryden.*

To **SINNER**, *v. n.* To act the part of a sinner. *Unused.*

Whether the charmer *sinner* it or saint it,
If folly grows romantic, I must paint it. *Pope.*

SINNINGTON, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-north-west of Pickering.

SINO, a small sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa; 30 miles south-east of Sanguin.

SIN-OFFERING, *s.* An expiation or sacrifice for sin.—The flesh of the bullock shalt thou burn without the camp; it is a *sin-offering*. *Ex.*

SINON, a small river of Persia, in the province of Mazanderan, which falls into the Caspian; 5 miles east of Fehrabad.

SINONGI, a town of Ximo, in Japan; 20 miles south-west of Sanga.

SINOOTS, a town of Ximo, in Japan; 20 miles east of Taisero.

SINOPE, a sea-port on the northern coast of Asia, anciently the capital of Pontus, and a place of great wealth and importance. At present it is greatly reduced, and being deserted by all its Greek inhabitants, contains a population of not more than 5000. It is situated on a promontory stretching into the sea, which, on the southern side, incloses an excellent road, with docks for the Turkish imperial marine. There is still a considerable exportation of rice, fruits, hides, and timber. Lat. 41. 6. N. long. 35. E.

SINOPER, or **SINOPE**, *s.* [terra pontica, Latin.] A species of earth; ruddle. *Ainsworth.*

SINOPE, or **SENOPE**, in Heraldry, denotes *vert*, or the green colour in armories; thus called by the ancient heralds.

SINOPOLI, a small town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra; 5 miles south-west of Oppido.

SINOS, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Rey, which runs west into the river Grande.

SINPING, a town of China, of the third rank, in Yunan.

SINSI, a town of Corea; 30 miles north-north-east of Kingkitao.

SINSCATE, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman; 36 miles north of Cordova, on the shore of the river Primero.

SINSILIN, a village of Ghilan, in Persia; 23 miles west-north-west of Reshd.

SINSIN, a village of Irak, in Persia; 120 miles north of Ispahan.

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SINSO, a province of Angola, in Western Africa, to the north of Loanda.

SINTAL SHEEROS, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, district of Ongole. Lat. 15. 44. N. long. 79. 18. E.

SINTON, a hamlet of England, in Worcestershire; 6 miles south-west of Worcester.

SINU, a river of the province of Carthagera, in South America, which runs north, and enters the Carribean Sea, in lat. 9. 29. N. There is a settlement of the same name on its shores.

To **SINUATE**, *v. a.* [*sinuo*, Latin.] To bend in and out.—Another was very perfect, somewhat less with the margin, and more *sinuated*. *Woodward.*

SINUATION, *s.* A bending in and out.—The human brain is, in proportion to the body, much larger than the brains of brutes, in proportion to their bodies, and fuller of anfractus, or *sinuations*. *Hale.*

SINUOSITY, *s.* The quality of being sinous.—There was no need—of any *sinuosity* or protuberance whatsoever. *Biblioth. Bibl.*

SINUOUS, *adj.* [*sinueux*, Fr., from *sinus*, Lat.] Bending in and out.—Try with what disadvantage the voice will be carried in an horn, which is a line arched; or in a trumpet, which is a line retorted; or in some pipe that were *sinuous*. *Bacon.*

SINUS, *s.* [Lat.] A bay of the sea; an opening of the land.—Plato supposeth his Atlantis to have sunk all into the sea: whether that be true or no, I do not think it impossible that some arms of the sea, or *sinuses*, might have had such an original. *Burnet.*—Any fold or opening.—There was no *sinus* or inequality, or perhaps so much as one pore left open, according to this hypothesis of the figure of the ark. In surgery a burrowing abscess. *Biblioth. Bibl.*

SINUS, in Surgery, a small canal leading down to an abscess.

SINWELL, a township of England, in Gloucestershire; 1 mile from Wooton. Population, including the adjoining village of Bradley, 1558.

SINZHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden. Population 2200; 14 miles south-south-east of Heidelberg.

SINZHEIM, a large village of the west of Germany, in Baden. Population 1200; 7 miles south of Rastadt.

SINZIG, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, near the river Rhine. Population 800; 14 miles south-south-east of Bonn.

SIO, a small sea-port of Zanquebar, in Eastern Africa.

SIOCON, a town on the west coast of the island of Mindanao. Lat. 7. 25. N. long. 122. 12. E.

SION, or **SITTEN**, a small town in the south of Switzerland, the chief place of the canton called the Valais, and the see of a bishop. It stands on the banks of the Rhone, in the widest part of the valley watered by that river, and is traversed by the Sitten, a small brook which descends from an adjacent glacier. It has pleasant environs, and is tolerably well built. It contains 5000 inhabitants, and has an episcopal palace, a cathedral, several churches and monasteries, a town-house, and a public school. It cannot boast of manufactures, and its trade is only in transit from Italy to Switzerland. The town of Sion is very ancient, and, among other monuments, has several inscriptions which prove it to have been the *civitas Sedunorum* of the Romans. On the hill behind the town are three castles, one of which, called Majoria, is the usual episcopal residence, and the place of meeting of the diets of the canton. The bishop presides at these, and has, in other respects, very important privileges; 60 miles east of Geneva, and 50 south-by-west of Bern. Lat. 46. 14. 15. N. long. 7. 21. 45. E.

SION, a town and fortress of Hindostan, on the island of Bombay, situated about 9 miles from the city of that name, and at the opposite extremity of the island. The fort is situated on the top of a conical hill, where it commands the passage to the neighbouring island of Salsette, and was of great importance while the Mahrattas retained that island,

but now is of little consequence. In the vicinity of this place, a stone causeway has recently been constructed, with a draw-bridge in the centre, which now unites the two islands, and will be of great utility whenever Salsette shall be properly cultivated. Lat. 19. 7. N. long. 72. 40. E.

SION, a settlement of Peru, in the province of Caxamarquilla, on the shore of the river Guallaga.

SION, a hill of Palestine, celebrated as the site of the ancient citadel of Jerusalem.

SION was also one of the names of Mount Hermon, or rather of a chain of mountains, called Mountains of Hermon, from Mount Hermon, the principal of them.

SIONE, a river of America, which runs into Lake Erie. Lat. 42. 22. N. long. 82. 52. W.

SIOPE, a river of Brazil, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 3. 20. S. long. 40. W.

SIOTO. See SCOTO.

SIIOLE, a small river in the south-east of France, department of the Puy de Dome, which joins the Allier at Echerolles; 2 miles north of St. Pourçain.

SIOUT. See SIUT.

SIUOX, a powerful Indian tribe of North America, the dread of whose power is extended over all the savage tribes from the confluence of the Mississippi and the Missouri, to the Raven river on the former, and to the Snake Indians on the latter. The nation of the Sioux is supposed to amount to 10,000.

SIUOX, GREAT, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs south into the Missouri, 253 miles above the Platte. It is about 110 yards wide at its confluence with the Missouri, and is navigable for 200 miles to the falls, and even beyond them.

SIUOX, LITTLE, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri, 733 miles from the Mississippi. At its confluence it is 80 yards wide.

To SIP, *v. a.* [*sipan*, Saxon; *sippen*, Dutch.] To drink by small draughts.

Soft yielding minds to water glide away,
And sip with nymphs their elemental tea.

Pope.

To drink in small quantities.

Find out the peaceful hermitage;
The hairy gown and mossy cell,
Where I may sit and rightly spell
Of every star that heaven doth shew,
And every herb that sips the dew.

Milton.

To drink out of.

The winged nation o'er the forest flies:
Then stooping on the meads and leafy bowers,
They skim the floods and sip the purple flowers.

Dryden.

To SIP, *v. n.* To drink a small quantity.

She rais'd it to her mouth with sober grace;
Then, sipping, offer'd to the next.

Dryden.

SIP, *s.* A small mouthful.

One sip of this

Will bathe the drooping spirits in delight,
Beyond the bliss of dreams.

Milton.

SIPAPU, a river of Guiana, which enters the Orinoco near its mouth, swelled by the accession of other streams.

SIPATUBA, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Maranhão, which runs north-north-east into the Atlantic.

To SIPE, *v. n.* [*sippen*, Teut.] To ooze or drain out slowly. *North.*

SIPHANTO, or SIPHNO, an island of Greece, belonging to the Archipelago, and situated to the west of Paros. It is nearly 30 miles in length, and about 7 in breadth. It has no good harbour, but its atmosphere is pure and healthy. Its soil, where not covered with marble and granite, is of considerable fertility, producing maize and wheat; also mulberries, olives, vines, figs, and cotton. Its gold and silver mines are no longer known; but mines of iron and lead have been traced, and might be wrought under a better government. Here are several quarries of beautiful marble.

The population, about 4000, are all Greeks. The chief place, a village called Siphanto, stands on a high rock.

SIPHON, *s.* [*σιφον*; *sipho*, Lat.; *siphon*, Fr.] A pipe through which liquors are conveyed.

Beneath th' incessant weeping of these drains
I see the rocky siphons stretch'd immense,
The mighty reservoirs of harden'd chalk,
Of stiff compacted clay.

Thomson.

SIPHONANTHUS, [From *σιφον*, a siphon or tube; and *ανθος*, a flower], in Botany a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of borragineæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, wide, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form: tube filiform, very narrow, several times as long as the calyx: border four-parted, spreading, less than the calyx. Stamina: filaments four, longer than the border of the corolla. Anthers oblong, triangular. Pistil: germ four-cleft, very short, superior. Style filiform, length of the stamens, recurved at the tip. Stigma simple. Pericarp: berries four, with the spreading calyx, roundish. Seeds solitary, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form, very long, inferior. Berries four, one-seeded.

1. *Siphonanthus Indica.*—Stem herbaceous; quite simple. Leaves opposite and alternate; linear-lanceolate. Flowers in axillary corymbs; three or four together. Border of the corolla flat, with the segments spreading and acute. Anthers triangular, sagittate. Stigma undivided; thickish.—Native of South America.

2. *Siphonanthus angustifolia.*—Border of the corolla two-lipped; stigma bifid.—This has leaves like those of the preceding, but much narrower, and by threes. Flowers axillary in bifid corymbs, six-flowered or three-flowered. Tube of the corolla curved in; segments of the corolla blunt; three of them bent back, the uppermost erect, as in a labiate flower. Anthers roundish. Stigma bifid.

SIPHONIA. See JATROPHA.

SIPID, *adj.* [an old form of *SAPID*, which see.] Savoury: this seems not an improper word, as opposed to *insipid*, and is in the vocabulary of Cockeram.

SIPIRI, or ESECURE, a river of Quito, in the province of Moxos, which runs north, and enters the Marmore Grande.

SIPOLTO, a small town in the east part of the kingdom of Naples, province of Capitanata, near Manfredonia, situated on a bay called from it the bay of Sipolto.

SIPOMO, a river of Guiana, which runs north, and enters the Caura.

SIPONIMA, in Botany. See CIPONIMA and SYMPLICOS. SI PORAH, or GOOD FORTUNE ISLAND, a woody island of the Eastern Seas, north-west of the Pogy or Nassau islands, and inhabited by the same race of people. It contains several villages, but is not known to have been visited recently.

SIPPER, *s.* One that sips.

SIPPET, *s.* A small sop.—Your sweet sippets in widows' houses. *Milton.*

SIPPO, a river of the United States, in the Ohio, which flows into the Scioto; 5 miles below Circleville.

SIPSEY, a river of the United States, in Alabama territory, which runs into the Tombigbee. Lat. 32. 22. N. long. 87. 51. W.

SIPUNCULUS, or TUBE-WORM, in Vermiology, a genus of the Vermes Intestina class and order, of which the Generic Character is as follows: body round, elongated; mouth cylindrical at the end, and narrower than the body; the aperture at the side of the body, and veruciform. There are only two.

1. *Sipunculis nidus.*—The body of this species is covered with a close skin, and globular at the lower end. It is described and figured by Pennant, Barbut, and Martin.—It inhabits European seas, under stones; and is about eight inches long. The body is conic, and broader on the fore part; the mouth is much slenderer than the body, and armed with fleshy, three-pointed papillæ; the aperture is near the upper extremity.

2. *Sipunculus*

2. *Sipunculus saccatus*.—Body covered with a loose skin, and rounded at the lower end.—It inhabits the American and Indian seas. It is shaped like the nidus, except in being enclosed as it were in a loose bag, and in not having the lower end globular.

S'QUIS, *s.* [Latin; meaning, *if any one*.] An advertisement or notification. Formerly a bill pasted on a wall, door, post, &c.—Saw'st thou ever *siquis* patch'd on Paul's church-door? *Bp. Hall*.

A merry Greeke set up a *siquis* late,
To signifie a stranger come to town.

Wroth.

SIR, *s.* [*sire*, Fr., from the Goth., *sihor*. *Ld. Hickes*. Icel. *saer*, *syrr*, *sir*, the same. *Serenius*. Some carry it to *sar*, Heb., a prince.] The word of respect to gentlemen.

Speak on, *sir*,

I dare your worst objections: if I blush,
It is to see a nobleman want manners.

Shakspeare.

The title of a knight or baronet. This word was anciently so much held essential, that the Jews in their addresses expressed it in Hebrew characters.—*Sir* Horace Vere, his brother, was the principal in the active part. *Bacon*.—The court forsakes him, and *sir* Balaam hangs. *Pope*.—Formerly the title of a priest. Hence, as Mr. Tyrwhitt has observed, a *Sir John* came to be the nick-name of a priest.—“A priest was the third of the three *syrrs*, which only were in request of old; (no barron, viscount, earle, nor marquesse, being then in use;) to wit, *Sir* King, *Sir* Knight, and *Sir* Priest.” *Watson's Docacord. of Quodlib. Quest.* 1602. p. 53.—Are there not women that would tell as good a tale as the best *Sir John*, i. e. Parson. *Harborowe*.

Let me thy tale borowe

For our *Sir John* to say to-morrowe.

Spenser.

But this good *Sir* did follow the plain word,
Ne meddled with their controversies vain;
All his care was, his service well to sain.

Spenser.

A title given to the loin of beef, which they say one of our kings knighted in a fit of good humour.—He lost his roast-beef-stomach, not being able to touch a *sir-loin* which was served up. *Addison*.

SIR BIBY'S ISLAND, a small island in Hudson's Bay. Lat. 61. 55. N. long. 93. 40. W.

SIR CHARLES HARDY'S ISLAND, an island in the Southern Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Carteret, in the year 1767. It is of considerable extent, and appears to be flat, green and pleasant. Lat. 4. 38. S. long. 154. 6. E.

SIR CHARLES HARDY'S ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Cook in 1770. Lat. 11. 55. S. long. 217. W.

SIR CHARLES SAUNDERS'S ISLAND, or **TAPOO-MANOO**, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Wallis in the year 1767. The island is about six miles in length, and has a mountain of considerable height in the centre, which appeared to be fertile. The inhabitants did not appear to be numerous. Lat. 17. 28. S. long. 150. 40. W.

SIR HENRY MARTIN'S ISLAND, an island in the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Lieutenant Hergest, commander of the *Dædalus* store-ship, in 1792, about 16 miles in circuit. It is the most considerable and most fertile of the whole group to which it belongs. The south-eastern cape, which he named Point Martin, forms, with the coast to the westward of it, a deep bay, well sheltered, and bordered by sand beaches. At the head of the bay was observed, either a deep cove, or the mouth of a considerable stream. Two leagues farther westward is a fine harbour, with a sandy bottom, shoaling from 24 fathoms to 7, within a quarter of a mile of the shore. A stream of excellent water runs into it, and it is well sheltered from all winds. A beautiful plain extends for a mile and a half from the beach. The country is populous, and well cultivated. The people appeared to be lighter than those of Ohittahoo, and varied considerably from

them in other respects. More than 1500 were assembled on the shores of this harbour, which was named Port Anna Maria. They received some people who landed from the *Dædalus* very hospitably, and sent off all kinds of provisions to the ship. The western side of the island was less populous. Lat. 80. 51. S. long. 220. 19. E.

SIR ISAAC POINT, a cape on the south coast of New Holland. Lat. 34. 27. S. long. 135. 10. E.

SIR JOSEPH BANKS' GROUP, a cluster of small islands in Spencer's gulph, on the south coast of New Holland.

SIR ROGER CURTIS ISLES, an island, with two smaller ones near it, on the south coast of New Holland; 22 miles south-east of Wilson's promontory. It is the first island to the westward of Eimeo, and about 48 miles south-south-east of Huahaine. It stretches from east to west about six miles, with a double peaked mountain in the centre. It is in general fertile, abounding in cocoa-nuts, but does not seem populous. It is dependent on Huahaine.

SIR THOMAS HAY'S POINT, a cape on the north-west coast of Portland, one of Queen Charlotte's islands, in the South Pacific Ocean. Lat. 10. 42. S. long. 164. 14. E.

SIR THOMAS ROE'S WELCOME, a large bay in the north part of Hudson's bay.

SIR WILLIAM GRANT CAPE, a rocky head on the south coast of New Holland.

SIRADIA. See **SIERADZ**.

SIRAF, a small sea-port of Laristan, in Persia, chiefly inhabited by Arabians; 30 miles south-west of Lar.

SIRAGUAY a town on the west coast of the island of Mindanao. Lat. 7. 15. N. long. 122. 9. E.

SIRANCAPE, a small river of Mosambique, in Eastern Africa, with a town of the same name at its mouth. Lat. 13. 4. S.

SIRANI (Giovanni Andrea), a painter of the school of Guido Rheni. He was born at Bologna in 1610, and was a favourite disciple of his master, whose style he imitated with great success. After the death of Guido, he was employed to finish many of his works, left incomplete in different churches, at Bologna; particularly the large picture of St. Brunone, in the Certosini. He usually painted upon a large scale, and with a free pencil, but in general his manner is too strong and dark, like that of Caravaggio. He died in 1670, at the age of 60.

SIRANI (Elizabetta), was the daughter of Giovanni Andrea Sirani, and born at Bologna in 1638. She learned the rudiments of the art from her father, but endeavoured to imitate the best style of Guido. At so early a period as her fifteenth year, she had acquired considerable renown for her performances. Her first public work was painted when she was only seventeen. In general she wrought upon a large scale, and in a most finished manner; with a rich and natural tone of colour. Her compositions are tasteful, and the airs of her heads graceful, and noble in character. Her portraits have greatly the air of nature, with an unaffected character of expression and action.

Her brilliant career was interrupted by poison; by whom administered is not exactly known, though it is supposed by her servant. This melancholy event happened in 1664, when she had only attained her twenty-sixth year; yet such had been her industry, that she had produced, according to Malvasia, from a register of her own keeping, 150 works: the most admired of which were painted for the churches and palaces at Bologna. They are elsewhere scarce.

SIRAVAN, a village of Khusistan, in Persia; 48 miles north-north-east of Shuster.

SIRE, a mountainous province or district of Tigre, in Abyssinia, reaching from Axum to the Tacazze. It is famous for a manufacture of coarse cotton cloths, which pass as money in all the provinces of Tigre. The capital, which is also called Sire, is built in the form of a half moon, on the brink of a very steep narrow valley; it is larger than Axum: all the houses are of clay, and thatched, the roofs are conical, according to the general custom of Abyssinia. The surrounding country is rich and beautiful, but suffers under a pestilential

pestilential fever of the very worst kind. Lat. 14, 4. 35. N. Long. 38. 0. 15. E.

SIRE, *s.* [*sire*, Fr.; *senior*, Lat.] The word of respect in addressing the king.—A father. *Used in poetry.*

He, but a duke, would have his son a king,
And raise his issue like a loving *sire*. *Shakspeare.*

Whether his hoary *sire* he spies,
While thousand grateful thoughts arise,
Or meets his spouse's fonder eye. *Pope.*

It is used in common speech of beasts: as, the horse had a good *sire*, but a bad dam.—It is used in composition: as, grand-*sire*, great-grand-*sire*.

To SIRE, *v. a.* To beget; to produce.—Cowards father cowards, and base thing *sire* the base. *Shakspeare.*

SIREN, *s.* [Latin. Bochart calls it a Phœnician word, meaning a *songstress*. So the Heb. *syren*, a song.] A goddess who enticed men by singing, and devoured them; any mischievous alluring women.

Oh train me not, sweet mermaid, with thy note,
To drown me in thy sister's flood of tears;
Sing, *siren*, to thyself, and I will dote;
Spread o'er the silver waves thy golden hair,
And as a bed I'll take thee, and there lie. *Shakspeare.*

SIREN, *adj.* Alluring; bewitching like a siren.—By the fair insinuating carriage, by the help of the winning address, the *syren* mode of mien, he can inspire poison, whisper in destruction to the soul. *Hammond.*—Lulled with *syren* song. *Young.*

SIREN, in Natural History, a genus of the class Amphibia, order Reptilia, of which the Generic Character is: body two-footed, tailed, naked; the feet are placed in the manner of arms, and furnished with claws. There is only a single species mentioned by Gmelin, but Dr. Shaw notices three species:—

1. *Siren lacertina*.—Body eel-shaped; branches ramified. This species stands eminently distinguished in the list of animals, by the ambiguity of its characters, which are such as to induce the great Linnaeus to institute it for a new order of Amphibia, under the title of MEANTES. The genus with which the siren has the nearest affinity is the *lacerta*, or *lizard*, which see. It resembles the larva, or first state of a *lacerta*; and it is even still doubtful whether it may not really be such: yet it has never been observed in any other state, having two feet only, without any appearance of a hind pair. The feet are also furnished with claws, whereas the larvæ of the *lacertæ* are observed to be without claws; the mouth has several rows of small teeth; the body is eel-shaped, but slightly flattened beneath, marked on the sides by several wrinkles, and slightly compressed towards the extremity of the tail, which is edged with a kind of soft skin, or adipose fin; on each side the neck are three ramified branchial processes, resembling, but on a larger scale, those belonging to the larvæ of water-newts, and at the base are the openings into the gills; the eyes are very small, and blue. The general colour of the animal is a deep or blackish-brown, scattered over, especially on the sides, with numerous minute whitish specks. It is frequently found of the length of two feet, or even more. It is a native of North America, and more particularly of South Carolina, where it is not uncommon in muddy and swampy places, living generally under water, but sometimes appearing on dry land. It has a kind of squeaking or singing voice; hence it was distinguished by the name of siren. This curious animal was first discovered and described by Dr. Garden, who resided many years in Carolina, and who gave the utmost attention to the science of natural history, which he enriched by many highly interesting observations, and by the discovery of many new facts. The doctor communicated specimens of the siren to Linnaeus, with particulars relative to its history and manners. The great Swedish naturalist, in his letter to Dr. Garden on this subject, declares that nothing had ever exercised his thoughts so much, nor was there any thing he so much desired to know, as the real

nature of so extraordinary an animal. Mr. Hunter has given an anatomical description of the siren in the 56th vol. of the Philosophical Transactions, to which the reader is referred.

The siren, if thrown on the ground with any degree of violence, will sometimes break in two or three pieces; and in this particular it resembles the *Anguis fragilis*, or slow-worm. It may also be observed, that though in some respects it resembles the larva of the lizard, yet no lizard, of which it may be supposed the larva, has ever yet been discovered in those parts of Carolina where it is most frequent. The species to which it seems most allied is the *lacerta teguin* of Linnaeus, which is a native of South America.

2. *Siren anguine*, or four-footed siren.—With eel-shaped body, and ramified branchiæ. This has been denominated the *Proteus anguinus* by some naturalists, and by others the Austrian siren. This animal is found in a very singular situation, being an inhabitant of the celebrated romantic lake Zirknitz, in the duchy of Carniola, in Austria. From this lake the water regularly retires during the summer, by numerous subterraneous outlets at the bottom; leaving the ground dry, and fit for pasture, as well as for various kinds of hunting, and other amusements: but in the month of October it again returns with great force, springing out of the passages before mentioned, from a vast depth, till the lake is completely filled. It is situated in a valley, surrounded by rocky and woody mountains, in which are vast caverns, and it is principally supplied by eight rivulets running into it from the adjoining mountainous region. See *Phil. Trans.* vol. xvi.

This species of siren is extremely rare, and is found in the spring, and towards the decline of summer, in some particular parts of the above-mentioned lake, and measures from ten to twelve or thirteen inches in length, and about three quarters of an inch in diameter. It is entirely of a pale rose-colour, or even nearly white, except the three pair of ramified branchial fins on each side the neck, which are of a bright red or carmine colour. Its general shape is that of an eel; the body being cylindrical till towards the end of the tail, where it becomes flat, and is attenuated, both above and below, into a kind of fatty fin, scarcely distinguishable from the rest of the tail; the skin is very smooth and even; the head is of a somewhat depressed form, with a lengthened obtuse, and widish snout, and it has no external eyes; the mouth is moderately wide, and furnished with a row of very minute teeth; the legs are three quarters of an inch long, and the feet of the fore-legs are furnished with three toes, without claws; the feet of the hind-legs have only two toes. The motions of this animal, when taken out of the water, are in general extremely slow and languid; as is also the case, when kept in a vessel of water; but in its native lake, it is sometimes observed to swim briskly, waving its body in a serpentine direction, not unlike that of a leech. The *Anguine* siren is figured and very accurately described by Laurenti, in his work entitled "*Specimen Medicum, exhibens Synopsis Reptilium.*" The real nature of the animal is not completely ascertained; some imagining it to be the larva of some species of lizard, while others contend that it is a perfect animal *sui generis*. It is evidently of a predacious nature, feeding on the smaller kind of aquatic animals; since one of them, which was kept alive in a vessel of water, was observed to discharge from its stomach several small shells of the genus *Helix*; and in the stomach of one, which was dissected, were found the head and bones of a small fish. Its voice is a strong hiss, much louder than might be expected from the size of the animal.

Dr. Schreibers, who has most diligently investigated the nature and anatomy of this animal, says, "there can be no doubt that it bears a great affinity to the siren *lacertina*, having both gills and lungs; and therefore it leaves us in equal uncertainty as to its being a perfect animal in itself, or the larva of another animal. It is, however, remarkable that notwithstanding the most careful researches during many years, and the frequent fishing which takes place in the lakes and caverns of the neighbouring country, at all seasons of the year, no animal

animal has hitherto been found of which it can possibly be supposed the larva."

3. *Siren pisciformis*, or ferruginous-brown siren.—Spotted with black, with finely ramified branchiæ, tetradactylous fore and pentadactylous hind-feet. This animal, in the Naturalist's Miscellany, is denominated *Gyrinus Mexicanus*, or Mexican tadpole. According to the description given in that work, it is a native of Mexico, and, if only the larva of some large American lizard, is scarcely a less singular and curious animal than the siren. In its general appearance it bears some resemblance to the larva of the *Rana paradoxa*, but is furnished with gills, opening externally in the manner of a fish; the openings are very large, and the external flap is continued from the sides of the head across the throat beneath, so as completely to insulate the head from the breast; the gills themselves consist of four semicircular bony or cartilaginous arches, which are denticulated or serrated on their internal or concave part, like those of fishes; on the opercula, or external flaps, are situated three very large and elegant branchial fins, or ramified parts, divided and subdivided into a vast number of slender or capillary processes. In these particulars it resembles the siren lacertina, except that in the latter animal the external opening to the gills is very small; the mouth is furnished in front with a row of extremely minute teeth; the tongue is large, smooth, and rounded at the tip; the rictus, or gape, when the mouth is closed, appears considerably wider than it really is, owing to a lateral sulcus proceeding from each corner to some distance; the feet are entirely destitute of webs, and they are furnished with rather weak claws; the front feet have four toes, and those behind five. Independently of the general colour of the animal, the whole skin, when minutely examined, appears to be scattered over with very minute white specks, resembling those on the surface of the siren lacertina. The sides of the body are marked by several strong rugæ or furrows, and an impressed lateral line or sulcus is continued from the gills to the tail.

SIREN is also a name given by Muffet, and other authors, to a species of bee; of which they distinguish two kinds, a larger and a smaller. These differ greatly from the common bee, in that they live solitary, and never unite into swarms, or build nests, or make combs.

To SIRENIZE, *v. n.* To practise the allurements of a siren. *Cockerham.*

SIREX, or tailed wasp, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order hymenoptera, of which the Generic Character is, mouth with a thick, horny, truncate, short, denticulate mandible; four feelers, the hind ones longer, and thicker upwards; antennæ filiform, of more than twenty equal articulations; the sting is exerted, serrate and stiff; the abdomen is sessile, terminating in a point; wings lanceolate, incumbent, the lower ones shorter.

The larvæ of this genus are six-footed, soft, cylindrical; the head rounded; they perforate wood, and frequently eat their way into the bowels of other insects, and their larvæ, living upon them till they have utterly consumed their entrails; the pupa is folliculate; the perfect insect lives on the nectar of flowers. There are about twenty-six species, of which the most remarkable are:

1. *Sirex gigas*.—The abdomen of this species is yellow at the base and tip; the body is black-blue. This is the largest species in the whole genus: it surpasses a hornet in size, and is principally observed in the neighbourhood of pines and other cone-bearing trees: it is of a black colour, with the eyes, the base, and lower half of the abdomen, of a bright orange-yellow; the thorax is villose, and the wings of a transparent yellowish-brown; the sting, or terminal tube, is very conspicuous. The larva, which measures about an inch and a quarter in length, is of a yellowish-white colour, and inhabits decayed firs and pines; at first view it bears some resemblance to the larvæ of the beetle tribe, but is thinner in proportion, and furnished, at the tip of the abdomen, with a short black spine or process. It changes to a chrysalis in the month of July; first enveloping itself in a slight silken web of a whitish colour. The chrysalis is of a lengthened

shape, with the antennæ, legs and terminal tube or process, very distinctly characterized. If the change to chrysalis takes place, as it sometimes does, in summer, the fly proceeds from it in the space of about three weeks; but if at the close of autumn, the animal continues a chrysalis the whole winter, emerging in the following spring. The male insect is considerably smaller than the female, and may be farther distinguished by the want of the caudal tube or process, so conspicuous in the female insect; the tip of the abdomen is also of a black colour. The eggs, which are deposited by the female in the decayed parts of the trees already mentioned, are very small, and of a lengthened oval shape, with pointed extremities.

2. *Sirex Psyllius*.—Abdomen yellow at the base and before the tip; the body is black.—It inhabits different European countries, and is half the size of the last. The antennæ and legs are yellow, and the thighs black; the head is black, with a yellow spot on each side, behind the eyes; certain segments of the abdomen yellow.

3. *Sirex Columba*.—This is an American species, and is distinguished by its black body, marked by testaceous bands. The Specific Character is as follows: thorax villous, ferruginous; abdomen black, the sides are spotted with yellow; the antennæ are short and black, ferruginous at the base; the abdomen beneath is black, with a yellow streak; the projection is short, acute, serrate, yellow tipped with black; the legs are yellow; hind-thighs black.

4. *Sirex magnus*.—Black, thorax villous; tip of the antennæ, lateral spots on the abdomen, shanks and base of the tarsi, are white. It is of the size of the *Sirex gigas*, and is found in many parts of Saxony. The abdomen beneath is white in the middle; the wings are dusky.

5. *Sirex nigricornis*.—Thorax villous, blueish-black; abdomen ferruginous, blue at the base.—It is found in North America. The head is shining blue-black; the antennæ are black; the legs are piceous; thighs yellow; sting pitchy.

6. *Sirex flavicornis*.—Thorax villous, black, immaculate; four bands on the abdomen, antennæ and legs yellow.—It is found at Labrador, in America. The head is black; the upper part of some of the segments is yellow; the appendage serrate, yellow; the sting is black.

7. *Sirex fuscicornis*.—Thorax villous, black; abdomen with eight yellow bands; the antennæ are black; the legs are yellow.—This, which is of the size of the *gigas*, inhabits Saxony. The wings are substestaceous; the sting is black, with a yellow sheath; the horn of the abdomen is subulate, yellow, tipped with black; the thighs are black.

8. *Sirex spectrum*.—The abdomen of this species is black; the thorax is villous, with a yellow stripe before the wings. It is found in this country, and in many other parts of Europe. The antennæ are black or yellow, and the legs are yellow.

9. *Sirex juvenicus*.—The abdomen is blueish-black; the thorax villous, immaculate.—This also is a native of England and other European countries. The antennæ are black or yellow; the legs are yellow.

10. *Sirex phantoma*.—Abdomen above yellow, with black belts; the head and legs are yellow.—It inhabits Germany. The mouth is black; the thorax yellowish before, beneath black; the abdomen beneath is black.

11. *Sirex cyanus*.—This is of a shining blue colour; the legs are yellow.—It inhabits North America. The antennæ are black; the thorax sub-villous; the wings are hyaline.

12. *Sirex albicornis*.—Black; head with a white spot on each side; the antennæ are white in the middle.—It is a native of North America. The antennæ are black at the tip; the abdomen with a white dot on each side on the last segment but one; the legs are black; the shanks and ends of the tarsi are white.

13. *Sirex nigrita*.—This is of a black-blue, immaculate; the hind-legs are compressed.—It is a native of Saxony, and is of the same size as the *sirex mariscus*, hereafter to be noticed.

14. *Sirex camelus*.—The abdomen is black, the sides spotted with white; the thorax smooth.—This is found in England and other European countries.

15. *Sirex emarginatus*.—Black; thorax emarginate before, and pale at the sides; the fore-legs are rufous.—It inhabits Germany. The antennæ are black; the head is black, with a pale spot on each side: the sides of the thorax are slightly serrate. The four front legs are rufous; the shanks are tipped with black; the hind ones are black; the thighs rufous.

16. *Sirex dromedarius*.—Abdomen black, rufous in the middle, with a white dot on each side. The shanks are pale at the base.—It is chiefly found at Kiel, and resembles the *sirex camelus*. The head is black, with two white lines; the thorax is black, with a white dot before the wings; some of the segments of the abdomen are black, some rufous, one black, with a white spot on each side, and one is altogether black.

17. *Sirex pacca*.—Abdomen black, two of the segments are rufous, the rest dotted with white.—This also is found at Kiel, and is the size of the *sirex camelus*. The antennæ are black, a little thicker towards the tip; the thorax is villous and black, with two minute white spots on the fore margin; the horn of the abdomen yellowish, sting rufous; legs compressed, black.

18. *Sirex similis*.—Black; first segment of the abdomen at the base and second rufous, the rest with five yellow spots.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope. The head is black; the orbits yellow; antennæ ferruginous; the base and tip black; the thorax black, with a yellow dot on each side: the legs are rufous, the thighs black; the tail is pointed, without any projection.

19. *Sirex vespertilio*.—Black; abdomen ferruginous, the base is black.—This is a small insect, and is found in divers parts of Germany. The antennæ are black, with a whitish ring; the tail is black beneath, without the appendage: the upper wings are white, with a broad brown patch before the tip, and white marginal dots; the legs are black, tip of the thighs and base of the shanks white.

20. *Sirex mariscus*.—Of this species the abdomen is testaceous, the two last segments are black; the thorax villous.—This is found in divers parts of Europe. Antennæ yellow; head with a yellow callous dot behind the eyes; the abdomen beneath is black, spotted with yellow; it has no sting.

21. *Sirex troglodyta*.—Smooth, black: abdomen with seven yellow dots, and two bands.—It inhabits Saxony. The legs are yellow; the thighs black.

22. *Sirex noctilia*.—This is of a black-blue colour; the antennæ are black; the thorax is villous; the abdomen testaceous in the middle.—It inhabits several parts of Germany, and is about the size of the *sirex mariscus*. Thorax blue; abdomen blue at the base and tip; wings yellowish; legs yellow; hind ones compressed, black, the thighs yellow.

23. *Sirex compressa*.—Black; abdomen compressed, ferruginous; the first and last segments are black.—It inhabits Barbary, and is very small. Legs white; thighs black; hind ones black; the shanks are compressed, black, with two yellow dots, and three bands.

24. *Sirex pygmaeus*.—Abdomen compressed, black, with two yellow dots and three bands.—It is a native of this country, and of other parts of Europe. This is one of the smallest of the European species, being, according to Linnaeus, about the size of a gnat, with a black abdomen, marked by three yellow bands, the middle of which is interrupted.—It is found in Sweden.

25. *Sirex macilentus*.—Black; abdomen compressed, yellow at the sides. It inhabits Barbary, and resembles the next. The head is black with two yellow dots between the eyes. The thorax black, with a yellow dot, and a larger one beneath; the abdomen is yellow at the sides, and projecting into two bands on the back; the wings are hyaline; the rib black beyond the middle; the legs are black; the fore-thighs are yellowish.

26. *Sirex tabidus*.—Black; sides of the abdomen dotted with yellow; fore shanks testaceous.—It inhabits England, and a specimen is in the British Museum.

SIRGOOJAH, a district of Hindostan, province of Gundwanah, situated about the 23d degree of north lat., and bounded on the east by the province of Bahar. It is hilly, and abounds with woods; consequently is poorly cultivated and thinly inhabited. It belongs to several Hindoo chiefs, who are tributary to the Nagpore Mahrattas.

SIRGOOJAH, the capital of the above mentioned district, situated about 12 miles from the British frontier. It belongs to a native chief, who pays a small tribute to the rajah of Nagpore, but is now under the British protection. Lat. 23. 5. N. long. 83. 50. E.

SIRGOULIN, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 41. 53. N. Long. 119. 14. E.

SIRHIND, an extensive district of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and situated between the 30th and 31st degrees of north lat. It is naturally a very barren and sandy country, and in many places destitute of water; but being near the capital, the Afghan emperor, Ferose III. caused several canals to be cut from the rivers Jumna and Suttuleje, in order to fertilize it. He also built a fortress called Sirhind, for the purpose of protecting the canals; but both fortress and canals are now fallen to decay. The country is at present possessed by the Seiks; its principal towns are Patiala and Tahnesir.

SIRHIND, the ancient capital of the above mentioned district, which was either built or repaired by sultan Ferose, about the year 1357, and for several centuries was a flourishing city, ornamented with innumerable mosques and beautiful gardens, all of which are now fallen to decay. Between this place and the city of Delhi are extensive plains, containing the towns of Panniput and Carnoul, renowned as the scene of great battles, both in ancient and modern times. Sirhind now belongs to a Seik chief named Bing Singh. Lat. 30. 40. N. long. 75. 55. E.

SIRI, among the Romans, were subterranean caves or vaults, in which wheat could be kept sound and fresh for fifty years.

SIRI (Vittorio), a writer in politics and history, was born at Parma about the year 1607: he was educated for the study of theology, and took the habit of the Benedictine order, in the monastery of St. John, and there began to publish a work entitled "Mercurio Politico," by which he acquired some temporary celebrity. Fifteen volumes of this work appeared successively, containing an account of the public events from 1635 to 1655. After this he added to it "Memoriæ Reconditæ," in eight vols., which going back to 1601 come to 1640. The author not only records facts, but endeavours to investigate causes in the secret negotiations of cabinets, and to give the documents confirming his narrative. Of these pieces, a great number is to be found in his publications, communicated by popes, nuncios and the ambassadors of different crowned heads, and especially by the ministers of Louis XIV. Through the influence of Cardinal Mazarin, he was invited by that monarch to Paris, and presented to a secular abbey, on which occasion he quitted his religious habit for that of an ecclesiastic. He assumed to himself the title of counsellor, almoner, and historiographer to his Most Christian Majesty, and he spent all the latter years of his life at Paris, where he died in the year 1685, at the age of 78. He is characterized by biographers as a man without any fixed principles, who had a venal pen, which was always ready to justify and defend any cause, provided he was liberally paid for his services; yet the opportunities he possessed of gaining information from authentic sources, and the number of original documents published by him, have given a marked value to his works as materials for the history of his time. The circumstances of his being a foreigner, and writing in Italian voluminous publications little read in France, are said by Le Clerc to have induced him to speak more freely of Louis XIII., his brother and ministers, than the French writers have done. The first four volumes of his "Memoriæ Reconditæ" are extremely rare. A translation into the French language, of the

the most important parts of all his works, has been published in several volumes by M. Requier. Siri is said also to have written, under a feigned name, some pieces respecting the war of Montserrat.

SIRIA, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo.

SIRIAN. See SYRIAM.

SIRIASIS, so named by the older writers, an inflammation of the brain.

SIRINAGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, district of Bundelcund. Lat. 25. 6. N. long. 79. 55. E. There are several other places of this name in Hindostan.

SIRIUS, [*σειριος*, Gr.] in Astronomy, the *Dog-star*, a very bright star of the first magnitude, in the mouth of the constellation Canis Major, or the Great Dog.

SIRIUS, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered and so called by Lieutenant Ball, in 1790; it is about 18 miles in circumference. Lat. 10. 52. S. long. 162. 30. E.

SIRLOIN, *s.* The loin of beef.

SIRNAME. See SURNAME.

SIRNING, a small town of Upper Austria; 4 miles west of Steyer, and 15 south of Linz. Hardware and much cotton are made here and in the surrounding district.

SIROCC, or SIROCCO, a south-east wind of Sicily, particularly at Palermo, attended with an uncommon degree of heat, and singularly relaxing and oppressive in its effects. The blast of it is represented as resembling burning steam from the mouth of an oven: the whole atmosphere, during its continuance, seems to be in a flame. Its effect is described by Brydone like that of one of the subterranean sweating stoves at Naples; but it was much hotter. In a few minutes, those who are exposed to it find every fibre relaxed in a most inconceivable manner, and the pores opened to such a degree, that they expect immediately to be thrown into a most profuse sweat. At this time the thermometer, which stood in a room only at 73, rose immediately in the open air to 110, and soon after to 112. The air was thick and heavy, but the barometer was little affected, having fallen only about a line. The sun did not appear during the whole day; otherwise the heat, says Mr. Brydone, must have been insupportable; and on that side that was exposed to the wind, it could not be borne without difficulty for a few minutes. Upon exposing pomatum to it, the heat of the wind melted it as if it had been laid before the fire. This wind is more or less violent, and of longer or shorter duration at different times: however, it seldom lasts more than 36 or 40 hours, so that the walls of the houses are not warmed throughout, or else it is apprehended that it would be insupportable. Whilst it lasts, the people of the country confine themselves within; their windows and doors are shut close, to prevent the external air from entering; and where window-shutters are wanting, they hang up wet blankets on the inside of the window. The servants are constantly employed in sprinkling water through all the apartments, in order to preserve the air in as temperate a state as possible; and for this purpose, each house in the city of Palermo is provided with a fountain. By these means the people of fashion suffer very little from this wind, except the strict confinement to which it obliges them. Notwithstanding the scorching heat of the sirocco, it has never been known to produce any epidemical disorders, or to do any injury to the health of the people. They feel, indeed, very weak and relaxed after it; but a few hours of the Tramontane, or north wind, which generally succeeds it, soon braces them up again, and restores them to their former state.

SIROLO, a small town of the east of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical state, delegation of Anconia.

SIRRAH, *s.* [*sir, ha! Minshcu.*] A compellation of reproach and insult. [*Sirrah*, there's no room for faith, troth, or honesty in this bosom of thine. *Shakspeare.*

SIRSEY, a town or Hindostan, province of Bahar. Lat. 25. 26. N. long. 85. 35. E.

SIRT, *s.* [*syrtis*, Lat.] A bog; a quicksand. *Unused.*—They discovered the immense and vast ocean of the courts

to be all over full of flats, shelves, shallows, quicksands, crags, rocks, gulfs, whirlpools, *sirts*, &c. *Transl. of Boccalini*, (1626).

SIR'OP, SYRUP or SIRUP, *s.* [Arabic.] The juice of vegetables boiled with sugar.

Not poppy, nor mandragora,
Nor all the drowsy *sirups* of the world
Shall ever med'cine thee to that sweet sleep,
Which thou owned'st yesterday. *Shakspeare.*

SIRUNT, a village of Seistan, in Persia; 40 miles east of Zareng.

SIRUPED, *adj.* Sweet, like sirup; bedewed with sweets. Yet, when there haps a honey fall,
We'll lick the *syrup* leaves:
And tell the bees that their's is gall. *Drayton.*

SIRUPY, *adj.* Resembling sirup.—Apples are of a *sirupy* tenacious nature. *Mortimer.*

SIRUS. See SERES.

SIS, a village of Asia Minor, in the government of Sivas; 24 miles south of Tocat.

SIS, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 150 miles east-south-east of Konieh.

SISAL, a port of Merida de Yucatan, in the province of Yucatan. It has a castle and a small harbour, with an immense sand-bank opposite its entrance. Lat. 21. 10. N. long. 89. 59. 30. W.

SISAPONGO, a very lofty snow-clad mountain of South America, in the Cordillera of the kingdom of Quito.

SISAR, CAPE, a cape on the north-west coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 13. 40. N. long. 112. 20. E.

SISARGA, or ZIZARGA, a small island in the north-west coast of Spain, on the coast of Galicia, near the mouth of the bay of Cornuna.

SISE, *s.* [Corrupted from *assize*.]

You said, if I returned next *siz*e in lent,
I should be in remitter of your grace. *Donne.*

SISIBOU, or SISSIBOU, a town of Nova Scotia, on the west coast; 25 miles south-south east of Annapolis.

SISIDIN, a small river of Guiana, which enters the Orinoco.

SISINILLA, a settlement of the island of Cuba; 12 miles east-north-east of Trinidad.

SISKIN, *s.* [*sytken*, Teut.] A bird; the green-finch.—The canary, the linnet, the *siskin*, and the bullfinch, seem natural musicians. *Buffon.*

SISON [*Σισων*, of Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal with fewer than six rays, unequal: partial with fewer than ten rays, unequal. Involucre universal, mostly four-leaved, unequal: partial consimilar. Perianth scarcely manifest. Corolla, universal uniform. Florets all fertile. Proper, equal: petals five, lanceolate, inflected, flattish. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, length of the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ subovate, inferior. Styles two, reflected. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp none. Fruit ovate, striated, bipartite. Seeds two, ovate, convex and striated on one side, flat on the other.—*Essential Character.* Involucres mostly four-leaved. Fruit ovate, striated.

1. Sison amomum, hedge honewort, or bastard stone parsley.—Root annual or biennial, spindle-shaped, with lateral branches. Stem erect, two or three feet high, branched and spreading, round, furrowed, leafy. Leaves pinnate with a terminating lobed leaflet, unequally serrate: the lower ones have seven or nine leaflets, ovate, serrate; the upper ones have the leaflets narrower, deeper cut, and often pinnatifid. Umbels numerous, terminating, solitary, erect when in flower, composed of four, unequal rays; with a small four-leaved general involucre.—Native of England, Germany, the South of France, Carniola and Piedmont. With us not unfrequent in moistish spots under hedges, where the soil is marly or chalky: flowering in the latter part of summer.

2. *Sison segetum*, or corn honewort.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets roundish numerous; umbels drooping irregular. Root small but strong, annual in general but often biennial. Stems very much branched, round, striated, slender and rush-like, leafy.—Native of Switzerland and England, in corn fields in a chalk and clay soil, but not very frequently.

3. *Sison canadense*, or three-leaved honewort.—Root perennial. Radical leaves ternate, serrate; the middle leaf trifid, the two side ones bifid. Stem-leaves ternate, serrate, lanceolate, shining. Umbel four-cleft, unequal, without any involucre. Umbellets mostly seven-flowered, with a very small involucre. Petals white, equal.—Native of North America and Japan.

4. *Sison Ammi*.—Leaves tripinnate; root-leaves linear; stem-leaves bristle-shaped; stipular-leaves longer.—Root annual.—Native of Portugal, Apulia and Egypt.

5. *Sison inundatum*, or water honewort.—Leaves pinnate gashed; those under water cut as fine as hairs into many parts, umbels five-flowered, bifid. Root annual or biennial. Stems creeping, floating, round.—Native of the North of Europe, Britain, Germany, Switzerland and Dauphine.

6. *Sison salsum*.—Leaves only radical, in bundles, shorter, pinnate: pinnas opposite, oblong; the first pair decomposed, the rest not.—Native of Siberia, in the salts near the Wolga.

7. *Sison crinitum*.—Root-leaves triplicate-pinnate; stem-leaves bipinnate; leaflets bristle shaped; universal involucre many-leaved bipinnate.—Native of Siberia.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in autumn, in a moist shady spot of ground; or permit the seeds to scatter, and the plants will rise without care.

SISONBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 1 mile west-by-south of Melton Mowbray.

SISACH, a small town of the Swiss canton of Bale, on the river Ergelz, with 1600 inhabitants. It has a seminary for training schoolmasters on Pestalozzi's plan; 13 miles south-east of Bale.

SISSECK, a small town of the Austrian states, in Croatia, near the influx of the river Kulpa into the Save, fortified with a wall and ditch; 5 miles north-east of Petrinia, and 38 east of Carlstadt.

SISONE, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Aisne, on the Souche, with 1100 inhabitants; 10 miles east of Laon.

SISSOPOLI, or SIZEPOLI, the ancient Apolonia, a town of European Turkey, in Romania, situated on a point of land which projects into the Black Sea. It has the best roadstead in the whole gulph, where men-of-war may anchor in perfect safety. The inhabitants are almost all Greeks, and the chief articles of trade are wine and wood; 115 miles north-north-west of Constantinople. Lat. 42. 30. N. long. 27. 44. E.

SISTER, *s.* [ꝛꝛeoꝛep, Sax.; *zuster*, Dutch. *M. Goth. suistar*; Icel. *syster*; from *syst*, uterus.] A woman born of the same parents; correlative to brother. *Shakspeare*.—I have said to corruption, Thou art my father; to the worm, thou art my mother and my sister. *Job*.—Woman of the same faith; a christian. One of the same nature, human being.—If a brother or sister be naked, and destitute of food, and you say unto them, Depart in peace, be ye warmed and filled: notwithstanding you give them not those things which are needful to the body, what doth it profit. *James*.—A female of the same kind.

He chid the sisters,
And bade them speak to him. *Shakspeare*.

One of the same kind; one of the same condition.
There grew two olives, closest of the grove,
With roots entwined, but branches interwove:
Alike their leaves, but not alike they smil'd
With sister-fruits; one fertile, one was wild. *Pope*.

SISTER-IN-LAW, *s.* A husband or wife's sister.—Thy sister-in-law is gone back unto her people: return thou after thy sister-in-law. *Ruth*.

To SISTER, *v. a.* To resemble closely.

She — with her needl composes
Nature's own shape, of bud, bird, branch, or berry,
That even her art sisters the natural roses. *Shakspeare*.

To SISTER, *v. n.* To be akin; to be near to.

A hill, whose concave womb reworded
A plaintful story from a *sistering* vale. *Shakspeare*.

SISTER-BLOCKS, in Block-Making, are blocks made of ash, similar to two single blocks, and turned out of a solid piece.

SISTERHOOD, *s.* The office or duty of a sister.

She abhor'd
Her proper blood, and left to do the part
Of sisterhood, to do that of a wife. *Daniel*.

A set of sisters.—There is a kind of natural equality in *sisterhood*. *Bp. Hall*.—A number of women of the same order.—A woman who flourishes in her innocence, amidst that spite and rancour which prevails among her exasperated *sisterhood*, appears more amiable. *Addison*.

SISTERLY, *adj.* Like a sister; becoming a sister.

After much debatement,
My sisterly remorse confutes mine honour,
And I did yield to him. *Shakspeare*.

SISTERON, a small town in the south-east of France, the capital of an arrondissement in the department of the Lower Alps, situated at the base of rocks on the banks of the Durance. It is a place of antiquity, and has long been the see of a bishop. It is defended by a strong castle, has a fine cathedral, and contains nearly 4000 inhabitants. Wine is cultivated in the neighbourhood; 45 miles north-east of Aix.

SISTERS, two small islands in the Great Southern ocean, lying in the strait between Van Diemen's Land and south-west of New Holland.

SISTON, a village of England, in Gloucestershire, situated in a pleasant vale, on the banks of a rivulet which runs into the Avon. Tin ore has been found in the neighbourhood, and the village contains a manufactory of brass, and another of salt-petre. Population 833; 6 miles east-by-north of Bristol.

SISTOVA, SZISTOW, or SCHISTAR, a large town in the north of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, on the right bank of the Danube. It has a citadel, and is said to contain 20,000 inhabitants. Its trade, promoted by the navigation of the Danube, consists chiefly in the leather and cotton supplied by the adjacent country. A number of the traders are Armenians and Greeks. In history it is remarkable for the conference held here in 1791, between the Turks and Austrians, which separated the latter from their co-operation with Russia; 25 miles east of Nicopoli. Lat. 43. 45. N. long. 24. 44. E.

SISTRUM, a sacred musical instrument with the ancient Egyptians. See Music.

SISYMBRIUM [of Pliny. *Σισυμβριον* of Theophrastus. *Σισυμβρα* of Nicander], in Botany, a genus of the class tetradynamia, order siliquosa, natural order of siliquosæ, cruciformes or cruciferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved: leaflets lanceolate-linear, spreading, coloured, deciduous. Corolla: four-petalled, cruciform. Petals oblong, spreading, commonly less than the calyx, with very small claws. Stamina: filaments six, longer than the calyx: of these two opposite a little shorter. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ oblong, filiform. Style scarcely any. Stigma obtuse. Pericarp: siliqua long, incurved, gibbous, round, two-celled, two-valved: valves in opening straightish: partition a little longer than the valves. Seeds very many, small.—*Essential Character*. Siliqua opening with straightish valves. Calyx and corolla spreading.

I.—Siliques declined short.

1. *Sisymbrium nasturtium*, or common water cress.—Roots perennial, consisting of long white fibres, the lowermost fixed in the soil, the rest suspended in the water. Stems spreading, declining or floating, branched, leafy. Flowers

SISON. SPERGULA. STELLARIA. SORBUS.



1. 2. *St. inodatum*. 3. *Sp. nodosa*. 4. *St. cerastoides*. 5. *Sa. hybrida*.

The history of the United States is a complex and multifaceted story that spans centuries. It begins with the early Native American civilizations, such as the Mayans, Aztecs, and Incas, who developed advanced societies in the Americas. The arrival of European explorers, including Christopher Columbus and John Cabot, marked the beginning of a new era of discovery and colonization. The United States was founded on the principles of liberty, democracy, and the rule of law, as outlined in the Declaration of Independence and the Constitution. The nation's growth and expansion were shaped by westward migration, the Industrial Revolution, and the Civil War, which ultimately led to the abolition of slavery and the unification of the states. The 20th century saw the United States emerge as a global superpower, playing a central role in the world's affairs through its economic, military, and cultural influence. Today, the United States continues to face challenges and opportunities, striving to uphold its founding principles and promote peace and prosperity for all.

Flowers white, in a corymb, soon lengthened out into a spike. Pods shortish, on horizontal pedicels, but the pods themselves recurved upwards. Stigmas nearly sessile.—Native of Europe, Asia, Africa and America, in springs, pools and rivulets; flowering in June and July.

2. *Sisymbrium sylvestre*, or creeping water rocket.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets lanceolate, gash-serrate. Root perennial. Stems numerous, a foot high. Corolla small, yellow or gold-coloured; petals obtuse, a little longer than the calyx. Nectary of four deep-green glands, united in a circle. Filaments yellow; anthers incumbent.—Native of Sweden, Britain, Germany, France, Switzerland, Carniola, Piedmont and Siberia.

3. *Sisymbrium terrestre*, or annual water rocket.—Leaves pinnatifid, unequally toothed; root simple; petals shorter than the calyx.—Common in England.

4. *Sisymbrium amphibium*, or great water rocket.—Leaves oblong, pinnatifid or serrate; petals longer than the calyx.—Root perennial, fibrous. Stems elongated, rooting, somewhat flexuose, leafy, grooved, little branched.—In rivers and brooks, and sometimes on the banks that are seldom overflowed, in most parts of Europe: flowering from June to August.—The remaining species of this section are *Sisymbrium Pyrenaicum*, *tanacetifolium*, *ceratophyllum*, *coronopifolium*, *tenuifolium*, *sagittatum* and *amplexicaule*.

II.—Siliques sessile, axillary.

5. *Sisymbrium supinum*, or decumbent wild rocket.—Siliques solitary; leaves tooth-sinuate.—This is an annual plant.—Native of the South of Europe: flowering in June and July.

6. *Sisymbrium polyceratum*, or dandelion-leaved wild rocket.—Siliques awl-shaped; aggregate; leaves repand-toothed. It is an annual.—Native of the South of France, Italy, and Switzerland.

7. *Sisymbrium filifolium*, or thread-leaved wild rocket.—Leaves linear. This is a very small annual, not more than an inch and a half or two inches in height. Flowers small. Petals white, linear, obtuse, a little longer than the calyx.—Native of Siberia, by the river Kuma.

8. *Sisymbrium bursifolium*, or shepherd's purse-leaved wild rocket.—Raceme flexuose; leaves lyrate; stem erect, leafy. Annual.—Native of Italy, in moist places on mountains.

9. *Sisymbrium torulosum*, or swollen-podded wild rocket.—Raceme erect; siliques sessile, pubescent; leaves lanceolate, toothed. There are often some racemes of flowers from the root. It flowers early in spring.—Native of the kingdom of Tunis, in fallows.

III.—Stem naked.

10. *Sisymbrium murale*, or wall wild rocket.—Almost stemless; leaves lanceolate; sinuate-serrate; smoothish; scapes, somewhat rugged, ascending.—Native of France, Italy and England.

11. *Sisymbrium monense*, or procumbent sea rocket.—Siliques almost upright; leaves pinnatifid, somewhat hairy; stems quite simple, almost naked, smooth. Root perennial and strong.—Native of Britain.

12. *Sisymbrium repandum*, or sinuate-leaved sea rocket.—Stemless; leaves oblong, repand-sinuate, smooth; scapes smooth; siliques compressed-four-cornered.—Native of Provence, Dauphine and Piedmont.—There remains in this section *Sisymbrium tillieri*, *vimineum*, *barrelieri*, *arenosum* and *valentinum*.

IV.—Leaves pinnate.

13. *Sisymbrium parra*, or Brasil wild rocket.—Root annual or biennial. Leaves radical, spreading in a ring, a span long, runcinate. The upper surface, especially the edge, mucronated with warts, or scattered mucronate tubercles, having a transparent point.—Native of Brasil.

14. *Sisymbrium asperum*, or rough-podded wild rocket.—Siliques rugged; leaves pinnatifid; pinnae linear-lanceolate,

somewhat toothed; corollas longer than the calyx.—Root annual. Stems half a foot long and almost trailing.—Native of the South of France and marshes about Estremadura.

15. *Sisymbrium Sophia*, or flix-weed.—Leaves pinnate-decompounded, somewhat hairy; petal smaller than the calyx. Root annual, small, tapering. Stem a foot and a half or two feet high, upright, round, much branched and very leafy. Leaves alternate, spreading, three inches long and two inches broad, very finely divided. Flowers in corymbs, very small, numerous, frequently more than a hundred in a single corymb. Petals pale yellow.—It is common in most parts of Europe, on walls, among rubbish, about church-yards, waste ground, hedges and dunghills: flowering in June and July.—The remaining species of this section, are *Sisymbrium lavigatum*, *millefolium*, *album*, *cinereum*, *altissimum*, *echartsbergense*, *panonicum*, *erysimoides*, *irio*, *columnæ*, *loeselii*, *obtusangulum*, *orientale*, *barbareæ*, *lyratum*, *catholicum*, *heterophyllum* and *glaciale*.

V.—Leaves lanceolate, entire.

16. *Sisymbrium strictissimum*, or spear-leaved wild rocket.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, toothed pubescent; petioled; siliques spreading. Root perennial.—Native of Germany, Austria, Switzerland and Italy.

17. *Sisymbrium pendulum*, or pendulous wild rocket.—Leaves lanceolate, gash-toothed, hispid; siliques pendulous. Stem somewhat branched, upright. Flowers yellow.—Native of Barbary, near Cassa, in sands.

18. *Sisymbrium Hispanicum*, or Spanish wild rocket.—Leaves lanceolate, toothed, sessile, smooth; siliques pressed close; stem branched, divaricating. Root biennial.—Native of Spain.

19. *Sisymbrium pumilum*, or dwarf wild rocket.—Leaves lanceolate, toothed, sagittate embracing, pubescent; siliques from erect spreading. Root annual. Plant a finger or a span in length.—Native of the northern parts of Persia.

20. *Sisymbrium salsuginosum*, or salt wild rocket.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire, cordate, embracing smooth; siliques spreading. Root annual.—Native of salt-marshes in Siberia.

21. *Sisymbrium integrifolium*, or entire-leaved wild rocket.—Leaves linear, quite entire; peduncles glutinous-hispid. Root annual. Stem a finger's length. Flowers biggish, white. Siliques linear.—Native of Siberia. It varies, according to Gmelin, with yellow flowers.

22. *Sisymbrium Indicum*, or Indian wild rocket.—Leaves lanceolate-ovate, serrate petioled even; siliques slightly bowed. Root annual.—Native of the East Indies.

23. *Sisymbrium hispidum*, or hairy wild rocket.—Cauliscent; leaves petioled, oblong, toothed hispid; stem also hispid.—Native of Egypt.

Propagation and Culture.—Water Cress is generally gathered for a spring salad in ditches or other standing or slow-flowing waters; and is also cultivated to supply the London markets. This may be easily done, by taking some of the plants from the places of their natural growth early in the spring, being careful to preserve their roots as entire as possible, and plant them in mud, letting water in upon them by degrees. They will soon flourish, and spread over a large compass; they should not be cut the first season, but suffered to run to seed; for the seeds will fall into the water, and furnish a sufficient supply of plants.

Where the water is so deep that it is not easy to plant it, procure a quantity of plants in July, just as their seeds are ripening, and throw them on the surface of the water, where they are designed to grow: the seeds will ripen, fall to the bottom and take root there without any farther care.

The other water-rockets may be propagated in the same manner, or by seeds sown on the banks of ditches or streams.

Those which grow on dry land may easily be propagated, by sowing the seeds in autumn, or by permitting them to

scatter; thinning them, and keeping them clean from weeds. Most of them prefer a dry soil, and some flourish best on walls.

SISYRINCHIUM [of Pliny. *Σισυρινχίον* of Theophrastus. From *υς* sus, and *φυρξος* rostrum. Swine's snout. From the form of the flower], in Botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order triandria, natural order of ensatae, Irides (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: spathe common ancipital, two-leaved: valves compressed, acuminate. Proper several, lanceolate, concave, obtuse, one-flowered. Corolla, one-petalled, superior, six-parted: segments obovate with a point, from erect spreading: three outer alternate a little wider. Stamina: filaments three, united into a subtriquetrous tube shorter than the corolla, distinct at the top. Anthers bifid below; fastened by the back. Pistil: germ obovate, inferior. Style three-sided, length of the tube. Stigmas three thickish; awl-shaped at the top, erect. Pericarp: capsule obovate, rounded-three-sided, three-celled, three-valved; with the partitions contrary. Seeds several, globular.—*Essential Character.* Spathe two-leaved. Calyx none. Petals six, almost equal, style one. Capsule three-celled, inferior.

1. *Sisyrrinchium elegans*.—Scape round, one-flowered, simple; leaf radical, linear, acuminate shorter; petals oblong acute.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Sisyrrinchium collinum*.—Scape round, somewhat branched; stem-leaf linear-acuminate shorter; petals oblong, acute.—Native of the hills near the Cape, where it is very abundant.

3. *Sisyrrinchium grandiflorum*, or great-flowered *sisyrrinchium*.—Scape round; simple; spathe subtriflorous; petals obovate, obtuse; leaves lanceolate, plaited. Root bulbous.—Native of Peru.

4. *Sisyrrinchium Bermudiana*, or iris-leaved *sisyrrinchium*.—Scape ancipital, branched, leafy; spathe subquadriflorous; shorter than the flowers; petals mucronate; leaves ensiform.—Native of Bermuda.

5. *Sisyrrinchium anceps*, or narrow-leaved *sisyrrinchium*.—Scape ancipital, winged simple, almost leafless; spathe subquadriflorous unequal, longer than the flowers; petals mucronate, leaves ensiform.—Native of Virginia and other parts of North America.

6. *Sisyrrinchium micranthum*, or small-flowered *sisyrrinchium*.—Scape ancipital, branched, leafy; spathe subtriflorous unequal, nearly equal to the flowers; petals linear, acuminate; leaves grassy, channelled.—Native of Peru.

7. *Sisyrrinchium palmifolium*, or palm-leaved *sisyrrinchium*.—Scape ancipital; flowers in spikes; leaves ensiform, nerved and plaited.—Native of Brasil.

8. *Sisyrrinchium striatum*.—Scape ancipital, leafy; flowers in spikes; petals roundish-ovate acute; leaves linear-ensiform. Root tuberous.—Supposed to be a native of Mexico.

9. *Sisyrrinchium xixioides*.—Scape compressed, panicled at top; petals flat, the outer ones smaller by half; leaves ensiform nerved. Root fibrous.—Native of New Zealand.

10. *Sisyrrinchium narcissoides*.—Stem erect, round; spathe two-valved subquadriflorous; flowers drooping; leaves linear-ensiform.—Native of the straits of Magellan.

Propagation and Culture.—The first and second species must be kept in the dry stove, and the rest in the bark bed. They may all be increased by the root.

SISZKO, a small town of Prussia Poland, on the Wartha; 26 miles north-north-west of Posen. Population 1700.

To **SIT**, *v. n.* preterite, *I sat*. [*sitan*, Gothic; *πικταν*, Sax.; *setten*, Dutch.—To rest upon the hisch-bone.—Their wives do *sit* beside them carding wool. *May*.—To perch.—To be in any local position.

I should be still

Plucking the grass to know where *sits* the wind:

Peering in maps for ports.

Shakspeare.

Those

Appointed to *sit* there had left their charge.

Milton.

The ships are ready, and the wind *sits* fair.

A. Philips.

To rest as a weight or burthen.—Your brother's death *sits* at your heart. *Shakspeare*.—When God lets loose upon us a sickness, if we fear to die, then the calamity *sits* heavy on us. *Bp. Taylor*.—To toss and fling, and to be restless, only galls our sores, and makes the burthen that is upon us *sit* more uneasy. *Tillotson*.

Fear, the last of ills, remain'd behind,
And horreur, heavy *sat* on every mind.

Dryden.

Our whole endeavours are intent to get rid of the present evil, as the first necessary condition to our happiness. Nothing, as we passionately think, can equal the uneasiness that *sits* so heavy upon us. *Locke*.—To settle; to abide.

That this new comer shame,
There *sit* not and reproach us.

Milton.

When Thetis blush'd, in purple not her own,
And from her face the breathing winds were blown;
A sudden silence *sate* upon the sea,
And sweeping oars, with struggling, urg'd their way.

Dryden.

He to the void advanc'd his pace,
Pale horreur *sat* on each Arcadian face.

To brood; to incubate.—As the partridge *sitteth* on eggs, and hatcheth them not, so he that getteth riches not by right, shall leave them in the midst of his days. *Jer*.—The egg laid and severed from the body of the hen, hath no more nourishment from the hen; but only a quickening heat when she *sitteth*. *Bacon*.—She mistakes a piece of chalk for an egg, and *sits* upon it in the same manner. *Addison*.—To be adjusted; to be with respect to fitness or unfitness, decorum or indecorum. [*sied*, old Fr. "cet accoustrement luy *sied* bien," this garment becomes, *sits*, &c. Cotgrave.]

How ill it *sits* with that same silver head
In vain to mock!

Spenser.

This new and gorgeous garment, majesty,
Sits not so easy on me as you think.

Shakspeare.

Heav'n knows,
By what by-paths, and indirect crook'd ways
I met this crown; and I myself know well,
How troublesome it *sate* upon my head;
To thee it shall descend with better quiet.

Shakspeare.

Your preferring that to all other considerations does, in the eyes of all men, *sit* well upon you. *Locke*.—To be placed in order to be painted.—One is under no more obligation to extol every thing he finds in the author he translates, than a painter is to make every face that *sits* to him handsome. *Garth*.—To be in any situation or condition.—As a farmer cannot husband his ground so well, if he *sit* at a great rent; so the merchant cannot drive his trade so well, if he sit at great usury. *Bacon*.—Suppose all the churchlands were thrown up to the laity; would the tenants *sit* easier in their rents than now? *Swift*.—To be convened, as an assembly of a public or authoritative kind; to hold a session: as, the parliament *sits*: the last general council *sate* at Trent.—To be placed at the table.—Whether is greater, he that *sitteth* at meat, or he that serveth? *St. Luke*.—To exercise authority.—The judgment shall *sit*, and take away his dominion. *Daniel*.—Asses are ye that *sit* in judgment. *Judges*.

Down to the golden Chersonese, or where
The Persian in Ecbatan *sate*.

Milton.

One council *sits* upon life and death, the other is for taxes, and a third for the distributions of justice. *Addison*.

Assert, ye fair ones, who in judgment *sit*,
Your ancient empire over love and wit.

Rowe.

To be in any solemn assembly as a member.—Three hundred and twenty men *sat* in council daily. 1 *Maccabees*.

To **SIT** down. *Down* is little more than emphatical.—Go and *sit* down to meat. *St. Luke*.—When we *sit* down to our meal, we need not suspect the intrusion of armed uninvited guests. *Dec. of Chr. Piety*.

To

To *SIT* down. To begin a siege.—Nor would the enemy have *sate* down before it, till they had done their business in all other places. *Clarendon*.

To *SIT* down. To rest; to cease as satisfied.—Here we cannot *sit* down, but still proceed in our search, and look higher for a support. *Rogers*.

To *SIT* down. To settle; to fix abode.—From besides Tanais, the Goths, Huns and Getes *sat* down. *Spenser*.

To *SIT* out. To be without engagement or employment.—They are glad, rather than *sit* out, to play very small game, and to make use of arguments, such as will not prove a bare inexpediency. *Bp. Sanderson*.

To *SIT* up. To rise from lying to sitting.—He that was dead *sat* up, and began to speak. *St. Luke*.

To *SIT* up. To watch; not to go to bed.

Be courtly,

And entertain, and feast, *sit* up, and revel;
Call all the great, the fair and spirited dames
Of Rome about thee, and begin a fashion
Of freedom.

B. Jonson.

Some *sit* up late at winter-fires, and fit
Their sharp-edg'd tools.

May.

Most children shorten that time by *sitting* up with the company at night. *Locke*.

To *SIT*, *v. a.* To keep the seat upon.

Hardly the muse can *sit* the head-strong horse,
Nor would she, if she could, check his impetuous force.

Prior.

[When the reciprocal pronoun follows *sit*, it seems to be an active verb.] To place on a seat.

The happiest youth viewing his progress through,
What perils past, what crosses to ensue,
Would shut the book, and *sit* him down and die. *Shakspeare*.

He came to visit us, and calling for a chair, *sat* him down,
and we sat down with him. *Bacon*.

Thus fenc'd,

But not at rest or ease of mind,
They *sat* them down to weep.

Milton.

To be settled to do business: this is rather neuter.—The court was *sat* before Sir Roger came, but the justices made room for the old knight at the head of them. *Addison*.

SITA, in Hindoo Mythology, is a celebrated incarnation of the goddess Lakshmi, celestial consort of Vishnu, in his avatara, or descent in the form of Rama. In the language of Hindoo fable, she was his sakti, or energy; and numberless poems have been written in honour of her beauty, merits, and deeds.

SITALA, a river of Mexico, which runs into the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 17. 38. N. long. 101. 40. W.

SITANG, a large river of the Birman empire, province of Pegu. It rises in a range of mountains about the 20th degree of northern latitude, passes the ancient city of Pegu, and falls into the gulph of Martaban; but on account of shoals, and very strong tides, it is excessively unsafe, and therefore little known to Europeans.

SITE, *s.* [*situs*, Lat.] Situation; local position.

The city self he strongly fortifies,
Three sides by *site* it well defended has.

Fairfax.

Manifold streams of goodly navigable rivers, as so many chains, environed the same *site* and temple. *Bacon*.—If we consider the heart in its constituent parts, we shall find nothing singular, but what is in any muscle. 'Tis only the *site* and posture of their several parts that give it the form and functions of a heart. *Bentley*.

Before my view appear'd a structure fair,
Its *site* uncertain if on earth or air.

Pope.

It is taken by Thomson for posture, or situation of a thing with respect to itself; but improperly.

And leaves the semblance of a lover fix'd
In melancholy *site*, with head declin'd,
And love-dejected eyes.

Thomson.

SIT'ED, *adj.* Placed; situated.

It *sitcd* was in fruitful soyle of old,
And girl in with two walls on either side.

Spenser.

Above were *sitcd* the masquers, over whose heads he devised two eminent figures. *B. Jonson*.

SIT'FAST, *s.* A hard knob growing under the saddle. *Farrier's Dict*.

SITH, *conj.* [riddē, Sax.] Since; seeing that. *Obsolete*.—What ceremony of odours used about the bodies of the dead! after which custom notwithstanding, *sith* it was their custom, our Lord was contented that his own most precious blood should be entombed. *Hooker*.

I thank you for this profit, and from hence
I'll love no friend, *sith* love breeds such offence. *Shakspeare*.

SITHCUNDMAN, in our Old Writers, one whose province it was to lead the men of a town or parish. *Leg. Ina*. cap. 56.

Dugdale says, that in Warwickshire the hundreds were formerly called *sythecosa*, and that *sithcundman*, and *sithcundman*, was the chief officer within such a division, i. e. the high constable of the hundred.

SITHE, *s.* Time. *Obsolete*.—A thousand *sithes* I cease that careful houre. *Spenser*.

The foolish man thereat woxe wondrous blith,—
And humbly thanked him a thousand *sith*.

Spenser.

SITHENCE, *adv.* [riddan, riddēn, Saxon. Chaucer, *sithen*.] Since; in latter times.—This over-running and wasting of the realm was the beginning of all the other evils which *sithence* have afflicted that land. *Spenser*.

SITHESOCA, in our Old Writers, is used to denote the district now called a hundred. The word is Saxon, signifying a *franchise*, or liberty.

SITHNEY, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 2½ miles north-west of Helstone. Population 1552.

SITIGNAK, one of the Fox islands, in the North Pacific Ocean. Lat. 53. 30. N. long. 117. 14. E.

SITIPITI, a river of Peru, in the province of Pataz, which runs north, and joins the Maxamerique, to enter the Pango.

SITOE, *CAPE*, a cape on the west coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 2. 12. N. long. 97. 11. E.

SITONÆ, [*Σιτωναι*, Gr.] among the Athenians, officers appointed to lay in corn for the use of the city, for which purpose the *ταμισες της διοικουσεως*, or the public treasurer, was to furnish them with as much money as they had occasion for. *Potter*.

SITONES, the name of one of the three principal classes of people who inhabited Scandinavia, beyond mount Savos, and bounded by the sea to the west and to the south.

SITOPHYLAX, *Σιτοφυλαξ*, formed from *σιλος*, *corn*, and *φυλαξ*, *keeper*, in Antiquity, an Athenian magistrate, who had the superintendance of the corn; and was to take care that nobody bought more than was necessary for the provision of his family.

SITTA, the *Nuthatch*, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order Picæ, of which the Generic Character is, bill subulate, roundish, straight, entire; the upper mandible is a little longer, compressed, and angular at the tip; tongue jagged, short, horny at the tip; the nostrils are small, covered with bristles; the feet are formed for walking; the hind-toe is long. Gmelin reckons twelve.

I. *Sitta Europæ*, or European nuthatch.—Cinereous, beneath reddish; the tail-feathers black; the four lateral ones beneath are tipped and white. It weighs nearly an ounce; its length is five inches; the bill is strong and straight, and about three-quarters of an inch long; the upper mandible is black, the lower white; the irides hazel; the crown of the head, back, and coverts of the wings, are of a fine blueish-grey; a black stroke passes over the eye from the mouth; the cheeks and chin are white; the breast and belly are of a dull orange-colour; the quill-feathers are dusky; the wings underneath are marked with two spots, one white, at the root of the exterior quills, the other black, at the joint of the bastard-wing; the tail consists of twelve feathers, the

two

two middle are grey, the two exterior feathers tipped with grey, then succeeds a transverse spot, beneath that the rest is black; the legs are of a pale yellow; the back toe very strong, and the claws large. Such is Mr. Pennant's description of the European nuthatch, who adds, that "this bird runs up and down the bodies of trees like the woodpecker tribe, and feeds not only on insects but on nuts, of which it lays up a considerable quantity, as winter provision, in the hollows of trees. It breeds likewise in the hollows of trees; and if the entrance be too large, it stops up part of it with clay, leaving only room enough for admission. It autumn it begins a chattering noise, being silent the greater part of the year. This bird makes its nest of dead leaves, mostly of the oak, which it heaps together without much order. It lays six or seven eggs, which are white, spotted with rust colour, so exactly like those of the great titmouse, that it is almost impossible to distinguish them. No persecution will force this little bird from its habitation, when sitting: it defends its nest to the last extremity, strikes the invader with its bill and wings, and makes a hissing noise; and after every effort of defence, will suffer itself to be taken in hand, rather than quit its post."

"The nuthatch," says Colonel Montague, in his Ornithological Dictionary, "is more expert in climbing than the woodpecker; for it runs in all directions up and down a tree, whereas the other is never observed to descend: the stiff tail of those birds support them in the act of climbing and hacking. The flexible tail of the nuthatch gives it no such advantage, nor does it seem to want it; for its most favourite position, when breaking a nut, is with the head downwards. In autumn it is no uncommon thing to find, in the crevices of the bark of an old tree, a great many broken nut-shells, the work of this bird, who repeatedly returns to the same spot for this purpose. When it has fixed the nut firmly in a chink, it turns on all sides, in order to strike it with the most advantage. This, with the common hazel-nut, is a work of some labour; but it breaks the filberd with ease. In defect of such food, insects and their larvæ are sought after among the moss on trees, and old thatched buildings. It is commonly met with about orchards, and is sometimes seen, in the cider season, picking the seeds from the refuse of the pressed apples. The note is various: in the spring it is a remarkably loud shrill whistle, which ceases after incubation; in autumn it is a double reiterated cry." There is a variety, called the little nuthatch, which is much smaller than the common nuthatch, and of a more noisy disposition. It resides in similar situations, and is equally solitary; associating only with its mate, and attacking any other it may happen to see.

2. *Sitta Canadensis*, or Canada nuthatch.—Cinereous, beneath pale rufous; eye-lids white. This is of the size of the European species; the bill is blackish; crown of the head, hind part of the neck, and shoulders, black; the back and rump are of a light grey; over each eye is a white line; the cheeks are white; larger quill-feathers dusky, with grey edges; breast and belly pure white; the two middle tail-feathers are grey, the rest black, with a white spot at the tip; the vent is ferruginous, and the legs are brown. It is, as its specific name imports, a native of Canada, and extends its journeys as far south as New York. Mr. Pennant makes it a mere variety of the European nuthatch; but by Linnæus and Latham it is regarded as a distinct species.

3. *Sitta Carolinensis*, or black-headed nuthatch.—Cinereous, beneath whitish; lower part of the belly reddish; head and neck above black; lateral tail-feathers white, varied with black.—It is a native of the temperate parts of America, and of the island of Jamaica.

4. *Sitta Jamaicensis*, or Jamaica nuthatch.—Cinereous, beneath white; crown black; lateral tail-feathers blackish, tipped with transverse white lines. This has been described by Sir Hans Sloane in his natural History of Jamaica. It is of the size of the common nuthatch, the length being five inches and a half; the bill nearly an inch long, and black; the head is large, with a black crown. It is, as its specific name

imports, a native of the island of Jamaica. It has also been found in many parts of South America, feeding on insects, and having the character of a stupid bird, easily suffering itself to be taken. From the size of its head, it is known in Jamaica by the name of loggerhead. There is a variety much less.

5. *Sitta pusilla*, or small nuthatch.—Cinereous, beneath dirty white; the head is brown, with a dirty white spot behind; the lateral tail-feathers are black.—It inhabits North America, and is said to be found in Carolina throughout the whole year.

6. *Sitta major*, or great nuthatch.—Grey, beneath whitish; the chin is white; the quill and tail-feathers brown, edged with orange. This is described by Sir Hans Sloane in the History of Jamaica; it is seven inches and a half long; the bill is thickest in the middle, and curved at the end; the head and back are grey; the under parts are whitish; the wings and tail are brown, with orange edges. It is a native of Jamaica, and feeds on worms, insects, &c.

7. *Sitta nævia*, or spotted nuthatch.—Above it is of a lead-colour, beneath glaucous; the chin is white; the wing-coverts are spotted with white. This bird is described by Edwards under the title of wall-creeper of Surinam, who says, the bill is long in proportion, straight, somewhat compressed sideways, a little hooked at the point, and of a dusky brownish colour; the head, the hinder side of the neck, back, rump, tail, and wings, are of a dark blueish-lead colour; all the covert-feathers on the upper side of the wings are tipped with white; the insides of the quills and under side of the tail feathers are ash-coloured, lighter than they are above; the throat is white; the breast, belly, thighs, and coverts beneath the tail, are of a blueish-ash colour, lighter than the upper side of the bird; from the throat, as far as the legs, the breast is marked with white lines, drawn down the middle of each feather, which end in points; the legs and feet are of a dusky brown colour. The length of this bird is about six inches. It is, as its trivial name imports, a native of Surinam.

8. *Sitta Surinamensis*, or Surinam nuthatch.—Reddish-chestnut, beneath it is of a dirty white; middle of the back white; wings and tail black; wing and tail-coverts tipped, and secondary quill-feathers edged, with white. This is a very small species, not much more than three inches in length; the bill is of a dusky brown, and a little curved; the hind-head and neck are marked with oblong black spots. It is, as its specific name imports, a native of Surinam.

9. *Sitta Caffra*, or Cape nuthatch.—Body beneath is yellow, above yellow, varied with black; the legs are black.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope. This was described by Sparrmann, and is by him said to be nine inches in length, with a straight blueish-black bill; the front, hind part of the neck, and back, mixed with brown and yellow; cheeks, neck, breast, and under parts, are of a dusky yellow, as are also the edges and tips of the wing-feathers; the tail is dusky black, beneath olive; the two middle feathers longer than the rest; the legs are black.

10. *Sitta sinensis*, or Chinese nuthatch.—The Specific Character of this, according to Gmelin, is, that the lower eye-lid is purple. But Dr. Shaw denominates it the ferruginous nuthatch, with black head and neck, white breast and abdomen, a red spot behind the eye, and another white one. This bird is described by Latham as something larger than the goldfinch; the bill and head are black; the back is of a deep blueish-ferruginous; the throat, breast, and belly, are white, but the throat is encompassed by a black band, descending from the sides of the head, which is black and crested; near the eye is a small scarlet spot, succeeded by a large white one; the rump is yellow; the tail blackish, with a white tip; the bill and legs are black. It is, as its name denotes, a native of China, where it is said to be much esteemed on account of the elegance of its colours, and is a frequent ornament on Chinese papers. "It appears," says Dr. Shaw, "to be much allied to the *Lanius jocosus*, or red-vented shrike, and may perhaps prove, on future investigation, to be no other than the same bird."

11. *Sitta longirostra*, or long-billed nuthatch.—Blueish, beneath, pale rufous; primary quill-feathers tipped with brown; the lores are black. This species is described by Dr. Latham, and is said to measure nine inches; the bill is above an inch long, and black, but the base is pale or whitish; the crown of the head and whole upper parts of the bird are of a pale blueish-grey, but the cheeks and forehead are white, and a black streak passes through each eye, along the sides of the neck; the wings are tipped with brown, and the under parts of the bird are pale tawny; the legs are of a pale brown.—It inhabits Batavia.

12. *Sitta chloris*, or green nuthatch.—Above green, beneath white; the tail is black, tipped with yellowish; the bill is longer than the head, and blackish towards the tip: quill-feathers brown, outer edge greenish, yellowish in the middle, forming a yellowish band on the wings; the rump is yellowish, and the tail short.—It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, and is of the size of the Surinam nuthatch.

SITTARD, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Limburg, on the small river Gheete. Population 3300; 12 miles north-north-east of Maastricht.

SITTER, *s.* One that sits.—The Turks are great *sitters*, and seldom walk; whereby they sweat less, and need bathing more. *Bacon*.—One that watches, or goes not to bed.—Not a-bed ladies? you're good *sitters up*. *Beaum. and Fl.*—A bird that broods.—The oldest hens are reckoned the best *sitters*; and the youngest the best layers. *Mortimer*.

SITTING, *s.* The posture of sitting on a seat. The act of resting on a seat.—Thou knowest my down-sitting and mine up-rising. *Psalms*.—A time at which one exhibits himself to a painter.—Few good pictures have been finished at one *sitting*; neither can a good play be produced at a heat. *Dryden*.—A meeting of an assembly.

I'll write you down;

The which shall point you forth at every *sitting*,
What you must say. *Shakespeare.*

I wish it may be at that *sitting* concluded, unless the necessity of the time press it. *Bacon*.—A course of study uninterrupted.—For the understanding of any one of St. Paul's epistles, I read it through at one *sitting*. *Locke*.—A time for which one sits, as at play, or work, or a visit.

What more than madness reigns,
When one short *sitting* many hundreds drains,
And not enough is left him to supply
Board-wages, or a footman's livery.

Dryden.

Incubation.—Whilst the hen is covering her eggs, the male bird takes his stand upon a neighbouring bough, and amuses her with his songs, during the whole time of her *sitting*. *Addison*.

SITTINGBOURNE, a market town of England, in the county of Kent, and a great thoroughfare on the road from London to Dover. It consists chiefly of one wide street, running along the high road, which here descends towards the east. It depends chiefly for its support on the resort of travellers. The inns are numerous, and some of them equal in elegance to any provincial inns in the kingdom. The church is a spacious building, consisting of a nave, two aisles, a chancel, two chapels, and a tower rising at the west end. With the exception of the tower, the whole has been rebuilt since the year 1762, when it was destroyed by fire. Sittingbourne is a place of considerable antiquity. King Henry V. on his return from France, was magnificently entertained here at the Red Lion Inn, by a gentleman of the name of Northwood. Queen Elizabeth incorporated the town by charter; conferred on it the privileges of a weekly market and fairs, and invested the corporation with the right of sending members to parliament. These privileges, however, seem never to have been exercised, except that of the fairs, which are still kept annually. The parish is of small extent, and contained in 1811, 239 houses, and 1362 inhabitants; 11 miles south-east of Rochester, and 40 east-by-south of London.

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SITTIVICA, a town of the island of Ceylon, noted for being the chief place of intercourse between Candy and Columbo. It is situated on a branch of the Malivaddy river, and formerly possessed a fort, which is now in ruins. Lat. 7. 2. N. long. 80. 13. E.

SITUATE, *part. adj.* [from *situs*, Lat.] Placed with respect to any thing else.—He was resolved to chuse a war, rather than to have Bretagne carried by France, being so great and opulent a duchy, and *situate* so opportunely to annoy England. *Bacon*.

Within a trading town they long abide,
Full fairly *situate* on a haven's side.

Dryden.

The eye is a part so artificially composed, and com-mo-diously *situate*, as nothing can be contrived better for use, ornament, or security. *Ray*.—Placed; consisting.

Earth hath this variety from heaven,
Of pleasure *situate* in hill or dale.

Milton.

SITUATION, *s.* [*situation*, Fr.] Local respect; position.—Prince Cesarini has a palace in a pleasant *situation*, and set off with many beautiful walks. *Addison*.—Condition; state.—Though this is a *situation* of the greatest ease and tranquillity in human life, yet this is by no means fit to be the subject of all men's petitions to God. *Rogers*.—Temporary state; circumstances. *Used of persons in a dramatic scene.*

SITZENDORF, a small town of Austria; 33 miles north-west of Vienna. Population 1400.

SITZIKAMMA, a district in the eastern part of the territory of the Cape of Good Hope, between Plettenburg bay and Camtoos river. It consists chiefly of impenetrable forests, abounding with the elephant, the buffalo, and the rhinoceros.

SIVA, in Hindoo Mythology, is a personification of one of the three great powers of the deity. Siva is usually deemed the third person in the Hindoo triad, and represents the *destructive energy*.

SIVANO SAMUDRA, a remarkable island, situated in the river Cavery, in the province of Coimbeetoor, in the south of India. It is nine miles in length, and contains an extraordinary cataract, 150 feet perpendicular. This island was formerly connected to the opposite shore, by a handsome stone bridge, which is now in ruins. There are also the remains of many Hindoo temples, and much sculpture of various sorts: in one apartment, there is an image of Vishnu, seven feet high, executed in the best style of Indian carving. The island is in general rocky, and but little cultivated.

SIVAS or **SIWAS**, a considerable city of Asia Minor, capital of a pachalic which comprehends the whole eastern part of that territory. It still retains the name of Roum, or Rumiya, which formerly applied to the whole Turkish empire. Its general character is that of a mountainous and wooded country, interspersed with fine valleys; and it contains the important cities of Amasia, Tocat, and Trebisond. The town is situated on the great river Kizil Irmak, not far from its source, and on the northern side of a plain watered by it. It is dirty and ill built, and the strong castle by which it was formerly defended is now in ruins. The inhabitants are described as a coarse and rude people; but travellers vary so much as to their number, that we cannot form any certain conclusion. Not far from the town is a celebrated Armenian monastery. A great number of horses are bred in the neighbourhood. This place was originally called Cabira, afterwards Sebaste, in honour of Augustus. It is celebrated as being the theatre of the great contest between Bajazet and Timur, in which the former was finally defeated and taken prisoner. Lat. 38. 55. N. long. 37. E.

SIVINSK, a village of the east of European Russia, in the inland province of Pensa, with iron works on a large scale.

SIVITA, a small island belonging to Turkey in Europe, situated in the Ionian sea, on the coast of Epirus.

SIVRY, a small inland town of the Netherlands, province.

of Hainault, with 2200 inhabitants; 18 miles south-south-west of Charleroi.

SIUM [of Pliny: *σι σιεται*, from its being shaken by the stream in which it grows.], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ, or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal, various in different species: partial spreading, flat. Involucre universal, many-leaved, reflex, shorter than the umbel, with lanceolate leaflets: partial many-leaved, linear, small. Perianth proper, scarcely observable. Corolla: universal uniform: floscules all fertile. Proper of five inflex-cordate, equal petals. Stamina: filaments five, simple. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ very small, inferior. Style two, reflex. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp none. Fruit subovate, striated, small, bipartite. Seeds two subovate, convex and striated on one side, flat on the other.—*Essential Character*. Involucre many-leaved. Petals cordate. Fruit subovate, striated.

1. *Sium filifolium*, or thread-leaved water parsnep.—Leaves filiform; involucre elongated.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Sium latifolium*, or broad-leaved water parsnep.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets oblong-lanceolate, equally serrate.—Native of many parts of Europe, and of Siberia.

3. *Sium angustifolium*, or narrow-leaved water parsnep.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets unequally lobed and serrate, umbels peduncled opposite to the leaves; stem erect. Root perennial, creeping, so as to occupy much space.—Native of most parts of Europe.

4. *Sium nodiflorum*, or procumbent water parsnep.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets ovate equally serrate, umbels sessile opposite to the leaves; stem procumbent. Flowers small, greenish white, with slight traces of a calyx. Fruit ovate.—Native of many parts of Europe.

5. *Sium repens*, or creeping water parsnep.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets roundish, tooth-gashed, umbels peduncled opposite to the leaves; stem creeping.—Native of Bohemia in wet meadows, Austria and England.

6. *Sium verticillatum*, or whorled water parsnep.—Leaflets multifid-capillary in whorls. Root perennial, consisting of several oblong tubers, tapering to a point. Stem from twelve to eighteen inches high, erect. Leaves mostly radical and very remarkable, consisting of a simple rib, along which are arranged pairs of deeply cloven leaflets.—Native of Germany, France, the Pyrenees, and Britain.

7. *Sium sisarum*, or skirret.—Leaves pinnate, floral leaves ternate. The root of the common Skirret is composed of several fleshy tubers as large as a man's little finger, and joining together in one head. The stalk rises a foot high, and is terminated by an umbel of white flowers, which appear in July, and are succeeded by striated seeds like those of parsley, which ripen in autumn.

Our English name *Skirret* seems to be a corruption from the old name *Skirwort*.—Native of China and Cochinchina, in watery places.

8. *Sium rigidius*, or Virginian water parsnep.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets lanceolate almost entire. Stem stiffish. Flowers small.—Native of Virginia.

9. *Sium Japonicum*, or Japanese water parsnep.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets gashed, umbels terminating. Stem erect, flexuose, branched at top.—Native of Japan, in the island Nipon.

10. *Sium falcaria*, or decurrent water parsnep.—Leaflets linear, decurrent, connate. Roots creeping, and spreading very far under ground, thick, fleshy, and tasting like those of Eryngo.—*Sium falcaria* is a native of many parts of Europe; also of Asia and Africa.

11. *Sium grandiflorum*, or great-flowered water parsnep.—Leaves bipinnate, leaflets roundish, gash-toothed.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, as are the two following.

12. *Sium paniculatum*, or paniced water parsnep.—Leaves bipinnate, leaflets linear, gash-pinnatifid.

13. *Sium patulum*, or spreading water parsnep.—Leaves bipinnate, leaflets trifid, branches diffused.

14. *Sium Græcum*, or Grecian water parsnep.—Leaves

bipinnate, leaflets lanceolate, serrate, the uppermost confluent. Flowers yellow.—Native of Greece.

15. *Sium decumbens*, or prostrate water parsnep. Stem decumbent, dwarfish.—Native of Japan, on the island of Nipon, near Jedu and Fakona.

16. *Sium Siculum*, or Sicilian water parsnep.—Radical leaves ternate, stem-leaves bipinnate. Of a lucid green. Stem two feet high, terminated, in July, by an umbel of yellow flowers.—Native of Sicily and the hills near Algiers.

17. *Sium asperum*, or rough water parsnep.—Leaves tripinnate, peduncles and pedicels rugged.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, as are the two following.

18. *Sium hispidum*, or shaggy water parsnep.—Leaves tripinnate, petioles and peduncles rugged.

19. *Sium villosum*, or villose-leaved water parsnep.—Leaves tripinnatifid, segments ovate, gash-serrate villose.

Propagation and Culture.—The first six being marsh or water plants, if cultivated in gardens, must be placed in tubs filled with water, having earth in the bottom, or by the sides of canals or ponds.

The seventh is cultivated two ways; first by seeds, and afterwards by slips from the root.

Of the tenth the least part of the roots will grow, so that it will soon multiply of itself.

Sow the seeds of the sixteenth soon after they are ripe.

SIUT, a large town of Upper Egypt, on the western bank of the Nile. The country round is exceedingly fertile, and produces in abundance all the fruits to be found in Egypt, particularly apricots and water-melons. A great quantity of hemp is also cultivated, not for manufacture, but for the intoxicating quality which the seed possesses when smoked. The inhabitants consist chiefly of Copts, in whose hands almost all the commercial transactions of Egypt are placed. They are employed in an extensive manufacture of blue cloth. Siut is also the rendezvous of the caravans which proceed from Egypt southwards into the interior of Africa, to Sennaar and Darfur; from which countries they bring a considerable quantity of slaves and gold. The rich Copts immure their females, and live nearly in the same style as the Mahometans, except that they indulge in the use of brandy. Siut is the see of a Coptic bishop. It is built at the distance of about half a mile from the river, with which it communicates by a canal, crossed by a bridge of three arches. Siut is supposed to be the ancient Lycopolis; but the only remarkable antiquity which it presents, consists in the excavations made in the neighbouring mountains. They are numerous, and many of the chambers are thirty feet high, covered with hieroglyphics of elegant workmanship, and exhibiting symbolical figures. Various conjectures have been formed as to their origin, but the most probable seems to be, that they were excavated for sepulchral purposes; and some of them, in fact, contain fragments of the jars or urns in which were deposited animals considered as sacred, or slain to attend their master in the other world. Lat. 27. 10. 14. N. long. 31. 13. 20. E.

SIUTCHEI, a small island, one of the Kuriles, in the Eastern ocean. Lat. 50. 15. N. long. 155. 14. E.

SIWAH, or **ΣΙΟΥΑΗ**, a considerable oasis or fertile island, occurring in the Lybian desert, on the route from Egypt or Fezzan. This valley is described by Horneman as fifty miles in circumference, hemmed in on every side by barren rocks. Browne, however, represents the fertile district as not more than six miles in length and four in breadth. The territory is exceedingly well watered by streams descending from the surrounding hills; and the soil, of a sandy loam, yields in the greatest abundance the date, the staple commodity of this part of Africa. Almost every Siwahan possesses a date garden, well inclosed and carefully watered. The dates are piled up in storehouses, and form the object of an extensive trade. Siwah is built upon and around a mass of rock, which, according to tradition, was hollowed out into caves for the abode of the ancient inhabitants. The houses still resemble caves, and are huddled so close together, and in such confusion, that many of them are destitute of light, and the whole forms a labyrinth through which no stranger can

can penetrate without a guide. The general aspect, the crowded population, and the confused hum issuing from its precincts, give it the appearance of a bee-hive. The territory is supposed able to furnish about 1500 men in a condition to bear arms. The government is aristocratic, and very turbulent. It was originally vested in twelve sheiks, who administered public affairs in rotation; but twenty others of the principal citizens have now forced their way into power. The public council is held close to the town wall; but differences often occur, when recourse is speedily had to arms. The people are described as forward and insolent, and so thievishly inclined as to require strict precaution from the traveller to place his goods in security. Siwah, however, in consequence of its situation on the great caravan route, is the theatre of a considerable trade; and a number of the inhabitants are employed in the conveyance of goods between Egypt and Fezzan. Siwah is particularly remarkable as occupying probably the site of the temple of Jupiter Ammon, the most celebrated oracle of antiquity, and to reach which Alexander braved so many dangers. The fertile territory, surrounded by an extensive desert, and the catacombs found in the neighbouring mountains, strongly confirm this opinion. Accordingly, a few miles to the westward, there occurs a remarkable mass of ruins, called by the natives Ummebeda. They are in such a state of dilapidation as to render it difficult to discover the original purpose for which the structure was destined. There are evident remains of a very strong interior wall, about 300 yards in circumference, in the centre of which are found the ruins of what appears to have been the principal edifice. It is about 27 feet in height, 24 in width, and 10 or 12 paces in length. The walls are six feet thick, constructed, particularly in the roof, of very large blocks of stone, cemented with small stones and lime. The interior is decorated with hieroglyphics, and appears to have been partly painted. These concurring accounts of travellers appear to leave little doubt that the present structure formed a part at least of the celebrated shrine above alluded to. Lat. 29. 10. N. long. 26. 35. E.

SIWALON, a rock in the Eastern seas, near the north coast of Java. Lat. 6. 36. S. long. 110. 49. E.

SIX, *adj.* [ʃɪks, Sax., *sex*, Su. Goth., *saihs*, M. Goth., *shesh*, Persian.] Twice three; one more than five.—No incident in the piece or play but must carry on the main design; all things else are like *six* fingers to the hand, when Nature can do her work with five. *Dryden*.

SIX, *s.* The number six.—That of *six* hath many respects in it, not only for the days of the creation, but its natural consideration, as being a perfect number. *Brown*.

Six and seven. To be at *six and seven*, is to be in a state of disorder and confusion. *A ludicrous expression, that has been long in use.*

All is uneven,
And every thing is left at *six and seven.* *Shakspeare.*

In 1538, there sat in the see of Rome a fierce thundering friar, that would set all at *six and seven*, or at six and five, if you allude to his name. *Bacon*.

What blinder bargain e'er was driven,
Or wager laid at *six and seven.* *Hudibras.*

John once turned his mother out of doors, to his great sorrow; for his affairs went on at *sixes and sevens.* *Arbutnot.*

SIX HILLS, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5 miles east-by-south of Market Raisin.

SIX ISLANDS, small islands in the Eastern seas, near the north coast of Java. Lat. 6. 36. S. long. 110. 49. E.

SIX MEN'S BAY, a bay on the north-west coast of the island of Barbadoes.

SIX MEN FORT, a fort of the island of Barbadoes; 1 mile north of Speight's Town.

SIX MILE BRIDGE, a small village of Ireland, in the county of Limerick, pleasantly situated on the river Maig; 102 miles south-west of Dublin.

SIX MILE BRIDGE, a village of Ireland, in the county

of Clare, situated on the river Gearn, which empties itself into the Shannon; 8 miles south-west of Limerick, and 103 west-south-west of Dublin.

SIX MILE WATER, a river of Ireland, which runs into Lough Neagh, at Antrim.

SIX NATIONS, a confederacy of American Indians, so called by the British and Americans, and by the French Iroquois. They are Mohawks, Oneidas, Onondagas, Senecas, Cayugas, and Tuscarawas. A great part of them have removed to Canada; and in 1796, the whole amounted only to 4508. In 1796, a society of Quakers raised a fund towards promoting the civilisation and comforts of these poor people.

SIXAIN, **SIXTH**, or **Sexagena**, in War, an ancient order of battle, in which six battalions being ranged in one line, the second and fifth were made to advance, to form the vanguard; the first and sixth to retire, to form the rear guard; the third and fourth remaining on the spot, to form the corps, or body of the battle.

SIX-CLERKS, officers in chancery of great account, next in degree below the twelve masters; whose business is to enrol commissions, pardons, patents, warrants, &c., which pass the great seal, and to transact and file all proceedings by bill, answer, &c.

SIXFOLD, *adj.* [ʃɪks-ʃeald, Sax.] Six times told.

SIXFOURS, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Var. Population 2500. It is built on a hill, and has, at some distance, a harbour called St. Senary; 9 miles south-west of Toulon. Lat. 43. 6. 10. N. long. 5. 50. 32. E.

SIXPENCE, *s.* A coin; half a shilling.

The wisest man might blush,

If D—lov'd *sixpence* more than he.

Pope.

SIXPENNY, *adj.* Worth sixpence.—Slave, dost thou think I am a *sixpenny* jug? *Preston*.

SIXSCORE, *adj.* Six times twenty.—*Sixscore* and five miles it containeth in circuit. *Sandys*.

SIXTEEN, *adj.* [ʃɪksʃyne, Saxon.] Six and ten.

SIXTEEN TOWNS, in Hungary. See **ZYPS**.

SIXTEENTH, *adj.* [ʃɪksʃteoda, Saxon.] The sixth after the tenth; the ordinal of sixteen.

SIXTH, *adj.* [ʃɪksa, Saxon.] The first after the fifth; the ordinal of six.

SIXTH, *s.* A sixth part.—Only the other half would have been a tolerable seat for rational creatures, and five-sixths of the whole globe would have been rendered useless. *Cheyne*.

SIXTHLY, *adv.* In the sixth place.—*Sixthly*, living creatures have more diversity of organs than plants. *Bacon*.

SIXTIETH, *adj.* [ʃɪksʃteoda, Saxon.] The tenth six times repeated; the ordinal of sixty.—Let the appearing circle of the fire be three foot diameter, and the time of one entire circulation of it be the *sixtieth* part of a minute, in a whole day there will be but 86400 such parts. *Digby*.

SIXTUS IV., Pope, who assumed the name of Sixtus, instead of Francis della Rovere, was descended from a family of the same name in Savona, in the state of Genoa. He was born in 1414, and at an early age entered into the Franciscan order. He studied in the universities of Pavia and Bologna, and having taken the degrees of doctor of philosophy and theology, he gave public lectures in several of the principal cities of Italy, and acquired great reputation for learning. Having passed through some honourable offices in his order, he was at length raised to the head of it as general; and becoming known to Cardinal Bessarion, through his recommendation, and that of Cardinal Gonzaga, he was promoted by pope Paul II., in 1467, to the purple, by the title of St. Peter ad Vincula. On the death of the pope, in 1471, he was raised to the pontifical chair; but on his coronation a tumult was excited that had nearly proved fatal to him. Escaping from the hands of the mob, he attempted to form a league among the Christian princes against the Turks, who had made themselves masters of Bosnia, Istria, and great part of Dalmatia, and threatened Italy. With this

this view he sent some of his most distinguished cardinals as his legates to different courts, with instructions to endeavour to compose the disputes existing between the several sovereigns; but, as usual in such cases, with small effect. He procured to be fitted out an allied fleet of galleys, which recovered Smyrna from the Turks, but he did little besides. He was more successful at home, in an attempt to expel a number of petty tyrants who had seized upon the cities belonging to the church, and governed them as independent sovereigns. With the aid of Ferdinand, king of Naples, he effectually cleared the ecclesiastical states of these usurpers, and thereby almost doubled his revenue. The year 1475 was that of the Jubilee, which was celebrated with great magnificence by Sixtus, and was dignified by an unusual assemblage of crowned heads, though the resort of pilgrims in general was less than on former occasions.

This pontiff carried the vice of nepotism to as great a degree as any of his predecessors, and it was one of his first objects to make a splendid provision for his natural children, under the name of nephews, out of the dignities and offices of the church. It is said, that one leading motive for his expelling the independent possessors of towns in the ecclesiastical state was, that he might have territories to form principalities for his nephews; and in pursuance of this plan, he sent Giulano de Rovere, afterwards Julius II., to take the city of Castello from Niccolo Vitelli. Niccolo, having obtained the assistance of the duke of Milan and the Florentines, made a vigorous resistance, but was at length obliged to capitulate. This produced an alarm in the neighbouring states, and occasioned a defensive league between the duke of Milan, the Venetians, and the Florentines. The latter people were under the influence of Lorenzo de Medici, whose political conduct could not but be highly displeasing to the pope; and he displayed his resentment by depriving Lorenzo of the office of treasurer of the holy see, which he had conferred upon him in the days of their friendship. This, however, was not sufficient, and he determined upon an attempt entirely to subvert the power of the Medici in Florence. In conjunction with his nephew, Girolamo Riario, he formed a most detestable conspiracy. By means of the powerful family of the Pazzi, rivals to the Medici in Florence, a revolution was to be effected in the government of that city, commencing with the assassination of Lorenzo and Giuliano de Medici, when assisting at mass in one of the churches, and the elevation of the host was to be the signal. Fortunately their plans miscarried, but the pope thundered out an excommunication against Lorenzo and the magistrates of Florence, and laid the city and its territories under an interdict. Having in vain endeavoured by menace to induce the Florentines to deliver up Lorenzo, he formed a league with the king of Naples, whose troops, in conjunction with those of the church, invaded the territory of Florence, and spread devastation through it. They were, however, encountered by an opposite league, and the pope was at length, by the interposition of the king of France, and the alarm excited throughout Italy in consequence of the capture of Otranto by the Turks, obliged to consent to a peace. Italy did not long remain in peace. In 1482, Sixtus joined with the Venetians, in an attempt to dispossess the duke of Ferrara of his territories, for which his motive was a hope of vesting the government of that city in one of his own family. The consequence was an invasion of the ecclesiastical state by the duke of Calabria, son of the king of Naples, which however terminated in the duke's total defeat. The success of the Venetians rendering them formidable to their neighbours, a league was formed against them, which the pope was persuaded to join, and he issued a solemn excommunication against his allies. The confederates, however, receiving proposals from the Venetians, concluded a peace without consulting Sixtus. This affected his holiness so much, that it occasioned a severe fit of the gout, which put an end to his life in 1484, just after he had completed his 70th year, and in the 13th of his pontificate. "Sixtus IV." says his biographer, "ranks among the most unprincipled of the Roman pontiffs with respect to political conduct, which seems

to have been governed by no other motive than the passion for aggrandizing his family, and indulging a rapacious disposition. His concurrence in the detestable conspiracy of the Pazzi, and the eagerness with which he fomented the wars which disquieted Italy almost through the whole of his reign, shew him to have been steeled against all sentiments of public justice and humanity. He has been taxed with avarice, but the imputation has been refuted by recounting the splendid edifices, and the numerous charitable and useful establishments of which he was the founder. He was, in truth, liberal and magnificent in his expenditure; and having like many other arbitrary princes of that character, exhausted his resources, he scrupled no means of replenishing them. In no pontificate were the offices and employments about the papal court more shamelessly set to sale, or the exactions in passing bulls and other official instruments from that court more scandalously augmented. The most favourable light in which he can be viewed, is as a munificent encourager of literature. He may almost be regarded as the founder of the Vatican library; for he not only enriched it with books, collected from various parts of the world, but caused them to be properly disposed for the convenience of the public, to which he opened the library, placed them under the care of men deeply learned in different languages, with competent salaries, and assigned funds for the purchase of new books. It is, on the other hand, to be mentioned, that he was the first who instituted inquisitors of the press, without whose licence no work was suffered to be printed." Sixtus was author of some theological pieces: several of his letters are extant, and he published some decrees, one of which had for its object to put an end to the disputes then subsisting relative to the conception of the Virgin Mary.

SIXTUS V., Pope, was born in 1521, in the Marche of Ancona, at La Grotte, a village in the territory of Montalto. His father, whose name was Peretti, was a vinedresser, who not being able to maintain his son, placed him, when he was only nine years old, in the service of a farmer, by whom he was, at first, chiefly employed in attending to his swine. While he was occupied in this low office, a Franciscan friar passing that way, took the lad for his guide on a journey to Ascolia. Pleased with the boy's vivacity, he caused him to accompany him to his convent, and introduced him to his father guardian, who admitted him into the convent in the quality of a lay brother. He soon manifested a great inclination for learning, and was taught the elements of the Latin language. He was soon admitted into the order, went through the usual courses of philosophy and theology, was ordained priest in 1545, and shortly afterwards, being made a doctor in theology, he was appointed to a professorship at Sienna, under the name of Montalto. He acquired a high reputation as a preacher in several Italian cities, and was in a very short time nominated commissary-general at Bologna, and inquisitor at Venice. In the exercise of the latter office he quarrelled with the senate, always jealous of ecclesiastical authority, and thought proper to make his escape from Venice by night. Going to Rome, he became one of the council of the congregation, and afterwards procurator-general of his order. He accompanied Cardinal Buoncompagno to Spain, in quality of theologian to the senate, and counsellor of the holy-office. Thus elevated, he suddenly changed his demeanour, which had been harsh and petulant, and put on an appearance of extraordinary gentleness and humility. Cardinal Alexandrini, formerly his pupil, being raised to the papal dignity by the name of Pius V., sent him the brief of general of his order, and soon after honoured him with the purple, when he took the name of Cardinal Montalto. The successor of Pius was Gregory XIII., formerly cardinal Buoncompagno.

Montalto, without influence or connections to push him forward at the next vacancy, determined to appear entirely void of wishes and expectation of farther elevation, in order that he might not become an object of jealousy to any party. He accordingly withdrew from all public affairs, shut himself up like one entirely devoted to study and religious retirement,

and

and ever complained of the infirmities of age hanging heavily upon him. Gregory died in 1585, and the cardinals split into factions. Montalto appeared, but in the character of one bending under the weight of years, and as if ready to expire. In the course of the contests, which were long and severe, he was informed that the choice would probably fall on him; to which he replied by averring his own unfitness for the office; that his life would scarcely outlive the conclave; and that if he were elected, he should only be pope in name, while all the authorities must devolve upon others. This sort of argument, which he threw out as a bait to his ambitious brethren, was readily seized upon by them all, as well with the hope of a short pontificate, as with the expectation that they should all strengthen themselves against a new election. Montalto was chosen on the 24th of April, 1585. Scarcely, however, had the tiara been placed on his head, when he threw away his crutches, which had enabled him to assume his former character, walked perfectly erect, and chanted *Te Deum* with a voice so strong, that the roof of the chapel in which the ceremony was performed re-echoed the sound. He also gave his benediction to the people with such an air of vigour, that they could scarcely believe him to be the decrepid cardinal Montalto. It was now that he assumed the name of Sixtus V., and he soon shewed them that his mind was as vigorous as his body. The territory of the church was at this time overrun with banditti, who plundered and even murdered the people with impunity; and in the metropolitan city itself, a relaxed police had encouraged all kinds of disorders. The first object of Sixtus was to exterminate these evils, and no sovereign ever employed the corrective powers with which he was invested with more vigour and effect. It had been usual, for the sake of acquiring popularity, on the election of a new pope, to set the imprisoned criminals at liberty; but the first act of Sixtus was to order four persons to be hanged, on whom were found a few days before, prohibited weapons. This system of rigour he pursued with the most inexorable severity, never, in a single instance, pardoning a criminal. There is no doubt that signal severity was necessary to stop the public disorders, and in that view of the subject, Sixtus was certainly a benefactor to the state; but unfortunately for his character as a just magistrate, in whom compassion should be found tempering the rigour of the law, instances are recorded on the page of history, which go to prove that he took a real pleasure in acts of punishment, and that his soul was insensible to all the emotions of tenderness and pity; which, says a good writer and diligent observer of human nature, "is not an unusual effect of a monastic education."

A Spanish gentleman having been struck by a Swiss guard with his halberd in a church, retaliated by a blow which proved fatal to the soldier. Sixtus, having examined into the affair, gave an order to the governor of Rome to have the offender executed before he should sit down to table. The Spanish ambassador, with four cardinals, waited upon his holiness, not to plead for the criminal's life, but to entreat upon their knees, that, as he was a gentleman by birth, the punishment might be commuted to that of decapitation: this small favour he absolutely refused, and said in a tone of anger, bordering on frantic rage, "he shall be hanged; but to alleviate the disgrace incurred by his family, I will do him the honour to assist at his execution." He accordingly ordered the gallows to be erected before his own house, and was witness to the deed of horror. When the sentence was executed, he turned with the utmost coolness to his domestics, and said, "Bring me my dinner; this act of justice has given me an additional appetite." He caused the heads of all those who had suffered the penalty of death for crimes committed against the state, to be placed on the city gates, and on each side of the bridge of St. Angelo, and sometimes went on purpose to view them; and a request being made by the conservators of the health of the city for their removal, when they, by their numbers and decay, became offensive, he replied, "You are too delicate; the heads of those that rob the public are still more offensive."

Another anecdote is told of him, to shew that he was not

more rigorous to his own subjects, than strenuous in maintaining the rights and authority of the holy see, with respect to foreign powers. When the ambassador of the king of Spain presented him with a beautiful genet and a purse of ducats, as a homage due for the kingdom of Naples, and complimented him in his master's name, Sixtus, in a tone of railleury, said, that the compliment was very fine, but that it would require a deal of eloquence to persuade him to take a horse in exchange for the revenues of a kingdom. At the time of his accession, France was in confusion on account of the machinations of the Catholic league to exclude from the crown Henry, king of Navarre, its presumptive heir. Though Sixtus did not approve the attempts of the Guises, at the head of the league, to obtain a superiority over the king Henry III.; yet he thought it became him, as head of the Catholic religion, to promote the exclusion of a Protestant heir, and he accordingly launched an excommunication against the king of Navarre, depriving him of the right of succession. That prince procured an appeal from this sentence to be fixed on the very gates of the Vatican, which act, Sixtus had the magnanimity to be pleased with, on account of the heroism which it displayed. When Henry III. had caused the duke of Guise to be assassinated, and the cardinal of Guise to be put to death, and the cardinal of Bourbon and the archbishop of Lyons to be imprisoned, the pope, highly incensed at the violation of the ecclesiastical immunities in the persons of the three last mentioned persons, issued a monitory, requiring the king to set at liberty the cardinal and archbishop within ten days, on pain of excommunication; and he afterwards approved, in an open manner, the assassination of Henry by the Dominican Clement. He refused, however, to renew the excommunication of Henry IV., saying, that he would pray for his conversion, and that no prince was more deserving a crown. He had also a high veneration for the character of queen Elizabeth of England, on account of the prudence and vigour of her government, though he was under the necessity of treating her as an enemy on account of her enmity to the Catholic religion. It is said, and the fact is surely quite in character, that he envied her the good fortune in having had the pleasure of taking off a crowned head, by the execution of Mary, queen of Scots. After the defeat of the Spanish armada, he entertained the design of wresting the kingdom of Naples from Philip, but was prevented by death from making the daring attempt.

It was the ruling passion of this pontiff, who, as we have seen, was only a peasant's son, to perpetuate his memory, by which he was led to many vain and ostentatious, and to some great and useful enterprises. He had already, while cardinal, engaged the celebrated architect Fontana, in erecting a splendid chapel in the church of St. Maria Maggiore, which he had been obliged to discontinue, from the withdrawing of his allowance by Gregory XIII.; and now having the means, as well as the good will, he employed the same artist in the arduous task of setting upright the fallen obelisk of Egyptian granite, which had once decorated the Circus of Nero. This was effected by great skill and labour, and the obelisk was dedicated by Sixtus to the Holy Cross. He afterwards caused three other obelisks to be dug out of the ruins among which they lay, and placed before different churches. If mere vanity and ostentation led him to erect useless buildings at his native place; it was universally allowed, that use and ornament were united in most of the works which he executed at Rome. For the supply of water to that metropolis, he directed the collection of a number of springs to one reservoir, at the distance of thirteen miles, whence it was conveyed by an aqueduct to the Quirinal mount. He undertook to rebuild the Vatican library upon an enlarged and more magnificent plan, by his favourite architect Fontana, and erected very near it a very fine printing-office, destined to give splendid as well as correct editions of the fathers, and other works relative to religion. There was not a part of Rome to which he had not given decorations, and perhaps no pope left so many monuments of grandeur after a long reign as Sixtus V., after occupying the papal see little more than five years.

On these objects he must have expended immense sums, yet at his death he left five millions of crowns in the castle of St. Angelo, with an injunction to his successor, that they should be expended only for the service of the church, against Turks and heretics, or to relieve the people in times of famine and pestilence. For the supply of the great expenditure of his reign, and the accumulation of the sums left behind him, he must have had recourse to a system of heavy taxation, although he managed his finances with great economy. He was not free from the papal vice of nepotism. Though never ashamed of the meanness of his origin, which could not be concealed, he was determined to leave his family great. He sent for a sister, the widow of a poor countryman, and instantly gave her the rank of a princess, with a suitable maintenance; and he raised one of her grandsons to the cardinalate, with a very large revenue. He was equally liberal to his other relations. He fixed the number of cardinals to seventy, a number which has been adhered to by his successors; and he decreed, that four at least of the number should be doctors of divinity, chosen from the religious orders. He is said to have been a decided enemy to the Jesuits, and was indignant that they should assume a name that implied, that their founder was the meek and benevolent Jesus; hence he proposed that they should change the name of their order to that of Ignatians. This celebrated pontiff died in August, 1590, having reigned five years and four months. The news of his death was received with every demonstration of joy at Rome, where his government had been oppressive and tyrannical; but the vigour of his administration, and the mighty works which he effected, have thrown a splendour about his name, and gave him rank among the distinguished characters of the age. In the year 1590, a new Latin version of the Bible was made and printed by his order, of which a corrected edition was given in 1590, by Clement VIII.

SIXTY. *adj.* [ἑξήκοντα, Saxon.] Six times ten—When the boats were come within *sixty* yards of the pillar, they found themselves all bound, and could go no farther. *Bacon.*

SIZABLE, *adj.* Of considerable bulk. See **SIZEABLE.**—The whole was drawn out, and digested into a *sizable* volume. *Hurd.*

SIZALISCA, a small river in the north of Greece, in Lividia, which falls into the gulf of Salona.

SIZE, *s.* [perhaps rather *eise*, from *incisa*, Lat. or from *assize*, French.] Bulk; quantity of superficies; comparative magnitude.—If any decayed ship be new made, it is more fit to make her a *size* less than bigger. *Raleigh.*—Objects near our view are thought greater than those of a larger *size*, that are more remote. *Locke.* [*Assise*, old Fr.] A settled quantity. In the following passage it seems to signify the allowance of the table: whence they say a *sizer* at Cambridge.

'Tis not in thee

To grudge my pleasures, to cut off my train,
To bandy hasty words, to scant my *sizés*,
And, in conclusion, to oppose the bolt
Against my coming in. *Shakspeare.*

Figurative too; condition.—This agrees too in the contempt of men of a less *size* and quality. *L'Estrange*—[*Siza* Ital.] Any viscous or glutinous substance.

To **SIZE,** *v. a.* To swell; to increase the bulk of.

Can you confess to your penurious uncle,
In his full face of love, to be so strict
A niggard to your commons, that you're fain
To *size* your belly out with shoulder fees? *Beaumont and Fl.*

To adjust, or arrange according to size.

Two troops so match'd were never to be found,
Such bodies built for strength of equal age,
In stature *siz'd*. *Dryden.*

To settle; to fix.—There was a statute for dispersing the standard of the exchequer throughout England; thereby to *size* weights and measures. *Bacon.*—To cover with glutinous matter; to besmear with size.—When we treat of *sising* and stiffening. *Sir W. Petty.*

SIZED, *adj.* Having a particular magnitude.

What my love is, proof hath made you know,
And as my love is *siz'd*, my fear is so. *Shakspeare.*

SIZEABLE, *adj.* Reasonably bulky; of just proportion to others.—He should be purged, sweated, vomited, and starved, till he come to a *sizeable* bulk. *Arbuthnot.*

SIZELAND, a village of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles from Bungay.

SIZER, or **SERVITOR,** *s.* A certain rank of students in the university of Cambridge. See **SERVITOR.**

They make a scramble for degree:
Masters of all sorts and of all ages:
Keepers, sub-*sizers*, lackeys, pages. *Bp. Corbet.*

SIZERS, *s.* The old word for scissars.
A buttrice and pincers, a hammer and naile,
An apron and *sizers* for head and for taile. *Tusser.*

SIZINESS, *s.* Glutinousness; viscosity.—In rheumatism, the *siziness* passes off thick contents in the urine, or glutinous sweats. *Floyer.*

SIZUN, a small town in the north-west of France, department of Finisterre, containing 2900 inhabitants; 6 miles south-east of Landerneau.

SIZY, *adj.* Viscous; glutinous.—The blood is *sizy*, the alkaliesalts in the serum producing coriaceous concretions. *Arbuthnot.*

SKADALS, Indians of North America, on Cataract river, north of Colombia. Number 200.

SKA'DDLE, *s.* [scæðniffe, Saxon; *scath* is *harm*, thence *scathle*, *scaddle*.] Hurt; damage.

SKA'DDLE, *adj.* Mischievous; ravenous. In Kent, spoken of dogs that are apt to steal; in the north, of young horses that fly out.

SKA'DDONS, *s.* The embryos of bees. *Bailey*

SKAGEN, or **SCAGEN,** a small town of Denmark, in Jutland, bishopric of Aalborg, on the Cattgat. It has a harbour and some fisheries. Population only 900; 18 miles north of Fladstrand. Lat. 57. 46. N. long. 10. 33. E.

SKAGEN, a cape on the north coast of North Jutland, in long. 10. 31. E. lat. 57. 46. N. From this cape the extensive sand bank called Skagen-rack, the reef or bank of Skagen, extends to a great distance into the sea. To enable ships to avoid it, a light-house, 64 feet high, was erected in 1751. The bank is frequented as a fishing station.

SKAGGIE, a small river of Scotland, in Perthshire, which joins the Erne near Crieff.

SKAIN, or **SKEIN,** *s.* [*escaigne*, Fr.] A knot of thread or silk wound and doubled.—Why art thou then exasperate, thou idle immaterial *skain* of sley'd silk, thou tassel of a prodigal's purse? *Shakspeare.*

SKANDA, in Hindoo Mythology, is a name of Kartikya, commander of the celestial armies. He is a reputed son of Siva, and his history and exploits fill many volumes of Eastern poetry, translated into a variety of languages from the Sanscrit.

SKAINSMATE, *s.* [*etymology unknown*.] A messmate; a companion.

Scurvy knave, I am none of his flirt gills;
I am none of his *skainmates*. *Shakspeare.*

SKALE, a small island on the west coast of Scotland, in Loch Fine. Lat. 55. 54. N. long 5. 23. W.

SKALHOLT, or **REINKINRIK,** a small trading town, or rather village of Iceland, on the river Huikaa, formerly the residence of the bishop of the southern part of the island. It has a cathedral, and in the neighbourhood are the famous hot springs called Geysers. Lat. 64. N. long. 16. W.

SKALINGSFELD, a mountain in one of the Faroe islands, which rises to the height of 2100 feet, and is the highest of the whole group.

SKALITZ, or **SKAKOLCZA,** a small town in the north-west of Hungary, on a branch of the Morava, and the borders of Moravia; 48 miles north of Presburg. It stands on a rock,

a rock, and has 4700 inhabitants, a college, a monastery and an hospital. The chief employment in the town is weaving; in the country, cultivating grapes. Lat. 48. 50. 25. N. long. 17. 11. 45. E.

SKALITZ, GROSS, a small town in the north-east of Bohemia; 12 miles north-north-east of Konigingratz. It has 800 inhabitants.

SKALITZ, a small town in the interior of Bohemia, on the Sazawa; 24 miles south-east of Prague.

SKALMIERZ, a petty town in the south-west of Poland; 26 miles east-north-east of Cracow. Population 800.

SKANDERBORG, a petty town of Denmark, in Jutland; 14 miles south-south-west of Aarhus, with only 500 inhabitants, but containing a rural palace, visited occasionally by the kings of Denmark.

SKANIA. See SCANIA.

SKANOR, a small sea-port town in the south-west of Sweden, in Scania, with 600 inhabitants; 20 miles south-south-east of Lund. Lat. 55. 24. 52. N. long. 12. 50. 30. E.

SKANTSLAND. See SVEABORG.

SKAPATAA-JOKLE, a group of mountains in Iceland, from which a dreadful volcanic eruption took place in June, 1785.

SKARA, or SCARA, an old town in the south of Sweden, in West Gothland, situated near the lake of Wener. It was in former ages the residence of the kings of West Gothland; at present it contains hardly 1000 inhabitants, having been in 1719 totally destroyed by fire. It is still, however, the see of a bishop; has a college, with a botanical garden, an hospital, a medical school and a large cathedral, said to have been erected soon after the introduction of Christianity into Sweden. The old palace, which stood near the town, was in 1611 destroyed by the Danes, together with the whole town. Skara gives name to the adjacent government or province; 77 miles north-east of Gottenburg. Lat. 58. 24. N. long. 15. 30. E.

SKARDIN. See SCARDONA.

SKARR WATER, a small river of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, which rises in the Black hill, on the borders of Ayrshire, and after a winding course for several miles in a south-east direction, joins the Nith, opposite Slate island.

SKARYSZOW, a small town in the south of Poland; 9 miles south-east of Radom, and 60 south of Warsaw, with large cattle fairs.

SKATE, *s.* A sort of shoe armed with iron for sliding on the ice. See SCATE.

To SKATE, To slide on scates. See To SCATE.

SKATE, *s.* A flat sea-fish. See SCATE.

SKAYTF, in Ichthyology, the English name of a species of ray-fish, called by the generality of authors RAI A BATIS.

SKAWA, a small river of Austrian Poland in the circle of Myslenice. It falls into the Vistula to the east of Oswiecim.

SKAWINA, a small town of Austrian Poland, on the small river Skawa; 31 miles south-west of Cracow.

SKEAN, *s.* [Irish and Erse; *jaegen*, Saxon.] A short sword; a knife.—Any man that is disposed to mischief, *skean*, or pistol, to be always in readiness. *Spenser.*

SKECKLING, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles from Hedon.

SKEEBY, a hamlet of England, North riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles north-east of Richmond.

SKEEL, *s.* [*schale*, German, *patera*, poculum patulum, vox Longobardica. Wachter.] A shallow wooden vessel for holding milk or cream. Gloucestershire, according to Grose. It is also so employed in other parts of England; and, as he observes under another form of the word, *skiel*, is, in the west, a beer-cooler, used in brewing.

SKEEN, or SKIEN, a small town in the south of Norway, bishopric of Christiana, situated on a river which bears its name. It contains 1800 inhabitants, and has productive mines of iron and copper; 38 miles south-south-west of Christiana.

SKEEN, LOCH, a small lake of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, about 1100 yards long and 400 broad.

SKEFFINGTON, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 10 miles east-by-south of Leicester.

SKEFFLING, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 22½ miles east-south-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

SKEG, *s.* A wild plum.

SKEG, in Ship-building, the after-part of the keel, or that part whereon the stern-post is fixed.

SKEG-SHORES, are one or two pieces of four-inch plank, put up endways under the skeg of the ship, to steady the after part a little, when in the act of launching.

SKEGBY, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 3 miles west of Mansfield. Population 453.

SKE'GGER, *s.* Little salmon called *skeggers*, are bred of such sick salmon that might not go to the sea, and though they abound, yet never thrive to any bigness. *Walton.*

SKEGNESS, a parish of England in Lincolnshire, situated on the sea shore; 11 miles east of Spilsby.

SKEILAY, a small island of the Hebrides, near Harris.

SKELEBROOK, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7¼ miles south-east of Pontefract.

SKELDEN, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6¼ miles west-by-south of Rippon.

SKELDNESS, a cape of Scotland, on the south-west of the island of Shetland. Lat. 60. 12. N. long. 1. 48. W.

SKE'LETON, *s.* [*σκελετος*, Gr.] [In anatomy.] The bones of the body preserved together as much as can be in their natural situation. *Quincy.*

When rattling bones together fly,

From the four corners of the sky;

When sinews o'er the skeletons are spread,

Those cloth'd with flesh, and life inspires the dead. *Dryden.*

The compages of the principal parts.—The great structure itself, and its great integrals, the heavenly and elementary bodies, are framed in such a position and situation, the great skeleton of the world. *Hale.*

SKELFLETE, a small river of England, in Yorkshire, which runs into the Humber, between Haxflete and Bromflete.

SKELL, a small river of England, in Yorkshire, which runs into the Youre, near Rippon.

SKELLAND, a hamlet of England, in Suffolk; 2½ miles from Stowmarket.

SKELLIGS, two small islands on the south-west coast of Ireland, about six or seven miles south-west from Bolus Head. They are distinguished by the appellation of Great and Little: the former, about 2 miles south-west of the latter, lies in long. 10. 23. W. lat. 51. 42. N.

SKELLINGTHORPE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5½ miles west of Lincoln.

SKELLOWE, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles north-west of Doncaster.

SKE'LLUM, *s.* [*schelme*, Fr.] A knave, rascal. *Unused.*—Sir Richard Grenville (in 1643) having deserted to the king at Oxford, they declared him traitor, rogue, villain, and *skellum*. *Biog. Brit.*

SKELMANTHORPE, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles south-east of Huddersfield.

SKELMERSDALE, a township of England, in Lancashire; 4 miles east-south-east of Ormskirk. Population 541.

SKELSMERGH, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 3 miles north-by-east of Kendal.

SKELTON, a parish of England, in Cumberland; 6½ miles north-west of Penrith.

SKELTON, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the banks of the Ouse; ½ miles south-east of Howden.

SKEITON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3½ miles north-west of York.

SKELTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east of Gainsborough. Population 717.

SKELTON, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles south-east of Rippon.

SKELWITH, a township of England, in Lancashire; 3½ miles north of Hawkshead.

SKEMATA, a village of Greece, in the plain of Tanagra, in Attica, near the supposed site of Tanagra.

SKENDLEBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles north-east of Spilsby.

SKENE, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, of an oval form, 6 miles long and 3½ broad. Population 1297.

SKENEATILES, a post village of the United States, in Onondaga county, New York. It is most delightfully situated around the west end of Skeneatiles' lake, and is a large, handsome and flourishing village; 163 miles west of Albany.

SKENEATILES, a lake of the United States, in the west part of Onondaga county, New York, 15 miles long, and from ½ to 1½ broad. Skeneatiles' Creek flows from the north end to Seneca river, about 13 miles, and affords many fine mill seats.

SKENECTADY. See **SCHENECTADY**.

SKENSBOROUGH. See **WHITEHALL**.

SKENFRETH, a parish of England, in Monmouthshire; 7 miles north-north-west of Monmouth. Population 348.

SKENFRETH CASTLE, a fortress of England, in the county of Monmouth, supposed to be the most ancient in the county. It is situated on the banks of the Monnow, about 3 miles distant from Newcastle, and to the north of the Monmouth road. It appears to have been erected for the defence of the river, or to secure the defiles of the adjacent mountains. It has not been much visited by travellers, from its sequestered situation, and the difficulty of access. Its construction is very simple, its area being merely surrounded by a strong curtain wall, flanked with a circular tower at each angle. The area is 160 feet in length, and 170 at the broadest, and 84 at the narrowest part. The style of architecture places it anterior to the Norman period, and the whole aspect of the building indicates it to have been a British structure. Connected with Landeilo and Grosmont castles, and, subsequent to the Norman invasion, generally possessed by the same person, its name but seldom occurs in history, and its history merges into that of the former fortresses, becoming with them part of the duchy of Lancaster, to which it now belongs.

SKENINGE, a small town of Sweden, in East Gothland, on the small river Kena; 20 miles west-by-south of Oderkoping. Population 900. Here is held one of the largest annual fairs in Sweden.

SKEOTISVAY, an island of the Hebrides, about a mile long, lying in East Loch Tarbert, in Harris.

SKEP, *s.* [*scēp*, Saxon.] A sort of basket, narrow at the bottom, and wide at the top to fetch corn in. *Unused*.—A pitchfork, a doongeforke, seeve, *skēp*, and a bin. *Tusser*.—In Scotland, the repositories where the bees lay their honey is still called *skēp*. *Dr. Johnson*.—A bee-hive is also called a *skēp* in some parts of England. [*Sgeip*, Gael. a bee-hive. *Shaw*.

SKEP, in Agriculture, a coarse round farm basket. It is also provincially used to signify a bee-hive.

SKEPSHAM, a small sea-port in the central part of Sweden, province of Medelpadia.

SKEPTICK, *s.* [*σκεπτικός*, Gr.] This word *Dr. Johnson* writes *sceptic*.—He is a *scepticke*, and dares hardly give credit to his senses. *Bp. Hall*.—Bring the cause unto the bar; whose authority none must disclaim, and least of all those *scepticks* in religion. *Dec. of Piety*.

Survey

Nature's extended face, then *scepticks* say,
In this wide field of wonders can you find
No art.

Blackmore.

With too much knowledge for the *sceptick's* side,
With too much weakness for the stoick's pride,
Man hangs between.

Pope.

The dogmatist is sure of every thing, and the *sceptick* believes nothing. *Watts*.

SKEPTICAL, *adj.* [for **SCEPTICAL**.] May the Father of mercies confirm the *sceptical* and wavering minds, and so prevent us that stand fast, in all our doings, and further us with his continual help. *Bentley*.

SKEPTICALLY, *adv.* [for **SCEPTICALLY**.] There are those who do not abandon themselves to desperate atheism, nor *sceptically* cast off all care of religion. *Goodman*.

SKEPTICISM, *s.* Universal doubt; profession of universal doubt.—I laid by my natural diffidence and *scepticism* for a while, to take up that dogmatick way. *Dryden*.

TO SKEPTICIZE, *v. n.* To doubt of every thing.—You can afford to *scepticize*, where no one else will so much as hesitate. *Ld. Shaftsbury*.

SKERAT, a rock in the Caledonian sea, near the west coast of Skye. Lat. 57. 24. N. long. 6. 40. W.

SKERGULE, a rocky island, near the south-west coast of Mull. Lat. 56. 18. N. long. 6. 21. W.

SKERIVORE ROCKS, rocks in the North sea, west of Scotland. Lat. 56. 19. N. long. 7. 3. W.

SKERNE, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles south-east of Great Driffeld.

SKERNE, a small river of England, in Durham, which runs into the Tees at Crossbridge.

SKERRIES, or **SKERRY ISLES**, three small islands of Shetland, lying 15 miles north-east from the isle of Whalsay, and nearly 20 from the Mainland. In 1792, they contained 11 families, or 70 inhabitants.

SKERRIES, rocks on the north coast of Ireland, near the mouth of the river Bann.

SKERTON, a township of England, in Lancashire, three quarters of a mile from Lancaster. Population 1254.

SKETBY, a small river of Wales, in Merionethshire, which falls into the Irish sea.

TO SKETCH, *v. a.* [*schetsen*, Dutch, or German *schitz* (a sketch), from *schatten*, a shadow.] To draw, by tracing the outline.—If a picture is daubed with many glaring colours, the vulgar eye admires it; whereas he judges very contemptuously of some admirable design *sketched* out only with a black pencil, though by the hand of Raphael. *Watts*.—To plan, by giving the first or principal notion.—The reader I'll leave in the midst of silence, to contemplate those ideas which I have only *sketch'd*, and which every man must finish for himself. *Dryden*.

SKETCH, *s.* [*schets*, Dutch, from the verb *schetsen*.] An outline; a rough draught; a first plan.

As the lightest *sketch*, if justly trac'd,
Is by ill colouring but the more disgrac'd,
So by false learning is good sense defac'd.

Pope.

SKETCHLEY, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 2 miles south-east of Hinckley.

SKEW, *adj.* [*skiaōv*, or *skæv*, Dan.; *skēf*, Goth. from *skā*.] Oblique; distorted.—Here's a gallimaufry of speech indeed.—I remember about the year 1602 many used this *skew* kind of language. *Brewer*.

SKEW, *adv.* Awry.

TO SKEW, *v. a.* To look obliquely upon; figuratively, to notice slightly.

Our service
Neglected, and look'd lamely on, and *skew'd* at
With a few honourable words. *Bacon and Fl.*

To shape or form in an oblique way.—Windows broad within and narrow without, or *skewed* and closed. *Kings*.

TO SKEW, *v. n.* To walk obliquely. *Still used in some parts of the north*.—Child, you must walk strait, without *skewing* and shailing to every step you set. *L'Estrange*.

SKEWER, *s.* [*skerc*, Danish.] A wooden or iron pin, used to keep meat in form.

I once may overlook,

A *skewer* sent to table by my cook.

King.

TO SKEWER, *v. a.* To fasten with skewers.

SKEWSBY,

SKEWSBY, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles east-by-north of Easingwold.

SKEYTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3½ miles east-by-south of Aylesham.

SKIACH, Loch, a small lake of Scotland, in Perthshire, well stored with excellent trout.

SKIACK, a small river of Scotland, in Ross-shire, which falls into the sea, close by the church of Kiltearn.

SKIATHL, a small island of the Grecian archipelago, opposite to the mainland of Magnesia, near the entrance of the gulf of Volo. Its form is triangular, its circumference about 30 miles, its climate healthy. Its surface presents a pleasant mixture of hill and plain: the higher grounds are covered with wood, the lower with vines and olives; but cultivation in every shape is much neglected, and the chief support of the inhabitants is derived from their flocks of goats. In the south of the island is a good harbour, called Oraio-Castro, near which, on a small peninsula, stood the ancient town.

SKIATHI, the chief place of the foregoing island, situated at its northern extremity, on a steep and elevated rock, accessible only by means of a wooden bridge. The inhabitants, in number about 1000, were obliged to take this formidable position, to escape the attacks of pirates.

SKIATIC STAY, in Rigging, a contrivance for hoisting and lowering burdens out of or in ships.

SKIBBEREEN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Cork, situated on the river Ilen, on the west bank of which stands the church. The clothing trade and linen manufacture are established here; 10 miles south-east of Bantry, and 34 south-west of Cork.

SKID, in Rural Economy, a term applied to the chain by which the wheel of a waggon is fastened, so as to prevent its turning round, upon descending a steep hill. See **DRAG**.

SKID-BEAMS, in Ship-building, are the beams in the waist, which connect the fore-castle with the quarter deck.

SKIDBROOK, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10½ miles north-east of Louth.

SKIDBY, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles south-by-west of Beverley.

SKIDDAW, a mountain of England, in Cumberland, one of the most remarkable in the kingdom for its height, and distinguished also for its grand and romantic scenery, as well as for the lakes in its different hollows, and near its base. According to the trigonometrical survey of England, its highest point is elevated 3022 feet above the level of the sea. Like most of the mountains in this part of the kingdom, Skiddaw consists of numerous inequalities. Its surface presents also a variety of substances, colours, and forms. In some places are vast masses of bare rock; in others, a soft short grass prevails, and heath, furze, and brambles, are also found in different parts. Mildness and grandeur are the general beauties of this alpine region. The mountain in some parts is not difficult of access. The whole of the top is covered with a loose brown slaty stone. It is distant 6 miles from Cockermouth, and Keswick stands near its base.

SKIDS, Boat, square pieces of timber bolted one on each side, and projecting over the stern, with sheaves in their outer ends to hoist the boat up. Boat-skids over the quarters are fixed at the heel, and suspended by a lift at the head; they are made of iron lately in the navy.

SKIDS, Whale, are long square pieces of timber, projecting from the sides of Greenland ships, for the convenience of hoisting and canting the whale out of the water.

SKIELSKIOR, or **SKIELFISKOR**, a small town of Denmark, in the island of Zealand, on the great Belt, with a capacious harbour; 62 miles west-south-west of Copenhagen. Lat. 55. 17. N. long. 11. 20. E.

SKIEN. See **SKEEN**.

SKIERNIEWICE, a small town of Poland, on the Jesowka; 35 miles west south-west of Warsaw, with 1500 inhabitants.

SKIFF, *s.* [*schiff*, German; *esquif*, Fr.; *scapha*, Lat.; *σκαφη*, Gr.] A small light boat.—If in two *skiffs* of cork, a

loadstone and steel be placed within the orb of their activities, the one doth not move, the other standing still; but both steer unto each other. *Brown*.

To SKIFF, *v. a.* To pass over in a small light boat.

They two have cabin'd

In many as dangerous as poor a corner,
Peril and want contending; they have *skift*
Torrents, whose roaring tyranny and power
I' the least of these was dreadful.

Beaum. and Fl.

SKILFUL, *adj.* Knowing; qualified with skill; possessing any art; dexterous; able. It is, in the following examples, used with *of*, *at*, and *in*, before the subject of skill. *Of* seems poetical, *at* ludicrous, *in*, popular and proper.

Say, Stella, feel you no content,
Reflecting on a life well spent;
Your *skilful* hand employ'd to save
Despairing wretches from the grave:
And then supporting with your store
Those whom you dragg'd from death before?

Swift.

SKILFULLY, *adv.* With skill; with art; with uncommon ability; dexterously.—Ulysses builds a ship with his own hands, as *skilfully* as a shipwright. *Broome*.

SKILFULNESS, *s.* Art; ability; dexterousness.—He fed them according to the integrity of his heart, and guided them by the *skilfulness* of his hands. *Psalms*.

SKILGATE, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 6 miles west-by-south of Wiveliscombe.

SKILL, *s.* [*skil*, Icelandic.] Knowledge of any practice or art; readiness in any practice; knowledge; dexterity; artfulness.

Oft nothing profits more
Than self-esteem grounded on just and right,
Well managed; of that *skill* the more thou know'st,
The more she will acknowledge thee her head.

Milton.

Any particular art.—Learned in one *skill*, and in another kind of learning unskilful. *Hooker*.—Reason; cause. [*reyle*, Saxon.] *This is a very ancient meaning of the word.*

You have

As little *skill* to fear, as I have purpose
To put you to't.

Shakspeare.

To SKILL, *v. n.* [*skilia*, Icelandic.] To be knowing in; to be dexterous at; to know how: not invariable with *of*, as Dr. Johnson has stated it; but usually so.

They that *skill* not *of* so heavenly matter,
All that they know not, envy or admire.

Spenser.

[*Skilia*, Icelandic, signifies also to distinguish.] To differ; to make difference; to interest; to matter. *Not now in use.*

What *skills* it, if a bag of stones or gold
About thy neck do drown thee? raise thy head,
Take stars for money; stars not to be told
By any art: yet to be purchased.

None is so wasteful as the scraping dame,
She loseth three for one; her soul, rest, fame.

Herbert.

To SKILL, *v. a.* To know; to understand. *Obsolete.*—I *skill* not what it is. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SKILLED, *adj.* Knowing; dexterous; acquainted with: with *of* poetically, with *in* popularly.—*Of* these nor *skilled* nor studious. *Milton*.

SKILLESS, *adj.* Wanting skill; artless. *Not now in use; but formerly very common.*

Jealously what might befall your travel,
Being *skilless* in these parts; which to a stranger
Unguided and unfriended, often prove
Rough and unhospitable.

Shakspeare.

SKILLET, *s.* A small kettle or boiler.

When light-wing'd toys
Of feather'd Cupid foil with wanton dullness
My speculative and offic'd instruments,
Let house-wives make a *skillet* of my helm.

Shakspeare.

SKILLINGTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles north-west of Colsterworth.

SKILLO, or DAMALA, a cape in Greece, on the east coast of the Morea. Lat. 37. 26. N. long. 23. 36. E.

To SKIM, *v. a.* [*escume*, Fr.] To clear off from the upper part, by passing a vessel a little below the surface.

My coz Tom, or his coz Mary,
Who holds the plough or *skim* the dairy,
My fav'rite books and pictures sell.

Prior.

To take by skimming.

She boils in kettles must of wine, and *skims*
With leaves the dregs that overflow the brims. *Dryden.*

To brush the surface slightly; to pass very near the surface.
Nor seeks in air her humble flight to raise,
Content to *skim* the surface of the seas. *Dryden.*

To cover superficially. *Improper.* Perhaps originally *skin*.

Dangerous flats in secret ambush lay,
Where the false tides *skim* o'er the cover'd land,
And seamen with dissembled depths betray. *Dryden.*

To SKIM, *v. n.* To pass lightly; to glide along.

When Ajax strives some rock's vast weight to throw,
The line too labours, and the words move slow;
Not so when swift Camilla scours the plain,
Flies o'er the unbending corn, and *skims* along the main. *Pope.*

SKIM, *s.* Scum; refuse.—Although Philip took delight in this *skim* of men, [gross flatterers,] yet could they never draw him by their charming to incur those vices which his son ran into. *Bryskett.*

SKIMBLESKAMBLE, *adj.* [A cant word formed by reduplication from *scamble*.] Wandering; wild.

A couching lion and a ramping cat,
And such a deal of *skimbleskamble* stuff,
As puts me from my faith. *Shakspeare.*

SKIM-COULTER, in Agriculture, a sort of coultter, invented by Mr. Duckett, for paring off the surface of coarse grass or other lands, and placing it in the bottom of the furrow, so as to be fully covered and secured.

SKIMMER, *s.* A shallow vessel with which the scum is taken off.—Wash your wheat in three or four waters, stirring it round; and with a *skimmer*, each time, take off the light. *Mortimer.*—One who skims over a book or subject: a ludicrous word.—There are different degrees of *skimmers*: first, he who goes no farther than the title page; secondly, he who proceeds to the contents and index, &c. *Skelton.*

SKIMMIA. [A Japanese vernacular name from *Kæmpfer*.] in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, very small, permanent, almost four-parted to the base: segments ovate, acute. Corolla: petals four, ovate, concave, minute. Stamina: filaments four, very short. Pistil: germ superior; style single. Pericarp: berry ovate, umbilicate, indistinctly grooved, smooth, farinaceous-pulpy within, four-valved. Seeds four, subtrigonal or externally convex, oblong, white. Perianth seldom five-parted.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-parted. Petals four, concave. Berry four-seeded.

1. *Skimmia Japonica.* Stem shrubby, erect, smooth. Branches alternate, four cornered. Leaves at the ends of the branches alternate, frequent, oblong, waved, entire, obscurely crenate towards the top, erect, the margin bent back, a finger's length, above green and wrinkled, beneath pale and dotted, evergreen with an aromatic taste. Petioles semicylindrical, thickish, short. Flowers terminating, in panicles. Peduncles round, thickening, short.—Native of Japan, near Nagasaki and elsewhere. The fruit is ripe in December.

SKIM-MILK, *s.* Milk from which the cream has been taken.—Then cheese was brought: says Slouch, this e'en shall roll; this is *skim-milk*, and therefore it shall go. *King.*

SKIMMINGTON. To ride *skimmington* is a vulgar

phrase, which means a kind of burlesque procession in ridicule of a man who suffers himself to be beat by his wife. In the north, *riding the stang* has a similar meaning. See STANG. *Skimmington* has been supposed to be the name of some notorious scold of the olden time. See *Brand's Pop. Antiq.*

When the young people ride the *skimmington*,
There is a general trembling in a town:
Not only he, for whom the person rides,
Suffers, but they sweep other doors besides;
And by that hieroglyphick does appear,
That the good woman is the master there! *King.*

SKIN, *s.* [*skind*, Danish.] The natural covering of the flesh. It consists of the *cuticle*, outward skin or scarf skin, which is thin and insensible, and the *cutis* or inner skin, extremely sensible.

The priest on *skins* of off'rings takes his ease,
And nightly visions in his slumber sees. *Dryden.*

Hide; pelt; that which is taken from animals to make parchment or leather.

On whose top he strow'd
O wilde goat's shaggy *skin*; and then bestow'd
His own couch on it. *Chapman.*

The body; the person: in ludicrous speech.—We meet with many of these dangerous civilities, wherein 'tis hard for a man to save both his *skin* and his credit. *L'Estrange.*—A husk.

To SKIN, *v. a.* To flay; to strip or divest of the skin.—The beavers run to the door to make their escape, are there entangled in the nets, seized by the Indians, and immediately *skinned*. *Ellis.*—To cover with the skin.

Authority, though it err like others,
Has yet a kind of medicine in itself,
That *skins* the vice o' the top. *Shakspeare.*

To cover superficially.—What I took for solid earth was only heaps of rubbish, *skinned* over with a covering of vegetables. *Addison.*

SKINBURNNESS, a village of England, in Cumberland; 11 miles north-west of Wigton.

SKINDEEP, *adj.* Slight; superficial.—There is a power in virtue to attract our adherence to her before all the transient and *skin-deep* pleasure that we fondly search after. *Feltham.*

SKINFLINT, *s.* A niggardly person.
SKINK, *s.* [*rcenc*, Sax.] Drink; any thing potable; pottage.—Scotch *skink*, which is a pottage of strong nourishment, is made with the knees and sinews of beef, but long boiled. *Bacon.*

To SKINK, *v. n.* [*rcencan*, Sax.] To serve drink. Both noun and verb are wholly obsolete.

SKINKER, *s.* One that serves drink.—I give thee this pennyworth of sugar, clapt even now into my hand by an under *skinker*; one that never spake other English in his life, than eight shillings and sixpence, and you are welcome sir. *Shakspeare.*

SKINLESS, *adj.* Having a slight skin; as, the *skinless* pear.

SKINNAND, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10½ miles north-west of Sleaford.

SKINNED, *adj.* Having skin; hard.—When the ulcer becomes foul, and discharges a nasty ichor, the edges in process of time tuck in, and growing *skinned* and hard, give it the name of callus. *Sharp.*

SKINNER, *s.* A dealer in skins or pelts.

SKINNER, (Stephen), an antiquary, was born about the year 1622, in or near London. He received his academical education at Christ-church college, Oxford, in the year 1638, but the civil war caused him to leave the university without taking a degree. He thence travelled on the continent, and studied at various universities. On his return to his native country, he went to Oxford, and took his degree in arts, and then settled as a physician at Lincoln, where he died in 1667. He

He was a man of very extensive erudition, but is chiefly known by his "Etymologicon Linguae Anglicanae," a work that has always been considered as of high authority among the learned, and is still regarded as a most useful book of reference.

SKINNERSVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Washington county, North Carolina.

SKINNINESS, *s.* The quality of being skinny.

SKINNINGROVE, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, on the coast of the North sea; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Guisborough.

SKINNY, *adj.* Consisting only of skin; wanting flesh.

Her choppy finger laying
Upon her *skinny* lips.

Shakspeare.

SKINOSA, a rocky and desert island in the Grecian archipelago, about 12 miles in circumference; 5 miles south from the island of Naxia. Lat. 36. 55. N. long. 25. 32. E.

SKINTEL, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 10 miles south of Jassi.

SKIOE, a small town of Denmark, in Jutland, near the great maritime inlet the Lumford; 15 miles north-west of Wiborg.

To SKIP, *v. n.* [*squittire*, Ital.; *esquiver*, Fr.] To fetch quick bounds; to pass by quick leaps; to bound lightly and joyfully.

The queen, bound with love's powerful'st charm,
Sat with Pigwiggen arm in arm:
Her merry maids that thought no harm,
About the room were *skipping*.

Drayton.

To SKIP OVER. To pass without notice.—A gentleman made it a rule, in reading, to *skip over* all sentences where he spied a note of admiration at the end. *Swift.*

To SKIP, *v. a.* To miss; to pass. Usually with *over*.

Let not thy sword *skip* one;
Pity not honour'd age for his white beard;
He is an usurer.

Shakspeare.

SKIP, *s.* A light leap or bound.—He looked very curiously upon himself, sometimes fetching a little *skip*, as if he had said his strength had not yet forsaken him. *Sidney.*

SKIPJACK, *s.* An upstart.—A way was opened to every *skipjack*. *Martin.*

SKIPKENNEL, *s.* A lackey; a footboy.

SKPLAM, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, near Kirby-Moorside.

SKIPNESS POINT, a cape of Scotland, on the east coast of Kintyre. Lat. 55. 49. N. long. 5. 24. W.

SKIPORT, LOCH, an arm of the sea on the east coast of South Uist.

SKIPPACK, a township of the United States, in Montgomery county, Pennsylvania. Population 902.

SKIPPER, *s.* A dancer. *Huloet.*—A youngling; a thoughtless person.

Youngling, thou canst not love so dear as I:—

Skipper, stand back; 'tis age that nourisheth. *Shakspeare.*

[*Skipper*, Dutch.] A shipmaster; a shipboy.—Are not you afraid of being drowned too? No, not I, says the *skipper*. *L'Estrange.*—The hornfish, so called in some places.

SKIPPET, *s.* A small boat. *Not used.*

Upon the bank they sitting did espy

A dainty damsel, dressing of her hair,

By whom a little *skippet* floating did appear.

Spenser.

SKIPPINGLY, *adv.* By skips and leaps. *Huloet.*—If one read *skippingly* and by snatches, and not take the thread of the story along, it must needs puzzle and distract the memory. *Howell.*

SKIPPON, a small river of England, in Lancashire, which runs into the Wire, near Thornton.

SKIPSEA, a parish of England, East Riding of York-

shire, upon the coast of the North sea; $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-by-south of Great Driffeld.

SKIPTON, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It forms the chief town of the district of Craven, a portion of the West Riding, on the borders of Lancashire, and remarkable for its lofty mountains, rich valleys, and luxuriant pastures. It is situated in the middle of the vale of Skipton, which is one of the finest and most fertile in England. The town consists chiefly of one wide and long street, where the markets are held, with several straggling lanes on each side of it. The houses are all built of stone, brought from the hills in the neighbourhood, where building stone is very abundant. The church, which is situated at one extremity of the main street, is a spacious structure, with a tower at the west end. This appears, from an inscription on it, to have been rebuilt in 1655, by the celebrated Ann Clifford, countess of Dorset, Pembroke, and Montgomery. Here are inscriptions on plain stones, in memory of the three first earls of Cumberland. Skipton contains a grammar-school, which has a good library; and attached to it is a beautiful house, with a garden and pleasure grounds. A town-house has been lately built, in which the quarter sessions for the West Riding are held once a-year. At a short distance to the eastward of the church, and on the left side of the road leading to Knaresborough, stands Skipton castle. This ancient structure is said to have been originally erected soon after the conquest, by Robert de Romeli, then lord of the honour of Skipton. It is but little calculated, by its situation, for defence, being only slightly elevated above the level of the town, and commanded by heights on the northern side. It is, on the whole, better adapted for an agreeable residence than a fortress, and commands a pleasing view of the town and vale. It appears, notwithstanding, however, to have been of considerable importance during the civil wars between king Charles I. and his parliament. It was first garrisoned in the royal cause, and is said to have held the surrounding country for some time in great awe; but being vigorously besieged by the parliamentary army, it at length surrendered in 1645. In the following year, its works and defences were destroyed by order of parliament. Skipton is a place of considerable trade and business, the increase of which has of late years greatly added to the importance and prosperity of the town. It has become the chief mart in this district, for the different sorts of grain, large supplies of which are brought to market here, and thence dispersed over Craven and the manufacturing county on the north-east part of Lancashire. Upwards of 200 carts are said to attend the market regularly. Great numbers of cattle and sheep are also sold here in the course of the year, at the different fairs, of which there are a great number. Some manufactures are carried on in the town; and here are a paper-mill, a glazing-mill, a considerable twist-mill, a cotton manufactory, &c. The Leeds and Liverpool canal passes close by the town. It has warehouses and wharfs on its banks, for the reception of goods, and has been of great advantage to the place. In 1811, Skipton contained 609 houses, and 2868 inhabitants. Market on Saturday, numerous annual fairs, and a great market for fat and lean cattle on Tuesday, once a fortnight; 44 miles west of York, and 220 north-by-west of London. Lat. 53. 57. N. long. 2. 0. W.

SKIPTON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south-west of Thirsk.

SKIPWITH, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-east of Selby.

SKIRBECK, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-east of Boston. Population 477.

SKIRCOAT, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-south-west of Halifax. Population 2823.

SKIRETHORNS, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-west of Skipton.

SKIRINGLASS, a small island near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 58. 2. N. long. 5. 10. W.

SKIRINTARSAN,

SKIRINTARSAN, a small island near the east coast of Skye. Lat. 57. 19. N. long. 5. 53. W.

SKIRKY, a cluster of small islands in Kenmare river, on the south-east coast of Kerry; 5 miles east of Lamb's Head.

To SKIRL, *v. n.* To scream out. *Common in the North of England.* Perhaps from *shirl*, our *shrill*. See *SHRILL*.

SKIRLAUGH, NORTH, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles east of Beverley.

SKIRLAUGH, SOUTH, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles north-north-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

SKIRLING, a parish of Scotland, in Peebleshire, about 2½ miles in length, and nearly of the same breadth. Population 310.

SKIRLINGTON, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 12 miles east-south-east of Great Driffield.

SKIRMISH, *s.* [from *ys* and *carm*, Welsh, the shout of war: whence *ysgarm* and *ysgarmes*, old British words.—Junius deduces it from *χαρμν*, Gr., a battle; others from the German verb *schirmen*, to skirmish. Our word approaches nearest in form the ancient French *skermuche*, "petit combat."] A slight fight; less than a set battle.—When we shall wrastle with death, if we winne that *skirmish* we have enough. *Potter.*

One battle, yes, a *skirmish* more there was
With adverse fortune fought by Cartismand;
Her subjects most revolt.

Philips.

A contest; a contention.—There is a kind of merry war betwixt signior Benedick and her: they never meet but there's a *skirmish* of wit. *Shakspeare.*

To SKIRMISH, *v. n.* [*escarmoucher*, Fr.] To fight loosely; to fight in parties before or after the shock of the main battle.

Ready to charge, and to retire at will;
Though broken, scatter'd, fled, they *skirmish* still. *Fairfax.*

SKIRMISHING, *s.* Act of fighting loosely.—Alarum: *skirmishings.* Talbot pursueth the Dauphin. *Shakspeare.*

SKIRMISHER, *s.* He who skirmishes. *Barret.*

SKIRPENBECK, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-west of Pocklington.

To SKIRR, *v. n.* To scour; to scud; to run in haste This word is used in some parts of the north for to slide swiftly.

We'll make them *skirr* away as swift as stones
Enforced from the old Assyrian slings. *Shakspeare.*

SKIRRET, *s.* [*sisarum*, Lat. Camden calls *skirrets*, skirworts. *Ray.*] A plant.—*Skirrets* are a sort of roots propagated by seed. *Mortimer.* See *Sium*.

SKIRT, *s.* [*skoerte*, Swedish] The loose edge of a garment; that part which hangs loose below the waist.—It's but a nightgown in respect of yours; cloth of gold and cuts, side sleeves and *skirts*, round underborne with a blueish tinsel. *Shakspeare.*—The edge of any part of the dress.—A narrow lace, or a small *skirt* of ruffled linen, which runs along the upper part of the stays before, and crosses the breast, being a part of the tucker, is called the modesty-piece. *Addison.*—Edge; margin; border; extreme part.

Though I fled him angry, yet recall'd
To life prolong'd, and promis'd race, I now
Gladly behold, though but his utmost *skirts*
Of glory, and far off his steps adore.

Milton.

To SKIRT, *v. a.* To border; to run along the edge.
Of all these bounds,
With shadowy forests and with champions rich'd,
With plenteous rivers and wide *skirted* meads,
We make thee lady. *Shakspeare.*

SKIRWITH, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 7½ miles east-north-east of Penrith.

SKIT, *s.* [*skats*, Icel. a frolicsome, or pert woman.—A light, wanton wench. The word is also used in Scotland.—[Herod] at the request of a dancing *skit* stroke off the head of

St. John the Baptist. *Howard.*—A reflection [from the Sax. *scatan*, to cast forth. The word is now used for some jeer, or jibe, or covered imputation, thrown or cast upon any one. *H. Tooke.*

To SKIT, *v. a.* To cast reflections on. North. *Grose.*

SKITTISH, *adj.* [*skyc*, Danish; *schew*, Dutch. *Dr. Johnson.*—Su. Goth. *skyg*, shy, as applied to a horse, from *sky*, to avoid, to shun. *Serenius.*] Shy; easily affrighted.—A restiff *skittish* jade had gotten a trick of rising, starting, and flying out at his own shadow. *L'Estrange.*—Wanton; volatile; hasty; precipitate. See *SKIT*.

He still resolv'd, to mend the matter,
T' adhere and cleave the obstinater;
And still the *skittisher* and looser,
Her freaks appear'd to sit the closer.

Hudibras.

Changeable; fickle.
Some men sleep in *skittish* fortune's hall,
While others play the ideots in her eyes. *Shakspeare.*

SKITTISHLY, *adv.* Wantonly; uncertainly; ficklely. *Sherwood.*—The beasts were very plump, and *skittishly* played as they passed by; not knowing whither they were driven. *Sitwat. of Parad.*

SKITTISHNESS, *s.* Wantonness; fickleness.

SKITTLES, *s.* [formerly *keels* or *kayles*, and *kettle-pins*. See *KAYLE*. "When shall our *kittell*-pins return again into the Grecian *skyttals*?" *Sadler.*—Ninépins.

No more the wherry feels my stroke so true;

At *skittles*, in a grizzle, can I play?

Warton.

SKLAVO-CHORI, a petty town of the Morea, in Greece, occupying the site of the ancient *Amyclæ*, and situated at the junction of a small river with the Vasilipotamos or Enrotas. It is the see of a Greek bishop.

SKLENO, or GLASERHAY, a village of the north of Hungary. Here are some very hot mineral springs, and near them a cavern, also of extraordinary heat, without the slightest damp; 90 miles north-east of Presburgh.

SKOG, a small town of Sweden, in the province of Helsingland, on the Ljusna-elf, about 12 miles from the gulf of Bothnia.

SKONCE, *s.* [See *SKONCE*.] Reinard ransacketh every corner of his wily *skonce*, and bestirreth the utmost of his nimble stumps to quit his coat from their jaws. *Carew.*

SKOPELOS, an island of the Grecian archipelago, on the coast of Magnesia, to the east of Skiathi. Though small (only 30 miles in circumference), and of no great natural fertility, it is well cultivated, producing vines, olives, and other fruits, and contains no less than 12,000 inhabitants.

SKOPELOS, the chief place of the foregoing island, situated on a small gulf of the eastern coast. It is built partly on an eminence advancing into the sea, and partly in a plain. It is the see of a bishop, has 12 churches or chapels, and several monasteries. Population about 5000.

SKOPIA, a small town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, district of Widdin.

SKOTSCHAU, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, on the Vistula. Population 1500; 50 miles west-south-west of Cracow.

SKOUITIAS, a village of Albania, in the valley of Souli, situated in a narrow and difficult defile.

SKREED, in Agriculture, provincially a border or narrow slip of land.

SKREEN, *s.* [*escran*, *escrein*, Fr., which Minshew derives from *secerniculum*, Lat. *Nimis violenter ut solet*, says Skinner, which may be true as to one of the senses; but if the first sense, of *skreen* be a kind of coarse sieve or riddle, it may perhaps come, if not from *cribrum*, from some of the descendants of *cerno*.]—A riddle or coarse sieve.—A skuttle or *skreen* to rid soil fro' the corn. *Tusser.*—Any thing by which the sun or weather is kept off.—To cheapen fans or buy a *screen*. *Prior.*

So long condemn'd to fires and *screens*,

You dread the waving of these greens.

Anonym.
Shelter;

Shelter ; concealment.

Fenc'd from day, by night's eternal *skreen* ;
Unknown to heaven, and to myself unseen.

Dryden.

To SKREEN, *v. a.* To riddle ; to sift. A term yet used among masons when they sift sand for mortar.—To shade from sun or light, or weather.—To keep off light or weather.

The curtains closely drawn, the light to *skreen* :
Thus cover'd with an artificial night,
Sleep did his office.

Dryden.

To shelter ; to protect.

Ajax interpos'd

His sevenfold shield, and *skreen'd* Laertes' son,
When the insulting Trojans urg'd him sore.

Philips.

To SKRINGE, or To SKRUNGE, *v. a.* [perhaps a corruption of *skrew*. See To SCRUIZE.] To squeeze violently : a colloquial word in many parts of England.

SKRIPONERI, a small place of Greece, in Livadia, at the mouth of the canal which connects the lake of Topolias with the sea.

SKRYNE, a village of Ireland, in the county of East Meath. It has a church, and the ruins of an old castle are still remaining ; 19½ miles north-west of Dublin.

SKRYNNA, a small town of Poland ; 57 miles south-west of Warsaw.

SKVIRA, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Kiev, and 80 miles south-west of that town.

SKUE, *adj.* [See SKREW.] Oblique ; sidelong. It is most used in the adverb *askue*—Several have imagined that this *skue* posture of the axis is a most unfortunate thing ; and that, if the poles had been erect to the plane of the ecliptic, all mankind would have enjoyed a very paradise. *Bentley.*

To SKUG, *v. a.* [a corruption of To SCULK.]

To SKULK, *v. n.* To hide ; to lurk in fear or malice. See To SCULK.

Discover'd and defeated of your prey,

You *skulk'd* behind the fence, and sneak'd away. *Dryden.*

SKULKA, in Geography, a mountain of Sweden, in Angermanland ; 10 miles north of Hemosand.

SKULL, *s.* [*skjola*, Icelandic, a head.] The bone that incloses the head : it is made up of several pieces, which, being joined together, form a considerable cavity, which contains the brain as in a box, and it is proportionate to the bigness of the brain. *Quincy.*

Some lay in dead men's *skulls* ; and in those holes,

Where eyes did once inhabit, there were crept,

As 'twere in scorn of eyes, reflecting gems. *Shakspeare.*

[*ſceole*, Saxon, a company.] A shoal. See SCULL.—Repair to the river where you have seen them swim in *skulls* or shoals. *Walton.*

SKULLCAP, *s.* A headpiece.—[*cassida*, Lat.] A plant.

SKULL-CAP, in Botany. See SCUTELLARIA.

SKUPOPING, a lake of the United States, in North Carolina. Lat. 85. 45. N. long. 76. 42. W.

SKUPPERNONG, a river of the United States, in North Carolina, which communicates by means of a canal, with the lake in Dismal Swamp.

SKURR-CHOINICH and SKURR-DHONUIL, two mountains of Scotland, in Argyleshire, in the parish of Ardnamurchan, the former elevated 2364 feet, and the latter 2730 feet above the level of the sea.

SKUTE, *s.* [*schuyt*, Dutch.] A boat or small vessel.—They carried with them all the *skutes* and boats that might be found. *Sir R. Williams.*

SKUTSCH, a town of Bohemia, containing 2500 inhabitants, employed chiefly in weaving linen ; 70 miles east-by-south of Prague.

SKUTTOCK HILLS, eminences on the coast of Maine, which afford sailing marks into Goulsborough harbour.

SKWIRZINA. See SCHWERIN.

SKY, *s.* [*sky*, Danish ; from *skya*, Su. Goth. to cover.] The region which surrounds this earth beyond the atmosphere. It is taken for the whole region without the earth.—Raise all thy winds, with night involve the *skies*. *Dryden.*
—The heavens.

The thunderer's bolt you know
Sky planted, batters all rebelling coasts. *Shakspeare.*

The weather ; the climate.—Thou wert better in thy grave, than to answer with thy uncovered body this extremity of the *skies*. *Shakspeare.*—[*Sky*, Su. Goth.] A cloud ; a shadow.

She passeth, as it were a *sky*,

All clean out of the lady's sight.

Gower.

SKY'COLOUR, *s.* An azure colour ; the colour of the sky.—A solution as clear as water, with only a light touch of *skycolour*, but nothing near so high as the ceruleous tincture of silver. *Boyle.*

SKY'COLOURED, *adj.* Blue ; azure ; like the sky.—This your Ovid himself has hinted, when he tells us that the blue water-nymphs are dressed in *skycoloured* garments. *Addison.*

SKY'DYED, *adj.* Coloured like the sky.—There figs, *skydyed*, a purple hue disclose. *Pope.*

SKYE, one of the most considerable of the Hebrides, on the coast of Scotland, and in the county of Inverness, separated from the mainland of Scotland by a channel three leagues broad, but at the ferry of Glenelg not more than half a mile from the nearest part of the mainland. It lies between 57. and 57. 38. north lat. and between 5. 33. and 6. 40. west long. ; is 54 miles in its greatest length, and in breadth from 35 to 3 miles, being on an average 13. It contains 342,400 English acres, of which about 30,000 are arable ; the rest, consisting of mountain and hill pasture, lakes, morasses, rocks, and other waste lands, may be 750 square miles, deeply indented with inlets of the sea ; and those inlets are so distributed, that no spot in the island is four miles from salt water. The climate is mild, in proportion to its latitude and the height of the mountains, some of which are computed to be 3000 feet above the level of the sea : but the weather, on the whole, is not agreeable ; for one half of the year is deluged with rain. The air seldom continues long of the same temperature ; sometimes it is dry, oftener moist, and, in the latter end of winter, and early in the spring, cold and piercing. Three days in the year are scarcely free from clouds and rain. The clouds, attracted by the hills, sometimes break in useful and refreshing showers ; at other times, suddenly bursting like a water spout, pour down their contents with tremendous noise, deluging the plains below, and often destroying the hopes of the husbandman. The crops also suffer by the stormy winds, which set in about the end of August and beginning of September. To this variable temperature of the air and weather agues, fevers, rheumatism, and dysenteries, the prevailing distempers, may be ascribed. That the climate, however, is far from being unhealthy, the long life of the inhabitants sufficiently testifies.

The surface is very irregular. In several districts are bleak elevated ridges of hills, covered with heath ; and below are valleys watered by rapid streams, fresh-water lakes, morasses in which trunks of trees are found, gently sloping declivities, and level fields. The bare rocks often appear near the summits of the hills ; brown heath darkens their declivities ; the morasses are covered with grey moss ; and spots of lively verdure are thinly interspersed. Most of the hills in the central and southern quarters were anciently clothed with wood ; but little forest timber now remains in the island, except on the south-east coast of Sleat, where there is still some natural wood. There is every diversity of soil, except pure sand. In the fine district of Trotternish, there are 4000 acres of loam, and loam and clay, upon a bottom of gravel. In Sleat and Strath, and what is called Macleod's country, are extensive tracts of light friable mould upon gravel, and also some loam mixed with peat earth, well calculated for the established rotations of crops on the best of soils ; notwithstanding, improvements in agriculture have hitherto made

little progress in this island. The quantity of grain raised in favourable seasons, is reckoned not to exceed 9000 bolls; 500 tons of kelp are annually manufactured; and 3000 cattle are exported. The promontories, or headlands, are rocks of immense height. In some parts are basaltic columns, resembling those of Staffa. About a mile south of Talysker, on the south-west coast, there is a high hill, having in front a series of basaltic columns, above 20 feet in height, and consisting mostly of five angles. At a small distance from them on the slope of a hill, is a track of several roods, formed of the tops of columns, close set, and exhibiting a reticulated series of amazing beauty. There is abundance of freestone, limestone, granite, with some veins of marble, and appearances of lead and iron ore in various places. In the parish of Snizort there is a perpendicular rock or obelisk, about 360 feet in circumference at the base, and terminating in a sharp point, perhaps 300 feet in height; and, in the same side of the parish, there is a beautiful cataract about 90 feet high, with an arched hollow path in the middle across the rock, along which five or six persons may walk abreast with perfect safety. Agriculture is still in a very backward state; and if the land were inclosed, drained, and sheltered, the aspect of the country would be entirely altered. The crooked spade is almost the only utensil used by the common class of tenants, for labouring the ground. There are excellent carriage roads in the island. One executed by the parliamentary commissioners, jointly with the proprietors, from the point of Sleat, continues in a line along the whole coast on the east, till it reaches Portree near the north end; thence it takes a westerly direction till it terminates on the confines of the district of Bracadale on the west. Other improvements in the island have lately advanced considerably. The island is well watered by a number of rivers, abounding with trout and salmon. In the small rivers Kilmartin and Ord, is found the great horse muscle, in which pearls are formed. There is also a number of fresh water lakes, well stored with trout and eel. The largest of these lakes takes its denomination from St. Columba, to whom a chapel, which stands on a small island in the lake, is dedicated. The coasts are in general bold and rocky, abounding with many safe and commodious bays. The most considerable of those are Snizort and Fullart on the north coast, Bracadale on the west, and Portree on the east coast. Snizort loch, or bay, contains a group of islets called Asorib. Loch Bracadale forms a beautiful landlocked harbour, abounding in safe creeks and islets. The basin south of the village of Portree, in Trotternish, on the sound of Raasay, would answer well for a dry dock, where damaged vessels might be easily repaired. Many curious grottos, druidical monuments, and ancient forts, are found in this island. At Struan are the remains of a circular fort, 42 feet in diameter, on the top of a rock. The castle of Dunvegan is situated on a high rock at the bottom of Loch Fallart bay, on the west coast. It forms two sides of a small square, and on the third side there is a Danish tower; between this castle and Talysker, on the west coast, is the ruin of a thick wall, and the traces of a dike quite round a steep rock, accessible on one side; and on the summit of another rock is a Danish circular inclosure, composed of excellent masonry without cement. The diameter of the inside is 42 feet; and within are vestiges of five small circular apartments. The walls of the enclosure are of considerable height, and the entrance is six feet high, covered with flags. About two miles northward are two large cairns. Duntuil castle, i. e. the castle of the round grassy eminence, originally a seat of the Macdonalds, now lies in ruins, on the verge of a lofty precipice, near the northern extremity of the island. There are several agreeable seats and villages planted on the coasts and borders of lakes. Opposite to Hunish, the northern promontory, there is a rapid current; and at no great distance are the dangerous rocks of Sker-na-mili. Many valuable minerals have been discovered, but none have been wrought to any advantage. In many places the hills exhibit marks of volcanic fire. In the parish of Strath, limestone and marl are abundant, and there is some marble of an inferior quality. Near the village of Sleat are found marcasites of various

kinds, and finely variegated pebbles. A valley near Loch Fallart produces fine agates, and many of the rivulets contain topazes, washed down from the hills in mountain torrents. Rock crystals and other precious stones are also found, after heavy rains, among the debris at the foot of the hill. The south and west coasts abound with coral, both red and white. The island is divided into seven parochial districts, which contain upwards of 18,000 inhabitants, who dwell for the most part in scattered villages, as convenience of situation invites. It belonged formerly to lord Macdonald, the laird of Macleod, and the laird of Mackinnon; but now there are many other proprietors in it—Macallister of Strathaird, Macdonald of Lyndale, Macdonald of Scalpa, Mr. C. Grant of Vaternish, M. P., and several others.

SKY'ED, *adj.* Enveloped by the skies.—This is unauthorized, and inelegant.

The pale deluge floats

O'er the *sky'd* mountain to the shadowy vale. *Thomson.*

SKY'EY, *adj.* Ethereal.—[Not very elegantly formed.]

A breath thou art,

Servile to all the *skyey* influences,

That do this habitation, where thou keep'st,
Hourly afflict. *Shakspeare.*

SKY'ISH, *adj.* Coloured by the ether; approaching the sky.

Of this flat a mountain you have made,

T' o'er top old Pelion, or the *skyish* head,

Of blue Olympus.

Shakspeare.

SKY'LARK, *s.* A lark that mounts and sings.—He next proceeded to the *skylark*, mounting up by a proper scale of notes, and afterwards falling to the ground with a very easy descent. *Spectator.*

SKY'LIGHT, *s.* A window placed in a room, not laterally, but in the ceiling.—A monstrous fowl dropt through the *skylight*, near his wife's apartment. *Arbutnot.*

SKYRO, SKYROS, or SCHIRI, an island of the Grecian archipelago, to the east of Negroponte. It is about 60 miles in circumference, and is extremely rugged, being covered with steep and naked rocks; these are, however, separated by some fruitful spots, producing wheat, barley, and tolerably good wine, and affording pasture to flocks of goats and sheep. Agriculture is, however, much neglected, and the 2000 Greeks who inhabit the island, live in a state of extreme poverty. In a wretched village of the same name resides a Greek bishop. Lat. 38. 52. N. long 24. 33. E.

SKYRO-POULO, a small island of the Archipelago, between Skyros and the coast of Negroponte; 6 miles west of the former.

SKY'ROCKET, *s.* A kind of fire-work, which flies high, and burns as it flies.—I considered a comet, or, in the language of the vulgar, a blazing star, as a *skyrocket* discharged by an hand that is almighty. *Addison.*

SKYTTE (Benedict), was born in 1614, and studied at Upsal. In 1629 he accompanied the Swedish ambassador, general Spence, to England, where on taking his leave, he was knighted by king Charles I. After this he continued his studies at Dorpat, and travelled for his improvement, during which queen Christiana gave him a place in her household. He enjoyed for several years the favour of his sovereign; but afterwards fell into disgrace, and was brought to trial, but he made such an able defence that he was acquitted, and all the proceedings against him were annulled. He was restored to his seat as senator, and in 1665 was appointed governor of Esthonia. He was employed on an important mission by king Charles Gustavus to the Duke of Courland, and he managed the business so well, that he received the approbation and cordial thanks of his sovereign. His good fortune again deserted him; he was dismissed from his offices at the diet held in 1664, and declared incapable of ever being employed either at home or abroad. After this he retired to his estate, and spent his time in literary pursuits till his death, in 1683. He was a man of great learning, and made himself known by various works, among which were the following: "Dissertatiuncula de Argumento quod Fæminæ, Officium Legati mandari possit," 4to.: "Oratio qua probatur

probatur Utilitatem pro Justitia, in Administratione Rerum publicarum colendam." *Gen. Biog.*

SLAB, *adj.* [A word, probably of the same original with *slabber*, or *slaver*. See *To SLABBER*. The Teut. *slabbe* is a slabbering-bib.] Thick; viscous; glutinous.

Nose of Turk, and Tartar's lips;
Finger of birth-strangled babe,
Ditch-deliver'd by a drab;
Make the gruel thick and *slab*.

Shakspeare.

SLAB, *s.* A puddle. *Ainsworth*.—They must be diligently cleansed from moss, *slab*, and ooze. *Evelyn*.—A plane of stone: as, a marble *slab*.—The outside plank of a piece of timber when sawn into boards. *Ray*.

To SLABBER, *v. a.* [Teut. *slabben*, *slabbcren*.] *To sup up hastily*.—*To slabber* pottage up half hot and cold. *Barret*.—*To smear with spittle*.—He *slabbered* me all over, from cheek to cheek, with his great tongue. *Arbutnot*.—*To shed; to spill*.

The milk-pan and cream-pot so *slabber'd* and tost,
That butter is wanting, and cheese is half lost.

Tusser.

To SLABBER, *v. n.* *To let the spittle fall from the mouth; to drivel*.—*To shed or pour on any thing*.

SLABBERER, *s.* One who slabbers; an idiot.

SLABBY, *adj.* Thick; viscous. *Not used*.—In the cure of an ulcer, with a moist intemperies, *slabby* and greasy medicaments are to be forborn, and drying to be used. *Wiseman*.—*Wet; floody; in low language*.

When waggish boys the stunted besom ply,
To rid the *slabby* pavements, pass not by.

Gay.

SLAB-LINE, in Sea Language, a small cord passing up behind a ship's main-sail or fore-sail, and being reeved through a block attached to the lower part of the yard, is then transmitted into two branches to the foot of the sail to which it is fastened.

It is used to truss up the sail as occasion requires, and more particularly for the convenience of the pilot or steersman, that they may look forward beneath it as the ship advances. *Falconer*.

SLABTOWN, a village of the United States, in Burlington county, New Jersey; 7 miles east of Burlington.

SLACK, *adj.* [pleac, Saxon; *slak*, Su. Goth.; *slaken*, Icelandic; *yslack*, Welsh; *laxus*, Lat.] Not tense; not hard drawn; loose.—The vein in the arm is that which Aretæus commonly opens; and he gives a particular caution in this case to make a *slack* compression, for fear of exciting a convulsion. *Arbutnot*.—Relaxed; weak; not holding fast.

All his joints relax'd:

From his *slack* hand the garland wreath'd for Eve
Down dropp'd, and all the faded roses shed.

Milton.

Remiss; not diligent; not eager; not fervent.

Rebellion now began, for lack
Of zeal and plunder, to grow *slack*.

Hudibras.

Not violent; not rapid.

Their pace was formal, grave, *slack*:
His nimble wit outran the heavy pack.

Dryden.

Not intense.—A handful of *slack* dried hops spoil many pounds, by taking away their pleasant smell. *Mortimer*.

To SLACK, or *To SLACKEN*, *v. n.* [placian, Sax.] *To be remiss; to neglect*.—When thou shalt vow a vow unto the Lord, *slack* not to pay it. *Deut.*—*To lose the power of cohesion*.—The fire in lime burnt, lies hid, so that it appears to be cold; but water excites it again, whereby it *slacks* and crumbles into fine powder. *Moxon*.—*To abate*.

Whence these raging fires

Will *slacken*, if his breath stir not their flames.

Milton.

To languish; to fail; to flag. *Ainsworth*.—*Slacking* in such care and desire. *Necessary Erudit. of a Chris. Man.*

To SLACK, or *To SLACKEN*, *v. a.* *To loosen; to make less tight*.

Ah! generous youth, that wish forbear;
Slack all thy sails, and fear to come.

Dryden.

To relax; to remit.

Taught power's due use to people and to kings,
Taught not to *slack* nor strain its tender strings.

Pope.

To ease; to mitigate. Philips seems to have used it by mistake for *slake*.

If there be cure or charm

To respite or deceive, or slack the pain
Of this ill mansion

Milton.

To remit for want of eagerness.—With such delay well pleas'd, they *slack* their course. *Milton*.—*To cause to be remitted; to make to abate*.

Extol not riches then, the toil of fools,
The wise man's cumbrance, if not snare; more apt
To slacken virtue and abate her edge,
Than prompt her to do aught may merit praise.

Milton.

To relieve; to unbend.

Here have I seen the king, when great affairs
Gave leave to *slacken* and unbend his cares,
Attended to the chase by all the flower
Of youth, whose hopes a nobler prey devour.

Denham.

To withhold; to use less liberally.—He that so generally is good, must of necessity hold his virtue to you, whose worthiness would stir it up where it wanted rather than *slack* it where there is such abundance. *Shakspeare*.—*To crumble; to deprive of the power of cohesion*.—Some unslack'd lime cover with ashes, and let it stand till rain comes to *slack* the lime; then spread them together. *Mortimer*.—*To neglect*.

Why might not you, my lord, receive attendance
From those that she calls servants, or from mine?

—If then they chanc'd to *slack* ye,

We could control them.

Shakspeare.

To repress; to make less quick or forcible.—I should be griev'd, young prince, to think my presence unbent your thoughts, and *slacken'd* 'em to arms. *Addison*.

SLACK, *s.* [This substantive is called *slake* in the north of England.] Small coal; coal broken in small parts: as, *slack'd* lime turns to powder.

SLACK, *s.* A valley or small shallow dell. *Northern*.
SLACKLY, *adv.* [pleaclice, Sax.] Loosely; not tightly; not closely.—Negligently; remissly.

That a king's children should be so convey'd,
So *slackly* guarded, and the search so slow
That could not trace them.

Shakspeare.

Tardily. *Cotgrave, and Sherwood*.

SLACKNESS, *s.* [pleacneffe, Sax.] Looseness; not tightness.—Negligence; inattention; remissness.

These thy offices,

So rarely kind, are as interpreters
Of my behind-hand *slackness*.

Shakspeare.

Tardiness.—When they have no disposition to shoot out above their lips, there is a *slackness* to heal, and a cure is very difficultly effected. *Sharp*.—Weakness; not force; not intensity.—Through the *slackness* of motion, or long banishment from the air, it might gather some aptness to putrefy. *Brerewood*.

SLACK-WATER, in Sea Language, denotes the interval between the flux and reflux of the tide, or between the last of the ebb and the first of the flood, during which the current is interrupted, and the water apparently remains in a state of rest.

SLADE, *s.* [plæð, Sax. vallis, Somner; via in montium convallibus, Lye. But Lye adds the Icel. *slæd*, a valley.] A flat piece of ground lying low and moist; a little den or valley.

The thick and well-grown fog doth matt my smoother *slades*;
And on the lower leas, as on the higher hades,
The daintie clover grows. *Drayton.*

SLADE POINT, a cape on the north-east coast of New Holland; 15 miles south-east of Cape Hillsborough.

SLAG, *s.* The dross or recrement of metal.—Not only the calces but the glasses of metal may be of differing colours from the natural colour or the metal, as I have observed about the glass or *slag* of copper. *Boyle.*

SLAGELSE, a town of Denmark, in the island of Zealand. Population 1800; 50 miles west-south-west of Copenhagen. Lat. 55. 27. N. long. 11. 22. 45. E.

SLAIDBURN, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 11½ miles south-west of Kettle. Population 2175.

SLAIE, *s.* [ʃlæ, Saxon. Dr. Johnson cites this word, without any etymology, merely from Ainsworth. It was in use long before. See it in Sherwood. It is properly *sley*, though sometimes written also *slay*. See SLEY.] A weaver's reed.

SLAIN. The participle passive of *slay*. [ʃlægen, Saxon.]
The king grew vain,
Fought all his battles o'er again;
And thrice he routed all his foes, and thrice he slew the *slain*.
Dryden.

SLAINS, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, on the sea coast of Buchan, of a triangular figure, about 5 miles long, and 3 broad. Population 1065.

SLAITHWAIT, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, on the banks of the Huddersfield canal; 5½ miles west-south-west of Huddersfield. Population 2277.

To SLAKE, *v. a.* [from *slæk*, Skinner; from *slæcra*, Icelandic, to quench, Lye.] To quench; to extinguish.

If I digg'd up thy forefather's graves,
And hung their rotten coffins up in chains,
It could not *slake* mine ire, nor ease my heart. *Shakspeare.*

It is used of lime; so that it is uncertain whether the original notion of to *slack* or *slake* lime be to powder or quench it.—That which he saw happened to be fresh lime, and gathered before any rain had fallen to *slake* it. *Woodward.*

To SLAKE, *v. n.* To grow less tense; to be relaxed.

If she the body's nature did partake,
Her strength would with the body's strength decay;
But when the body's strongest sinews *slake*,
Then is the soul most active, quick, and gay. *Davies.*

To abate.—The fever *slaketh*. *Barret.*—To go out; to be extinguished.

She perceiving that his flame did *slake*,
And lov'd her only for his trophy's sake. *Brown.*

SLAKE, *s.* See SLACK.

SLALEY, a parish of England, in Northumberland; 5 miles south-east of Hexham. Population 558.

To SLAM, *v. a.* [Icel. *slaemra*, levitèr verberare, cædere: aliis cognatum creditur, Icel. *lemia*, verberare. *Serenius.*] To slaughter; to crush. *A word not used but in low conversation.* It is used in the north both for to beat or cuff a person, and also to push violently: as, he *slamm'd* to the door. See *Grose*. It is also used at cards: as, he is *slammed*, that is, beaten without winning one trick.

SLAM, *s.* Defeat: applied at cards, to the adversary who has not reckoned a single point. *A low phrase.*

Thus all the while a club was trump,
There's none could ever beat the rump;
Until a noble general came,
And gave the cheaters a clear *slam*. *Loyal Songs.*

SLAMANNAN, or ST. LAWRENCE, a parish of Scotland, in Stirlingshire, about 5 miles long, and from 3 to 4 broad. Population 993.

SLAMKIN, or SLAMMERKIM, *s.* [perhaps from the German *schlam*, dirt.] A slatternly woman; a trollop. *A vulgar word.*

To SLANDER, *v. a.* [*esclander*, old French, the same.] To censure falsely; to belie.

Slander Valentine

With falsehood, cowardice, and poor descent. *Shakspeare.*

SLANDER, *s.* [*esclandre*, old Fr. from the verb.] False invective.

When *slanders* do not live in tongues;
When cut-purses come not to throngs. *Shakspeare.*

Disgrace; reproach.

Thou *slander* of thy mother's heavy womb!
Thou loathed issue of thy father's loins! *Shakspeare.*

Disreputation; ill name.

You shall not find me, daughter,
After the *slander* of most step-mothers,
Ill-ey'd unto you. *Shakspeare.*

SLANDERER, *s.* One who belies another; one who lays false imputations on another.—Thou shalt answer for this, thou *slanderer*. *Dryden.*

SLANDEROUS, *adj.* Uttering reproachful falsehoods.

What king so strong

Can tie the gall up in the *slanderos* tongue? *Shakspeare.*

Containing reproachful falsehoods; calumnious.—I was never able till now to choke the mouth of such detractors, with the certain knowledge of their *slanderos* untruths. *Spenser.*

We lay these honours on this man,

To ease ourselves of divers *slanderos* loads. *Shakspeare.*

SLANDEROUSLY, *adv.* Calumniously; with false reproach.—I may the better satisfy them who object these doubts, and *slanderosly* bark at the courses which are held against that traitorous earl and his adherents. *Spenser.*

SLANDEROUNESS, *s.* State or quality of being reproachful. *Scott.*

SLANE, a town of Ireland, in the county of Meath, delightfully situated on the left bank of the Boyne, over which there is a bridge. This town, though now reduced to a village, constituted formerly one of the boroughs in the palatinate of Meath. Here was very early an abbey of regular canons. We are told that Dagobert, king of Austria, when only ten years old, was seized by Grimoald Mayor, shorn as a monk, and confined in this abbey, where he remained 20 years, when he was recalled to his kingdom. This town suffered much from the invasions of the Danes. In 1170 and 1175 it was taken, sacked, and burned by the English under earl Strongbow; 3 miles west of Drogheda.

SLANEY, a river of Ireland, which runs into Wexford harbour.

SLANG. The preterite of *sling*.—David *slang* a stone, and smote the Philistine. *1 Sam.*

SLANO, *S.*, a small sea-port of Austrian Dalmatia; 20 miles north-west of Ragusa.

SLANGE (Nicholas), a Dutch historian of considerable celebrity, was born at Slagelse in the year 1657, of which place his father was the minister, and he was afterwards bishop of Viborg. Nicholas travelled at an early period, and in 1679 he paid a visit to Oxford, and in the year following he went to Cambridge. On his return he became, in 1681, secretary to the Danish chancery, and after going through various gradations of rank and office, he was ennobled in the year 1731. He died in 1737. He wrote "A History of Christian IV." which was published at Copenhagen in 1749, in two volumes, folio. It was afterwards translated into the German language. *Gen. Biog.*

SLANK, *s.* [*alga marina*.] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

SLANT, or SLANTING, *adj.* [from *slanghe*, a serpent; Dutch. *Skinner*. Dr. Johnson. — From the Swedish, *slant*, of *slinta*, to slip, to miss one's step. *Serenius.*] Oblique; not direct; not perpendicular.

Late the clouds

Justling, or push'd with winds, rude in their shock,
Time the *slant* lightning; whose thwart flame driven down;
Kindles the gummy bark of fir and piñe. *Milton.*

SLANT,

SLANT, in Commerce, a copper coin of Sweden; 96 double slants, or 192 single slants pass for 1 specie riksdaler: and this, commonly called the Swedish dollar, is worth 4s. 7½d. sterling.

SLA'NTLY, or SLA'NTWISE, *adv.* Obliquely; not perpendicularly; a slope.

Some maketh a hollowness half a foot deep,
With flower sets in it, set *slantwise* asleep. *Tusser.*

SLAP, *s.* [*schlap*, German.] A blow. Properly with the hand open, or with something rather broad than sharp.—What defence can be used in such a despicable encounter as this, but either the *slap* or the spurn? *Milton.*

SLAP, *adv.* With a sudden and violent blow.—Peg's servants complained; and if they offered to come into the warehouse, then strait went the yard *slap* over their noddle. *Arbutnot.*

To SLAP, *v. a.* To strike with a slap.

Dick, who thus long had passive sat,
Here strok'd his chin, and cock'd his hat;
Then *slapp'd* his hand upon the board,
And thus the youth put in his word. *Prior.*

SLA'PDASH, *interj.* All at once: as any thing broad falls with a *slap* into the water, and *dashes* it about. *A low word.*

And yet, *slapdash*, is all again
In every sinew, nerve, and vein. *Prior.*

SLAPE, *adj.* Slippery; and also smooth. Applied to ale in Lincolnshire, and the North of England. See *Skinner*, *Ray* and *Grose*.

SLAPSTON, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 3½ miles west-south-west of Towcester.

SLAPTON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire, on the Grand Junction canal; 3 miles north by west of Ivinghoe.

SLAPTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5½ miles south-west of Dartmouth.

To SLASH, *v. a.* [*slasa*, to strike, Icelandic.] To cut; to cut with long cuts.—*Slashing* and pinking their skin and faces. *Sir T. Herbert.*—The long pocket, *slashed* sleeve. *Guardian.*—To lash. *Slash* is improper.

Daniel, a sprightly swain, that us'd to *slash*
The vigorous steeds that drew his lord's calash. *King.*

To cause to make a sharp sound.—She *slash'd* a whip which she had in her hand; the cracks thereof were loud and dreadful. *More.*

To SLASH, *v. n.* To strike at random with a sword; to lay about him.

The knights with their bright burning blades
Broke their rude troops, and orders did confound,
Hewing and *slashing* at their idle shades. *Spenser.*

Not that I'd lop the beauties from his book,
Like *slashing* Bentley with his desperate hook. *Pope.*

SLASH, *s.* Cut; wound.—Some few received some cuts and *slashes* that had drawn blood. *Clarendon.*—A cut in cloth.

What! this a sleeve?

Here's snip and nip, and cut, and slish and *slash*,
Like to a censor in a barber's shop. *Shakspeare.*

To SLAT. See To SLATTER.

SLATCH, *s.* [A sea term.] The middle part of a rope or cable that hangs down loose. *Bailey.*—A transitory breeze of wind; an interval of fair weather: a sea term. At certain times in the winter season, they take their *slashes* of hood and ebb according to their occasions, the effects of the tide being manifest quite cross the Streight; and ships ordinarily seen becalmed, &c. *Sir H. Shere.*

SLATE, *s.* [from *slit*: *slate* is in some counties a crack; or from *esclate*, a tile, French.] A grey stone, easily broken into thin plates, which are used to cover houses, or to write

upon.—A square cannot be so truly drawn upon a *slate*, as it is conceived in the mind. *Grew.*

To SLATE, *v. a.* To cover the roof; to tile.

Sonnets and elegies to Chloris,
Would raise a house about two stories,
A lyric ode would *slate*. *Swift.*

To SLATE, or To SLETE, *v. n.* [perhaps from *plætunge*, Sax. *vestigia ferarum*.] To set a dog loose at any thing, as sheep, swine, &c. A northern word. Ray gives it in the form of *slete*, *Grose* of *slate*.

SLATE MOUNT, a mountain of the United States, in Virginia; 6 miles west of Richmond. Lat. 37. 35. N. long. 72. W.

SLATE, POINT OF, the southern extremity of the island of Skye. Lat. 57. 1. N. long. 6. W.

SLATE RIVER, a river of the United States, in Virginia, which runs into James river. Lat. 37. 40. N. long. 78. 54. W.

SLA'TER, *s.* One who covers with slates or tiles.

SLATOPOL, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Cherson, inhabited chiefly by Jew traders.

SLATTE'E, an African appellation of free black merchants, often traders in slaves.

To SLA'TTER, *v. n.* [Icel. and O. Sueth. *slacde*, vir habitu et moribus indecorus; en *sladdra*, incompta. *Serenius*.] To be slovenly and dirty.—A dirty, *slattering* woman. *Ray.*—To be careless or awkward; to spill carelessly: a northern word, and sometimes spoken *slat*.

SLA'TTERN, *s.* A woman negligent, not elegant or nice.

Without the raising of which sum,
You dare not be so troublesome
To pinch the *slatterns* black and blue,
For leaving you their work to do. *Hudibras.*

To SLA'TTERN, *v. a.* To consume carelessly or negligently.—All that I desire is, that you will never *slattern* away one minute in idleness. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

SLA'TTERNLY, *adj.* Not clean; slovenly.—A very *slatternly*, dirty, but at the same time very genteel French maid is appropriated to the use of my daughter. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

SLA'TTERNLY, *adv.* Awkwardly; negligently.—A fine suit ill made, and *slatternly* or stiffly worn, far from adorning, only exposes the awkwardness of the wearer. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

SLA'TY, *adv.* Having the nature of slate.—All the stone that is *slaty*, with a texture long, and parallel to the site of the stratum, will split only lengthways, or horizontally; and, if placed in any other position, 'tis apt to give way, start, and burst, when any considerable weight is laid upon it. *Woodward.*

SLAVE, *s.* [*esclave*, French.] One mancipated to a master; not a freeman; a dependant.

The banish'd Kent, who in disguise
Follow'd his enemy king, and did him service,
Improper for a *slave*. *Shakspeare.*

One that has lost the power of resistance.—When once men are immersed in sensual things, and are become *slaves* to their passions and lusts, then are they most disposed to doubt of the existence of God. *Wilkins.*—It is used proverbially for the lowest state of life.—Power shall not exempt the kings of the earth, and the great men, neither shall meanness excuse the poorest *slave*. *Nelson.*

To SLAVE, *v. a.* To enslave.—Fear,—a disease of a life long, which every day *slaves* a man to whatever ill he meets with. *Feltham.*

To SLAVE, *v. n.* To drudge; to toil; to toil.

Had women been the makers of our laws,
The men should *slave* at cards from morn to night. *Swift.*

The Romans called their slaves, *servi*, from *servare*, to keep, or save; as being such as were not killed, but saved to yield money, either by sale, or by their work. Though

other authors are of opinion, that the Roman name *servi* might come from that of *serbi*; as that of slaves from *Sclavi*, a people.

The term for a slave born and bred in the family, was *verna*; equivalent to *scurra*, denoting the petulance and impudence of these slaves. They seem to have been entitled by custom to privileges and indulgences beyond others.

Among the Romans, when a slave was set at liberty, he changed his name into a surname; he took the nomen or premen of his master, to which he added the cognomen he had been called by when a slave.

Among those who were denominated slaves in the more lax and general use of the term, we may reckon those who were distinguished among the Romans by the appellation of "mercenarii," so called from the circumstance of their *hire*. These were free-born citizens, mentioned in the law-books by the name of *liberi*, and thus contradistinguished from the *alieni*, or foreigners, who, from the various contingencies of fortune, were under a necessity of recurring for support to the service of the rich. To this class belonged those who, both among the Jews and Egyptians, are recorded in the sacred writings (Gen. ch. xlvii. Levit. xxv. 39, 40). The Grecian *Thetes* (*θητες*, see Hom. Odyss. Δ. 642), were also of this description. The situation of these persons resembled that of our servants; a contract subsisting between the parties, and most of the subordinate dependants having a right to demand and obtain their discharge if they were ill used by their masters.

Among the ancients there was another class of servants, which consisted wholly of those who had suffered the loss of liberty from their own imprudence. Such were the Grecian *prodigals*, who were detained in the service of their creditors, till the fruits of their labour were equivalent to their debts; the *delinquents*, who were sentenced to the oar; and the German *enthusiasts*, mentioned by Tacitus, who were so addicted to gaming, that when they had parted with every thing, also staked their liberty and their persons. "The loser," says the historian, "goes into a voluntary servitude; and though younger and stronger than the person with whom he played, patiently suffers himself to be bound and sold. Their perseverance in so bad a custom is styled *honour*. The slaves thus obtained, are immediately exchanged away in commerce, that the winner may get rid of the scandal of his victory." The two classes now enumerated, comprehend those that may be called *voluntary slaves*, and they are distinguished from those denominated *involuntary slaves*.

The connection between victory and servitude, which prevailed among the nations of antiquity, has uniformly existed, in one country or another, to the present day. Accordingly, the first class of *involuntary slaves*, included those who were "prisoners of war." The practice of reducing prisoners of war to the condition of slaves, subsisted both among the eastern nations and the people of the West; for as the Helots became the slaves of the Spartans, merely from the right of conquest, so prisoners of war were reduced to the same situation by the other inhabitants of Greece. The Romans, also, were actuated by the same principle; and all those nations which contributed to overturn the empire, adopted a similar custom; so that it was a general maxim in their polity, that those who fell under their power as prisoners of war, should immediately be reduced to the condition of slaves.

The slaves of the Greeks were generally, or very commonly, barbarians, and imported from foreign countries.

By the civil law, the power of making slaves is esteemed a right of nations, and follows, *jure gentium*, as a natural consequence of captivity in war. "Jure gentium servi nostri sunt, qui ab hostibus capiuntur." Justinian, l. i. 5. 5. i.

This is the first origin of the right of slavery assigned by Justinian, Inst. i. 3; 4., whence slaves are called *mancipia quasi manu capti*.

The Lacedæmonians, say some, or, as others say, the Assyrians, first introduced the practice; which the Romans not only approved of, but they even invented new manners of

making slaves: for instance, a man born free among them might sell his freedom, and become a slave. This voluntary slavery was first introduced by a decree of the senate in the time of the emperor Claudius, and at length was abrogated by Leo.

The Romans had power of life and death over their slaves, which no other nations had; but this severity was afterwards moderated by the laws of the emperors; and by one of Adrian it was made capital to kill a slave without a cause.

The slaves were esteemed the proper goods of their masters, and all they got belonged to them: but if the master were too cruel in his domestic corrections, he was obliged to sell his slave at a moderate price.

The custom of exposing old, useless, or sick slaves in an island of the Tyber, there to starve, seems to have been pretty common in Rome; and whoever recovered after having been so exposed, had his liberty given him, by an edict of the emperor Claudius, in which it was likewise forbidden to kill any slave merely for old age or sickness. (Suet. in Claud.) Nevertheless, it was the professed maxim of the elder Cato, to sell his superannuated slaves for any price, rather than maintain what he deemed an useless burthen. (Plut. in Caton.) The *ergastula*, or dungeons, where slaves in chains were forced to work, were very common all over Italy. Columella (l. i. c. 6.) advises that they be always built under ground; and recommends it as the duty of a careful overseer, to call over every day the names of these slaves, in order to know when any of them had deserted. Sicily was full of *ergastula*, and was cultivated by labourers in chains. Eunus and Athenio excited the servile war, by breaking up these monstrous prisons, and giving liberty to 60,000 slaves.

In the ancient and uncivilized ages of the world, "piracy" was regarded as an honourable practice; and this was supposed to give a right of making slaves. "The Grecians," says Thucydides (l. i.) "in their primitive state, as well as the contemporary barbarians, who inhabited the sea-coasts and islands, addicted themselves wholly to it: it was, in short, their only profession and support." The writings of Homer are sufficient to establish this account; as they shew that this was a common practice at so early a period as that of the Trojan war. The reputation which piracy seems to have acquired among the ancients, was owing to the skill, strength, agility, and valour, which were necessary for conducting it with success; and the erroneous notions that were thus entertained concerning it led to other consequences immediately connected with the slavery of the human species. Avarice and ambition availed themselves of these mistaken notions; and people were robbed, stolen, and even murdered, under the pretended idea that these were reputable adventures. But in proportion as men's sentiments and manners became more refined, the practice of piracy lost its reputation, and began gradually to disappear. The practice, however, was found to be lucrative; and it was continued, with a view to the emolument attending it, long after it ceased to be thought honourable, and when it was sinking into disgrace. The profits arising from the sale of slaves presented a temptation which avarice and interest could not resist; many were stolen by their own countrymen, and sold for slaves; and merchants traded on the different coasts in order to facilitate the disposal of this article of commerce. The merchants of Thessaly, if we may credit Aristophanes, (Plut. Act ii. Sc. 5.) who never spared the vices of the times, were particularly infamous for this latter kind of depredation; the Athenians were notorious for the former; for they had practised these robberies to such an alarming degree of danger to individuals, that it was found necessary to enact a law, which punished kidnappers with death. From the above statement it appears, that among the ancients there were two classes of involuntary slaves; one consisting of those who were taken publicly in a state of war; and another composed of those who were privately stolen in a state of peace. To which might be added a third class, comprehending the children and descendants of the former.

The

The condition of slaves, and their personal treatment, were sufficiently humiliating and grievous; and may well excite our pity and abhorrence. They were beaten, starved, tortured, and murdered at discretion; they were dead in a civil sense; they had neither name nor tribe: they were incapable of judicial process; and they were, in short without appeal. To this cruel treatment, however, there were some exceptions. The Egyptian slave, though perhaps a greater drudge than any other, yet if he had time to reach the temple of Hercules (Herodotus, l. ii. 143.), found a certain retreat from the persecution of his master; and he derived additional comfort from the reflection that his life could not be taken with impunity. But no place was so favourable to slaves as Athens when declining. Here they were allowed a greater liberty of speech; they had their convivial meetings, their amours, their hours of relaxation, pleasantries, and mirth; they were treated in such a manner as to warrant the observation of Demosthenes, in his second Philippic, "that the condition of a slave at Athens was preferable to that of a free citizen in many other countries." And here, if persecution exceeded the bounds of lenity, they had their temple, like the Egyptian, for refuge; where the legislature was so attentive, as to examine their complaints, and to order them, if these were founded in justice, to be sold to another master. Besides, they were allowed an opportunity of working for themselves; and if their diligence had procured them a sum equivalent to their ransom, they could immediately, on paying it down, demand their freedom for ever. To this privilege Plautus alludes, in his "Casina," where he introduces a slave, speaking in the following manner:

"Quid tu me vero libertate territas?
Quod si tu nolis, filiusque etiam tuus
Vobis invitis, atque amborum ingratiis,
Una libella liber possum fieri."

Thus we find to the eternal honour of Egypt and Athens, that they were the only places, if we except the cities of the Jews, where slaves were considered with any humanity at all. The inhabitants of all other parts of the world seemed to vie with each other in the debasement and oppression of these unfortunate people.

This commerce of the human species, which produced so pernicious an effect on the nature and state of man, commenced at a very early period. The history of Joseph, recorded in the book of Genesis, leads us to a very remote era for the introduction of this nefarious traffic. In his time it seems to have been prevalent, and to have been carried on in a manner, that sufficiently indicated its having been long before established. Egypt seems to have been at this time the principal, as it was probably the first market for the sale of the human species. It was, indeed, so famous, as to have been known, within a few centuries from the time of Pharaoh, both to the Grecian colonies in Asia, and the Grecian islands. Homer mentions Cyprus and Egypt as the common markets for slaves, about the time of the Trojan war. (Odys. l. xvii. 448. l. xxvi.) Egypt is also represented, as we have already intimated, in the book of Genesis, as a market for slaves, and in Exodus (ch. i.) as famous for the severity of its servitude. Homer also, in the place above cited, points out to us Egypt as a market for the human species, and by the epithet of "bitter Egypt," alludes in the strongest manner to that severity and rigour, of which the sacred historian transmitted to us the first account. The Odyssey of Homer shews farther, that this species of traffic was practised in many of the islands of the Ægean sea; and the Iliad informs us, that it had taken place among those Grecians on the continent of Europe, who had embarked from thence on the Trojan expedition. To this purpose, at the end of the seventh book, a fleet is described, as having just arrived from Lemnos, with a supply of wine for the Grecian camp. The merchants are described also, as immediately exposing it to sale, and as receiving in exchange, among other articles of barter, "a number of slaves." Tyre and Sidon, as we learn from the book of Joel, ch. iii. 3, 4, 6, were notorious for the

prosecution of this trade. This custom appears also to have existed among other states; it travelled all over Asia; it spread through the Grecian and Roman world; it was in use among the barbarous nations, which overturned the Roman empire; and was therefore practised, at the same period, throughout the whole of Europe. However, as the northern nations were settled in their conquests, the slavery and commerce of the human species began to decline, and on their full establishment they were abolished. Some writers have ascribed their decline and abolition to the prevalence of the feudal system; whilst others, much more numerous, and with less strength of argument, have maintained, that they were the natural effects of Christianity. The advocates of the former opinion allege, that "the multitude of little states, which sprung up from one great one at this era, occasioned infinite bickerings and matter for contention. There was not a state or seignior, which did not want all the hands they could muster, either to defend their own right, or to dispute that of their neighbours. Thus every man was taken into the service: whom they armed they must trust: and there could be no trust but in free men. Thus the barrier between the two natures was thrown down, and slavery was no more heard of in the west."

Within two centuries after the suppression of slavery in Europe, the Portuguese, in imitation of those piracies which existed in the uncivilized ages of the world, made their descents on Africa, and committing depredations on the coast, first carried the wretched inhabitants into slavery. This practice, thus inconsiderable at its commencement, became general; and our own ancestors, together with the Spaniards, French, and most of the maritime powers of Europe, soon followed the piratical example: and thus did the Europeans, to their eternal infamy, revive a custom, which their own ancestors had so lately exploded, from a consciousness of its impiety. The unfortunate Africans fled from the coast, and sought, in the interior part of the country, a retreat from the persecution of their invaders; but the Europeans still pursued them; they entered their rivers, sailed up into the heart of the country, surprised the Africans in their recesses, and carried them into slavery. The next step, which the Europeans found it necessary to take, was that of settling in the country; of securing themselves by fortified posts; of changing their system of force into that of pretended liberality; and of opening, by every species of bribery and corruption, a communication with the natives. Accordingly they erected their forts and factories; landed their merchandize; and endeavoured, by a peaceable deportment, by presents, and by every appearance of munificence, to allure the attachment and confidence of the Africans.

The Portuguese erected their first fort at D'Elmina, in the year 1481, about 40 years after Alonzo Gonzales had pointed out to his countrymen the southern Africans as articles of commerce.

The scheme succeeded: an intercourse took place between the Europeans and Africans, attended with a confidence highly favourable to the views of ambition and avarice. In order to render this intercourse permanent as well as lucrative, the Europeans having discovered the chiefs of the African tribes, paid their court to these; and at length a treaty of peace and commerce was concluded; in which it was agreed, that the kings, on their part, should, from this period, sentence prisoners of war and convicts to European servitude; and that the Europeans should supply them, in return, with the luxuries of the north. This agreement immediately took place, and laid the foundation of that horrible commerce, which is not yet abolished.

As if this trade were not in itself sufficiently criminal, its abettors added to it hypocrisy—the ostensible reason for introducing the Africans, in particular, as labourers into the newly discovered parts of the western world, and placing them under European masters, being *the duty of converting the heathen*. A system of severity sprung up, as it related to their treatment, which became by degrees still

more cruel and degrading; so that when in after-times the situation of master and slave came to be viewed, as it existed in practice between the two, the masters seemed to have attained the rank of monarchs, and the slaves to have gone down to the condition of brutes. Hence, very early after the commencement of the slave-trade, the objects of it began to be considered as an inferior species, and even their very colour as a mark of it. "The punishments for crimes of slaves," says Sloane (1707), "are usually, for rebellions, burning them, by nailing them down on the ground with crooked sticks on every limb, and then applying the fire by degrees from the feet and hands, burning them gradually up to the head, whereby their pains are extravagant. For crimes of a lesser nature, gelding, or chopping off half of the foot with an axe. These punishments are suffered by them with great constancy." The author proceeds as coolly to describe "usual" whipping and other punishments, and concludes thus. "After they are whipped till they are raw, some put on their skins pepper and salt, to make them smart; at other times their masters will drop melted wax on their skins, and use several very exquisite torments. These punishments are sometimes merited by the blacks, who are a very perverse generation of people; and though they appear harsh, yet are scarce equal to some of their crimes, and inferior to what punishments other European nations inflict on their slaves in the East Indies, as may be seen by Moquet, and other travellers." They continued to be transported for years and years, till different persons, taking an interest in their sufferings, produced such an union of public sentiment in their favour in England, that the parliament there were obliged, as it were, to consider their case, by hearing evidence upon it. It is from this evidence, as from the highest authority, which was heard in the years 1791 and 1792, that we shall chiefly give our account of the trade in question.

The treaty to which we have referred, stipulated to supply the Europeans with captives and convicts; but these were not sufficient for their demand, on the establishment of their western colonies. In order, therefore, to augment the number, not only those who were fairly convicted of offences, were now sentenced to servitude, but even those who were suspected; and with regard to prisoners of war, they delivered into slavery not only those who were taken in a state of public enmity and injustice, but those also who, conscious of no injury whatever, were taken in the arbitrary skirmishes of the venal sovereigns of Africa. Wars were made, not as formerly, from motives of retaliation and defence, but for the sake of obtaining prisoners alone, and the advantages resulting from the sale of them. When an European ship came in sight, this was considered as a motive for war, and a signal for the commencement of hostilities. The despotic sovereigns of Africa, influenced by the venal motives of European traffic, first made war upon the neighbouring tribes, in the violation of every principle of justice; and if they did not thus succeed in their main object, they turned their arms against their own subjects. The first villages at which they arrived were immediately surrounded, and afterwards set on fire; and the wretched inhabitants seized, as they were escaping from the flames. These, consisting of whole families, fathers, brothers, husbands, wives, and children, were instantly driven in chains to the merchants, and consigned to slavery. Many other persons were kidnapped, in order to glut the avarice of their own countrymen, who lay in wait for them; and they were afterwards sold to the European merchants: while the seamen of the different ships, by every possible artifice, enticed others on board, and transported them to the regions of servitude.

The collectors of slaves were distributed into several classes. The first consisted of such black traders as preserved a regular chain of traffic, and a regular communication with each other, from the interior parts of the country to the sea-shore. Many of the slaves thus driven down, are reported to have travelled at least 1200 miles from the place where they were first purchased. A pistol or a sword

may have been the full value of one of these slaves, at the first cost; but this price advances, as he travels towards the sea-shore. The second class of slave-traders is composed of such as travel inland, but have no chain of commerce or communication with the shore. At a certain distance they strike off in a line parallel to the shore, and visiting the fairs and villages in their way, drop down occasionally to the coast, as they have procured slaves. The third class consists of such as travel by water up the great rivers, in their canoes, which are very long, well-armed, and carry from 50 to 70 hands. These often proceed to the distance of 1000 miles, and bring down from 60 to 120 slaves at a time. The fourth class includes those who, living near the banks of the rivers, or the sea-shore, scarcely travel at all, but coming by some means or other into the possession of slaves, either drive them, or send them immediately to the ships and factories. Most of the traders now described traffic on their own account; but there are some of the poorer sort, who travel for the ships. The different sorts of goods, with which the traders deal for slaves in the inland country, may be divided into three sorts, viz., East Indian, home-made or colonial, and Venetian. The first consists of cowries, or small shells, which pass for money on some parts of the coast; blue and white bafis, romals, bandanoes, and other cloths and productions of the East. The second consists of bar-iron, muskets, powder, swords, pans and other hardware; cottons, linens, spirits in great abundance, with other articles of less note. The third consists totally of beads. Almost every ship carries the three sorts of articles now stated, but more or less of one than of the other, according to the place of her destination; every different part of the coast requiring a different assortment, and the Africans, like the Europeans, repeatedly changing their taste. This is particularly the case with respect to beads. The same kind of beads, which finds a market one year in one part of the coast, will probably not be saleable there the next. At one time the green are preferred to the yellow, at another the opaque to the transparent, and at another the oval to the round.

The slave-trade, at the time of its subsistence, may be said to have begun at the great river Senegal, and to extend to the farther limits of Angola, a distance of many thousand miles. On the rivers Senegal and Gambia, the Europeans proceed in their ships till they come to a proper station, and then send out their boats armed to different villages; and on their approach to them, fire a musket, or beat a drum, to apprise the inhabitants that they are in want of slaves. The country people supply them in part, and they also procure them from the large canoes above mentioned.

The Moors, who inhabit the left bank of the river Senegal, are notorious for depredations of this sort. They cross the river without any previous provocation, and make war upon those on the other side of it, and bring them in as prisoners, and sell them at Fort St. Louis for slaves. Mr. Kiernan has seen the remains of villages, which they had broken up in such expeditions.

Captains Hills and Wilson, and Mr. Wadstrom, and Lieutenant Dalrymple, and other more recent travellers, inform us, that the kings in this part of the country do not hesitate to make war upon their own subjects, when in want of money. They send out their soldiers in the night, who lying before, or attacking or burning a village, seize such as come out of it, and return with them as slaves.

On the river Sierra Leona there were several private factories, belonging to the merchants of Europe, in which their agents, being white people, resided. These agents kept a number of boats, which were sent up the river for slaves; and thus they procured for the factories a regular supply.

On the Windward Coast, which reaches from Cape Mount to Cape Palmas, the natives, when they have any slaves to sell, generally signify it by fires. Practices similar to those already recited prevail from the river Gambia to the end of the Windward Coast. Lieutenant Storey says, that public robbery is here called war. Mr. Bowman, another evidence,

dence, says, that when parties of robbers were setting fire to villages, war was said to be carrying on. This account is confirmed by Mr. Town and Sir George Young, and all of them concur in stating, that these parties go out at night, break up villages, and carry off the inhabitants as slaves. Messrs. Town, Bowman and Storey, have seen them set out upon such expeditions; and the latter, to satisfy himself, accompanied them on one occasion. These came to a town in the dead of the night, set fire to it, and took away many of the inhabitants. The above practice is so common, that both up the river Scassus, Sierra Leona and Junk, and at Cape Mount and Bassau, the remains of burnt and deserted villages are to be seen, on which such attacks have been made, and that the natives are found to be constantly armed. In one of the towns, two or three houses only are described to have been left standing, and two plantations of rice, which were ready for cutting down, but which the inhabitants, by being carried off, had been deprived of enjoying. Lieutenant Simpson, of the royal marines, another evidence, understood that the villages on the Windward Coast were always at war; and the reason given was, that the kings were in want of slaves. Mr. Morley, another evidence, speaks in the same language. Slaves, he says, are generally made by robbers going from village to village in the night.

The Gold Coast, which is next to the Windward Coast, presents us with the same melancholy scene. The Rev. Mr. Quakoo, who had resided as chaplain to one of the factories there for many years, informed Lieutenant Simpson that wars were often made for the sole purpose of making slaves. Dr. Trotter says, by prisoners of war, the traders mean such as are carried off by robbers, who ravage the country for that purpose; the Bush-men making war to make trade, being a common way of speaking among them; and in a large cargo of slaves, he could only recollect three who had not been so obtained. Surgeon Falconbridge defines the term war, when used by the slave-dealers on this part of the coast, to mean a piratical expedition for making slaves. Mr. Morley says, what they call war, is putting the villages in confusion, and catching the inhabitants, whom they carry down to the coast and sell, where, it is well known, no questions are asked how they had been obtained. Indeed, a slave-captain, when examined by the House of Commons, acknowledged, that he believed a captain would be reckoned a fool by any trading man, to whom he should put such a question. And Mr. Marsh, the resident at Cape Coast Castle, told Mr. How, that he did not care how the slaves he purchased had been obtained; and shewed him instruments which were put into the slaves' mouths, to prevent their crying out for assistance, while the robbers were conveying them through the country.

From the end of the Gold Coast to the extremity of Angola, which is the boundary of the slave-trade, and which vast district comprehends many navigable rivers, we are shocked by the repetition of the same atrocious practices. Here, as before, going to town in the night, setting them on fire, and seizing the people, or putting the villages in confusion, and catching the inhabitants, are called war. These piratical expeditions are frequently made by water in these parts. Mr. Douglass says, when a slave-ship arrives, the king sends his war-canoes up the river, where they surprise and seize all they can. Surgeon Falconbridge, Mr. Morley and Mr. Isaac Parker, confirm the account. Up the great rivers Bonny and Calabar the king sends fleets of canoes, with armed men, which return with slaves. Mr. I. Parker was twice up the river Calabar in one of these fleets, and perhaps the only white person who was ever permitted to go with them. In the day-time, he says, when they approached a village, they lay under the bushes; but at night flew up to it, and seized every one they could catch. In this way they proceeded up the river, till they had gotten forty-five persons, which they brought back to New Town, and sold to the European ships. About a fortnight afterwards, he was allowed to accompany them on another expedition. Here, he says, they plundered other villages

higher up the river than before, taking, men, women and children, as they could catch them in their huts. They seized on much the same number, and brought them to New Town, as before.

On the Gold Coast, a vessel seeking slaves, generally anchors at Annamaboe. A certain quantity of gold must be included in the articles designed for purchasing slaves, or else none can be obtained. At Whidah, Bonny, Calabar, Benin and Angola, gold is not demanded in exchange; and boats are unnecessary, except for reaching the shore, wooding and watering, and services of a similar kind. This is particularly the case at Calabar and Bonny, which have been the greatest markets for slaves. The traders of the first class, after an absence of about nine days, have returned frequently with 1500 or 2000 slaves at a time.

The number of slaves that have been annually transported from the African coast has fluctuated according to circumstances. In the year 1768, 104,000 natives of Africa were taken from their own continent; and it continued much the same for the next five years. During the American war it was diminished. In the year 1786 the numbers may be stated at 100,000, and the ships that conveyed them to the colonies at 350. The trade, before the abolition, was confined to the English, Dutch, Danes, Portuguese and French. England, in 1786, employed 130 ships, and carried off about 42,000 slaves. These were fitted out from the ports of London, Bristol and Liverpool; the latter of which alone sent out 90 vessels.

The unhappy slaves are divided by Mr. Clarkson into seven classes. The most considerable, and that which contains at least half of the whole number transported, consists of kidnapped people. This mode of procuring them includes every species of treachery. Mr. Wadstrom tells us, that at Dakard lived one Ganna, who was a notorious man-stealer, and employed as such by the merchants there. He saw a boy and a woman there in confinement, both of whom had been stolen. The boy had been privately taken from his parents, in the interior part above Cape Rouge; and the woman from her husband and children at Rufisque. He saw afterwards many of the natives, who had been thus taken, brought to Goree. At Sallum the king sent for a poor woman, under pretence of buying her millet, and then seized and sold her. General Rooke, who was governor of Goree, detected three young persons who had been stolen and brought there; and at their request, he sent them back to their friends. The same governor was applied to by three slave-captains, to kidnap one hundred and fifty men, women and children, the king of Cayor's subjects, who had come to Goree in consequence of the friendly intercourse which had subsisted between him and that king. He refused, and was much shocked by the proposition; but the captain said, such things had been done by a former governor of the place. Captain Wilson says, that in his time, when he commanded the Racehorse ship of war, such private robberies were frequent on the continent, opposite to Goree. His predecessor, Captain Lacy, had sent one of the natives into the country with dispatches on his Britannic Majesty's account; but the poor man was soon way-laid, seized, and sold. Captain Wilson rescued him afterwards from the hold of a slave-vessel, where his life had been endangered by the inhumanity of the French captain. So generally prevalent were these robberies, that they were acknowledged by all. It was the first principle of the natives, never to go out unarmed while a slave-vessel was upon the coast, for fear of being stolen.

The second order of slaves, and that not inconsiderable, consists of those whose villages have been depopulated for obtaining them. The third class consists of such as are said to have been convicted of crimes. Captain Wilson says, that such as are sold on this account are sold for the benefit of their kings or judges. On asking king Damel's officer, who had brought down a culprit for sale, whether the man was guilty of the crime imputed to him, he was answered by the officer, that this was of no consequence. Mr. Town says, it is not uncommon to impute crimes falsely, or to

bring on palavers, that is, accusations or trials, in order to make slaves. Mr. Morley remembers a woman sold on pretence of adultery at Old Calabar; and in the river Ambris, says Mr. Falconbridge, a king's officer wanting brandy and other goods, but having no slave with which to purchase them, accuses a man of extortion in the sale of his fish, and after a summary trial on the spot, procures him to be condemned and sold.

The fourth class includes prisoners of war; being either such as are the produce of wars that have originated in common causes; or such as have been supplied by wars made solely for the purpose of obtaining them. The fifth class comprehends those who are slaves by birth. Some traders on the coast, it is said, who have slaves in their possession, make a practice of breeding from those, for the purpose of selling to others. After having been brought up to a certain age, they are reckoned saleable. The sixth class is composed of those, who have sacrificed their liberty to gaming. The seventh and last class consists of those, who, having run into debt are seized according to the laws of the country, and sold to their creditors. The two last classes are very inconsideable, and scarcely deserve mention.

Having lost their liberty in one or other of the ways now described, they are conveyed to the banks of the rivers, or to the sea-coast. Some are found to have belonged to the neighbourhood; others to have lived farther up the country; and others in very distant parts. It has been calculated, that some of the latter have been brought 1000 miles from their homes. Of those who come from a distance, many have travelled by water, many have been made to walk also over land. These march in droves, or cauffles, as they are called. They are secured from rising or running away, by pieces of wood, which, attach the necks of two and two together; or by other pieces, which are fastened by staples to their arms. They are made to carry their own water and provisions, and some of them elephants' teeth, and other commodities, which their masters may have picked up on their route. They are watched and followed by drivers, who make the weak keep up with the strong. As they pass through different places, others, who have been reduced to slavery in a similar manner, are purchased, and added to the cauffle. Many in these cauffles speak different languages, and cannot at all understand one another.

When they reach the banks of the rivers on the coast, they are offered for sale: some to land factories, or depôts kept for that purpose by the Europeans; others, where the rivers are small and shallow, to ships' boats and tenders, which are constantly plying about to purchase them; and others immediately to the ships themselves. In the rivers Senegal and Gambia, from ten to forty are brought down at a time; in the rivers Bonny and Calabar, from a thousand to fifteen hundred; and on the Windward Coast, perhaps a solitary individual, or only two or three at a time; so that slaving, as it is called, is very tedious in that quarter. All those who are thus offered for sale, undergo previous examination by a surgeon; and none are taken but such as are free from disorder, and in the prime of life. Indeed 25 years of age is the standard, beyond which the purchasers do not like to take them. In making their bargains, the goods as well as the slaves are valued by a medium, which is known to the parties concerned.

When the slaves are conveyed to the shore, they are carried in boats to the different ships whose captains have purchased them. The men are immediately confined two and two together, either by the neck, leg or arm, with fetters of solid iron. They are then put into their apartments; the men occupying the fore-part, the women the after-part, and the boys the middle of the vessel. The tops of these apartments are grated for the admission of light and air, and they are stowed like any other lumber, occupying such quantity of room as has been allotted to them. Many of them, whilst the ships are waiting for their full lading, and whilst they are near their native shore, from which they are to be separated for ever, have manifested great appearance of oppression and distress; and in some cases have re-

curred, for relief, to suicide; others have been affected with delirium and madness; others, again, have been actuated by a spirit of revenge, and have resolved on punishing their oppressors at the hazard of their own lives. In the day-time, if the weather be fine, they are brought upon deck for air. They are placed in a long row of two and two together, on each side of the ship; a long chain is then made to pass through the shackles of each pair, by which means each row is at once secured to the deck. In this state they take their meals, which consist chiefly of horse-beans, rice and yams, with a little palm-oil and pepper.

When the number of slaves is completed, the ships weigh anchor, and begin what is termed the *Middle* passage, to carry them to their respective colonies. The vessels in which they are transported are of different dimensions, from 11 to 800 tons, and they carry from 30 to 1500 slaves at a time. The height of the apartments is different, according to the size of the vessel, but may be stated to be from six feet to less than three; so that it is impossible to stand erect in most of the vessels that transport them, and in some scarcely to sit down in the same posture.

When the vessel is full, their situation is truly pitiable. A grown-up person is allowed, in the best regulated ships, but sixteen English inches each in width, two (English) feet eight inches in height, and five feet eleven inches in length. Surgeon Falconbridge declares, that he has known slaves go down apparently in health, and brought up dead in the morning. He once opened one of them surgically, to discover with certainty what was the cause of his death; and found, from the appearance of the thorax and abdomen, that it was from suffocation. He says, that once on going below, he found that twenty of the slaves had fainted. He got them instantly hauled up on deck; but notwithstanding the quickness of his movements on this occasion, two or three of them died. And once, though he was only fifteen minutes in their room below, he became so ill himself, that he could not get up again to the deck without help; and he never was below many minutes together, but his shirt was as wet as if it had been dipt in water. He says, also, that as the slaves, whether well or ill, always lie on the bare planks, the motion of the ship rubs the flesh from the prominent parts of their body, and leaves the bones almost bare. And when the slaves have the flux, which is frequently the case, the whole place becomes covered with blood and mucus like a slaughter-house; and as they are fettered and wedged close together, the utmost disorder arises from endeavours to get to three or four tubs, which are placed among them for necessary purposes: and this disorder is still further increased, by the healthy being not unfrequently chained to the diseased, the dying and the dead. Dr. Trotter, speaking on the same subject, gives us an equal melancholy account. When the scuttles, says he, in the ship's sides, are obliged to be shut in bad weather, the gratings are not sufficient for airing the rooms. He never himself could breathe freely below, unless immediately under the hatchway. He has seen the slaves drawing their breath with all that laborious and anxious effort for life, which are observed in expiring animals, subjected by experiment to foul air, or in the exhausted receiver of an air-pump. He has also seen them when the tarpaulings have been thrown over the gratings, attempting to heave them up, crying out, "We are dying." Most of them have been recovered, by being brought upon deck; but some have perished, and this entirely by suffocation.

During the time that elapses from the slaves being put on board, on the African coast, to the time when the receivers leave the colonies, after having disposed of their cargoes, about one-fifth, or nearer one-fourth of the number put on board are destroyed.

This horrible traffic could not, however, exist long, without exciting hatred and indignation in all those not personally interested in its continuance. The first persons who bore their testimony against the trade in their successive writings

writings up to the year 1787, were, among the poets—Pope, Thomson, Shenstone and Cowper; among the divines—Bishop Warburton, Richard Baxter, Beattie, Wesley, Whitfield, Wakefield and Paley; among the others, were—Montesquieu, Hutchinson, Wallis, Burke, Postlethwaite, Day, Hartley, Millar and Granville Sharp. The last, however, is to be particularly distinguished from the rest; for whereas the others had only handed down the traffic in question as infamous, by the mention made of it in their respective works, this good man spent whole years in bringing the cruelty and wickedness of it into public notice. He tried, at his own expence, the famous case of Somerset, and several others, in our courts of law. He was, in fact, the first labourer in the cause. He began to be the public advocate of the oppressed Africans in 1765, and was waiting for opportunities for farther exertion, when he died. See SHARP.

Next the Quakers in England passed a public censure upon the traffic at their yearly meeting in London, in 1727. This they followed up, by other resolutions as a body, in 1758, 1761, 1763 and 1772, when they had become inveterate against it as against a crime of the deepest dye: In 1783 they petitioned parliament against its continuance. In this year certain members of the society thought it their duty to make their fellow countrymen at large acquainted with the horrible nature of it: these were, Thomas Knowles, George Harrison, Samuel Hoare, John Lloyd, Joseph Woods, and William Dillwyn. They formed themselves into a committee in London for this purpose; they wrote and circulated books; they conveyed also information on the subject through the London and country newspapers. It was not known, however, from whom the information came, as their names were concealed from the public. In this manner they continued to work their way from 1783 to 1787.

Next came the Quakers and others in North America. The Quakers there entertained the same opinion as their brethren in England on this subject. In 1696 and in 1711, they condemned, as a religious body, this cruel traffic; and in 1754, 1755, 1774, 1776 and 1778, they not only passed resolutions against it, as far as their own members were concerned, but also against slavery itself. In process of time, however, individuals rose up out of this benevolent body, and became public labourers in the cause of the unhappy Africans. The two principal of these were John Woolman and Anthony Benezet. The former travelled many hundred miles on foot, to converse with planters and others, on the iniquity of holding their fellow creatures in bondage; and the latter laboured for years in collecting information concerning Africa and the slave trade, and in handing it to the world. At this time other people, of other religious denominations, came forward in North America, and contributed to increase the odium which the Quakers had been the first to excite there against the traffic; when, in 1774, James Pemberton, a pious Quaker in Pennsylvania, and Dr. Rush, an eminent physician, and a man of weight among the Presbyterians in the same province, formed a committee, in which persons of different religious sects joined for the purpose of abolishing both the slave-trade and slavery on their own continent. This committee was obliged to suspend its operations during the war with Great Britain, but afterwards resumed its functions. In 1787 it added considerably to its numbers, and took in, among others, the celebrated Dr. Franklin, who was its first president in its renovated state.

Our limits do not permit us to introduce to our readers all the numerous and ardent supporters of the abolition of the slave-trade. Independent of all the liberal party in England, France and America, large numbers of methodists and other religionists took up the cause with an enthusiasm that was astonishing. Mr. Clarkson especially deserves commemoration. After travelling to all the slave ports, obtaining, at incredible pains, histories of the voyages of the slave-ships, specimens of handcuffs, models of the construction of the vessels, &c., for the purpose of bringing the horrible details before the House of Commons, he proceeded to re-

duce to a legible form the whole mass of evidence, and published it. Not content with this, he actually set forth to wait personally upon every person in every county in the kingdom, to whom the book had been sent, to get others of the town or neighbourhood to meet him there, to converse with them on the subject, to treat their individual perusal of the abridgment, and their united efforts in lending it out judiciously, and in seeing that it was read, and he travelled 6000 miles in the execution of this plan.

At length the public mind having been brought to the due pitch of excitement, Mr. Wilberforce introduced the question into the Commons. This was on the 2d of April, 1792. After a speech of four hours, during which he added a profusion of new light to the subject, and during which he endeavoured, in the most mild and persuasive manner, to do away objections and prejudices, he moved, "That it is the opinion of this house that the African slave-trade ought to be abolished." Two divisions took place. In the first, there were 193 votes for gradual abolition, and 125 for immediate; and in the second, there were 230 for gradual, and 85 for no abolition at all. In this state the question was left till the 23d of April, when Mr. Dundas (afterwards Lord Melville) came forward and proposed a plan conformable with the resolutions of the house, that eight years should be allowed the planters to stock themselves with negroes, and therefore moved that the year 1800 should be the epoch, after which no more slaves should be imported from Africa in British vessels to the West Indies. This gradual abolition was agreed upon for 1796, and a committee of the Commons carried the resolution to the Lords. On the 8th of May the Lords met to consider it, but agreed to hear new evidence.

Nothing could be more distressing than this; first, because there was no saying how many years the hearing of the evidence might take; and secondly, because the abolitionists had the laborious work to do over again, of finding out and keeping up a respectable body of witnesses on their own side of the question. In 1793, the only step taken was bringing before it its own vote of the former year, by which the slave-trade was to be abolished in 1796, in order that this vote might be re-considered and renewed. Accordingly Mr. Wilberforce moved the house upon the subject. It is only necessary to state, that his motion was most furiously opposed, and actually lost by a majority of 61 to 53. By this determination the Commons actually refused to sanction their own vote. Mr. Wilberforce was not dismayed. In the month of May, he moved for leave to bring in a bill to abolish that part of the trade by which the British merchants supplied foreigners with slaves. His motion was carried, but only by a majority of 7; and, on the third reading, it was lost by a majority of 31 to 29! During all this time the examination of witnesses had been going on in the House of Lords. Only seven witnesses, however, had been heard there in the course of the whole session.

After this most cruel session, the abolitionists were at a loss how to act for the advantage of their cause. One measure, however, was obviously necessary, viz., to endeavour to keep up a respectable body of evidence to oppose that which should be heard against the abolition in the Lords. For this purpose, Mr. Clarkson, at the request of the committee, once more traversed the kingdom. He began his journey in September, and returned in February, 1794. Mr. Wilberforce, in the interim, moved in the Commons for leave to renew his former bill for the abolition of the foreign slave-trade, as carried on by British subjects. He carried it, though with great difficulty, in all its stages, through the House of Commons; but it was almost directly lost in the House of Lords.

The question was now in a very desperate state, for if the House of Commons would not renew its own resolution, and if the Lords would not abolish even the foreign part of the slave-trade, what hope was there of success? But neither were Mr. Wilberforce nor the committee to be deterred by the prospect. Accordingly this gentleman moved in the Commons, in the session of 1795, for leave to bring in a bill for

for the abolition of the slave-trade. This motion was now necessary, and justifiable on that account, if the trade, according to a former resolution of that house, was to cease in 1796; but it was lost by a small majority.

In the session of 1796, Mr. Wilberforce resolved upon trying the question again, but in an entirely new form. He moved that the slave-trade be abolished in a limited time, but without assigning to its duration any specific date. He wished the house to agree to this as a general principle. After much opposition the principle was acknowledged; but when, in consequence of this acknowledgment of it, he brought in a bill, and attempted to introduce into one of the clauses the year 1797, as the period when the trade should cease, he lost it by a majority of 74 to 70.

He judged it prudent, after mature consideration, to let the session of 1797 pass without any parliamentary notice of the subject, but in that of 1798 he renewed his motion for abolition in a limited time. This, however, met with the same fate as the former.

In 1799, he tried the same motion again, when there appeared for it 74, and against it 82 votes. Soon after, Mr. Henry Thornton brought in a bill, at his request, to abolish a small part of the slave-trade. It may be remembered, that a colony had been established at Sierra Leona, to promote agriculture and a new species of commerce in its neighbourhood. Now, while the slave-trade was carried on all around it, it was found that these objects could be but little advanced. The bill, therefore, of Mr. Thornton, went only so far as to say that the slave-trade should not be carried on within a certain distance of that colony. This bill was carried through the Commons, but though it only asked that an infant establishment, founded on the principles of liberty, and this by parliamentary sanction, should be protected from the ravages of the slave-trade, it was lost in the House of Lords. This latter circumstance was indeed truly disheartening; yet amidst the clouds which darkened the horizon, one gleam of hope appeared; for the question had been so argued, so sifted, and put into such various lights, that it began now to be understood. The consequence was, that conviction flashed upon many, among whom were three planters, Mr. Ellis, Mr. Barham, and Mr. Vaughan. These gentlemen had the candour to rise up in the House of Commons, and express themselves in favour of the abolition, in one of the last debates.

The question had been now tried and lost in almost every possible shape; Mr. Wilberforce and the committee, therefore, suffered the years 1800, 1801, 1802 and 1803, to pass over without noticing it. In 1804, in consequence of the union with Ireland, a great number of Irish members, who were friends to the negroes, were added to the British parliament. Mr. Wilberforce, therefore, under these circumstances, asked leave to renew his bill for the abolition of the slave-trade within a limited time. This motion was as violently opposed as any of the former, but was carried at length in a very handsome manner: no less than 124 divided in favour of it, and but 49 against it. The bill was opposed in its second reading, for which however there were 100, and against it but 42. When a motion was made for going into a committee it was opposed, but carried by a majority of 69 to 36. It was taken up to the Lords, but on a motion by Lord Hawkesbury (now Earl Liverpool) the discussion there was put off till next session.

In the session of 1805, Mr. Wilberforce renewed his former motion. Leave was at length given him to bring in the bill, but not till after a most furious opposition. On the second reading of it an amendment was proposed, viz., to put it off to that day six months. This amendment was carried by a majority of 77 to 70.

On the 31st of March, 1806, this great question was ushered again into parliament, but under new auspices, namely, under the *administration* of Lord Grenville and Mr. Fox. It was thought proper that Mr. Wilberforce should be as it were in the back-ground on this occasion, and that the attorney-general, as a conspicuous officer of the government, should introduce it. The latter accordingly brought in a bill,

one of the objects of which was to prohibit British merchants and British capital from being employed in the foreign slave-trade. This bill passed both houses of parliament, and was therefore the first that dismembered this cruel traffic. In the debate which ensued upon it, it was declared in substance, both by Lord Grenville and Mr. Fox, in their respective houses, that they would do every thing to effect the abolition, and should they succeed in such a noble work, they would regard their success as entailing more true glory on their administration, and more honour and advantage on the country, than any other measure in which they could be engaged. Conformably with this sentiment, Mr. Fox himself, on the 10th of June, in a speech most luminous and pathetic, followed up the victory which had been just gained, by moving a resolution, "that this house, considering the African slave-trade to be contrary to the principles of humanity, justice and policy, will, with all practical expedition, take effectual measures for the abolition of it, in such manner and at such a period as may be deemed most advisable." This motion produced an opposition as before, and an interesting debate. It was supported by Sir Ralph Milbank, Mr. Francis, Sir Samuel Romilly, Mr. Wilberforce, Lord Henry Petty (now Marquis of Lansdown), Sir John Newport, Mr. Canning, and Mr. William Smith. It was carried by a majority of 114 to 15. Mr. Wilberforce directly moved an address to his Majesty, "praying him to direct a negotiation to be entered into, by which foreign powers should be invited to co-operate with his Majesty, in measures to be adopted for the abolition of the African slave-trade." This was also carried, but without a division. On the 24th of June, the Lords met to consider both the resolution and address. A proposition was directly made in that house (in order to create delay), that counsel and evidence should be heard. This, however, was happily over-ruled. The resolution and address were both carried, by a majority of 41 to 20. After this a belief was generally prevalent, that the slave-trade would fall in the next session. This occasioned a fear in the abolitionists, lest it should be carried on in the interim, being, as it were, the last harvest of the merchants, to a tenfold extent, and therefore with tenfold murder and desolation to Africa. It was therefore thought necessary, as the session was about to close, to introduce another bill into parliament, and this as quickly as possible, that no new vessel should be permitted to go to the coast of Africa for slaves. Accordingly a bill to that effect was prepared, and it passed both houses. In the month of October following, after these great and decisive victories, died the Right Honourable Charles James Fox, one of the noblest champions of this noble cause.

The session of 1807 had not long commenced, when the contest was renewed. Lord Grenville judged it expedient, at this particular crisis, to reverse what had been hitherto the order of proceeding, that is, to agitate the question first in the House of Lords. On the 2d of January he presented a bill there, which he called an act for the abolition of the African slave-trade. It was very short; he proposed that it should be printed, and that it should then lie on the table for a while, that it might be maturely considered before it was discussed. On the 4th, no less than four counsel were heard against it. On the 5th the debate commenced. Lord Grenville took a brilliant part in it. He was supported by his Highness the Duke of Gloucester, the Bishop of Durham (Dr. Barrington), the Earls Moira, Selkirk, and Rosslyn, and the Lords Holland, King, and Hood. The bill was at length carried, at four in the morning, by a majority of 100 to 36. On the 10th of February it went to the Commons. On the 20th counsel were heard against it there. On the 23d a debate ensued upon it, on the motion of Lord Viscount Howick (formerly Mr. Grey, and now Lord Grey), who urged the Commons to confirm it. The other speakers in favour of it were Mr. Roscoe, Mr. Fawkes, Mr. Lushington, the Lords Mahon and Milton, Sir Samuel Romilly, Sir John Doyle, Mr. Wilberforce, and Earl Percy; and it was carried by the vast majority of 283 to 16. On the 6th of March the blanks were filled up. It was proposed, first, that no vessel

vessel should clear out for slaves from any port within the British dominions, after the 1st of May following, that is 1807, and that no slave should be landed in the British colonies after the 1st of March, 1808. This and almost every other proposition were opposed, but happily without effect. Suffice it to say, that on the 18th the bill, with the blanks filled up, was carried back to the Lords; that in consequence of various amendments, it passed and re-passed from one house to the other, but always with opposition; that on the 24th it passed both houses; and that on the 25th, at half past eleven in the morning, it received the royal assent. Thus passed, after a twenty years' hard struggle, during which the field had been disputed inch by inch, and won at last by the arms of reason, this magna charta for Africa in Britain, under the administration of Lord Grenville, an administration which, on account of its noble exertions in behalf of the oppressed African race, will pass to posterity, living through successive generations, in the love and gratitude of all the most virtuous of mankind. The news of this great event gave uncommon joy throughout the kingdom, and this joy was farther heightened by authentic news just then received from North America, that the government there had passed a similar bill, which was to be observed as a law through the United States.

In France, on the re-establishment of the Bourbon dynasty, it was proposed to abolish the slave-trade at a distant period. Upon the return of Buonaparte from Elba, an order was issued for its immediate abolition; and a decree to the same purpose was passed after the expulsion of Napoleon, in the reign of Louis XVIII.

The effect of this decree has, however, not gone so far as might be expected in the abolition of the slave-trade. Either from the carelessness or perfidy of the French government, or from the difficulty of restraining capital from taking any direction which is profitable, it is notorious that French ships and French money are but too instrumental in this horrid traffic. A mistaken notion of national honour prevents the French and Americans from allowing the ships we keep engaged in the prevention of the slave-trade, to search their vessels within all latitudes; and the consequence is, that opportunities for smuggling slaves on board are continually offered. Our government has been actively engaged in endeavouring to prevent the slave-trade in every possible way, but it still continues to a distressing extent.

The abolition of the slave-trade is, however, but performing a part of our duty. The utter annihilation of all slavery is imperiously commanded by conscience and reason. That the sordid wretches who oppress Jamaica, and who are removed from the civilization and politeness of the mother country, should in their natural arrogance fancy that they have a right to trample on their fellow-creatures, is not surprising. But that they have met with one unbribed Englishman to uphold their most abhorrent principle is surprising. A Jamaica planter is, generally speaking, so besotted, that he actually fancies a black being of another and inferior genus of animals compared to himself. He really thinks that the term *purity of blood*, which is used here metaphorically as applied to persons of birth, has an actual and literal meaning. He believes it as impossible that a black woman can become a fit consort for a white man, or the mulatto meet on equal terms in science or manners the white, as for a sea-weed to grow on a mountain. He knows nothing, sees nothing, and will hear nothing but his own inexplicable greatness, and the natural deformity, bodily and corporeal, of his unfortunate slave. But how can it happen that any man should so far annul the exercise of his reason, as not to see that to permit slavery is to justify the precedence of might over right; for the hordes of Russia have as just a right to capture this country and to carry us all off into slavery, as we have thus to treat the Indians. No expediency, no interest, nothing short of actual starvation justifies robbery in any nation. What expediency, what interest can then justify us in the eyes of God or of mankind, when we rob a man of his richest property, —his country, his family, and his freedom? The people

of England now feel this truth, and consequently the more cunning of those who live by the wretchedness of their fellow creatures, have shifted their ground. They have shewn that they have so terribly degraded the slaves under their care, that these poor creatures are really unfit for any thing but slavery; that an emancipated negro commonly becomes a drunkard or a thief, and consequently that immediate and universal freedom would be attended with the worst effects. Granting this, the obvious step would be to emancipate all the children and give them a proper education, and to allow no more slaves to be made. But then the planters say they must have *compensation* for the loss of their slaves. That is, the property which is gained by violence is as sacred as if gained by the honestest means. That is as though they should say, "we (or our ancestors, which is the same thing,) stole these slaves; therefore if you take them from us, you should give us an equivalent." This plea would be agreeable to pickpockets and the like class of persons, but the enslavers deny their identity with this class. They say, "some of us have bought land and slaves, trusting to the promises of our government that this property shall not be rendered valueless." Then the reply would be, "You have committed a mistake in your bargains; you should have calculated that no government but an absolute one can promise anything. In free countries, the government of to-day contradicts the government of yesterday. This uncertainty you should have contemplated. To demand compensation because your property is deteriorated by a just act, and one which you ought to have anticipated, is less reasonable than if a merchant should ask compensation of his government for the loss of his cargo by shipwreck."

The preceding question is ever and anon agitated in parliament. The declaimers have here full scope for their displays, while the interested shield themselves under the mask of caution, and, utterly unable to defend the principle of slavery, try to procrastinate its abolition. Amidst the long argumentations of either side, the question, however, lies in a nutshell.—Slavery is unjust. Slavery is also inexpedient, since it does not enrich the mass of the people. Ergo, it should be abolished. So slow, however, is the progress of moral improvement, that one almost sickens at the dreary prospect. Even in America, which boasts so much her freedom, there are slaves; and this to her is perhaps a still greater disgrace than to England, since though the weakness and corruption of our government allows the demon of oppression to walk abroad in our colonies, the general sense of the people have banished it from our own shores.

SLAVE COAST. See GUINEA.

SLAVE FALLS, a cataract of North America, in Winnipeg river: 100 yards wide, and 20 feet high. Lat. 50. 6. N. long. 95. 20. W.

SLAVE LAKE, a lake in the north-west part of North America.

SLAVEBORN, *adj.* Not inheriting liberty.

This vain world—a noble stage,

Where *slave-born* man plays to the scoffing stars.

Drummond.

SLAVELIKE, *adj.* Becoming a slave.

Why this spade? this place?

This *slavelike* habit?

Shakspeare.

SLAVENSK, a small town of the south of European Russia, in the government of Slobodsk-Ukraine; 98 miles east-north-east of Ekaterinoslav. In the neighbourhood are salt lakes and springs.

SLA'VER, *s.* [*saliva*, Lat., *slæfe*, Icel., *glæferion*, Welsh.] Spittle running from the mouth; drivel.

Of all mad creatures, if the learn'd are right,

It is the *slaver* kills, and not the bite.

Pope.

To SLA'VER, *v. n.* To be smeared with spittle.

Should I

Slaver with lips, as common as the stairs

That mount the capitol; join gripes with hands

Made hard with hourly falsehood as with labour.

Shakspeare.

To

To emit spittle.—Miso came with scowling eyes to deliver a *slavering* good-morrow to the two ladies. *Sidney*.

Why must he spatter, spawl, and *slaver* it,
In vain, against the people's fav'rite? *Swift*.

To SLAVER, *v. a.* To smear with drivel.

Twitch'd by the sleeve, he mouths it more and more,
Till with white froth his gown is *slavèr'd* o'er. *Dryden*.

SLA'VERER, *s.* [*slabbaerd*, Dutch; from *slaver*.] One who cannot hold his spittle; a driveller; an idiot.

SLA'VERINGLY, *adv.* With slaver, or drivel. *Cotgrave*.

SLA'VERY, *s.* Servitude; the condition of a slave; the offices of a slave.—If my dissentings were out of error, weakness, or obstinacy, yet no man can think it other than the badge of *slavery*, by savage rudeness and importunate obtrusions of violence to have the mist of his error dispelled. *King Charles*.

SLAUGHAM, a parish of England, in Sussex; 4 miles north-west of Cuckfield. Population 759.

SLAUGHTEN VALE, in England, near Aldborough, Suffolk. There is a considerable fishery here for herrings and sprats.

SLA'UGHTER, *s.* [on'plauzt, Saxon, from *plægan*, *plægan*, to strike or kill.] Massacre; destruction by the sword.

Sinful Macduff,

They were all struck for thee!
Not for their own demerits, but for mine,
Fell *slaughter* on their souls. *Shakespeare*.

To SLA'UGHTER, *v. a.* To massacre; to slay; to kill with the sword.

Your castle is surpriz'd, your wife and babes
Savagely *slaughter'd*. *Shakespeare*.

To kill beasts for the butcher.

SLAUGHTER, UPPER and LOWER, adjoining parishes of England, in Gloucestershire; 3 miles south-west of Stow-on-the-Wold.

SLAUGHTER CREEK, a bay of the United States, on the coast of Maryland, in the Chesapeake.

SLAUGHTER RIVER, a river of North America, which runs into the Missouri; 121 miles below the Great Falls.

SLA'UGHTERER, *s.* One employed in killing.

Thou dost then wrong me; as the *slaughterer* doth,
Which giveth many wounds, when one would kill. *Shakespeare*.

SLAUGHTERFORD, a hamlet of England, in Wiltshire; 5 miles west by north of Chippenham.

SLA'UGHTERHOUSE, *s.* House in which beasts are killed for the butcher.

Away with me, all you whose souls abhor
Th' uncleanly savour of a *slaughterhouse*;
For I am stifled with the smell of sin. *Shakespeare*.

SLA'UGHTERMAN, *s.* One employed in killing.

The mad mothers with their howls-confus'd
Do break the clouds; as did the wives of Jewry,
At Herod's bloody hunting *slaughtermen*. *Shakespeare*.

SLA'UGHTEROUS, *adj.* Destructive; murderous.

I have sapt full with horrors:
Direness familiar to my *slaughterous* thoughts
Cannot once start me. *Shakespeare*.

SLAVIN, a lake of Prussia, in the New Mark of Brandenburg, on the borders of Pomerania.

SLA'VISH, *adj.* Servile; mean; base; dependant.

You have among you many a purchas'd slave,
Which, like your asses, and your dogs and mules,
You use in abject and in *slavish* part,
Because you bought them. *Shakespeare*.

Slavish bards our mutual love rehearse
In lying strains and ignominious verse. *Prior*.

SLA'VISHLY, *adv.* Servilely; meanly.—The nature

of base people is such, as either they obey *slavishly*, or command insolently. *Raleigh*.

SLA'VISHNESS, *s.* Servility; meanness.—Detaining them in more than Egyptian *slavishness*. *Fotherby*.

SLAWATYCZE, a small town of Poland, on the Bog; 105 miles east-south-east of Warsaw.

SLAWKOW, a small town in the south-west of Poland; 26 miles west-north-west of Cracow. Population 1600.

SLAWSTON, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 5½ miles north-east of Market Harborough.

To SLAY, *v. a.* preter. *slew*; part. pass. *slain*. [*slahan*, Gothic; *slahon* German; *plæan*, Saxon; *slaen*, Dutch; *slaa*, Dan. and Icel.] To kill; to butcher; to put to death.

Her father's brother

Would be her lord; or shall I say her uncle?
Or he that *slew* her brothers and her uncle? *Shakespeare*.

SLAY. See SLEY.

SLA'YER, *s.* Killer; murderer; destroyer.

Witness the guiltless blood poured off on ground;
The crowned often slain, the *slayer* crown'd. *Spenser*.

The *slayer* of himself yet saw I there;

The gore congeal'd was clotted in his hair:
With eyes half clos'd and gaping mouth he lay,
And grim as when he breath'd his sullen soul away.

Dryden.

SLEAFORD, NEW, a market town of England, in the county of Lincoln, pleasantly situated on a small rivulet, called the Sleas, which rises in the vicinity, and soon joins the Witham. It is a flourishing town, and is daily improving both in its buildings and population. The church is a handsome and spacious Gothic structure. From a manuscript found in the parish chest, it appears to have been built in the year 1271, by Roger Blunt and Roger Brickham of Sleaford, merchants. It consists of a chancel, nave, transept, and two aisles, with a tower crowned by a spire, which rises to the height of 144 feet. In the chancel are several monuments to the family of Carr, by one of whom a free school was erected and liberally endowed in 1603, and also an hospital for 12 poor men. Opposite the west front of the church is the market place, which is rather small. There was formerly a castle at Sleaford, built in the year 1112 by Alexander, bishop of Lincoln, probably on the site of a Roman castrum. The castle was standing in Leland's time, and is described by him at length. It is now wholly levelled with the ground; many Roman coins have been found here, chiefly of the family of Constantine; and from this and other circumstances, Dr. Stukely conjectures that this was a Roman town. In 1811, Sleaford contained 385 houses, and 1781 inhabitants. Market on Monday, well supplied with provisions of all sorts; 16 miles south of Lincoln, and 116 north of London. Lat. 53. 1. N. long. 0. 13. W.

SLEAFORD, OLD, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire, within a mile of the town of New Sleaford.

SLEAFORD BAY, a bay on the south coast of New Holland.

SLEAT, a parish of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, in the island of Skye; 17 miles long, and from 1 to 3½ broad. Population 1936.

SLEAVE, *s.* [Icel. *slefa*, fila tenuia. *Serenius*.] The ravelled knotty part of the silk. *Heath*.

I on a fountain light,
Whose brim with pinks was platted,
The banks with daffadillies dight
With grass like *slave* was matted. *Drayton*.

To SLEAVE, *v. a.* To separate into threads; to sleid. See To SLEID.—The more subtle, and more hard to *slave* a-two, silken thread of self-seeking, is that dominion over consciences. *Whitlock*.

SLE'AVED, *adj.* Raw; not spun; unwrought.—Eight wild men all apperelled in green moss made with *slaved* silk. *Holinshed*.

SLE'AZY, *adj.* [often written *sleazy*. And also *slasy*.] Weak;

Weak; wanting substance. This seems to be of the same race with *leave*, or from to *sley*. *Dr. Johnson*.—*Sleasy* holland is so called, because made in *Silesia*, in Germany; which from its slighthness, occasions all thin, slight, ill-wrought hollands to be called *sleasy*. *Chambers*.—I cannot well away with such *sleazy* stuff, with such cobweb compositions. *Howell*.

SLEBECK, a parish of Wales, in Pembrokeshire; 6 miles from Narberth.

SLEBEZE, or SLYBZE, a small island in the straits of Sunda. Lat. 5. 54. S. long. 105. 24. E.

SLECK, in Rural Economy, a provincial term applied to the small of pit-coal; also to the black matter of smutty grain.

SLED, *s.* [*slæd*, Danish; *sledde*, Dutch.] A carriage drawn without wheels.

Upon an ivory *sled*

Thou shalt be drawn upon the frozen poles. *Tamburlaine*.

SLEDDALE, LONG, a township of England, in Westmoreland; 8 miles north-by-west of Kendal.

SLEDDALE, WEST, a hamlet in the above county; 5½ miles north-north-west of Orton.

SLEDDDED, *adj.* Mounted on a sled.

So frown'd he once when in an angry parle,
He smote the *sledded* Polack on the ice. *Shakspeare*.

SLEDGE, *s.* [*plæçz*, *plæçz*, Saxon; *sleggia*, Icel.] A large heavy hammer.

They him spying, both with greedy force,

At once upon him ran, and him beset,

With strokes of mortal steel, without remorse,

And on his shield like iron *sledges* bet. *Spenser*.

A carriage without wheels, or with very low wheels; properly a *sled*. See SLED.—In Lancashire they use a sort of *sledge* made with thick wheels, to bring their marl out, and drawn with one horse. *Mortimer*.

SLEDGE ISLAND, a small island in the north Pacific Ocean, close to the north-western shore of the American coast; it is about four leagues in circuit. "The surface of the ground (says Captain Cook), is composed chiefly of large loose stones, that are in many places covered with moss and other vegetables, of which there were above twenty or thirty different sorts, and most of them in flower; but I saw neither shrub nor tree, either upon the island, or on the continent. On a small low spot, near the beach where we landed, was a good deal of wild purslain, pease, long-wort, &c.; some of which we took on board for the pot; we saw one fox, a few plovers, and some other small birds; and we met with some decayed huts that were partly built below ground. People had lately been on the island: and it is pretty clear that they frequently visit it for some purpose or other, as there was a beaten path from the one end to the other. We found a little way from the shore where we landed, a sledge, which occasioned this name being given to the island; it seems to be such a one as the Russians in Kamtschatka make use of to convey goods from place to place, over the ice or snow. It was ten feet long, twenty inches broad, and had a kind of rail-work on each side, and was shod with bone: the construction of it was admirable, and all the parts neatly put together; some with wooden pins, but mostly with thongs or lashings of whalebone, which made me think it was entirely the workmanship of the natives." Lat 64. 30. N. long. 193. 57. E.

SLEDMERE, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles north-west of Great Driffild.

SLEEK, *adj.* [*sleyck* and *slicht*, Teut., planus, from *slechten*, planare. This word was formerly written *slick*, and is still our northern word.]—Smooth; nitid; glossy.

Let me have men about me that are fat,

Sleek-headed men, and such as sleep a-nights. *Shakspeare*.

Not rough; not harsh.

Those rugged names to our like mouths grow *sleek*,
That would have made Quintilian stare and gasp. *Milton*.

SLEEK, *s.* That which makes smooth; varnish. *Not in use*.—My face, which you behold so seeming red, is done over with ladies' licks, *slicks*, and other painting stuff of the Levant. *Transl. of Boecolini*.

To SLEEK, *v. a.* To comb smooth and even.

By dead Parthenope's dear tomb,
And fair Ligea's golden comb,
Wherewith she sits on diamond rocks,
Sleeking her soft alluring locks. *Milton*.

To render soft, smooth or glossy.

Gentle my lord, *sleek* o'er your rugged looks;
Be bright and jovial 'mong your guests to night.

Shakspeare.

SLEKBURN, EAST and WEST, adjoining hamlets of England, in Durham; 6 miles east-south-east of Morpeth.

SLEEK'LY, *adv.* Smoothly; glossily.—Let their heads be *sleekly* combed, and their blue coats brushed. *Shakspeare*.

SLEE'KNES, *s.* Smoothness.—We may live to the spectacle and the bearing-staff, to the stooping back, to the snow or to the *sleekness* of the declining crown: but how few are there that can unfold you a diary of so many leaves! More die in the spring and summer of their years, than live till autumn or their gowned winter. *Feltham*.

SLEE'KSTONE, *s.* A smoothing stone.—The purest pasteboard, with a *sleek-stone* rub smooth, and as even as you can. *Peacham*.

SLEE'KY, *adj.* Of a sleek or smooth appearance.

Sweet, *sleeky* doctor, dear pacific soul!

Lay at the beef, and suck the vital bowl! *Thomson*.

To SLEEP, *v. n.* [*slepan*, Gothic; *slæpan*, Sax., *slaepan*, Dutch. *Dr. Johnson*.—Serenius deduces the word from the Su. Goth., *slapp*, remissus.] To take rest by suspension of the mental and corporeal powers.

I've watch'd and travell'd hard:

Some time I shall *sleep* out; the rest I'll whistle. *Shakspeare*.

To rest; to be motionless.

How sweet the moonlight *sleeps* upon this bank!

Here will we sit, and let the sounds of music

Creep in our ears. *Shakspeare*.

To live thoughtlessly.—We *sleep* over our happiness, and want to be roused into a quick thankful sense of it. *Atterbury*.—To be dead; death being a state from which man will some time awake.—If we believe that Jesus died and rose again, even so them also which *sleep* in Jesus will God bring with him. 1 *Thessal*.—To be inattentive; not vigilant.

Heaven will one day open

The king's eyes, that so long have *slept* upon

This bold, bad man. *Shakspeare*.

To be unnoticed or unattended: as the matter *sleeps*.

See SLEEPING.

SLEEP, *s.* [*slep*, Goth., *slæp*, Sax.] Repose; rest; suspension of the mental and corporeal powers; slumber.

Methought I heard a voice cry, Sleep no more!

Macbeth doth murder *sleep*; the innocent *sleep*;

Sleep that knits up the ravell'd sleeve of care;

The birth of each day's life, sore labour's bath,

Balm of hurt minds, great nature's second course,

Chief nourisher in life's feast. *Shakspeare*.

SLEEPE, a hamlet of England, in Hertfordshire, near St. Albans.

SLEE'PER, *s.* [Sax., *slæpepe*.] One who sleeps; one who is not awake.

Sound, music; come my queen, take hand with me,

And rock the ground whereon these *sleepers* be.

Shakspeare.

A lazy inactive drone.—He must be no great eater, drinker, nor *sleep*, that will discipline his senses, and exert his mind; every worthy undertaking requires both. *Grew*.—

That

That which lies dormant, or without effect.—Let penal laws, if they have been *sleepers* of long, or if grown unfit for the present time, be by wise judges confined in the execution. *Bacon*.—A fish. [*erocatus*.] *Ainsworth*.—[In architecture.] A strip of solid timber (or some substantial substitute) which lies on the ground to support the joist of a floor. *Mason*.—The length of hips and *sleepers*. *Evelyn*.
SLEEPER, in Building, a name used for the oblique rafter, that lies in a gutter.

SLEEPERS, in the Glass Trade, are the large iron bars crossing the smaller ones, and hindering the passage of the coals, but leaving room for the ashes.

SLEEPERS, in Ship-Building, pieces of long compass-timber, fayed and bolted diagonally upon the transoms and timbers adjoining withinside, to strengthen the buttock of the ship. There are from two to three pairs.

SLEEPFUL, *adj.* [Sax. *flappul*. See also SLEEPFULNESS.] Overpowered by desire to sleep.—Distrust will cure a lethargy; of a *sleepful* man it makes a wakeful one, and so keeps out poverty. *Scott*.

SLEEPFULNESS, *s.* [*flappulnī*, Sax. *Lye*.] Strong desire to sleep

SLEEPILY, *adv.* Drowsily; with desire to sleep. Dully; lazily.—I rather chuse to endure the wounds of those darts, which envy casteth at novelty, than to go on safely and *sleepily* in the easy ways of ancient mistakings. *Raleigh*.—Stupidly.—He would make us believe that Luther in these actions pretended to authority, forgetting what he had *sleepily* owned before. *Atterbury*.

SLEEPINESS, *s.* Drowsiness; disposition to sleep; inability to keep awake.—Watchfulness precedes too great *sleepiness*, and is the most ill boding symptom of a fever. *Arbuthnot*

SLEEPING, *s.* The state of resting in sleep. The state of not being disturbed, or noticed.

You ever
Have wish'd the *sleeping* of this business, never
Desir'd it to be stir'd. *Shakspeare*.

SLEEPLESS, *adj.* Wanting sleep; always awake.
The field
To labour calls us, now with sweat impos'd,
Though after *sleepless* night. *Milton*.

SLEEPLESSNESS, *s.* Want of sleep.—Lipsius—conceives an impossibility of an absolute *sleeplessness*. *Bp. Hall*.

SLEEPY, *adj.* Drowsy; disposed to sleep.
From his feet, even, to his *sleepie* head,
She made her poison canker-like to spread. *Mir. for Mag.*
Not awake.

Why did you bring these daggers from the place?
They must lie there. Go, carry them and smear
The *sleepy* grooms with blood. *Shakspeare*.

Soporiferous; somniferous; causing sleep.—We will give you *sleepy* drinks, that your senses unintelligent of our insufficiency, may, though they cannot praise us, as little accuse us. *Shakspeare*.—Dull; lazy.

'Tis not *sleepy* business,
But must be look'd to speedily and strongly. *Shakspeare*.

SLEEPY CREEK, a river of the United States, in North Carolina, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 76. 44. N. long. 76. 44. W.

SLEET, *s.* [perhaps from the Danish, *slet*. Dr. Johnson.—*Sleet* is the past participle *ple-es*, *plees*, *pleet*, of *plean*, Sax. *projicere*; and has no connexion with the Danish *slet*, which means smooth, polished. Mr. H. Tooke, Div. of Purl. ii. 334.—Serenius, however, notices the Dan. *slud*, which means *sleet*; and also the Icel. *sletta*, *liquida dispergere*. The Sax. *plihit*, says Todd, is a shower.] A kind of smooth small hail or snow, not falling in flakes, but single particles.

Now van to van the foremost squadrons meet,
The midmost battles hastening up behind,
Who view, far off, the storm of falling *sleet*,
And hear their thunder rattling in the wind. *Dryden*.

Shower of any thing falling thick.
[They] flying, behind them, shot
Sharp *sleet* of arrowy showers against the face
Of their pursuers. *Milton*.

To SLEET, *v. n.* To snow in small particles intermixed with rain.

SLEETS, in Gunnery, are the parts of a mortar, passing from the chamber to the trunnions, for strengthening that part.

SLEETY, *adj.* Bringing sleet.
The *sleety* storm returning still,
The morning hoar, and evening chill. *Warton*.

SLEEVE, *s.* [*plýf*, Saxon; formerly called *eam-plife*, that with which the arm is covered. The part of a garment that covers the arms.

Once my well-waiting eyes espy'd my treasure,
With *sleeves* turn'd up, loose hair, and breast enlarged,
Her father's corn, moving her fair limbs, measure. *Sidney*.

SLEEVE, in some provinces, signifies a knot or skein of silk, which is by some very probably supposed to be its meaning in the following passage:—Sleep that knits up the ravell'd *sleeve* of care. *Shakspeare*.—To laugh in the *sleeve*. This proverbial phrase Dr. Johnson ascribes to the Dutch *sleeve*, a cover, any thing spread over. It is more likely, as Mr. Bagshaw observes, to be taken from the large sleeves which our countrymen formerly wore, by which they might easily conceal part of the countenance, and so laugh unperceived.—John laughed heartily in his *sleeve* at the pride of the esquire. *Arbuthnot*.—To hang on a *sleeve*; to make dependent. Probably from the custom noticed by Spenser, under the first definition, of wearing a lady's sleeve; which was in token of dependance on her love.—It is not for a man which doth know, or should know what orders, and what peaceable government requireth, to ask why we should hang our judgment upon the church's *sleeve*, and why in matters of orders more than in matters of doctrine. *Hooker*.—[*Lolligo*, Lat.] A fish. *Ainsworth*.

SLEEVED, *adj.* Having sleeves.
SLEEVELESS, *adj.* Wanting sleeves; having no sleeves.

Behold yon isle by palmers, pilgrims trod,
Grave mummers! *sleeveless* some, and shirtless others. *Pope*.

Wanting reasonableness; wanting propriety; wanting solidity. *Obsolete*.—No more but no, a *sleeveless* reason. *Milton*.

To SLEID, *v. a.* To prepare for use in the weaver's *sley*, or *slay*. See To SLEY. *Percy*.

She weav'd the *sleided* silk
With fingers long. *Shakspeare*.

SLEIDAN (John), a celebrated historian, was born in 1506 at Sleidan, a small town at Cologne. He is chiefly known as an author by a work, entitled "De Statu Religionis et Reipublicæ Carolo Quinto Cæsare, Commentaria, Lib. XXV.," which was first published in 1555. It comprehends the history of his own times, from 1517 to the year of its publication, and has always been in great credit among the Protestants; though it has been charged with partiality by Catholic writers, and by the adherents of the emperor Charles. "Much of it," says his biographer, "is extracted from public records, and from the archives of the city of Strasburg, with which he was furnished by his friend J. Sturmius." De Thou speaks of it as a work drawn up "exacta fide et diligentia," and he praises very highly the writer's learning and talents for business. This work has been translated into several modern languages: the French version was made by Le Courayer. Another celebrated

celebrated work of Sleidan's is a compendium of ancient history, entitled "De quatuor Summis Imperiis, Lib. tres," which has gone through a great number of editions. He published likewise a Latin translation of the History of Philip de Comines, and an abridgment of that of Froissart, besides versions of other works on general history and politics.

SLEIGHT, *s.* [Sax. *sl̥ið* or *sl̥iðð*, *deceitful*, whence our *slily*.] Artful trick; cunning artifice; dexterous practice: as, *slight* of hand; the tricks of a juggler. This is often written, but less properly, *slight*.

Upon the corner of the moon,
There hangs a vaporous drop, profound;
I'll catch it ere it come to ground;
And that distill'd by magick *slights*,
Shall raise such artificial sprights,
As, by the strength of their illusion,
Shall draw him on to his confusion.

Shakspeare.

SLEIGHT, *adj.* [*sl̥iðð*, Sax.] Deceitful; artful.

Thus I hurle

My powder'd spells into the spongie air,
Of power to cheat the eye with *slight* illusion.

Milton.

SLEIGHTFUL, *adj.* Artful; cunning.—*Sleightful* otters left the purling rill. *W. Browne.*

SLEIGHTLY, *adv.* Craftily; cunningly. *Huloet.*

SLEIGHTY, *adj.* Crafty; artful. *Huloet.*—Though it [truth] be darkened with men's *slightye* juggling and counterfeit craftes, as it were with certain mists, for a while; yet at the time of God appointed, it bursteth out again, and sheweth itself clerely like the sunne. *Transl. of Bp. Gardiner's De Ver.*

SLEITAL, **LOCH**, a lake of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, noted for its excellent trout.

SLEIVE. See **SLEAVE**.

SLENDER, *adj.* [*slinder*, Dutch.] Thin; small in circumference compared with the length; not thick.

So thick the roses blushing round
About her glow'd; half stooping to support
Each flower of *slender* stalk.

Milton.

: Small in the waist; having a fine shape.

Beauteous Helen shines among the rest,

Tall, *slender*, straight, with all the graces blest:

Dryden.

Not bulky; slight; not strong.

Love in these labyrinths his slaves detains,
And mighty hearts are held in *slender* chains.

Pope.

Small; inconsiderable; weak.

Where joy most revels, grief doth most lament;
Grief joys, joy grieves, on *slender* accident.

Shakspeare.

Sparing; less than enough: as, a *slender* estate and *slender* parts.

At my lodging,

The worst is this, that at so *slender* warning,

You're like to have a thin and *slender* pittance.

Shakspeare.

Not amply supplied.

The good Ostorius often deign'd.

To grace my *slender* table with his presence,

Philips.

In obstructions inflammatory, the aliment ought to be cool, *slender*, thin, diluting. *Arbuthnot.*

SLENDERLY, *adv.* Without bulk; slightly; meanly.

—If the debt be not just, we know not what may be deemed just, neither is it a sum to be *slenderly* regarded. *Hayward.*

SLE'NDERNESS, *s.* Thinness; smallness of circumference.—Small whistles give a sound because of their extreme *slenderness*: the air is more pent than in a wider pipe. *Bacon.*—Want of bulk or strength.—It is preceded by a spitting of blood, occasioned by its acrimony, and too great a projectile motion, with *slenderness* and weakness of the vessels. *Arbuthnot.*—Slightness; weakness; incon-

siderableness.—The *slenderness* of your reasons against the book, together with the inconveniences that must of necessity follow, have procured a great credit unto it. *Whitgift.*—Want of plenty.—As the coarseness of the raiment, so the *slenderness* of the diet, is equally to pretend towards a rigid and austere condition of life. *Gregory.*

SLENINGFORD, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-west of Rippon.

SLENISH MOUNTAINS, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Antrim; 12 miles north-north-east of Antrim.

SLEPE, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire; 5 miles east-by-south of Wareham.

SLEPT. The preterite of *sleep*.

Silence: coeval with eternity,

Thou wert ere nature first began to be,

'Twas one vast nothing all, and all *slapt* fast in thee. *Pope.*

SLESWICK, or **SCHLESSWIG**, a duchy or province of the Danish dominions, which has Jutland to the north, and Holstein to the south, while on the east and west it is bounded by the sea. Its form is oblong: its length is about 72 miles; its breadth, without including the islands to the east or west, varies from 30 to 56 miles. Like Jutland, it has no mountains, and not many elevations entitled to the name of hills. It is consequently not rich in Minerals, but most parts of it are fit for tillage. The products are barley, oats and rye, with comparatively little wheat, hemp, or flax. Sleswick corresponds in latitude to the northern counties of England; also in humidity of climate, rain being produced there frequently by easterly, and still more frequently by westerly winds. The weather is very variable, the atmosphere often cloudy, the extremes of cold and heat seldom intense or of long continuance. Unfortunately great part of the interior is dry and sandy, so that the population (300,000 on the mainland, and 40,000 on the islands), is not large for a surface of 3600 square miles. On the superior soils, the freshness of the pasture is such as, with little skill on the part of an ignorant peasantry, to give a size and strength to the horses and horned cattle, which render them of value to foreigners, and lead to a regular, if not a large export. Butter and cheese are likewise abundant, and form articles of export; sheep have not been improved with equal success, their wool being short and coarse.

The inhabitants of Sleswick are of mixed descent, particularly of Danish, Saxon, and Friesland origin, each speaking their own dialect; but the prevalent languages are German and Danish. The principal river is the Eyder, which, joined to the canal of Kiel affords a direct navigation from the north sea to the Baltic. The chief towns are—

	Population.
Flensborg	15,000
Kiel	7,100
Sleswick	7,000
Tondern	2,600
Tonningen	2,000

Kiel and Tonningen have the benefit of the trade carried on by the canal and the Eyder; Flensborgh is an improving place; but the rest of the country exhibits little activity or increase of productive industry. The chief manufactures, woollen and linen, are carried on not in collective establishments, but in the cottages of the manufacturer. The lace manufactures at Tondern and other places, as well as those of stockings, have suffered by the general introduction of machinery in other countries. Fishing forms a considerable occupation on the coast, as well as in the arms of the sea.

In regard to law, Sleswick, like Holstein, preserves its ancient usages and institutions. The state of the peasantry is here somewhat less backward than in Jutland; but it was only in 1805 that feudal vassalage was definitively abolished. Sleswick has for many centuries been in close connection with Denmark, and governed sometimes directly by the king, at other times as a dependency, by a brother of the reigning sovereign—a separation attended at last with such pretensions

to independency as to determine the Danish government to unite it in 1720, completely and definitively to the crown.

SLESWICK, the capital of the duchy of the same name, is situated in a pleasant country, on the river Sley. It is a long irregular town, containing nearly 7000 inhabitants. The houses are in general of brick, and resemble in neatness those of Dutch towns. The objects of interest are the cathedral, with its altar and the monuments of the princes; the town-house, a neat structure; the orphan-house, the work-house, and the nunnery of St. John; also five churches. Here are manufactures of refined sugar, earthenware, leather, and sail cloth. Its commerce has been considerably improved since rendering the Sley navigable by the aid of a canal. Sleswick is the seat of the chief court of justice, and of the provincial government of the duchies of Sleswick and Holstein. In the 9th century, Sleswick was a town of some note; in the 10th it was destroyed and rebuilt; in the 15th it shared the like fate. In its vicinity stands the castle of Gottorp; 8 miles north of Kiel, and 126 south-west of Copenhagen. Lat. 54. 32. N. long. 9. 35. E.

SLEW. The preterite of *slay*.

SLEY, *s.* [flæ, Sax.] A weaver's reed.

Strait to their posts appointed both repair,
And fix their threaded looms with equal care:
Around the solid beam the web is ty'd,
While hollow canes the parting warp divide:
Through which with nimble flight the shuttles play,
And for the woof prepare a ready way;
The woof and warp unite press'd by the toothy *sley*.

Crowall.

To **SLEY**, *v. n.* To separate; to part or twist into threads; to sieid.

SLEY, a small river of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleswick, which passes by the towns of Gottorp and Sleswick, and falls into the Baltic.

SLEYDINGHE, an inland town of the Netherlands, in East Flanders, with 5200 inhabitants.

To **SLICE**, *v. a.* [flican, Sax.] To cut into flat pieces.—Their cooks make no more ado, but *slicing* it into little gobbets, prick it on a prong of iron, and hang it in a furnace. *Sandys*.—To cut into parts.

Nature lost one by thee, and therefore must

Slice one in two to keep her number just. *Cleveland.*

To cut off in a broad piece.

When hungry thou stood'st, staring, like an oaf,
I *slie'd* the luncheon from the barley loaf.

Gay.

To cut; to divide.—Princes and tyrants *slice* the earth among them. *Burnet*.

SLICE, *s.* [flīce, Saxon.] A broad piece cut off.

He from out the chimney took,
A flitch of bacon off the hook,
And freely, from the fattest side,
Cut out large *slices* to be fry'd.

Swift.

A broad piece.

Then clap four *slices* of pilaster on't,
That, laced with bits of rustic, makes a front.

Pope.

A broad head fixed in a handle; a peel; a spatula.—The pelican hath a beak broad and flat, much like the *slice* of apothecaries, with which they spread plaisters. *Hakewill*.

SLICES, in Ship-Building, tapering pieces of plank, used for setting up a ship on her ways for launching, &c.

SLICK, *adj.* [slicht, Teut.] Sleek.—Glass attracts but weakly; some *slick* stones, and thick glasses indifferently. *Brown*. See **SLEEK**.

SLICKENBURGH, a small island near the north-west coast of Borneo. Lat. 3. 59. N. long. 112. 31. E.

SLID. The preterite of *slide*.

At first the silent venom *slid* with ease,
And seiz'd her cooler senses by degrees.

Dryden.

SLI'DDEN. The participle passive of *slide*.—Why is this people *slidden* back, by a perpetual backsliding? *Jer*.

To **SLI'DDER**, *v. n.* [flībejan, flībjan, Sax.; *slid-deren*, Teut.] To slide with interruption.

Go thou from me to fate,
Now die; with that he dragg'd the trembling sire,
Slid'dring through clotted blood.

Dryden.

SLI'DDER, or **SLI'DDERY**, *adj.* [flībboj, Sax.] Slippery; *slidder* is an old word; *slidderly*, still a vulgar one.—To a drunken man the way is *slider*. *Chaucer*.

To **SLIDE**, *v. n.* *slid*, pret. *slidden*, part. pass. [flīban, Sax.] To pass along smoothly; to slip; to glide.

Ulysses, Sthenelus, Tisander *slide*

Down by a rope, Machaon was their guide.

Denham.

To move without change of the feet.

He that once sins, like him that *slides* on ice,
Goes swiftly down the slippery ways of vice:
Though conscience checks him, yet those rubs gone o'er
He *slides* on smoothly, and looks back no more. *Dryden*.

To pass inadvertently.—Make a door and a bar for thy mouth: beware thou *slide* not by it. *Ecclus*.—To pass unnoticed.—In the princess I could find no apprehension of what I said or did, but with a calm carelessness, letting every thing *slide* justly, as we do by their speeches, who neither in matter nor person do any way belong unto us. *Sidney*.—To pass along by silent and unobserved progression.

Thou shalt

Hate all, shew charity to none;
But let the famish'd flesh *slide* from the bone,
Ere thou relieve the beggar.

Shakspeare.

To pass silently and gradually from good to bad.—Nor could they have *slid* into those brutish immoralities of life, had they duly manured those first practical notions and dictates of right reason. *South*.—To pass without difficulty or obstruction.

Begin with sense, of every art the soul,
Parts answering parts shall *slide* into a whole;
Nature shall join you, time shall make it grow
A work to wonder at.

Pope.

To move upon the ice by a single impulse, without change of feet.

The gallants dancing by the river side,
They bathe in summer, and in winter *slide*.

Waller.

To fall by error.—The discovering and reprehension of these colours cannot be done but out of a very universal knowledge of things, which so cleareth man's judgment, as it is the less apt to *slide* into any error. *Bacon*.—To be not firm.

Ye fair!

Be greatly cautious of your *sliding* hearts.

Thomson.

To pass with a free and gentle course or flow.

To **SLIDE**, *v. a.* To put imperceptibly.—Little tricks of sophistry by *sliding* in, or leaving out, such words as entirely change the question, should be abandoned by all fair disputants. *Watts*.

SLIDE, *s.* [flībe, Sax.] Smooth and easy passage.—Kings that have able men of their nobility shall find ease in employing them; and a better *slide* into their business; for people naturally bend to them. *Bacon*.—Flow; even course.—There be, whose fortunes are like Homer's verses, that have a *slide* and easiness more than the verses of other poets.

SLI'DER, *s.* [flībop, Sax.] The part of an instrument that slides; this is the Saxon meaning.—Fitting to their size the *slider* of his guillotine. *Burke*.—One who slides.

SLI'DING, *s.* Transgression: hence *back-sliding*.

You seem'd of late to make the law a tyrant,
And rather prov'd the *sliding* of your brother
A merriment than a vice.

Shakspeare.

SLIDING-GUNTER-SAIL, a triangular sail, used in boats, bent at its foremost leech to loops or grommets that slide

slide on the lower mast: the peak or head is attached to a small top-mast, that slides up in the direction of the lower mast, through two hoops fixed at its head, about three feet asunder. When the top-mast is lowered, the sail furls up close to the lower mast.

SLIDING-PLANKS, are the flat forms upon which the bilgeways slide in launching the ship.

SLIDING-RULE, a mathematical instrument, serving to work questions in gauging, measuring, &c., without the use of compasses; merely by the sliding of the parts of the instrument one by another, the lines and divisions of which give the answer, by inspection.

To understand the use of this instrument we must recur, to what is already familiar to the reader—the nature and use of logarithms; namely, the rapid manner in which multiplication, division, and the like may be performed by simple addition or subtraction.

Now the abbreviation of arithmetical calculations, usually attained by the use of logarithms, is also attainable by the employment of lines as *the representatives of logarithms*; so that by measuring these lines with their sums, differences or multipliers on a given scale, we may obtain a tolerable degree of accuracy. A farther improvement consists in graduating a line of convenient length *logometrically*, that is dividing it so that the distance of each division from the beginning of the line which is marked with unity, shall measure on a given scale of equal parts, the logarithm of the number which is affixed to it; this is Gunter's scale.

The divisions which are situated at equal distances, being marked by numbers whose logarithms have equal differences, it follows that the spaces intervening between any two numbers are proportional to the differences between their respective logarithms; or are the measures of the ratios between each of these numbers. The same use may therefore be made of such a scale as of a table of logarithms with regard to operations to be performed on their correspondent numbers. Thus it will be found that the portion of the scale extending from one to three, added to that extending from one to four, is equal to that between one and twelve, shewing that the logarithm of three, added to the logarithm of four, is equal to the logarithm of twelve, or that the ratio of one to three, added to the ratio of one to four, composes the ratio of one to twelve, or that twelve is the product of three and four. The excess of the interval between one and twenty-four, over that between one and six, or which is the same thing, the interval between six and twenty four, will be equal to that between one and four, shewing that four is the quotient of twenty-four divided by six. This comparison of intervals is further facilitated by the addition of a second scale exactly marked like the first, but capable of being slid along its side. Now, supposing the sides coincident, and the slider the lowest, if we push the slider on to any given distance, each of its divisions will be brought under those of the fixed scale, which are before situated further forward by an interval equal to that given distance. Every number of the upper will then have a constant ratio to every number of the slider; a ratio indicated by the number under which unity or the commencement of the slider is found placed.

The upper numbers then will, by multiples of the inferior, bring this constant number. So that by adjusting the slider till unity stands under any given multiplier or divisor, the upper line will exhibit the series of products of all the subjacent numbers, by the given multiplier; and consequently the slider exhibits the series of the quotients resulting from the division of the numbers immediately above them by the given divisor. For in every position of the slider, all the fractions formed by taking all the numbers on the upper line as numerators, and those just under them as denominators, are equal.

This instrument has been modified, and applied to the mensuration of timber and other solid bodies, to gauging, by Dr. Wollaston to the determination of chemical equivalents, and by Dr. Rojet to the involution and evolution of numbers. For the last, which is extremely

important, we must refer to the author's excellent paper in the *Phil. Trans.* 1815., Part I.

SLIEBH-AN-ERIN, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Leitrim; 13 miles north-north-east of Carrick.

SLIEBH-BAUGH, mountains of Ireland, in the counties of Monaghan and Tyrone; 3 miles south of Clogher.

SLIEBH BAUGHTA, mountains of Ireland, in the counties of Clare and Galway; 20 miles south-east of Galway.

SLIEBH-BEARNA, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Down, near the sea coast; 14 miles east of Newry.

SLIEBH-BLOOM, mountains of Ireland, in King's and Queen's counties. The high and steep mountains of Sliebbloom form so impracticable a barrier between King's and Queen's counties, that in a range of 14 miles, they afford but one, and that a very difficult and narrow pass into King's county, called *the Gap of Glandine*. In this great ridge are the sources of the Barrow and the Nore.

SLIEBH-BONN, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Roscommon; 8 miles north-north-east of Roscommon.

SLIEBH-BUY, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Wexford; 9 miles west of Newborough.

SLIEBH-CROOBE, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Down; 9 miles west-north-west of Downpatrick.

SLIEBH-DHAM, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Sligo; 16 miles south-west of Sligo.

SLIEBH-DONALD, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Down, near the sea-coast, said to be above 3000 feet higher than the level of the sea; 14 miles east of Newry.

SLIEBH-EAN, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Antrim; 18 miles north of Antrim.

SLIEBH-EN-EWR, mountains of Ireland, in the north-west part of the county of Leitrim; 10 miles north-north-east of Sligo.

SLIEBH-GALLAN, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Londonderry; 5 miles west of Magherafelt.

SLIEBH-GALLEN, mountains of Ireland, in the southern part of the county of Armagh; 5 miles north of Dundalk.

SLIEBH-LEAGUE, mountains of Ireland, in Donegalshire; 8 miles west of Killybegs.

SLIEBH-LOGHER, mountains of Ireland, county of Kerry; 9 miles south-east of Killarney.

SLIEBH-MISH, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, between Tralee and Miltown; 4 miles south of Tralee.

SLIEBH-MORE, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Mayo, near the western extremity of Achil island, near Achil Head.

SLIEBH-NA-COILTRA, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Wexford; 2 miles south-east of New Ross.

SLIEBH-NA-MAN, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary; 7 miles north-east of Clonmel.

SLIEBH-RUSSEL, mountains of Ireland, in the counties of Cavan and Fermanagh; 12 miles south of Enniskillen.

SLIEBH-SNAGHT, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Donegal; 13 miles north of Londonderry.

SLIEDRECHT, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of South Holland, with 2400 inhabitants.

SLIGHT, *adj.* [*slicht*, Dutch.] Small; worthless; inconsiderable.

Their arms, their arts, their manners I disclose,
Slight is the subject, but the praise not small,
If Heaven assist, and Phœbus hear my call.

Dryden.

Not important; not cogent; weak.—Some firmly embrace doctrines upon *slight* grounds, some upon no grounds, and some contrary to appearance. *Locke.*—Negligent; not vehement; not done with effort.

He in contempt
At one *slight* bound high overleap'd all bound,

Milton.

Foolish; weak of mind.

No beast ever was so *slight*
For man, as for his God, to fight.

Hudibras.

Not strong; thin: as, a *slight* silk.

SLIGHT,

SLIGHT, *s.* Neglect; contempt; act of scorn.—People in misfortune construe unavoidable accidents into *slights* or neglects. *Richardson*.—Artifice; cunning practice.—As boisterous a thing as force is, it rarely achieves any thing but under the conduct of fraud: *slight* of hand has done that, which force of hand could never do. *South*.

SLIGHT, *adv.* Slightly.—Is Cæsar with Antonius priz'd so *slight*? *Shakspeare*.

To SLIGHT, *v. a.* To neglect; to disregard.—If they transgress and *slight* that sole command. *Milton*.—To throw carelessly, unless in this passage *to slight* be the same with *to sling*.—The rogues *slighted* me into the river, with as little remorse as they would have drowned puppies. *Shakspeare*.—[*slichten*, Dutch.] To overthrow; to demolish.—The castle was *slighted* by order of the parliament. *Ld. Clarendon*.

To SLIGHT over. To treat or perform carelessly.

His death and your deliverance

Were themes that ought not to be slighted over. *Dryden*.

To SLIGHTEN, *v. a.* To neglect; to disregard. *Not now in use*.

It is an odious wisdom to blaspheme,

Much more to *slighten* or deny their powers. *B. Jonson*.

SLIGHTER, *s.* One who disregards.—I do not believe you are so great an undervaluer or *slighter* of it, as not to preserve it tenderly and thriftily. *Bp. Taylor*.

SLIGHTINGLY, *adv.* Without reverence; with contempt.—If my sceptic speaks *slightingly* of the opinions he opposes, I have done no more than became the part. *Boyle*.

SLIGHTLY, *adv.* Negligently; without regard.

You were to blame

To part so *slightly* with your wife's first gift. *Shakspeare*.

Scornfully; contemptuously.—He spoke *slightly* and reflexively of such a lady: that is, perhaps he treated her without a compliment, and spoke that of her which she had rather a great deal practise, than hear or be told of. *South*.—Weakly; without force.

Scorn not

The facil gates of hell too *slightly* barr'd. *Milton*.

Without worth.

SLIGHTNESS, *s.* Weakness; want of strength. Negligence; want of attention; want of vehemence.

Where gentry, title, wisdom,

Cannot conclude but by the yea and no

Of gen'ral ignorance, it must omit

Real necessities, and give way the while

To unstable *slightness*.

Shakspeare.

SLIGHTY, *adj.* Trifling; superficial.—Let them shew where any thing is advised or commanded after this slothful and *slighty* way. *Echard*.

SLIGO, a county of Ireland, in the province of Connaught, bounded on the east by the county of Leitrim, on the south by Roscommon, on the south-west and west by Mayo, and on the north by the bay of Donegal. Its greatest length, from Bunduff in the north, to the Curlew mountains in the south, is 39½ English miles, and the greatest breadth 37. It contains 397,060 acres, or 620 square miles, English. The number of houses in 1793 was 11,509, supposed to contain 60,060 inhabitants; but the documents of which this is stated were very imperfect, and the increase must have been since considerable. There are 39 parishes, of which 16 only had churches when Dr. Beaufort published his valuable work: they lie in the bishoprics of Elphin, Achonry, Killala, and Ardagh. This county and the town of Sligo are represented in parliament by three members. The soil is generally light, sandy, gravelly loam, or moory, mixed with round stones on a strong gravelly bottom tolerably productive of potatoes, barley, and oats. In some parts the lands are rich and fertile, equally adapted for tillage or for fattening the heaviest oxen. Nearly the third part of this county is an improveable waste. In the northern district,

lying between the county of Leitrim and the sea, are the mountains of Benbulb and Samore. A chain of rough hills extends from Lough Gilly to the bounds of Roscommon and Leitrim. The barony of Tyreragh, though level along the coast, is intersected by large bogs; and the southern part of it is bounded by the Ox mountain, Slibh-Dham, and a great range of desolate hills, that extend across the middle of the county; whilst the Curlews and other mountains cover much of the southern part of it. Among these hills there are many large lakes, and abundance of rivers. The principal lakes are Lough Gill or Gilly, Temple House lake, Lough Talla, and Lough Arva or Arrow. Lough Arrow is about eight miles long, full of islands, and of a very irregular form: a river of the same name proceeds from it, and running northward to Ballysadere, rushes at once into the sea in a stupendous cataract. Lough Garra, on the borders of Roscommon, in the most southern part of the county, communicates with Lough Key by the river Boyle, which joins the Shannon. Lough Gilly exhibits a variety of beautiful prospects. On the river by which the waters of this lake are discharged into the bay of Sligo, stands the town of Sligo, the only town of note in the county. There are, however, ports at Ballysadere and Eskey-bridge, at the mouths of the rivers Arrow and Eskey. The most considerable rivers are the Sligo, the Bonnet, the Owenmore, the Unshion, the Cooloney, the Eskey, and the Moy which for many miles separates Mayo from Sligo. Lead, iron, silver, and copper ores, have been discovered in different places. The mountains near Lough Gill exhibit strong indications of coal. The linen manufacture is rapidly and universally thriving in this county. All its rivers communicating with the sea, abound in salmon, and the coasts teem with a variety of the most delicious fish.

SLIGO, a town of Ireland, chief town of the county of the same name, and a sea-port, pleasantly situated at the mouth of the river which flows from Lough Gilly to Sligo bay. Vessels of 200 tons come up to the quays, and the trade of Sligo has been increasing for many years. Its public buildings consist of a jail, a barrack, a court-house, an infirmary, and a charter school, liberally endowed by the Wiune family. This town owes the origin of its existence to a castle and an abbey, erected here by Maurice Fitzgerald, lord justice of Ireland, about the year 1262. The protection thus afforded, together with the goodness of the harbour, gradually attracted numbers of inhabitants, and thus the town progressively increased. In the year 1277, this castle was destroyed; but it was again rebuilt in 1310. Its ruins now evince its former splendour. The county assizes are held here, and Sligo sends one member to the imperial parliament. In 1788, the number of houses was 916, and the population 8000; but they have since increased; 105 miles north-west of Dublin, and 66 north-north-east of Galway. Lat. 54. 16. N. long. 8. 20. W.

SLILY, *adv.* Cunningly; with cunning secrecy; with subtle covertness.

Were there a serpent seen with forked tongue,

That *slily* glided towards your majesty,

It were but necessary you were wak'd.

Shakspeare.

SLIM, *adj.* [Serenius refers it to the Icel. *slaemr*, vilis et invalidus. See also *slim*, Teut. in Killian, which is described as an ancient word, and rendered *vilis*.] Weak; slight; unsubstantial.—The church of Rome indeed was allowed to be the principal church. But why? Was it in regard to the succession of St. Peter? No: that was a *slim* excuse. *Barrow*.—Now how vain and *slim* are all these, [arguments of fatalists, &c.] if compared with the solid and manly encouragement which our religion offers. *Killingbeck*.—Slender; thin of shape.—Worthless. [*slim*, Teut. and *schlim*, Germ. are both applied to denote an evil person.] It is generally used, in the north, according to Grose, in the same sense with *slly*.

SLIMBRIDGE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire, near the Severn; 3½ miles north-by-west of Dursley. Population 794.

SLIME,

SLIME, *s.* [plm, Saxon; *slign*, Dutch.] Viscous mire; any glutinous substance.

The higher Nilus swells
The more it promises: as it ebbs, the seedsman
Upon the *slime* and ooze scatters his grain. *Shakspeare.*

SLIMINESS, *s.* Viscosity; glutinous matter.—Divers little creatures are procreated by the sun's heat, and the earth's *sliminess*. *Austin.*

SLIMNESS, *s.* State or quality of being slim.

SLIMY, *adj.* [Sax. plmiz.] Overspread with slime.

My bended hook shall pierce
Their *slimy* jaws; and, as I draw them up,
I'll think them every one an Antony. *Shakspeare.*

Viscous; glutinous.

Then both from out hell-gates, into the waste,
Wide anarchy of Chaos, damp and dark,
Hovering upon the waters, what they met
Solid or *slimy*, as in raging sea,
Tost up and down, together crowded drove. *Milton.*

SLINDON, a parish of England, in Sussex; 3½ miles west-by-north of Arundel. Population 437.

SLINESS, *s.* Designing artifice.—By an excellent faculty in mimicry, my correspondent can assume my air, and give my taciturnity a *sliness*, which diverts more than any thing I could say. *Addison.*

SLINFOLD, a parish of England, in Sussex; 4 miles west-by-north of Horsham. Population 549.

SLING, *s.* [*sliunga*, Su. Goth.; *slinghe*, Teut. See also *To SLING*.] A missile weapon made by a strap and two strings; the stone is lodged in the strap, and thrown by loosing one of the strings.

The Tuscan king
Laid by the lance, and took him to the *sling*;
Thrice whirl'd the thong around his head, and threw
The heated lead, half melted as it flew. *Dryden.*

A throw; a stroke,

At one *sling*
Of thy victorious arm, well-pleasing son,
Both sin and death, and yawning grave at last
Through chaos hurl'd, obstruct the mouth of hell. *Milton.*

A kind of hanging bandage, in which a wounded limb is sustained.

To SLING, *v. a.* [*slinghen*, Teut.; plngan, Sax.] To throw by a sling.—To throw; to cast.

Ætna's entrails fraught with fire,
That now casts out dark fumes and pitchy clouds,
Incens'd, or tears up mountains by the roots,
Or *slings* a broken rock aloft in air. *Addison.*

To hang loosely by a string.
From rivers drive the kids, and *sling* your hook;
Anon I'll wash e'm in the shallow brook. *Dryden.*

To move by means of a rope.
Cœnus I saw amidst the shouts
Of mariners, and busy care to *sling*
His horses soon ashore. *Dryden.*

SLINGELANDT (Peter Van), a painter, was born at Leyden in 1640. He was a laborious disciple of Gerard Dow, and wrought in the highly finished style of that master; and is as neat in his execution. His pictures, however, do not possess the relish found in those of Gerard, either in composition or colour; and they are tasteless in design. He is said to have been most patiently persevering and industrious, employing months and years upon one performance; and never being satisfied till he found every individual part imitated, however trivial, of any object which he had chosen to represent. His works are often passed off for those of his master, and of Mieris; and it sometimes demands a considerable portion of connoisseurship to discover the imposition. He died in 1691.

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SLINGER, *s.* One who slings or uses the sling.—The *slingers* went about it; and smote it. *2 Kings.*

SLINGER'S BAY, a bay of the Eastern Indian ocean, on the north coast of New Ireland. Lat. 3. S. long. 151. E.

SLINGER'S BAY, an inlet of the Pacific Ocean, between the island of Ramos and St. Juan.

SLINGLEY, a township of England, in Durham; 5½ miles south-west of Sunderland.

SLINGSBY, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles west-north-west of New Malton. Population 464.

To SLINK, *v. n.* preter. *slunk*. [plnca, Saxon, *to creep*.] To sneak; to steal out of the way.—We will *slink* away in supper time, disguise us at my lodging, and return all in an hour. *Shakspeare.*

To SLINK, *v. a.* To cast; to miscarry of. *A low word.*—To prevent a mare's *slinking* her foal in snowy weather, keep her where she may have good spring water to drink. *Mortimer.*

SLINK, *adj.* Produced before its time: applied to the young of a beast.—This membrane does not properly appertain to dogs, &c.; yet it may be found in *slink* calves. *Student.*

To SLIP, *v. n.* [plpan, Sax.; *slippen*, Dutch; *schlipfen*, Germ., from *schlipfe*, superficies lubrica, Sax. plpe, *lubricum*. Wachter] To slide; not to tread firm.—A skilful dancer on the rope *slips* willingly, and makes a seeming stumble that you may think him in great hazard, while he is only giving you a proof of his dexterity. *Dryden.*—To slide; to glide.—Oh, Ladon, happy Ladon! rather slide than run by her, lest thou should'st make her legs *slip* from her. *Sidney.*—To move or fly out of place.—Sometimes the ancle-bone is apt to turn out on either side by reason of relaxation, which though you reduce, yet, upon the least walking on it, the bone *slips* out again. *Wiseman.*—To sneak; to slink.

From her most beastly company
I again refrain, in mind to *slip* away,
Soon as appear'd safe opportunity. *Spenser.*

To glide; to pass unexpectedly or imperceptibly.
Slipping from thy mother's eye thou went'st
Alone in the temple; there wast found
Among the gravest rabbies disputant,
On points and questions fitting Moses' chair. *Milton.*

To fall into fault or error.

If he had been as you,
And you as he, you would have *slipt* like him;
But he like you would not have been so stern. *Shakspeare.*

To creep by oversight.—Some mistakes may have *slipt* into it; but others will be prevented. *Pope.*—To escape; to fall away out of the memory.—Use the most proper methods to retain the ideas you have acquired; for the mind is ready to let many of them *slip*, unless some pains be taken to fix them upon the memory. *Watts.*

To SLIP, *v. a.* To convey secretly.—In his officious attendance upon his mistress he tried to *slip* a powder into her drink. *Arbuthnot.*—To lose by negligence.

Let us not *slip* the occasion, whether scorn
Or satiate fury yield it from our foe. *Milton.*

For watching occasions to correct others in their discourse, and not to *slip* any opportunity of shewing their talents, scholars are most blamed. *Locke.*—To part twigs from the main body by laceration.—The runners spread from the master-roots, and have little sprouts or roots to them, which being cut four or five inches long, make excellent sets: the branches also may be *slipped* and planted. *Mortimer.*—To escape from; to leave shily.

This bird you aim'd at, though you hit it not.
—Oh, sir, Lucentio *slipp'd* me like his greyhound,
Which runs himself, and catches for his master. *Shakspeare.*

To let loose.

On Eryx altars lays
A lamb new fallen to the stormy seas;
Then *slips* his haulsers, and his anchors weighs. *Dryden.*

To let a dog loose.

The impatient greyhound, *slipt* from far,
Bounds o'er the glebe, to course the fearful hare. *Dryden.*

To throw off any thing that holds one.—Forced to alight, my horse *slipped* his bridle, and ran away. *Swift.*—To pass over negligently.—If our author gives us a list of his doctrines, with what reason can that about indulgences be *slipped* over. *Atterbury.*

To SLIP on, *v. a.* [*rlepan* on, Sax. *inducere.*] To put on rather hastily: a colloquial expression: as, to *slip* on one's clothes.

SLIP, *s.* [*rlipe*, Sax. See the verb neuter.] The act of slipping; false step.—Error; mistake; fault.

There put on him

What forgeries you please: marry, none so rank
As may dishonour him.
But, sir, such wanton, wild, and usual *slips*,
As are most known to youth and liberty. *Shakspeare.*

A twig torn from the main stock.

So have I seen some tender *slip*,
Sav'd with care from winter's nip,
The pride of her carnation train,
Pluck'd up by some unheedy swain. *Milton.*

A leash or string in which a dog is held, from its being so made as to slip or become loose by relaxation of the hand.

I see you stand like greyhounds in the *slips*,
Straining upon the start. *Shakspeare.*

An escape; a desertion. I know not whether to give the *slip* be not originally taken from a dog that runs and leaves the string or *slip* in the leader's hand. *Dr. Johnson.*—Rather, perhaps, from *slip*, a counterfeit piece of money. See the next sense.

The more shame for her goodyship,
To give so near a friend the *slip*. *Hudibras.*

A counterfeit piece of money; being brass covered with silver. *Steevens.*

Rom. What counterfeit did I give you?
Mer. The *slip*, sir, the *slip*. *Shakspeare.*

A long narrow piece.—Between these eastern and western mountains lies a *slip* of lower ground, which runs across the island. *Addison.*—The stuff found in the troughs of grindstones, on which edge-tools have been ground.—The filings of steel, and such small particles of edge-tools as are worn away upon the grindstone, commonly called *slipp*, is used to the same purpose in dyeing of silks. *Sir W. Petty.*—A particular quantity of yarn. [*forago*, Lat.] *Barrett.*

SLIPBOARD, *s.* A board sliding in grooves.—I ventured to draw back the *slipboard* on the roof, contrived on purpose to let in air. *Swift.*

SLIPKNOT, *s.* A bowknot; a knot easily untied.—They draw off so much line as is necessary, and fasten the rest upon the line-rolwl with a *slipknot*, that no more line turn off. *Moxon.*

SLIPPER, or SLIPSHOE, *s.* [*rlipeper*, Sax.] A shoe without leather behind, into which the foot slips easily.

Thrice rung the bell, the *slipper* knock'd the ground,
And the press'd watch return'd a silver sound. *Pope.*

[*Crespis*, Lat.] An herb.

SLIPPER, *adj.* [*rlipep*, Sax.] Slippery; not firm. *Obsolete.* Perhaps never in use but for poetical convenience. *Dr. Johnson.* This may be doubted, as the word is in our old lexicography, viz., in Huloet's Dict.

The last is slow, or *slipper* as the slime,
Of changing names of innocence and crime. *Mir. for Mag.*

SLIPPER ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern seas.
Lat. 14. 8. N. long. 93. 30. E.

SLIPPERED, *adj.* Wearing slippers.—The lean and *slipped* pantaloons. *Shakspeare.*

SLIPPERILY, *adv.* In a slippery manner.

SLIPPERINESS, *s.* State or quality of being slippery; smoothness; glibness.—We do not only fall by the *slipperiness* of our tongues, but we deliberately discipline them to mischief. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—Uncertainty; want of firm footing.—Let his ways be darkneses and *slipperiness*. *L. Addison.*

SLIPPERY, *adj.* [*rlipep*, Sax.; *sliperig*, Swedish.] Smooth; glib.—They trim their feathers, which makes them oily and *slippery*, that the water slips off. *Mortimer.*—Not affording firm footing.

Did you know the art o' the court,
As hard to leave as keep; whose top to climb,
Is certain falling; or so *slippery*, that
The fear's as bad as falling. *Shakspeare.*

His promise to trust to as *slippery* as ice. *Tusser.*—Hard to hold; hard to keep.

Thus surely bound, yet be not overbold,
The *slippery* god will try to loose his hold;
And various forms assume, to cheat thy sight,
And with vain images of beasts affright. *Dryden.*

Not standing firm.

When they fall, as being *slippery* standers,
The love that lean'd on them as *slippery* too,
Doth one pluck down another, and together
Die in the fast. *Shakspeare.*

Uncertain; changeable; mutable; instable.

Oh world, thy *slippery* turns! Friends now fast sworn,
Whose double bosoms seem to wear one heart,
Whose hours, whose bed, whose meal and exercise,
Are still together; who twine, as 'twere, in love
Unseparable, shall within this hour
On a dissension of a doit, break out
To bitterest enmity. *Shakspeare.*

Not certain in its effect.—One sure trick is better than a hundred *slippery* ones. *L'Estrange.*—[*Lubrique*, Fr.] Not chaste.—My wife is *slippery*. *Shakspeare.*

SLIPPERY ROCK, a township of the United States, in Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 789.

SLIPPERY ROCK, a township of the United States, in Butler county, Pennsylvania. Population 658.

SLIPPY, *adj.* [*Dr. Johnson*; who calls this term a barbarous provincial word, and gives an example only from Floyer. The word is pure Saxon, *rlipep*, and also of old English usage.] Slippery; easily sliding.—From it, being moist and *slippie*, she doth slip. *Davies.*

SLIPSHOD, *adj.* Having the shoes not pulled up at the heels, but barely slipped on.

The *slipshod* 'prentice from his master's door
Had par'd the dirt, and sprinkled round the floor. *Swift.*

SLIPPSLOP, *s.* Bad liquor. A low word, formed by reduplication of *slop*.

SLIPSTRING, or SLIPTHRIFT, *s.* One who has loosened himself from restraint; a prodigal; a spendthrift.—Young rascals or scoundrels, rakehells, or *slipstrings*. *Cotgrave.*

SLIPTON, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 3 miles west-by-north of Thrapston.

SLISH, *s.* A low word, formed by reduplicating *slash*.

What! this a sleeve?

Here's snip and nip, and *slish* and slash,
Like to a censer in a barber's shop. *Shakspeare.*

SLISHCARROW, mountains of Ireland, in the county of Sligo; 4 miles south-east of Sligo.

To SLIT, *v. a.* pret. and part. *slit* and *slitted*. [*rlihan*, Saxon; *slita*, Icel.] To cut longwise.—To make plants medicinal, *slit* the root, and infuse into it the medicine, as hellebore, opium, scammony, and then bind it up. *Bacon.*—To cut in general.

Comes

Comes the blind Fury with the abhorred shears,
And *slits* the thin-spun life.

Milton.

SLIT, *s.* [slit, Saxon.] A long cut, or narrow opening.

Where the tender rinds of trees disclose
Their shooting gems, a swelling knot there grows:
Just in that place a narrow *slit* we make,
Then other buds from bearing trees we take;
Inserted thus, the wounded rind we close.

Dryden.

SLITTER, *s.* One who cuts or slashes. *Cotgrave, and Sherwood.*

SLITTRICK, a small river of Scotland, in Roxburghshire; which, after a northerly course of about 17 miles, unites with the Teviot at Hawick.

To **SLIVE**, or To **SLIVER**, *v. a.* [slivan, Saxon. To *slive* or rive asunder is in the old Prompt. Parv.] To split; to divide longwise; to tear off longwise.

Liver of blaspheming Jew,
Gall of goat, and slips of yew,
Sliver'd in the moon's eclipse.

Shakspeare.

To cut or cleave in general,
To **SLIVE**, *v. n.* [*sløver*, Dan., to creep.] To sneak.
SLIVER, *s.* Formerly a branch torn off; now a slice cut off.

There on the pendant boughs, her coronet weed
Clamb'ring to hang, an envious *sliver* broke,
When down her weedy coronet and herself
Fell in the weeping brook.

Shakspeare.

SLOANE (Sir Hans), immortalized as the principal founder of the British Museum, was born at Killaleagh in the county of Down, Ireland, April 16, 1660. His family is said to have been of Scottish extraction; but whatever their situation in life might be, they were destined to acquire more honour from him, than he derived from them; though, by the education which he received, his circumstances appear to have been far from indigent. He is said to have been attached, from his youth, to the study of nature, and this led him perhaps to that of medicine, as a profession. A spitting of blood confined him at home for three years, and it was not till his 19th year that he was able to enter on a regular course of medical education at London. To this he devoted the four succeeding seasons, during which he was introduced to the acquaintance, and even the friendship, of Boyle and Ray. Returning to London late in 1684, Dr. Sloane became a favourite and inmate of the great Sydenham, who seems to have intended taking him by the hand as a physician. He was soon chosen a fellow of the Royal Society, and in April 1687, entered into the College of Physicians.

A desire of investigating the natural history of the West Indies, induced Dr. Sloane to embark for Jamaica, in September 1687, as physician to the duke of Albemarle. He made ample collections of natural history, bringing home from Jamaica, Barbadoes, Nevis, and St. Kitt's, about 800 species of dried plants, enriched with a most abundant store of information respecting their qualities and uses. He arrived in London, May 29, 1689, where he directly resumed his medical occupations, with which he happily and successfully associated his literary pursuits. In 1694 he became physician to Christ's hospital, and in 1695 was elected secretary to the Royal Society: he immediately revived the publication of its Philosophical Transactions, which had for six years been neglected. He was no less attentive to his medical duties in the College, and he projected and established a dispensary for the poor.

In 1696, the subject of our memoir published his Latin Catalogue of the Plants of Jamaica, a closely printed octavo of 232 pages. He follows Ray's system of arrangement, and is content with referring his species, as well as he could, like that great writer himself in his catalogues of British plants, to some popularly received genus. This catalogue was not followed up, till the year 1707, by the pub-

lication of the first volume of the great work; to which it was a kind of *Prodromus*, and which is entitled "A Voyage to the Islands Madera, Barbados, Nieves, St. Christopher's and Jamaica, with the Natural History of the Herbs and Trees, four-footed Beasts, Fishes, Birds, Insects, Reptiles, &c., of the last of those islands." To this volume is prefixed an introduction, of 164 pages, containing an account of the history and climate of Jamaica, the manners, domestic economy, food, trade, &c., of the inhabitants, and particularly an ample detail of their diseases; and is full of curious and instructive matter. The whole is illustrated by 256 plates, chiefly of plants, very imperfect as to botanical details, though characteristic in their general appearance.

The statistical part of this book is valuable, but there are some remarks relative to the management of slaves, which are still worth referring to, especially as the question of the slave-trade calls for all the vigilance of the Christian moralist and politician, to defeat the machinations of its advocates, and secret promoters.

The second volume of Sloane's Jamaica did not appear till the year 1725. By some accident, this is much the most common of the two.

The collections of natural history, made by Sloane in his voyage, seem to have laid the foundation of that museum, which became gradually so famous. A brother collector and friend, Mr. Courten, in 1702, left his own acquisitions to augment it, on condition of the payment of certain debts and legacies, to an amount much below the value of what was thus bequeathed. How soon curiosities of art were included in Dr. Sloane's museum, or whether such made a part of Mr. Courten's, we know not; but the whole collection was now very considerable, and continued increasing during the long life of its owner, who, the year before he died, reckoned up the articles of natural history, exclusive of 200 volumes of dried plants, as amounting to more than 30,600. Sir Hans in 1719 was elected president of the College of Physicians, and president of the Royal Society, on the death of Sir Isaac Newton, in 1727. He expired in the 92d year of his age, and was buried, along with his lady, in a vault, at the south-east corner of Chelsea church-yard, where a handsome, and very conspicuous monument to his memory still exists.

The person of Sir Hans Sloane was tall and handsome; his manners easy, polite and cheerful. He delighted in exhibiting and explaining to strangers, and especially foreigners, whatever he possessed, and is said to have kept an open table once a week, for his friends, particularly such as belonged to the Royal Society. That his reception of the great Linnæus was not peculiarly flattering, has often been mentioned with regret; nor can we account for it otherwise, than by recollecting that the opulent patron and collector, who had risen to eminence by his own means, felt no inclination to go to school to a poor Swedish student, hardly superior in his eyes to a working gardener. Few men can be serviceable in many different ways. The merits of Sir Hans Sloane were transcendent in his own line. He neglected no means, that appeared to him eligible, for promoting literature or science. On purchasing his great estate at Chelsea, he presented the Apothecaries' Company with the fee simple of the garden which they had already made there, on a condition, equally beneficial to their fame and to science, that it should for ever continue a *botanic* garden. "He was governor," says Dr. Pulteney, "of almost every hospital in London; and to each, after having given an hundred pounds in his life-time, he left a more considerable legacy at his death. He was ever a benefactor to the poor, who felt the consequences of his death severely. He was zealous in promoting the establishment of the colony of Georgia, in 1732; and formed, himself, the plan for bringing up the children in the Foundling Hospital, in 1739."

Nor was the pen of this active philosopher idle, amid his other occupations. To particularize even the titles of his papers, printed by the Royal Society, amounting to 35, would lead us too far. However curious and useful the contents of most of the rest may be, the last in the list, on In-

oculation

oculation, vol. xix. 516, is pre-eminently important, as recording the introduction of that practice into England, and displaying the candour, as well as good sense, of the writer, in every thing relative to the subject.

He bequeathed his museum to the public, on condition of a payment, to his heirs of 20,000*l.* a sum said barely to equal the intrinsic value of the precious metals and gems, of the medals and mineral specimens.

SLOANEA [so named by Plumier, in memory of Sir Hans Sloane, Bart.], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of amentaceæ, tiliaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-parted: segments ovate, a little unequal. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments numerous (above 100) very short, inserted into a villose receptacle. Anthers oblong, growing to the side of the filaments. Pistil: germ oblong, angular. Style simple. Stigmas five-cleft, acute. Pericarp: capsule large, roundish, echinate, with deciduous prickles, five-celled, five-valved: partitions opposite to the valves. Seeds solitary or in pairs, oblong, involved in a berried aril. The number of parts varies from three to six. *Aubl. Sw.—Essential Character.* Calyx one-leaved, from five to nine cleft. Corolla none. Anthers growing to the filaments below the top. Capsule echinate, from three to six-celled, from three to six-valved. Seeds two in a berried aril.

1. *Sloanea dentata*.—Leaves ovate; stipules cordate-triangular, serrate. The trunk of this tree rises to forty or fifty feet, and is two feet in diameter. The leaves are large like those of the chesnut. The flowers also are very large, indented at the edge, oval, and ending in a point, on a long pedicel, having two stipules deeply toothed at the base. They grow in bunches from the axils.—Native of South America.

2. *Sloanea Massoni*.—This is a tall tree, with alternate leaves more than a foot long, angular-toothed, nerved, smooth on both sides, somewhat coriaceous, on long round pubescent petioles. Flowers in axillary racemes towards the end of the branchlets, much shorter than the leaves, many-flowered, nodding, on long peduncles mostly two together, bearing each one biggish green flower. It differs from the preceding in having the leaves rounded at the end; the stipules linear; the flowers smaller with the calyx commonly five-leaved; and the capsules with longer bristles.—Native of the West Indies.

3. *Sloanea sinemariensis*.—Leaves roundish-ovate, quite entire; capsules ovate, bristly, opening from the top. Height forty or fifty feet, with a cloven ferruginous or cinereous bark. Racemes axillary, shorter than the petioles, many-flowered. Flowers small, on short one-flowered peduncles, with a single little bracte at the base. Capsule the size of a large walnut, four or five celled and valved, the valves red within. Seeds solitary, covered with a red pulpy aril.—Native of South America and the West Indian Islands.

SLOATH, or **SLOTH**, the name of an animal remarkable for its slow motion. Of this animal there are two species. See **BRADYPUS**.

SLOATS, *s.* Of a cart, are those underpieces which keep the bottom together. *Bailey.*

To **SLO'BBER**, *v. a.* [*slobberen*, Teut.] To slaver; to spill upon; to slabber. See To **SLABBER**.

SLO'BBER, *s.* Slaver; liquor spilled.

SLO'BBERY, *adj.* [*slobberen*, Teut. *lavum sive flaccidum esse.*] Moist; dank; floody.

I will sell my dukedom,
To buy a *slobberry* and dirty farm
In that nook-shotten isle of Albion.

Shakspeare.

SLOBODSKOI, a town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Viatka, on the river Viatka. It contains about 4700 inhabitants, who carry on a pretty active traffic with Archangel, in corn, tallow, flax, and furs. They have some manufactures of soap and leather, and in the environs there are several forges. The rearing of cattle and

of bees is carried on in the neighbouring country, to a very considerable extent; 20 miles north-north-east of Viatka. Lat. 58. 40. N. long. 50. 44. E.

To **SLOCK**, or To **SLO'CKEN**, *v. n.* [*slockna*, Su. Goth. *sloekka*, Icel.] To slake; to quench. *Slocken* is our northern word.

SLODTZ (René Michael), surnamed Michael Angelo, a sculptor, was born at Paris in 1705. He studied under his father, who was a native of Antwerp, after which he went to Rome, and upon his return he was admitted a member of the academy of Paris, where he died in 1764. One of his most considerable works is the monument of Languet, in the church of St. Sulpice.

SLOE, *s.* [fla, Saxon; *slee*, Danish.] The fruit of the blackthorn, a small wild plum.

The fair pomegranate might adorn the pine,
The grape the bramble, and the *sloe* the vine. *Blackmore.*

SLOKUM'S ISLAND, one of the Elizabeth's islands, on the coast of the United States, in Buzzard's bay, Massachusetts.

SLOLEY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles north-north-east of Coltishall.

SLONIM, a town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Grodno, of which it was for some years the capital. It is tolerably built for so backward a country, contains 4500 inhabitants, and has some trade in corn, leather, and potash. Its best building was formerly a Jesuits' college; 44 miles south-south-west of Novogrodek. Lat. 52. 50. N. long. 25. 19. E.

SLOOM, or **SLOUM**, *s.* [Teut. *sluymen*, leviter dormire Kilian. Sax. plumeþuan.] A gentle sleep or slumber. North. *Grose.*

SLOO'MY, *adj.* [*lome*, Teut. tardus, piger.] Sluggish; slow. *Skinner.*

SLOOP, *s.* [*chaloupe*, Fr.] A small ship, commonly (but not always) with only one mast.

SLOOTEN, a village of the Netherlands, near Amsterdam.

SLOOTEN, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Friesland, on a lake of the same name, near the Zuyder Zee. Population 1200; 10 miles east of Stavereen.

To **SLOP**, *v. a.* To drink grossly and greedily.—To soil by letting water or other liquor fall.

SLOP, *s.* Mean and vile liquor of any kind. Generally some nauseous or useless medicinal liquor.

But thou, whatever *slops* she will have bought,
Be thankful.

Dryden.

Soil or spot made by water or other liquors fallen upon the place.

SLOP, *s.* [probably from the Sax. *flopen*, *loose*; *ro-plupen*, *relaxatus*. The word was formerly used in the singular number: as in Chaucer, "His overest *sloppe* is not worth a mite," Chan. Yem. Prol. And in Barret's Alv. 1580. "A *slop* or an over stock:" applied to female dress also; as *slops* had before been by Huloet, and as that word is used in our Homilies.] Trowsers; large and loose breeches; drawers.—What said master Dombledon about the satin for my short cloak and *slops*? *Shakspeare.*

Six great *slops*,
Bigger than three Dutch hoys!

B. Jonson.

Ready-made clothes. See **SLOP-SELLER**.

SLOP-SELLER, *s.* One who sells ready-made clothes.—The *slop-seller* is a person crept into the navy, I mean to monopolize the vending of clothing only, but since the restoration of king Charles the Second; nor, then, but by degrees, as he could make interest, and have interest in the affair. *Maydnam.*

SLOP-SHOP, *s.* Place where ready-made clothes are sold.

SLOPE, *adj.* [This word is not derived from any satisfactory original. Mr. Tooke calls it the past participle of the

Sax.

Sax. *slapan*, to slip, and Serenius refers it to the Su. Goth. *slæpa*, "oblique et indirecte ferri." Oblique; not perpendicular. It is generally used of acclivity or declivity; forming an angle greater or less with the plane of the horizon.

Murmuring waters fall

Down the *slope* hills, dispers'd, or in a lake,
That to the fringed bank with myrtle crown'd
Her crystal mirror holds, unite their streams. *Milton.*

SLOPE, *s.* An oblique direction; any thing obliquely directed.—Declivity; ground cut or formed with declivity.

My lord advances with majestic mien,
And when up ten steep *slopes* you've dragg'd your thighs,
Just at his study door he'll bless your eyes. *Pope.*

SLOPE, *adv.* Obliquely; not perpendicularly.

Uriel

Returned on that bright beam, whose point now rais'd
Bore him *slope* downward to the sun, now fall'n. *Milton.*

To **SLOPE**, *v. a.* To form to obliquity or declivity; to direct obliquely.

All night I slept, oblivious of my pain;
Aurora dawn'd, and Phæbus shin'd in vain:
Nor till oblique he *slop'd* his evening ray,
Had Somnus dry'd the balmy dews away. *Pope.*

To **SLOPE**, *v. n.* To take an oblique or declivous direction.

Betwixt the midst and these the gods assign'd
Two habitable seats for human kind;
And cross their limits cut a *sloping* way.
Which the twelve signs in beautiful order sway. *Dryden.*

SLOPENESS, *s.* Obliquity; declivity; not perpendicularity.—The Italians give the cover a graceful pence of *slopeness*, dividing the whole breadth into nine parts, whereof two shall serve for the elevation of the highest ridge. *Wotton.*

SLOPEWISE, *adj.* Obliquely; not perpendicularly.—The Wear is a frith, reaching *slopewise* through the Ose from the land to low-water mark, and having in it a bent or cod with an eye-hook; where the fish entering, upon their coming back with the ebb, are stopped from issuing out again, forsaken by the water, and left dry on the Ose. *Carew.*

SLOPINGLY, *adv.* Obliquely; not perpendicularly.—These atoms do not descend always perpendicularly, but sometimes *slopingly*. *Digby.*

SLOPPY, *adj.* Miry and wet; perhaps rather *slabby*. See **SLAB**.

To **SLOT**, *v. a.* [*sluta*, Swed., to shut, applied to a door; *sluyten*, Teut., the same from *slot*, a bolt.] To strike or clash hard; to slam: as, to *slot* a door. An old Lincolnshire word.

SLOT, *s.* [*slod*, Iceland. *vestigia ferarum in nive*. Lye, and Serenius. Saxon, *plæncge*, *vestigia ferarum*. Mr. Tooke pronounces *slot* the past participle of the Sax. *slitan*, to slit. As *slot* is the print of the hoof upon the ground, this derivation seems just. Drayton, in the following passage, explains *slot* in the margin by "the tract of the foot."] The track of a deer. Milton uses it for track discoverable by the scent.

Often from his [the hart's] feed

The dogs of him do find, or thorough skilful heed
The huntsman by his *slot*, or breaking earth, perceives,
Where he hath gone to lodge. *Drayton.*

He leaves the noisome stench of his rude *slot* behind him. *Milton.*

SLOTH, *s.* [*slæþð*, *slæþð*, Saxon.] Mr. Tooke considers *sloth* as the third person singular of the verb *slapan*, to slow or make slow; i. e. that which *sloweth*. Our word was anciently written *slowth*, and also *slouth*.—Slowness; tardiness:

These cardinals trifle with me: I abhor
This dilatory *sloth* and tricks of Rome. *Shakspeare.*
Vol. XXIII. No. 1571.

Laziness; sluggishness; idleness.

False of heart, light of ear, bloody of hand,
Hog in *sloth*, fox in stealth. *Shakspeare.*

An animal.—The *sloth* is an animal of so slow a motion, that he will be three or four days at least in climbing up and coming down a tree; and to go the length of fifty paces on plain ground, requires a whole day. *Grew*. See **BRADYPUS**.

To **SLOTH**, *v. n.* To slug; to lie idle. *Obsolete.* *Prompt.*

Some time he *sloutheth* on a daie,
That he never after gete maie. *Gower.*

SLOTHFUL, *adj.* Idle; lazy; sluggish; inactive; indolent; dull of motion.

Flora commands those nymphs and knights,
Who liv'd in *slothful* ease and loose delights,
Who never acts of honour durst pursue,
The men inglorious knights, the ladies all untrue. *Dryden.*

SLOTHFULLY, *adv.* Idly; lazily; with sloth.

SLOTHFULNESS, *s.* Idleness; laziness; sluggishness; inactivity. *Slothfulness* casteth into a deep sleep, and an idle soul shall suffer hunger. *Prov.*

SLOTTERY, *adj.* [*slodderen*, Teut.; *flaccescere*.] Squalid; dirty; untrimmed. Mr. Tyrwhitt reads *slotery* in the following passage, and explains it by *floating*, as hair dishevelled may be said to float upon the air. Mr. Urry and Mr. Warton both read *slotery*. The Italian *rabbuffata*, which Mr. Tyrwhitt cites, certainly means *dishevelled*, but also *shagged* or rough.

Palamon

With *slotery* berde, and ruggy ashy heres,
In clothes black. *Chaucer.*

Foul; wet: as, *slottery* weather: a Cornish expression. *Pryce.*

SLOUCH, *s.* [Dr. Johnson gives the Danish *sløff*, stupid, as the origin. Mr. Tooke calls it the Sax. past participle *plæc*, (meaning *slack* or *slow*), from *pleacian*, tardare. Serenius gives "*slok*, Sueth. homo vagus et negligens; *sloka*, propendere, caput demittere." This is in unison with our ancient usage of the word, viz., that of a lubber, a lazy fellow. See Sherwood in **V. SLOUCH**, and Cotgrave.] An idle fellow; one who is stupid, heavy, or clownish.

Begin thy carols then, thou vaunting *slouch*;
Be thine the oaken staff, or mine the pouch. *Gay.*

A downcast look; a depression of the head; an ungainly, clownish gait or manner.—Our doctor has every quality which can make a man useful; but, alas! he hath a sort of *slouch* in his walk. *Swift.*

To **SLOUCH**, *v. n.* To have a downcast clownish look, gait, or manner. The awkward, negligent, clumsy, and *slouching* manner of a booby. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

To **SLOUCH**, *v. a.* To depress; to press down: as, to *slouch* the hat.

SLO'VEN, *s.* [*slœf*, Dutch; *yslyvn*, Welsh, "*Slowen*, *slouen*, *sloven* the past participle of the Sax. *slapan*, to slow, make slow, or cause to be slow." H. Tooke.] A man indecently negligent of cleanliness; a man dirtily dressed.

You laugh, half beau, half *sloven* if I stand;
My wig half powder, and all snuff my band. *Pope.*

SLO'VENLINESS, *s.* Indecent negligence of dress; neglect of cleanliness.—*Slovenliness* is the worst sign of a hard student, and civility the best exercise of the remiss; yet not to be exact in the phrase of compliment, or gestures of courtesy. *Wotton*.—Any negligence or carelessness.—Vander Cabel seems to have been a careless artist; and discovers great *slovenliness* in many of his works; but in those which he has studied, and carefully executed, there is great beauty. *Gilpin.*

SLO'VENLY, *adj.* Negligent of dress; negligent of neatness; not neat; not cleanly: coarse.—A *slovenly* wincer of a confutation. *Milton*.—Æsop at last found out
4 F a *slovenly*

a *slovenly* lazy fellow, lolling at his ease as if he had nothing to do. *L'Estrange*.

SLO'VENLY, *adv.* In a course inelegant manner.—As I hang my clothes on somewhat *slovenly*, I no sooner went in but he frowned upon me. *Pope*.

SLO'VENRY, *s.* Dirtiness; want of neatness.

Our gayness and our gilt are all besmirch'd
With rainy marching in the painful field:
There's not a piece of feather in our host,
And time hath worn us into *slovenry*. *Shakspeare*.

SLOUGEA, a village of Tunis, on the northern bank of the Megesdah; 12 miles north-east of Tunis.

SLOUGH, *s.* [flog, Saxon; the past participle of fleacian, fleacian, to slow or cause to be slow; *ch* being changed into *gh*; flog, i. e. *slow* (water). Mr. H. Tooke.] A deep miry place; a hole full of dirt.

The ways being foul, twenty to one,
He's here stuck in a *slough*, and overthrown. *Milton*.

The skin which a serpent casts off at his periodical renovation. [perhaps from *sleek*. Neither Dr. Johnson, nor other lexicographers, give an etymon of this meaning.]

When the mind is quicken'd,
The organs, though defunct and dead before,
Break up their drowsy grave, and newly move,
With casted *slough* and fresh legerity. *Shakspeare*.

It is used by Shakspeare simply for the skin.
As the snake, roll'd in a flowery bank,
With shining checker'd *slough*, doth sting a child,
That for the beauty thinks it excellent. *Shakspeare*.

The part that separates from a foul sore.—At the next dressing I found a *slough* come away with the dressings, which was the sordes. *Wiseman*.

To SLOUGH, *v. n.* To part from the sound flesh. A surgical term.

SLOUGH, a village of England, in Buckinghamshire. The celebrated Dr. Herschell has here his residence and observatory, where he has for many years pursued his astronomical studies. The village is noted for its inns. Market on Thursday; 21 miles west of London.

SLO'UGHA, *adj.* Miry; boggy; muddy.—That custom should not be allowed, of cutting scraws in low grounds *sloughy* underneath, which turn into bog. *Swift*.

SLOW, *adj.* [flap, flæp, Saxon, which Mr. Tooke considers as the past participle of fleacian. Dr. Johnson notices the ancient Frisick *sleuw*: to which may be added the Swed. *sloe*, and Icel. *slour*.] Not swift; not quick of motion; not speedy; not having velocity; wanting celerity.

Me thou think'st not *slow*,
Who since the morning-hour set out from heaven,
Where God resides and on mid-day arriv'd
In Eden, distance inexpressible. *Milton*.

Late; not happening in a short time.
These changes in the heav'ns, though *slow*, produc'd
Like change on sea and land. *Milton*.

Not ready; not prompt; not quick.—Mine ear shall not be *slow*, mine eye not shut. *Milton*.—Dull; inactive; tardy; sluggish.

Fix'd on defence, the Trojans are not *slow*
To guard their shore from an expected foe. *Dryden*.

Not hasty; acting with deliberation; not vehement.—The Lord is merciful, and *slow* to anger. *Common Prayer*.—Dull; heavy in wit.—The blockhead is a *slow* worm. *Pope*.

SLOW, in composition, is an adverb, *slowly*.—For eight *slow*-circling years by tempests tost. *Pope*.

Some demon urg'd
T' explore the fraud with guile oppos'd to guile,
Slow-pacing thrice around the insidious pile. *Pope*.

To SLOW, *v. a.* To omit by dilatoriness; to delay; to procrastinate. *Not now in use*.

Now do you know the reason of this haste?
—I would I knew not why it should be *slow*. *Shakspeare*.

SLOW, *s.* [rhp, Saxon, tinea.] A moth. *Obsolete*. "It is a *slowe*." *Chaucer*.

SLOWAKS, or **SLAWENZI**, one of the principal races of Slavonian descent, settled in the Austrian empire, and supposed to be descendants of the Bohemians and Moravians, who, in the middle ages, extended their settlements over a considerable track of country. They are found in the north-west of Hungary, in the east and south of Moravia, and in Austrian Silesia; they are traced also, but in smaller proportions, in Austrian Poland and the Buckowine. Their settlement in Hungary took place in the 14th and 15th centuries. They are in general an uneducated and ignorant race, piquing themselves on a display of finery, and exhibiting, on their great festivals, a curious assemblage of grotesque ornaments. See **SCLAVONIA**.

SLOWBACK, *s.* A lubber; an idle fellow. *Cotgrave*, and *Sherwood*.—The *slowbacks* and lazie bones will none of this. *Favour*.

SLOWLY, *adv.* [Sax. flaulice.] Not speedily; not with celerity; not with velocity.

The gnome rejoicing bears her gifts away,
Spreads his black wings, and *slowly* mounts to day. *Pope*.

Not soon; not early; not in a little time.—The poor remnant of human seed peopled their country again *slowly* by little and little. *Bacon*.

Our fathers bent their baneful industry
To check a monarchy that *slowly* grew;
But did not France or Holland's fate foresee,
Whose rising power to swift dominion flew. *Dryden*.

We oft our *slowly* growing works impart,
While images reflect from art to art. *Pope*.

Not hastily; not rashly: as, he determines *slowly*. Not promptly; not readily: as he learns *slowly*. Tardily; sluggishly.—The chapel of St. Laurence advances so very *slowly*, that 'tis not impossible but the family of Medicis may be extinct before their burial-place is finished. *Addison*.

SLOWNESS, *s.* Smallness of motion; not speed; want of velocity; absence of celerity or swiftness.—Motion is the absolute mode of a body, but swiftness or *slowness* are relative ideas. *Watts*.—Length of time in which any thing acts or is brought to pass; not quickness.—Tyrants use what art they can to increase the *slowness* of death. *Hooker*.—Dulness to admit conviction or affection.—Christ would not heal their infirmities, because of the hardness and *slowness* of their hearts, in that they believed him not. *Bentley*.—Want of promptness; want of readiness. Deliberation; cool delay. Dilatoriness; procrastination.

SLOWWORM, *s.* [flap-worm, Saxon.] The blind worm; a small kind of viper, not mortal, scarcely venomous.—Though we have found formed snakes in the belly of the caecilia, or *slowworm*, yet may the viper emphatically bear the name. *Brown*.

To SLU'BBER, *v. a.* To do any thing lazily, imperfectly, or with idle hurry.—Nature shewed she doth not like men, who *slubber* up matters of mean account. *Sidney*.

Bassanio told him, he would make some speed
Of his return: he answer'd, Do not so,
Slubber not business for my sake. *Shakspeare*.

To stain; to daub. [This seems to be from *slobber*, *slabber*, or *slaver*.]—You must be content to *slubber* the gloss of your new fortunes with this more stubborn and boisterous expedition. *Shakspeare*.

O love, how sweet thou look'st now, and how gentle!
I should have *slubber'd* thee, and stain'd thy beauty. *Beaumont and Fl.*

Lady, I ask your pardon, whose virtue I have
Slubbered with my tongue. *Beaumont and Fl.*

To cover coarsely or carelessly. This is now not in use, otherwise than as a low colloquial word.—A man of secret ambitious ends of his own, and of proportionate counsels, smothered under the habit of a scholar, and *slubbered* over with a certain rude and clownish fashion that had the semblance of integrity. *Wotton*.

To SLU'BBER, *v. n.* To be in a hurry; to move with hurry.—Which answers are to be done not in a huddling or *slubbering* fashion. *Herbert.*

SLU'BBERDEGULLION, *s.* [A cant word, probably without derivation.] A paltry, dirty, sorry wretch.

Quoth she, although thou hast deserv'd,
Base *slubberdegullion*, to be serv'd
As thou didst now to deal with me,
If thou hadst got the victory.

Hudibras.

SLU'BBERINGLY, *adv.* In an imperfect or slovenly manner.—And *slubberingly* patch up some slight and shallow rhyme. *Drayton.*

SLUCK, a town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Minsk, formerly the capital of a duchy. The dwelling-houses are built of wood, as is usual in this country, but the churches and convents are of stone. It has three castles, and a central school, in which are taught the natural and mathematical sciences, Latin and German. The Calvinists have here also a high school; 52 miles south of Minsk. Lat. 52. 20. N. long. 27. 50. E.

SLUDGE, *s.* [I suppose from *flog*, *slough*, Saxon.] Mire; dirt mixed with water.—The earth I made a mere soft *sludge* or mud. *Mortimer.*

SLUG, *s.* [*slug*, Danish, and *stock*, Dutch, signify a glutton, and thence one that has the sloth of a glutton. Dr. Johnson.—Tooke refers *slug*, the reptile, to *flog*, Sax. *slow*, the past participle of *pleaxian*, *tardare*, to slow, to make or cause to be slow.] An idler; a drone; a slow, heavy, sleepy, lazy wretch.—Fie, what a *slug* is Hastings, that he comes not! *Shakspeare.*—As for all other sorts of the Turks, both foot and horse, they are but *slugs*. *Fuller.*—An hindrance; an obstruction.—Usury dulls and damps all improvements, wherein money would be stirring, if it were not for this *slug*. *Bacon.*—A kind of slow creeping snail.—We must ascribe it to the brutes, not excepting the most stupid of them, the *slug* and the beetle. *Search.*—[*pleeg*, a *hammerhead*, Sax.] A large bullet.—Shooting arrows dipt in poison, and discharging *slugs* against our neighbour's reputation. *Barrow.*

To SLUG, *v. n.* To lie idle; to play the drone; to move slowly.

All he did was to deceive good knights,
And draw them from pursuit of praise and fame,

To *slug* in sloth and sensual delights,
And end their days with irrenowned shame. *Spenser.*

To SLUG, *v. a.* To make sluggish.—It worsens and *slugs* the most learned. *Milton.*

SLUG-A-BED, *s.* One who is fond of lying in bed; a drone. *Sherwood.*

Why, lady! fie, you *slug-a-bed!*—
What, not a word? *Shakspeare.*

SLU'GGARD, *s.* An idler; a drone; an inactive lazy fellow.

Cry mercy, lords, and watchful gentlemen,
That you have ta'en a tardy *sluggard* here. *Shakspeare.*

SLU'GGARD, *adj.* Lazy; sluggish.
Sprightly May commands our youth to keep
The vigils of her night, and breaks their *sluggard* sleep.
Dryden.

To SLU'GGARDIZE, *v. a.* To make idle; to make dronish.

Rather see the wonders of the world abroad,
Than, living dully *sluggardiz'd* at home,
Wear out thy youth with shapeless idleness. *Shakspeare.*

SLU'GGISH, *adj.* Dull; drowsy; lazy; slothful; idle; insipid; slow; inactive; inert.

Sluggish idleness, the nurse of sin,
Upon a slothful ass she choose to ride. *Spenser.*

SLU'GGISHLY, *adv.* Dully; not nimbly; lazily; idly; slowly.

SLU'GGISHNESS, *s.* Dulness; sloth; laziness; idleness; inertness.—It is of great moment to teach the mind to shake off its *sluggishness*, and vigorously employ itself about what reason shall direct. *Locke.*

SLU'GGY, *adj.* Sluggish. See the Prompt. Parv. It is once used by Chaucer.

SLUICE, *s.* [*sluyse*, Dutch; *escluse*, Fr.; *sclusa*, Ital.; from *clausus*, Lat. *shut up*. *Slusa* is used in the Salic law for *clausura*, according to Kilian.] A watergate; a floodgate; a vent for water.

Two other precious drops that ready stood,
Each in their crystal *sluice*, he ere they fell
Kiss'd, as the gracious signs of sweet remorse,
And pious awe, that fear'd to have offended. *Milton.*
Divine Alpheus, who, by secret *sluice*,
Stole under seas to meet his Arethuse. *Milton.*

To SLUICE, *v. a.* To emit by floodgates.

Like a traitor coward,
Sluic'd out his inn'cent soul through streams of blood.
Shakspeare.

SLUTCY, *adj.* Falling in streams as from a sluice or floodgate.

And oft whole sheets descend of *sluicy* rain,
Suck'd by the spongy clouds from off the main:
The lofty skies at once come pouring down,
The promis'd crop and golden labours down. *Dryden.*

SLUIN, a small town of the Austrian states, in Croatia; 23 miles south of Carlstadt.

SLUIS, a petty town of French Flanders, on the small river Seneet.

To SLU'MBER, *v. n.* [*plumepian*, Sax.; *sluymeren*, Dutch; after which form our word was anciently written "To *slomeryn*." Prompt. Parv.] To sleep lightly; to be not awake nor in profound sleep.—He that keepeth Israel shall neither *slumber* nor sleep. *Psalms.*—To sleep; to repose. *Sleep* and *slumber* are often confounded.

Have ye chosen this place,
After the toil of battle, to repose
Your wearied virtue, for the use you find
To *slumber* here? *Milton.*

To be in a state of negligence and supineness.
Why *slumbers* Pope, who leads the tuneful train,
Nor hears that virtue which he loves complain? *Young.*

To SLU'MBER, *v. a.* To lay to sleep.—To *slumber* his conscience in the doing, he [Felton] studied other incentives. *Wotton.*—To stupify; to stun.

Then up he took the *slumber'd* senseless corse,
And ere he could out of his swoon awake,
Him to his castle brought. *Spenser.*

SLU'MBER, *s.* Light sleep; sleep not profound.
And for his dreams, I wonder he's so fond
To trust the mock'ry of unquiet *slumbers*. *Shakspeare.*

Sleep; repose.
Boy! Lucius! fast asleep? It is no matter;
Enjoy the honey-heavy dew of *slumber*. *Shakspeare.*

Ev'n lust and envy sleep, but love denies
Rest to my soul, and *slumber* to my eyes:
Three days I promis'd to attend my doom,
And two long days and nights are yet to come. *Dryden.*

SLU'MBERER, *s.* [*plumep*, Sax.] One who slumbers.—A *slumberer* stretching on his bed. *Donne.*

SLU'MBERING, *s.* State of repose.—God speaketh, yet man perceiveth it not: in a dream, in a vision of the night, when deep sleep falleth upon men, in *slumberings* upon the bed. *Job.*

SLU'MBEROUS, *adj.* Inviting to sleep; soporiferous; causing sleep.

The timely dew of sleep,
Now falling with soft *slumberous* weight, inclines
Our eyelids. *Milton.*

SLU'MBERY,

SLUMBERY, *adj.* Sleepy; not waking. *Unused.*—A great perturbation in nature! to receive at once the benefit of sleep, and do the effects of watching: in this *slumbery* agitation, what have you heard her say? *Shakspeare.*

SLUNG. The preterite and participle passive of *sling*.

SLUNK. The preterite and participle passive of *slink*.

Silence accompany'd; for beast, and bird,
They to their grassy couch, these to their nests,
Were *slunk*.

Milton.

To SLUR, *v. a.* [*slorig*, Teut. nasty; *sloore*, a slut. We had formerly *slory*, to make filthy, to sully. It then became *slurry*; and lastly, *slur*.] To sully; to soil; to contaminate.—They impudently *slur* the gospel, in making it no better than a romantic legend. *Cudworth.*—To pass lightly; to balk; to miss. Commonly with *over*.

Studious to please the genius of the times,
With periods, points, and tropes, he *slurs* his crimes;
He robb'd not, but he borrow'd from the poor,
And took but with intention to restore.

Dryden.

To cheat; to trick.

What was the publick faith found out for,
But to *slur* men of what they fought for?

Hudibras.

SLUR, *s.* Faint reproach; slight disgrace.—No one can rely upon such an one, either with safety to his affairs, or without a *slur* to his reputation; since he that trusts a knave has no other recompence, but to be accounted a fool for his pains. *South.*—Trick.

All the politicks of the great
Are like the cunning of a cheat,
That lets his false dice freely run,
And trusts them to themselves alone;
But never lets a true one stir
Without some fing'ring trick or *slur*.

Butler.

[In Music.] A mark denoting a connection of one note with another.

SLUR, in Music, a mark like the arc of a circle, drawn from one note to another, comprehending two or more notes in the same or different degrees.

SLUPZE, a town of Prussian Poland; 41 miles east-by-south of Posen. Population 1100.

SLUSE (René Francis), an eminent mathematician, was born of a noble family at Vise, a small town in the bishopric of Liege, in 1622. He was educated for the church, and was a man of great learning in jurisprudence, medicine, and in the Greek, Hebrew, Arabic, and other Oriental languages. His principal work is entitled "Mesolabium et Problemata Solida," 4to. In this work M. Sluse rendered great service to the mathematical sciences, by simplifying some parts of the analysis of Des Cartes, which had engaged the attention of many eminent geometricians. He is author of a method, by which any solid equation being proposed, it may be constructed in an infinite variety of ways by means of the circle and any one of the conic sections. He first gave a specimen of this method in the above work, but concealed the analysis till he published the second edition of it in 1688. An account of it is given by Montucla, in his "History of the Mathematics." This author remarks, that Sluse's Geometrical Miscellanies, which appeared in this second edition, do honour to the author, and afford a proof of the great progress he had made in analysis. Sluse's papers in the Philosophical Transactions are, 1. "A short and easy method of drawing Tangents to all Geometrical Curves," vol. vii. 2. "A demonstration of the same," vol. viii. 3. "On the Optic Angle of Alhazen."

SLUSZEWO, a town of Poland; 10 miles south of Thorn. Population 1050.

SLUT, *s.* [Teut. *slodde* and *slet*. Tooke considers it as the past participle of *slapian*, to slow; *slowed*, *slow'd*, *sloud*, *slout*, *slut*; and observes, that the word was formerly applied to males. Hence, in an old Homily, "Men, when they intend to have their friends or neighbours to come to their houses to eat or drink with them,—will have their houses to be clean and fine, lest they should be counted

sluttish, or little to regard their friends."] A dirty person; now confined to a dirty woman.

Among these other of *sloutes* kinde,
Whiche all labour set behinde,
And hateth all business,
There is yet one, which Idleness
Is cleped:—

In wynter doth he nought for colde,
In somer maie he nought for hete!

Gower.

The veal's all rags, the butter's turn'd to oil;
And thus I buy good meat for *sluts* to spoil.

King.

A word of slight contempt to a woman.

Hold up, you *sluts*,
Your aprons mountant; you're not oathfable,
Although I know you'll swear.

Shakspeare.

SLUTTERY, *s.* The qualities or practice of a slut.—A man gave money for a black, upon an opinion that his swarthy colour was rather *sluttery* than nature, and the fault of his master that kept him no cleaner. *L'Estrange.*

SLUTTISH, *adj.* Nasty; not nice; not cleanly; dirty; indecently negligent of cleanliness.—Albeit the mariners do covet store of cabbins, yet indeed they are but *sluttish* dens that breed sickness in peace, serving to cover stealths, and in fight are dangerous to tear men with their splinters. *Ralegh.*—It is used sometimes for *meretricious*.—She got a legacy by *sluttish* tricks. *Holiday.*

SLUTTISHLY, *adv.* In a sluttish manner; nastily; dirtily.

SLUTTISHNESS, *s.* The qualities or practice of a slut; nastiness; dirtiness.

SLUYS, or ECLUSE, a fortified town of the Netherlands; Cadsand, near the province of Zealand, situated on an arm of the sea. Its harbour, formerly deep and capacious, is now unfit for receiving any but small vessels. It is furnished with sluices for laying the surrounding country under water, from which its present name is derived. It was taken by the French in 1794. Population 1200; 10 miles north of Bruges, and 20 north-east of Ostend. Lat. 51. 18. 35. N. long. 3. 23. 9. E.

SLY, *adj.* [rlið, Sax., *slippery*, and, metaphorically, deceitful; *slaegr*, Iceland. versutus; and thus *slygh* was an ancient form of our word: "*slygh* as serpentis." *Wicliffe.*—Meanly artful; secretly insidious; cunning.

And for I doubt the Greekish monarch *sly*,
Will use with him some of his wonted craft.

Fairfax.

His proud step he scornful turn'd,
And with *sly* circumspection.

Milton.

Slight; thin; fine. *Not in use.*—Lids devis'd of substance *sly*. *Spenser.*

SLYLY, or SLILY, *adv.* With secret artifice; insidiously.

Hypocrites,
That *slyly* speak one thing, another think.

Philips.

SLYME HEAD, a cape on the west coast of Ireland. Lat. 53. 23. N. long. 10. 14. W.

SLYNE, a hamlet of England, in Lancashire; 2½ miles north of Lancaster.

SLYNESS, or SLINESS, *s.* But *slyness* is to be preferred. Addison so writes it. See SLINESS.

To SMACK, *v. n.* [mæccan, Saxon; *smæcken*, Dutch.]—To have a taste; to be tingured with any particular taste.—[It] *smacketh* like pepper. *Barret.*—To have a tincture or quality infused.

All sects, all ages, *smack* of this vice, and he
To die for it!

Shakspeare.

To make a noise by separation of the lips strongly pressed together, as after a taste.—He that by a willing audience and attention doth readily suck it [slander] up, or who greedily swalloweth it down by credulous approbation and assent; he that pleasingly relisheth it, and *smacketh* at it; as he is a partner in the fact, so he is a sharer in the guilt.

Barrow.

Barrow.—To kiss with a close compression of the lips, so as to be heard when they separate.—He gives a *smacking* buss. *Pope*.

To SMACK, *v. a.* To kiss.

So careless flowers, strow'd on the waters' face,
The curled whirlpools suck, *smack*, and embrace,
Yet drown them.

Donne.

To make to emit any quick smart noise.

More than one steed must Delia's empire feel,
Who sits triumphant o'er the flying wheel;
And as she guides it through the admiring throng,
With what an air she *smacks* the silken thong!

Young.

SMACK, *s.* [ɹmæc, Sax. *smaeck*, Dutch; from the verb.]—Taste; savour.—Tincture; quality from something mixed.

As the Pythagorean soul
Runs through all beasts, and fish and fowl,
And has a *smack* of ev'ry one,
So love does, and has ever done.

Hudibras.

A pleasing taste.

Stack pease upon hovel;
To cover it quickly let owner regard,
Lest dove and the cadow there finding a *smack*,
With ill stormy weather do perish thy stack.

Tusser.

A small quantity; a taste.

Trembling to approach
The little barrel, which he fears to broach,
H' essays the wimble, often draws it back,
And deals to thirsty servants but a *smack*.

Dryden.

The act of parting the lips audibly, as after a pleasing taste.—A loud kiss.

He took

The bride about the neck, and kiss'd her lips
With such a clamorous *smack*, that at the parting
All the church echo'd.

Shakspeare.

[*snacca*, Saxon; *sneckra*, Icelandic.] A small ship.—A blow, given with the flat of the hand: as, a *smack* on the face.

SMALAND, a province in the south of Sweden, lying between the Baltic and the province of Halland. It now forms the governments of Jonkioping and Cronoberg, also part of that of Calmar, having a superficial extent of 7750 square miles, with a population of 315,000. Smaland is well watered, both by rivers and lakes: of the former, the chief are the Nissa, the Laga, and the Aem; of the latter, the Wetter, the Som, the Vidoester, and the Moekel. Few countries can boast of more picturesque scenery than the neighbourhood of Jonkioping and some other places in this province; but the greater part consists of barren rocks, forests, marshes, and heaths, and the corn land is confined to tracks lying between these unproductive wastes. This accounts in part for the comparative thinness of the inhabitants. Honey forms no insignificant article of rural produce; but the chief object is the breeding of cattle in the extensive pastures. The forests and mines furnish materials for a considerable export trade in wood, tar, pitch, iron, and copper; some silver and lead are occasionally to be found, but no mines of these metals are wrought. This province had the honour of giving birth to Linnaeus.

SMALCALDEN, a district in the west of Germany, belonging to Hesse-Cassel, but lying considerably to the east of the rest of the electorate, being adjacent to Saxe-Gotha and Saxe-Meinungen. Its territorial extent is 115 square miles; its population 22,000, almost all Lutherans. It is a very mountainous country, and contains mines of iron and coal, which, with the manufacture of salt from brine springs, affords employment to the inhabitants. The exports consist chiefly of hardware, potash, and white lead.

SMALCALDEN, the chief town of the above district, is situated on a river of the same name, not far from the Werra. It contains a castle, three suburbs, and 4700 inhabitants.

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About four miles from the town is a hill called Stahlberg, with mines of iron, which is converted into steel, and manufactured in the town into knives, awls, needles, and other hardware. In the neighbourhood there are several salt-works. In the 16th century, the Protestant princes of the empire held several meetings here, in which they adopted resolutions of great importance to their cause: it was in 1531 that they formed here the famous league to defend the liberties of the empire against the encroachments of Charles V., and sanctioned the confession of faith drawn up by Luther. Cellarius, the well known geographer, was a native of this place; 56 miles south-west of Cassel, and 9 north of Meinungen.

SMALCALDEN, LITTLE, a town of Germany, in the Henneberg; 4 miles west from Smalcalden. It is divided by a rivulet into two parts, one of which, containing 900 inhabitants, belongs to the elector of Hesse; the other, containing 600, to Saxe-Gotha. The inhabitants manufacture hardware.

SMALCIUS (Valentine), a celebrated writer in favour of Unitarianism, was born in Thuringia, and died at Cracow, in Poland, in 1622. His principal work was "A Treatise on the Divinity of Christ," written in the Latin language, and printed in 1608.

SMALESMOUTH, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 21 miles north-west of Hexham.

SMALL, *adj.* [ɹmal, Saxon; *smal*, Dutch; *smaa*, Icelandic.]—Little in quantity.

Death only this mysterious truth unfolds,
The mighty soul how *small* a body holds.

Dryden.

All numeration is but still the adding of one unit more, and giving to the whole together a distinct name, whereby to distinguish it from every *smaller* or greater multitude of units. *Locke*.—The ordinary *smallest* measure we have is looked on as an unit in number. *Locke*.—Little in degree.—There arose no *small* stir about that way.—Little in importance.—Is it a *small* matter that thou hast taken my husband? *Genesis*.—Some men's behaviour is like a verse, wherein every syllable is measured: how can a man comprehend great matters that breaketh his mind too much to *small* observations? *Bacon*.—*Small* is the subject, but not so the praise. *Pope*.—Little in the principal quality: as *small* beer; not strong; weak.—Gentle; soft; melodious.

The company answered all
With voices sweet entuned, and so *small*,
That me thought it the sweetest melody,
That ever I heard in my life soothly.

Chaucer.

SMALL, *s.* The narrow part of any thing. It is particularly applied to the part of the leg below the calf.—Her garment was cut after such a fashion, that though the length of it reached to the ancles, yet in her going one might sometimes discern the *small* of her leg. *Sidney*.

To SMALL, *v. a.* To make little or less. *Obsolete*.

SMALL ISLES, a parish of Scotland, in the Hebrides, comprehending the islands of Eigg, Rum, Canna, and Muck. Population 1547.

SMALL KEY, a small island in the Eastern seas. Lat. 10. 37. N. long. 247. 16. W.

SMALL POINT, a point of the United States, on the coast of Lincoln county, forming the east limit of Casco bay.

SMALL POINT, CAPE, a cape of North America, on the coast of Maine. Lat. 43. 38. N. long. 69. 50. W.

SMALLBURGH, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5½ miles north-east of Coltishall. Population 638.

SMALLCOAL, *s.* Formerly little wood coals used to light fires; now the dust of the larger coal.—A *smallcoal* man, by waking one of these distressed gentlemen, saved him from ten years' imprisonment. *Spectator*.

SMALLCRAFT, *s.* A little vessel below the denomination of ship.

Shall he before me sign, whom t' other day
A *smalcraft* vessel hither did convey;
Where stain'd with prunes, and rotten figs, he lay. *Dryden*.

SMALLEY, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 6½ miles north-east of Derby. Population 646.

SMALL HOLM, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Roxburgh, of an irregular triangular form, and in length about 4 miles. Population 455.

SMA'LLISH, *adj.* Somewhat small.
His shulderis of large brede;
And, *smalish* in the girdelstede,
He semed like a putreiture. *Chaucer*.

SMALLPOX, *s.* An eruptive distemper of great malignity; *variola*. See PATHOLOGY.—He fell sick of the *smallpox*. *Wiseman*.

SMALLS, THE, rocks in the Irish sea, on which a lighthouse is erected for the direction of seamen, about 15 miles south-west from St. David's Head. Lat. 51. 44. N. long. 5. 33. W.

SMALLWOOD, a township of England, county of Cheshire; 3 miles east-by-south of Sandbach. Population 496.

SMA'LLY, *adv.* In a little quantity; with minuteness; in a little or low degree. *Unused*.—A child that is still, and somewhat hard of wit, is never chosen by the father to be made a scholar, or else, when he cometh to the school, is *smallly* regarded. *Ascham*.

SMA'LNESSE, *s.* Littleness; not greatness.—The parts in glass are evenly spread, but are not so close as in gold; as we see by the easy admission of light, and by the *smalness* of the weight. *Bacon*.—The *smalness* of the rays of light may contribute very much to the power of the agent by which they are refracted. *Newton*.—Want of strength; weakness.—Gentleness; softness: as, “the *smalness* of a woman's voice.” *Barret*.

SMALT, *s.* [*smalto*, Ital., *smelta*, *smelta*, to melt, Su. Goth.]—A beautiful blue substance, produced from two parts of zaffre being fused with three parts common salt, and one part potash. *Hill*.—Blue glass.

SMA'RAGD, *s.* [*smaragde*, old French; *σμαραγδος*, Gr.] The emerald.—The fourth was of a *smaragde* or an emerald. *Bale*.

SMA'RAGDINE, *adj.* Made of emerald; resembling emerald.

SMARAGDUS MONS, in Ancient Geography, a mountain of Egypt, on the coast of the Arabic gulf, between Nechesia and Lepte Extrema, according to Ptolemy.

SMARDEN, a village and parish, formerly a market town of England, in Kent, situated by the Medway; 8 miles north-east of Carnbrook, and 56 south-east-by-east of London. Population 890.

SMARIS, in Ichthyology, the name of a small fish caught in the Mediterranean, and common in the markets of Rome, Venice, and elsewhere, and sold to the poorer sort of people at a very small price. This, in the Linnæan system, is a species of the SPARUS; which see.

It is seldom of more than a finger's length, and of a round, not flattened body, of a dusky blackish-green on the back and sides, and not marked with any variegations, but having on each side, near the middle of the body, one large black spot; its gill-fins and tail are of a faint red; the iris of the eyes is of a brownish-white, and the tail is forked.

SMART, *s.* [*μεορτα*, Saxon; *smert*, Dutch; *smarta*, Swedish.]—Quick, pungent, lively pain.—Then her mind, though too late, by the *smart*, was brought to think of the disease. *Sidney*.—Pain; corporal or intellectual.—It increased the *smart* of his present sufferings, to compare them with his former happiness. *Atterbury*.

To SMART, *v. n.* [*μεορταν*, Saxon; *smerten*, Dutch.] To feel quick lively pain.—When a man's wounds cease to *smart*, only because he has lost his feeling, they are nevertheless mortal. *South*.—To feel pain of body or mind.

No creature *smarts* so little as a fool.
Let peals of laughter, Codrus! round thee break,
Thou unconcern'd canst hear the mighty crack. *Pope*.

SMART, *adj.* Pungent; sharp; causing smart.—How *smart* a lash that speech doth give my conscience! *Shakespeare*.—Quick; vigorous; active.—That day was spent in *smart* skirmishes, in which many fell. *Clarendon*.—Producing any effect with force and vigour.

After showers,
The stars shine *smarter*, and the moon adorns,
As with unborrow'd beams, her sharpen'd horns. *Dryden*.

Acute; witty.—It was a *smart* reply that Augustus made to one that ministered this comfort of the fatality of things: this was so far from giving any ease to his mind, that it was the very thing that troubled him. *Tillotson*.—Brisk; vivacious; lively.—You may see a *smart* rhetorician turning his hat in his hands, during the whole course of his harangue. A deaf man would think he was cheapening a beaver. *Addison*.

SMART, *s.* A fellow affecting briskness and vivacity. *An old cant word*.

SMART (Peter), a native of Warwickshire, was educated at Westminster School, from whence he removed to Oxford, and became a student of Christchurch. After entering orders, he obtained a prebend in Durham cathedral, where he distinguished himself by his opposition to the ceremonies in religion, and the removal of the altar from the middle of the choir to the east end of the church. He preached and printed some sermons on the vanity and downfall of superstition and popish ceremonies, for which he was degraded from the ministry, and imprisoned. He died in 1642. He was likewise author of poems, Latin and English.

SMART (Christopher), a poet, born in 1722, at Shipbourne, in Kent, was educated at Maidstone and Durham schools, and at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge. He died in 1771, leaving behind him a widow and two daughters, who settled as booksellers at Reading. His works consist of fables, sonnets, odes, prize-poems, &c., printed at Reading, in 2 vols. 12mo. 1791. He published a prose translation of the works of Horace, and translations in verse of the Psalms, and of the fables of Phædrus. Recently (1827), a work by this author, and which has been long lost, has been discovered and published. It is said to contain passages of considerable beauty.

To SMA'RTEN, *v. a.* To make smart or showy: an unauthorized term.

To SMA'RTLE, *v. n.* To smartle away, is to waste or melt away. *North*.

SMA'RTLY, *adv.* After a smart manner; sharply; briskly; vigorously; wittily.—The art, order, and gravity of those proceedings, where short, severe, constant rules were set, and *smartly* pursued, made them less taken notice of. *Clarendon*.

SMARTNESS, *s.* The quality of being smart; quickness; vigour.—What interest such a *smartness* in striking the air hath in the production of sound, may in some measure appear by the motion of a bullet, and that of a switch or other wand, which produce no sound, if they do but slowly pass through the air; whereas if the one do *smartly* strike the air, and the other be shot out of a gun, the celerity of their percussions on the air puts it into an undulating motion, which, reaching the ear, produces an audible noise. *Boyle*.—Liveliness; briskness; wittiness.—I defy all the clubs to invent a new phrase, equal in wit, humour, *smartness*, or politeness, to my set. *Swift*.

To SMASH, *v. a.* [*smaccare*, Ital. to crush; *schmeissen*, Germ. to throw, to cast down.] To break in pieces.

To SMATCH, *v. n.* To have a taste. *Obsolete*.

SMATCH, in Ornithology, a name by which the common *œnanthe* is called in many parts of England.

To SMA'TTER, *v. n.* [corrupted from *smack* or *taste*, according to Dr. Johnson. Serenius and Jamieson refer it to the Icel. *smætr*, contemptus; diminutus, from *smad*, *smatt*, small.] To have a slight taste; to have a slight, superficial, and imperfect knowledge. To talk superficially or ignorantly.

In proper terms, such as men *smatter*,
When they throw out and miss the matter. *Hudibras*,
SMA'TTER,

SMATTER, *s.* Superficial or slight knowledge.—All other sciences were extinguished during this empire, excepting only a *smatter* of judicial astrology. *Temple.*

SMATTERER, *s.* One who has a slight or superficial knowledge. *Huloet.*—*Smatterers* in other men's matters, talebearers. *Burton.*—Every *smatterer* thinks all the circle of arts confined to the closet of his breast. *Bp. Hall.*

SMATTERING, *s.* Superficial knowledge.—A quarrelsome man in a parish, especially if he have gotten a little *smattering* of law, is like a colic in the guts, that tears, and wrings, and torments a whole township. *Bp. Hall.*—A *smattering* in knowledge (which is the measure of a wit) disposes men to atheism; whereas a full proportion would carry them through to the sense of God and religion. *Goodman.*

To **SMEAR**, *v. a.* [*meapz*, Saxon; *smeeren*, Teut. From *meapz*, Sax. marrow; *merghe*, Teut.; *merg*, Su. Goth. the same; the Icel. *smior*, Germ., &c., omnis generis pinguedo, as butter, ointments, &c., being from the same root, as marrow, Dr. Jamieson well observes, would be the first fat substance known.] To overspread with something viscous and adhesive; to besmar.

Then from the mountain hewing timber tall,
Began to build a vessel of huge bulk,
Smeared round with pitch.

Millon.

To soil; to contaminate.

Why had I not, with charitable hand,

Took up a beggar's issue at my gates?

Who *smeared* thus, and mir'd with infamy,

I might have said no part of it is mine.

Shakspeare.

SMEAR, *'s.* An ointment; any fat liquor or juice. *Unuscd.*

SMEAR-DAB, a fish.

SME'ARY, *adj.* Dawby; adhesive.

A *smeary* foam works o'er my grinding jaws,
And utmost anguish shakes my labouring frame.

Rowe.

SMEATH, *s.* A sea-fowl.

SMEATON (John), an eminent civil engineer, was born on the 28th of May, 1724, at Austhorpe, near Leeds. The strength of his understanding, and the originality of his genius, appeared at an early age. When he was under fifteen years of age, he made an engine for turning, and worked several things in ivory and wood, which he presented to his friends. He made all his own tools for working in wood and metals, and he constructed a lathe, by which he cut a perpetual screw in brass, a thing but little known, and which was the invention of Mr. Henry Hindley of York, with whom Mr. Smeaton became acquainted, and indeed extremely intimate. Mr. Smeaton, by the time that he was eighteen years of age, acquired, by the strength of his genius and indefatigable industry, an extensive set of tools, and the art of working in most mechanical trades, without the assistance of a master. A part of every day was usually occupied in forming some ingenious piece of mechanism. His father was an attorney, and being desirous to bring up his son to the same profession, he brought him up to London with him in 1742, and attended the courts in Westminster-Hall; but after some time, finding that the law was not suited to his disposition, he wrote a strong memorial to his father on the subject, who immediately desired the young man to follow the bent of his inclination. In 1751 he began a course of experiments to try a machine of his own invention to measure a ship's way at sea, and also made two voyages, in company with Dr. Knight, to try the effect of it, and also for the purpose of making experiments on a compass of his own construction, which was rendered magnetical by Dr. Knight's artificial magnets. In 1753 he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society; and the number of papers which he published in their Transactions, will shew how highly he deserved the honour of being enrolled a member of that body. In 1759 he received from the council of the Royal Society, by an unanimous vote, their gold medal for his paper, entitled

"An Experimental Inquiry concerning the natural Powers of Water and Wind to turn Mills and other Machines, depending on a circular Motion." The paper was the result of experiments made on working models in the years 1752 and 1753, though not communicated to the society till 1759; and in the interval he had opportunities of carrying into effect several of his inventions and theories, which rendered his paper of much more real value to the society and the public at large. In 1755, Eddystone Light-house was burnt down, and Mr. Smeaton being recommended to the proprietors of that building as an engineer in every way calculated to rebuild it, he undertook the work, which was completed in 1759, much to the satisfaction of the parties concerned. Still he was not fully employed as a civil engineer, for in the year 1764, while he was in Yorkshire, he offered himself as a candidate for the office of receiver to the Derwent-water estate; and in the course of the year he obtained the appointment in a manner most flattering to himself, inasmuch as his own merit carried the point in opposition to two other candidates who were strongly recommended and powerfully supported. He was very happy in this appointment, particularly in the assistance which he received from Mr. Walton, the other receiver, who took upon himself the management of the accounts, leaving Mr. Smeaton leisure and opportunity to exert his abilities on public works. In the year 1773, he had so much business as a civil engineer, that he wished to resign this appointment; but his friends prevailed on him to continue in office two years longer. After this, Mr. Smeaton was employed on many works of great public utility. He made the river Calder navigable, a work that required talents of the very first order, owing to the impetuous floods in that river; he planned and attended to the execution of the great canal in Scotland, for conveying the trade of the country either to the Atlantic or German Ocean; and as a proof of the disinterestedness of his habits, having brought it to the place originally intended, he declined a handsome yearly salary, in order that he might attend to other business. On the opening of the great arch at London-bridge, the excavation around and under the starlings was so considerable, that the bridge was thought to be in great danger of falling. Mr. Smeaton was then in Yorkshire, and was sent for express, and he arrived without any delay. "I think," says his biographer, "that it was on a Saturday morning when the apprehension of the bridge was so general, that few persons would venture to pass over or under it." Mr. Smeaton applied himself immediately to examine it, and to sound about the starlings as minutely as possible, and the committee being called together, adopted his advice, which was to repurchase the stones that had been taken from the middle Pier, then lying in Moorfields, and to throw them into the river to guard the starlings. In this way Mr. Smeaton probably saved London-bridge from falling, and secured it till more effectual methods could be adopted."

Mr. Smeaton was appointed engineer to Ramsgate harbour, and brought it into a state of great utility by various operations, of which he published an account in 1791. The variety of mills which Mr. Smeaton constructed, shews the great uses which he made of his experiments already referred to; for it was a rule with him, from which he never willingly deviated, not to trust to theory in any case, where he could have an opportunity to investigate a subject by real trial. He built a steam-engine at Austhorpe, and made a vast number of experiments with it to ascertain the power of Newcomen's engine which he improved and brought to a far greater degree of perfection, both in its construction and powers, than it was before. Mr. Smeaton, during many years of his life, was a frequent attendant upon parliament, his opinion on various works begun or projected being continually called for. And in these cases the strength of his judgment and perspicuity of expression had full scope. It was his constant custom, when applied to plan or support any measure, to make himself fully master of the subject, to understand its merits and probable defects, before he would engage

engage in it. By this caution, added to the clearness of his expression, and the integrity of his heart, he seldom failed to obtain for the bill which he supported the sanction of an act of parliament. No one was ever heard with more attention, nor had any one ever more confidence placed in his testimony. In the courts of law he had several compliments paid him from the bench by Lord Mansfield and other judges, for the new light that he always threw upon difficult subjects. About the year 1785, the health of this excellent man began to decline, and he took the resolution to avoid all the business he could, in order that he might have leisure to publish an account of his inventions, improvements, and works, by which he conceived he should be doing a public benefit to his country and the world. In September 1792, he had a paralytic seizure, which put a period to his life in about six weeks.

In all the social duties of life he was exemplary: his manners were simple, and his mode of life abstemious. He was singularly moderate in his pecuniary concerns. He was a friend and encourager of merit wherever he discerned it, and many persons were indebted to him for important assistance on their entrance into life. Mr. Smeaton was the institutor, in 1771, of a society of civil engineers, which was dissolved at his death, but afterwards renewed; they published, in 1797, a volume of his Reports. For his works in constructing bridges, mills, harbours, engines, &c., see his Reports, in 3 vols. 4to.

SMEATON, GREAT, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-by-west of Northallerton.

SMEATON, LITTLE, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; about 2 miles from the foregoing.

SMEATON, KIRK, and **SMEATON, LITTLE**, two townships of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6½ miles south-east of Pontefract.

SMEDMORE, a small hamlet of England, in the isle of Purbeck, Dorsetshire, near the Channel.

SMEETH, a parish of England, in Kent; 5 miles south-east of Ashford.

To SMEETH, or SMUTCH, v. a. [ʃmiððe, Saxon.] To smoke; to blacken with smoke. *Not in use.*

SMEETON WESTERBY, a township of England, county of Leicester; 5 miles north-west of Market Harborough.

SME'GMATIC, *adj.* [σμηγμα, Gr.] Soapy; detergent.

To SMELL, v. a. pret and part. *smelt.* *Etymology unknown.* To perceive by the nose.—Their neighbours hear the same music, or *smell* the same perfumes with themselves: for here is enough. *Collier.*—To find out by mental sagacity.—The horse *smelt* him out, and presently a croquet came in his head how to countermine him. *L'Estrange.*

To SMELL, v. n. To strike the nostrils.—The king is but a man as I am: the violet *smells* to him as it does to me; all his senses have but human conditions. *Shakspeare.*—To have any particular scent: with *of.*—Honey in Spain *smelleth* apparently of the rosmary or orange, from whence the bee gathereth it. *Bacon.*—To have a particular tincture or smack of any quality.

My unsoil'd name, the austereness of my life,
Will so your accusation overweigh,
That you shall stifle in your own report,
And *smell* of calumny.

Shakspeare.

To practice the act of smelling.—I had a mind to know whether they would find out the treasure, and whether *smelling* enabled them to know what is good for their nourishment. *Addison.*—To exercise sagacity.

Down with the nose, take the bridge quite away,
Of him that his particular to forefend,
Smells from the general weal.

Shakspeare.

SMELL, s. Power of smelling; the sense of which the nose is the organ.

Next in the nostrils she doth use the *smell*,
As God the breath of life in them did give;
So makes he now this power in them to dwell,
To judge all airs, whereby we breath and live. *Davies.*

Scent; power of affecting the nose.—There is a great variety of *smells*, though we have but a few names for them: the *smell* of a violet and musk, both sweet, are as distinct as any two smells. *Locke.*

SME'LLER, s. One who smells. One who is smelled.

These left-handed rascals,
The very vomit, sir, of hospitals,
Bridewells, and spittal-houses; such nasty *smellers*,
That if they'd been unfurnish'd of club-truncheons,
They might have cudgell'd me with their very stinks.

Beaum. and Fl.

The organ of smelling.

SME'LLFEAST, s. A parasite; one who haunts good tables.

Smellfeast Vitellio

Smiles on his master for a meal or two.

Bp. Hall.

SMELLIE (William), M.D., an eminent teacher and practitioner of midwifery, was a native of Scotland. After having successfully practised this art in a small town of that country for a period of nineteen years, he removed to London, and in 1741 was living in Pall-Mall, where Dr. William Hunter resided with him. This circumstance implies, that he had already risen to considerable eminence in his line, and he was in fact in high repute as a lecturer, being attended by a numerous concourse of pupils of both sexes. This reputation, indeed, he appears to have merited by his talents and assiduity; for he was the first in proposing many of the practical improvements, which modern experience has admitted into the practice of midwifery, and by his mechanical skill he contributed materially to the improvement of the instruments employed to facilitate delivery in difficult cases, and to the disuse of those which were less safe and convenient; and he established some useful rules for their application. He was the first, writer, who, by accurately determining the shape and size of the pelvis, and of the head of the fœtus, and comparing their proportions, and the true position of the fœtus in utero, pointed out clearly the whole progress of the child during parturition: and his opinions were subsequently confirmed, especially by Dr. Hunter, from observations made after death, where parturition had not been completed. The improvement which he made in the forceps, which has since been universally adopted, is well known, and he taught the present manual mode of using them. He abolished many superstitious notions and erroneous customs that prevailed in the management of parturient women and of the children; and he had the satisfaction to see the greater part of his maxims adopted, not only in this island, but by many of the most respectable practitioners in Europe.

In the year 1752, he published the substance of his lectures, in the improvement and correction of which he affirms, that he had spent six years, in one volume 8vo., under the title of "A Treatise on Midwifery;" to which, in 1754, he added a second volume of cases, intended to illustrate the precepts laid down in the former. An additional volume of cases, which he promised in his preface, did not appear till about five years after his death, in 1768. The whole formed the most complete system of the art of midwifery, which had then appeared and was regarded as the best authority: it was, in fact, the result of an extensive experience of forty years, and contained a very comprehensive view of the various circumstances, that usually occur, with instructions respecting the best means of obviating them. In 1754, Dr. Smellie likewise published a set of anatomical plates, of a large folio size, and thirty-six in number, which were intended farther to elucidate the doctrines of his lectures. He was remarkably candid and modest in his demeanour, and upright and disinterested in

all his concerns. His reputation and success were the result of his merit alone; for his awkwardness of person and unpolished manners prevented him from rising to the highest line of practice; but he was much esteemed by his pupils, and by those who employed him. He ultimately retired to Lanark, where he spent the latter years of his life, and died in 1763, at an advanced age.

SME'LLING, *s.* The sense by which smells are perceived.—If the whole body were an eye, where were the hearing? if the whole were hearing where were the *smelling*? *1 Cor.*

SMELT. The pret. and part. pass of *smell*.

A cudgel he had felt,

And far enough on this occasion *smelt*. *King.*

SMELT, *s.* [*melt*, Saxon.] A small sea-fish.—Of round fish there are brit, sprat, barn, *smelts*. *Carew.*—A salmon in its first year: so called in the north of England.

To SMELT, *v. n.* [*smalta*, Icel.; *smaelta*, *smelta*, Su. Goth., *smelten*, Dutch.] To melt ore, so as to extract the metal.—He [Ray] added the way of *smelting* and refining such metals and minerals as England doth produce. *Derham.*

SME'LTR, *s.* One who melts ore.

To SMERK, *v. n.* [*smęcjan*, Saxon.] To smile wantonly, or pertly; to seem highly pleased; to seem favourable; to fawn.—Certain gentlemen of the gown, whose aukward, spruce, prim, sneering, and *smirking* countenances have got good preferment by force of cringing. *Swift.*

SMERK, or **SMIRK**, *s.* [*smęrc*, Saxon, *risus*.] A kind of fawning smile.—A constant *smirk* upon the face, and a whiffling activity of the body, are strong indications of futility. *Chesterfield.*

SMIRKY, or **SMIRK**, *adj.* Nice; smart; jaunty.

Seest, how brag yon bullocke bears,
So *smirke*, so smoothe, his prickled ears:
His horns been as rainbow bent,
His dew-lap as lithe as lass of Kent.

Spenser.

SME'RLIN, *s.* A fish; *cobitis aculeata*.

SMERWICK, a village of Ireland, in the county of Kerry. This place gives name to a place called Smerwick Harbour, between Ballydavid Head and Dunorling Head. Here was a fortress built by the Spaniards, who made good their landing, called *Fort del Orc*, in the year 1579, and enlarged in 1580, on the edge of a cliff, which formed a small isthmus, cut through to form an island, and the communication kept by a drawbridge. In the latter year it was taken by the English. According to the tradition of the country people, the Pope's consecrated banner was buried near this place, with a considerable quantity of treasure. Some corselets of gold were discovered some years ago, about a mile from the fort. Lat. 52. 11. N. long. 10. 16. W.

SMESTALL, a small river of England, in Staffordshire, which runs into the Stour, above Stourton Castle.

SMETHCOTT, a parish of England, in Salop; 9½ miles south-south-west of Shrewsbury.

SMETHWICK, a township of England, in Cheshire; 3½ miles north-east of Sandbach.

To SMICKER, *v. n.* [*smickra*, Swed. *blandire*.] To smirk; to look amorously or wantonly. *Kersey. Unused.*

SMICKERING, *s.* A look of amorous inclination. *Unused.*—We had a young doctour, who rode by our coach, and seemed to have a *smickering* to our young lady of Pilton. *Druden.*

SMICKET, *s.* [Diminutive of *smock*, *smocket*, *smicket*.] The under garment of a woman.

SMIDARY, a town of Bohemia; 49 miles east-by-north of Prague. Population 800.

SMIDDY, *s.* [*schimide*, German; *smrðde*, Sax. See **SMITH**.] The shop of a smith. This word is still used in the north of England.—His pate is his anvil, the forge his study; so as I may properly apply those antient verses, upon this occasion, to our truant chanteryman:

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That scholar well deserves a widdie,

Who makes his study of a *smiddie*. *Comment on Chaucer.*

To SMIGHT. For *smite*.

As when a griffon, seized of his prey,
A dragon fierce encountreth in his flight,
Through widest air making his idle way,
That would his rightful ravin rend away:
With hideous horror both together *smight*,
And souce so sore that they the heavens affray. *Spenser.*

SMILAX [of Pliny. *Smilax* of Dioscorides. Derivation unknown], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order hexandria, natural order of sarmentaceæ, asparagi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth six-leaved, spreading, bell-shaped; leaflets oblong, approximating at the base, bent back and spreading at the tip. Corolla none, unless the calyx be taken for it. Stamina: filaments six, simple. Anthers oblong. Female—Calyx as in the male, deciduous. Corolla none. Pistil: germ ovate. Styles three, very small. Stigmas oblong, bent back, pubescent. Pericarp: berry globular, three celled. Seeds two, globular.—*Essential Character.* Calyx six-leaved. Corolla none. Female: styles three. Berry three-celled. Seeds two.

I.—Stem prickly, angular.

1. *Smilax aspera*, or rough smilax.—Stem prickly, angular; leaves toothed and prickly, cordate, nine-nerved. Roots perennial, composed of many thick fleshy fibres, spreading wide, and striking deep. Stems several, slender, angular, armed with short crooked spines, and having clasps on their sides, by which they fasten themselves to any neighbouring plant for support, and rise five or six feet high. Flowers axillary, in short bunches, small and whitish. Those on the female plants are succeeded by red berries which ripen in autumn. The berries are sometimes black; and there is a variety which has the leaves eared at the base.—Native of the South of France, Italy, Spain, Carniola; near Tripoli, and between Rama and Joppa.

2. *Smilax excelsa*, or tall smilax.—Stem prickly, angular; leaves unarmed, cordate, nine-nerved. Roots like those of the preceding. The flowers and fruits are like those of the first sort.—Native of Syria.

3. *Smilax Zeylanica*, or Ceylon smilax.—Stem prickly, angular; leaves unarmed; stem-leaves cordate; branch-leaves ovate-oblong.—Native of Ceylon.

4. *Smilax sarsaparilla*, or medicinal smilax or sarsaparilla.—Stem shrubby, prickly, angular; leaves unarmed, ovate, retuse, mucronate, three-nerved. Root perennial. Flowers lateral, usually three or four together upon a common peduncle.—Native of America, Peru, Brasil, Mexico and Virginia.

5. *Smilax oblongata*.—Stem prickly, angular; leaves oblong, acuminate, smooth, three-nerved; nerves prickly underneath.—Native of the West Indies, in the Carribee islands and St. Vincent.

II.—Stem prickly, round.

6. *Smilax China*, or Chinese smilax.—Stem prickly, roundish; leaves unarmed, ovate-cordate, five-nerved. Flowers in close bunches. Berries red.—Native of China, Cochinchina and Japan.

7. *Smilax rotundifolia*, or round-leaved smilax.—Stem prickly, round; leaves unarmed, cordate, acuminate, five or seven-nerved.—Native of Canada.

8. *Smilax laurifolia*, or bay-leaved smilax.—Stem prickly, round; leaves unarmed, ovate-lanceolate, three-nerved. Flowers axillary in round bunches, and succeeded by black berries.—Native of Virginia and Carolina.

9. *Smilax tamnoides*, or black briony-leaved smilax.—Stem prickly, round; leaves unarmed, cordate, oblong, seven-nerved. The flowers come out in long loose bunches from the sides of the stalks, and the berries are black.—Native of North America.

10. *Smilax caduca*, or deciduous smilax.—Stem prickly, round; leaves unarmed, ovate, three-nerved. Umbels of flowers below the leaves, on peduncles which are scarcely

longer than the petiole.—Native of Canada and of the woods of Cochin-china.

III.—Stem unarmed, angular.

11. *Smilax bona nox*, or ciliated smilax.—Stem unarmed, angular; leaves ciliate-prickly.—Native of North America.

12. *Smilax herbacea*, or herbaceous smilax.—Stem unarmed, angular; leaves unarmed, ovate, seven-nerved.—Native of North America.

13. *Smilax tetragona*, or square-stalked smilax.—Stem unarmed, four-cornered; leaves cordate, five-nerved, acuminate, unarmed.

IV.—Stem unarmed, round.

14. *Smilax lanceolata*, or spear-leaved smilax.—Stem unarmed, round; leaves unarmed, lanceolate.—Native of Virginia, Carolina and Cochin-china.

15. *Smilax pseudo-China*, or bastard Chinese smilax.—Stem unarmed, round; leaves unarmed; stem-leaves cordate; branch-leaves ovate-oblong, five-nerved. Stem shrubby, very long; slender, with a few scandent branches.—Native of Virginia, Jamaica, China and Cochin-china.

16. *Smilax ripogonum*.—Stem unarmed, round, rooting; leaves ovate-lanceolate, acuminate, five-nerved; flowers hermaphrodite.—Native of New Zealand.

17. *Smilax purpurata*.—Stem shrubby, unarmed, round, dichotomous; leaves cordate-acute, acuminate, clawed, quite entire, five-nerved; peduncles axillary, umbelliferous.—Native of New Caledonia.

18. *Smilax aristolochiaefolia*.—Stem prickly, round; leaves unarmed, sagittate, bluntish, three-nerved.—Found at Vera La Cruz, in New Spain.

19. *Smilax spinosa*.—Stem prickly, round; leaves ovate-lanceolate; nerves of the leaves prickly underneath.—Found at La Vera Cruz.

20. *Smilax Virginiana*.—Stem prickly, angular; leaves lanceolate, unarmed, acuminate.—Grows naturally in Jamaica.

21. *Smilax canellæfolia*.—Stem unarmed, round; leaves unarmed, ovate, three-nerved.—Grows naturally in Jamaica.

22. *Smilax humilis*.—Stem unarmed, round; leaves unarmed, ovate-cordate, three-nerved; flowers corymb.—Grows naturally in Carolina.

23. *Smilax hederæfolia*.—Stem unarmed, round; leaves unarmed; stem-leaves cordate; racemes ovate-oblong.—Grows naturally in Jamaica and also in Maryland.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are many of them preserved in the gardens of the curious for the sake of variety, but some of them may so be disposed as to make them ornamental, because those sorts which grow naturally in North America, and the two first sorts are so hardy as to thrive in the open air in England; and as they retain their verdure all the year, if the plants are placed on the borders of woods or groves in gardens, and their branches properly supported, they will screen the nakedness of the ground under the trees from sight, and in winter, when their leaves are in beauty, they will make a pleasing variety, when the plants are properly intermixed with other evergreens; and as some of the sorts will rise five or six feet high, they will shut out from view any disagreeable objects.

Those sorts which require a stove to protect them in winter are little esteemed, because they require much room; and as their flowers have no beauty to recommend them, few persons care to be at the trouble of preserving them for that of their leaves.

They are all propagated by seeds, which must be procured from the countries where they naturally grow, for there are none of these plants which produce ripe seeds here.

To SMILE, *v. n.* [*smuylen*, Teut.; *smila*, Dan. and Swed. *subridere*. *Serenius*.] To expand the face with pleasure; to express kindness, love, or gladness, by the countenance.—A fool lifteth up his voice with laughter, but a wise man doth scarce smile a little. *Ecclus.*

The smiling infant in his hand shall take
The crested basilisk and speckled snake.

Pope.

To express slight contempt by the look.
Should some more sober critic come abroad,
If wrong, I smile; if right, I kiss the rod.

Pope.

To look gay or joyous.

For see the morn,
All unconcern'd with our unrest, begins
Her rosy progress smiling.

Milton:

The desert *smil'd*,
And paradise was open'd in the wild.

Pope.

To be favourable; to be propitious.

Then let me not let pass

Occasion which now smiles.

Milton.

To SMILE, *v. a.* To awe with a contemptuous smile.
Unused.

The courtly Roman's smiling path to tread,
And sharply smile prevailing folly dead.

Young.

SMILE, *s.* A slight expansion of the face; a look of pleasure or kindness.

Sweet intercourse

Of looks and smiles: for smiles from reason flow,
To brute denied, and are of love the food.

Milton.

Gay or joyous appearance.

Yet what avail her unexhausted stores,
Her blooming mountains and her sunny shores,
With all the gifts that heav'n and earth impart,
The smiles of nature and the charms of art.

Addison.

SMILER, *s.* One who smiles.

Know, *smiler*, at thy peril thou art pleas'd;
Thy pleasure is the promise of thy pain.

Young.

SMILINGLY, *adv.* With a look of pleasure.

His flav'd heart,

'Twixt two extremes of passion, joy and grief,
Burst smilingly.

Shakspeare.

To SMILT, *v. n.* [corrupted from *smelt*.] Having too much water, many corns will *smilt*, or have their pulp turned into a substance like thick cream. *Mortimer.*

SMINTHEAN, SMINTHEUS, *σμιθνευς*, in Antiquity, an epithet given to Apollo; from the Greek *σμιθος*, a rat. There are two different accounts of the origin of this appellation: the first is, that, in the city of Chrysa in Mysia, was a priest of Apollo, called *Crinis*, with whom that god being offended, sent a herd of rats to spoil all his lands; but *Crinis* appeasing the deity, he came in person to his assistance, took up his lodgings with *Crinis's* shepherd, told him who he was, and destroyed all the rats with his arrows; in memory of which *Crinis* built a temple to his deliverer, under the name of *Apollo Smintheus*.

To SMIRCH, *v. a.* To cloud; to dusk; to soil.

I'll put myself in poor and mean attire,

And with a kind of umber *smirch* my face.

Shakspeare.

SMIRHILL, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 4 miles south-south-west of Bakewell.

To SMIRK, *v. n.* To look affectedly soft or kind. See SMERK.

SMIT. The participle passive of *smit*.

Fir'd with the views this glitt'ring scene displays,

And *smit* with passion for my country's praise,

My artless reed attempts this lofty theme,

Wherc sacred Isis rolls her ancient stream.

Tickell.

To SMITE, *v. a.* pret. *smote*; part. pass. *smit*, *smitten*. [*smitan*, Saxon; *smijten*, Dutch.] To strike; to reach with a blow; to pierce.

So sweet a kiss the golden sun gives not
To those fresh morning drops upon the rose,
As thy eye-beams, when their fresh rays have *smote*
The night of dew that on my cheeks down flows.

Shakspeare.

The sword of Satan with steep force to *smite*,
Descending.

Milton.

To

To kill; to destroy.—The servants of David had *smitten* of Benjamin's men, so that three hundred and threescore died. *2 Sam.*—To afflict; to chasten. *A scriptural expression.*—Let us not mistake God's goodness, nor imagine, because he *smites* us, that we are forsaken by him. *Wake.*—To blast. Also *scriptural.*—And the flax and the barley was *smitten*, but the wheat and the rye not. *Exod.*—To affect with any passion. *This is almost the only modern use of the word.*

I wander where the Muses haunt,
Clear spring, or shady grove, or sunny hill,
Smit with the love of sacred song.

Milton.

To SMITE, *v. n.* To strike; to collide.—The heart melteth, and the knees *smite* together. *Nahum.*

SMITE, *s.* A blow. *Used in the midland counties.*

SMIT'ER, *s.* One who smites.—I gave my back to the *smiters*, and my cheeks to them that plucked off the hair. *Isaiah.*

SMITH, *s.* [ʃmɪð, Saxon; ʃmɪtan, to beat, to strike.] One who forges with his hammer; one who works in metals.

He doth nothing but talk of his horse, and can shoe him:
I am afraid his mother played false with a *smith*.

Shakspeare.

He that makes or effects any thing.

The doves repented, though too late,
Become the *smiths* of their own foolish fate.

Dryden.

To SMITH, *v. a.* [ʃmɪðian, Sax.] To beat into shape, as a smith. See SMITHING.

A smith, men callen dan Gerveis,
That in his forge *smithed* plow-harneys.

Chaucer.

SMITH (Adam), a distinguished writer in moral and political philosophy, was born in the year 1723, at Kirkaldy, in Fifeshire, where his father held the comptrollership of the customs. He received his early education under the care of his mother, then a widow, at the school of Kirkaldy, where he was noticed for an extraordinary passion for reading. At the age of fourteen he was removed to the university of Glasgow, in which he spent three years, attending, among the other lectures, those of the celebrated professor Hutcheson. In 1740 he was sent as a pensioner to Balliol college, Oxford. Here he spent seven years, and it is thought that during this period he employed himself chiefly in acquiring an exact knowledge of the languages, ancient and modern, and in cultivating an English style, by the practice of translating works of high reputation into his own language. Upon quitting the university he abandoned all thoughts of entering into the English church, for which purpose he had been sent thither, and went to Edinburgh, and found a friend and patron in Lord Kaimes. In 1751 he was elected professor of logic at Glasgow, from which he was removed, in the following year, to that of moral philosophy. He now felt that he was in a situation accommodated to his talents and disposition, and in later life he was accustomed to speak of his residence and employment at Glasgow as the most useful and happiest portion of his life. His lectures, both logical and moral, were extremely popular; and his manner of delivering them, if not graceful, was said to be highly impressive. In those on moral philosophy were contained the rudiments of his two most celebrated works as an author. Of these, the first is entitled "The Theory of Moral Sentiments," and appeared in the year 1759. The fundamental principle is sympathy, which the author makes the source of our feelings concerning the propriety or impropriety of actions, and their good or ill desert. To this work he afterwards subjoined "A Dissertation on the Origin of Languages." These works were extremely well received, and gave him a place among the best writers of the time. They also made him known to several eminent characters; and it was in consequence of the reputation thus acquired, that he was engaged to accompany the Duke of Buccleugh in his travels. He of course resigned his office as professor, and in the beginning of the year

1764, he set out for the continent. He had now an opportunity of comparing the ideas which he had already formed respecting political economy, with those of the ablest men in foreign countries, and also with facts that presented themselves to his observation in the course of his travels. A long residence in France introduced him to the acquaintance of Turgot, Quesnai, Necker, D'Alembert, Helvetius, Marmontel, and others, to whose particular notice he was recommended by his countryman David Hume, with whom he had long been in habits of friendship. He returned to his own country in the autumn of 1766, and the following ten years he passed in retirement with his mother at the obscure town of Kirkaldy. Here he was habitually employed in reading, the fruits of which were at length given to the world in his celebrated "Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations." This work has long been a standard work, not only in our own country, but throughout Europe. It has been studied and referred to by all who pay attention to the important political topics on which it treats. After the publication of this "Inquiry," he spent a great part of two years in London, where his society was courted by persons of the highest rank in the philosophical and literary world. In the year 1778 he obtained, through the interest of the Duke of Buccleugh, the lucrative place of a commissioner of the customs of Scotland, in consequence of which he removed to Edinburgh, which was thenceforth the place of his residence. His mother, who lived to a great age, spent her last days with him here. After the death of his friend, Mr. Hume, he published that philosopher's memoirs of his own life, with some additions, in which he expressed himself so favourably with regard to the character and opinions of the deceased, that it was readily inferred his own sentiments with respect to revealed religion could not be very different from those of his friend, which drew upon him an attack in an anonymous letter, since known to have been from the pen of the late Dr. Horne, afterwards bishop of Norwich. In 1787 he was appointed rector of the university of Glasgow, and in 1790 he died, at the age of sixty-seven. A few days before his death he caused all his papers to be burnt, except a few Essays, which have since been published.

Dr. Smith was a man of great simplicity of character, subject to absence of mind in society, and fitter for speculative than active life. He was much beloved by his friends, and possessed a calm and benignant disposition. Of the originality and comprehensiveness of his views, the extent, variety, and the correctness of his information, and the inexhaustible fertility of his invention, he has left lasting monuments behind him. To his private worth, the most certain of all testimonies may be found in that confidence, respect, and attachment, which followed him through all the various relations of life. When perfectly at ease, and when warmed with conversation, his gestures were animated and not ungraceful; and in the society of those whom he loved, his features were often brightened by a smile of inexpressible benignity.

SMITH (Sir Thomas), an eminent scholar and statesman of the 15th century, was born at Saffron-Walden, in Essex, in 1524. He was educated for, and sent early to, Queen's college, Cambridge, and by his proficiency in learning obtained a pension as king's scholar. He was sent on various embassies to the court of France, and during one of his residences in that country he composed his work "On the Commonwealth of England," by which he is chiefly known.

SMITH, a township of the United States, in Washington county, Pennsylvania. Population 1646.

SMITH, a county of the United States, on the north side of West Tennessee. Population 11,649, including 2201 slaves. Chief town, Dixon's Springs.

SMITH'S ISLAND, an island of the United States, in North Carolina, at the mouth of Cape Fear river. Cape Fear is the south-east point of it.

SMITH, CAPE, a cape on the east coast of Hudson's Bay. Lat. 61. N. long. 79. 40. W.

SMITH'S

SMITH'S INLET, a bay on the west coast of North America. The entrance is nearly closed by rocky islets, some producing shrubs and small trees, others none; with innumerable rocks, as well beneath as above the surface of the sea, rendering it a very intricate and dangerous navigation for shipping. Within the islets and rocks, the northern shore appeared the clearest. From the entrance into the inlet, whose north point lies from its south point north 20 east, about a league distant, it extends nearly in an east direction about six leagues: here it takes a turn to the north-eastward, and terminates in Lat. 51. 44. N. long. 232. 47½. E. About three leagues within the entrance, the inlet is contracted to a general width of about half a mile; though in particular places it is near twice that distance from shore to shore; both of which are formed by high rocky precipices covered with wood. This inlet was visited by Captain Vancouver, who discovered, about half way up the canal, a village of the natives, supposed to contain 200 or 250 persons. It was built upon a detached rock, connected to the main by a platform, and constructed for defence. A great number of its inhabitants, in about 30 canoes, visited Captain Vancouver's party, and used every endeavour they thought likely to prevail on them to visit their habitations. Lat. 51. 20. N. long. of the entrance 232. 12. E.

SMITH'S ISLAND, a small island near the east coast of Antigua.

SMITH'S ISLAND, a small island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Virginia. This is one of a cluster collectively called Smith's Islands. Lat. 37. 15. N. long. 75. 52. W.

SMITH'S POINT, a cape of the United States, on the coast of Virginia, forming the south limit of the Potomac. Lat. 37. 54. N.

SMITH'S POND, a lake of the United States, in Walworth, New Hampshire; 3 miles long.

SMITH'S RIVER, a river of the United States, in New Hampshire, which runs into the Merrimack, in the north part of New Chester.

SMITH'S RIVER, a river of the United States, in Rockingham county, North Carolina, which runs into the Dan.

SMITH'S RIVER. See **STAUNTON**.

SMITH'S RIVER, so called by Captains Lewis and Clarke, in honour of the American secretary of the navy. This river falls into the Missouri, on the south side, above the falls, and is about 80 yards wide. It takes its rise in the Rocky Mountains.

SMITH'S SOUND, a bay on the east coast of Newfoundland, bounded by Cape Bonavista.

SMITHCRAFT, *s.* [ʃmɪθkræft, Sax.] The art of a smith.—Inventors of pastorage, *smithcraft*, and music. *Raleigh*.

SMITHERY, *s.* The shop of a smith. Work performed in a smith's shop.—The din of all his *smithery* may some time or other possibly wake this noble duke. *Burke*.

SMITHFIELD, a hamlet of England, in Staffordshire, with a considerable pottery, situated near Newcastle-under-Lyne.

SMITHFIELD, a post township of the United States, in Providence county, Rhode Island, on the Pawtucket; 12 miles north of Providence. It contains a bank, and 10 cotton manufactories, besides others.—2d. Of Madison county, New York. It contains the village of Peterborough. Population 2651.—3d. A township of Lycoming county, Pennsylvania. Population 1084.—4th. Of Fayette county, Pennsylvania.—5th. (Lower) of Wayne county, Pennsylvania.—6th. (Lower) a township of Northampton county, Pennsylvania. Population 1236.—7th. A post township of the Isle of Wight county, Virginia, on Pagan Creek, about 6 miles above its entrance into James River.—8th. A post township and capital of Johnson county, North Carolina, on the Neuse; 110 miles north-west of Newbern. It contains a court-house and jail.—9th. Of Johnson county, North Carolina.—10th. Of Guernsey county, Ohio.—11th. Of Jefferson county, Ohio. Population 1228.—12th. Of Trumbull county, Ohio.—13th. Of Somerset county, Pennsylvania.

SMITHIA [so named in honour of James Edward Smith M.D. F.R.S., &c., president of the Linnean Society], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ or leguminosæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, two-lipped: segments ovate-lanceolate, almost equal. Corolla: papilionaceous. Standard obcordate. Wings oblong, obtuse, a little shorter than the standard. Keel linear-oblong, cloven at the base, length of the wings. Stamina: filaments ten, united into two equal bodies. Anthers oblong. Pistil: germ contracted at the base of the calyx. Style capillary, permanent. Stigma simple. Pericarp: legume inclosed within the calyx, composed of from four to seven joints; distinct, connected by the permanent style, orbicular, mucicated, one-seeded. Seeds kidney-form, compressed, smooth.—*Essential Character*. Legume with distinct one-seeded joints, connected by the style. Stamina divided into two equal bodies.

Smithia sensitiva, or annual *smithia*.—Root annual. Stem decumbent, round, even. Branches spreading very much. Leaves alternate, abruptly pinnate, composed of from four to ten obovate-oblong leaflets, bristly on the edge and along the rib beneath. Petiole very short; rachis bristly. Stipules in pairs, entire, acuminate. Racemes axillary, from three to six flowered. Peduncle longer than the petiole, filiform. Pedicels shorter than the calyx. Corolla yellow.—Native of the East Indies.

SMITHING, *s.* An art manual, by which an irregular lump, or several lumps of iron is wrought into an intended shape. *Moxon*. *Unused*.

SMITHLAND, a post township of the United States, in Livingston county, Kentucky, on the Ohio; 3 miles below the mouth of the Cumberland. Population 99.

SMITHSBOROUGH, a post village of the United States, in Oswego, New York.

SMITHSBY, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 2½ miles north-north-west of Ashby-de-la-Zouch

SMITHTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Suffolk county, New York, on the north side of Long Island; 53 miles east of New York. Population 1592.

SMITHVILLE, a township of the United States, in Chenango county, New York. Population 995.

SMITHVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Brunswick county, North Carolina, near the mouth of Cape Fear river. Lat. 33. 54. N. long. 78. 13. W.

SMITHWICK, a village of England, in Staffordshire; 4 miles west-by north of Birmingham. Population 1328.

SMITHTHY, *s.* [ʃmɪððe, Saxon.] The shop of a smith.

His blaxing locks sent forth a crackling sound,
And hiss'd, like red hot iron, within the *smithy* drown'd.

Dryden.

SMITING-LINE, in a Ship, is a small rope fastened to the mizen-yard-arm. Its use is to loose the mizen-sail, without striking down the yard.

SMITT, *s.* The finest of the clayey ore, made up into balls; they use it for marking of sheep, and call it *smitt*. *Woodward*.

SMITTEN. The participle passive of *smite*. Struck; killed; affected with passion.—By the advantages of a good person and a pleasing conversation, he made such an impression in her heart as could not be effaced: and he was himself no less *smitten* with Constantia. *Addison*.

To **SMITTLE**, *v. a.* [ʃmɪttan, Sax.: *smetten*, Teut. to spot; ʃmɪtta, smut; *smette*, a spot.] To infect. *Used in the north of England*.

SMITTLE, or **SMITTLISH**, *adj.* Infectious. *Used in the north of England*.

SMOAKY BAY, a large bay on the west coast of the entrance into Cook's River, between Cape Douglas and Point Banks.

SMOAKY CAPE, a cape on the east coast of New Holland. Lat. 30. 55. S. long., according to Captain Flinders, 153. 4. E.

SMOCK, *s.* [ʃmoc, Sax.] The under garment of a woman; a shift.

Reads

Reads Malbranche, Boyle, and Locke:
Yet in some things, methinks, she fails,
'Twere well, if she would pare her nails,
And wear a cleaner *smock*.

Smock is used in a ludicrous kind of composition for any thing relating to women.

Plague on his *smock*-loyalty!
I hate to see a brave bold fellow sotted,
Made sour and senseless, turn'd to whey by love. *Dryden*.

SMOCKFA'CED, *adj.* Palefaced; maidenly; effeminate.

Old chiefs reflecting on their former deeds,
Disdain to rust with batter'd invalids;
But active in the foremost ranks appear,
And leave young *smock-fac'd* beaux to guard the rear. *Fenton*.

SMOCKFRO'CK, *s.* A gaberdine.
SMO'CKLESS, *adj.* Wanting a smock.
I hope it be not your entent,
That I *smokles* out of your paleis went. *Chaucer*.

SMOCKSHOP INDIANS, a tribe of North America, on the Columbia, about 800 in number.

SMOCKVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Jefferson county, Indiana.

SMOKE, *s.* [ɹmoe, ɹmic, ɹmec, Saxon; *smoek*, Su. Goth.; from ɹmican and *smoeka*, *fumare*, *fumigare*.] The visible effluvium, or sooty exhalation from any thing burning.

As *smoke* that rises from the kindling fires,
Is seen this moment, and the next expires. *Prior*.

Smoke, Sir Isaac Newton observes, ascends in the chimney by the impulse of the air it floats in: for that air, being rarefied by the fire underneath, has its specific gravity diminished; and thus, being determined to ascend itself, it carries up the smoke along with it.

In the Philosophical Transactions, Abr. v. 192., we have the description of an engine, invented by Monsieur Dalesme, which consumes the smoke of all sorts of wood, and that so totally, that the most curious eye cannot discover it in the room, nor the nicest nose smell it, though the fire be made in the middle of the room.

To SMOKE, *v. n.* [ɹmæcan, ɹmican, Sax.] To emit a dark exhalation by heat.—When the sun went down, a *smoking* furnace and a burning lamp passed between those pieces. *Gen*.

For Venus, Cytherea was invok'd,
Altars for Pallas to Athena *smok'd*. *Granville*.

To burn; to be kindled. *A scriptural term*.—The anger of the Lord shall *smoke* against that man. *Deut*.—To move with such swiftness as to kindle; to move very fast so as to raise dust like smoke.

Aventinus drives his chariot round;
Proud of his steeds he *smokes* along the field;
His father's hydra fills the ample shield. *Dryden*.

To smell, or hunt out.—I began to *smoke* that they were a parcel of mummies. *Addison*.—To use tobacco. To suffer; to be punished.

Maugre all the world will I keep safe,
Or some of you shall *smoke* for it in Rome. *Shakspeare*.

To SMOKE, *v. a.* To scent by smoke; to medicate by smoke, or dry in smoke.—A gambon of bacon *smokcd*. *Huloet*.—To expel by smoke.—This king, upon that outrage against his person, *smoked* the Jesuits out of his nest. *Sir E. Sandys*.—To smell out; to find out.—He was first *smoked* by the old lord; when his disguise and he is parted, what a sprat you shall find him? *Shakspeare*.—To sneer; to ridicule to the face. [σμωχο, Gr. *convicior*.]—Thou'rt very smart, my dear: but see, *smoke* the doctor! *Addison*.

To SMOKE-DRY, *v. a.* To dry by smoke.—*Smoke-dry* the fruit, but not if you plant them. *Mortimer*.

SMOKEHILL, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Kansas.

SMO'KER, *s.* One that dries or perfumes by smoke. One that uses tobacco.

SMO'KELESS, *adj.* Having no smoke.
Tenants with sighs the *smokeless* tow'rs survey,
And turn th' unwilling steed another way. *Pope*.

SMO'KILY, *adv.* So as to be full of smoke. *Sherwood*.
SMO'KY, *adj.* Emitting smoke; fumid.

Victorious to the top aspires,
Involving all the wood in *smoky* fires. *Dryden*.

Having the appearance or nature of smoke.
If blast septentrional with brushing wings
Sweep up the *smoky* mists, and vapours damp,
Then woe to mortals. *Philips*.

Noisome with smoke.
O he's as tedious
As a tir'd horse, or as a railing wife,
Worse than a *smoky* house. *Shakspeare*.

Dark; obscure. *Unused*.

SMOLENSKO, a government or province of the Russian empire, to the west of the government of Moscow, between 53. 30. and 56. 25. of N. latitude, and 30. 50. and 35. 30. of E. longitude. Its territorial extent is 21,400 square miles; its inhabitants, calculated at 1,050,000, are mostly Russians, with some Poles, Germans, and Jews; the majority are members of the church. The surface is generally level; for though it contains some heights, these are not of great size or extent. The principal rivers are the Duna, Dnieper, the Desna, the Sosha, the Kasplia, the Uga, and the Viasma. The lakes are also numerous, being reckoned at more than 100, great and small. The climate is cold, but healthy. The soil consists of a mixture of clay or sand, with black mould, and is on the whole tolerably fertile. Corn, hemp, and flax, are cultivated extensively. Horses, black cattle, and sheep, are numerous, and of good breeds. A great part of the uncultivated land is covered by forests. The rivers supplying the means of conveyance, the exportation of the various agricultural products of this fertile province gives rise to an active traffic. The manufactures, on the other hand, are quite insignificant, and the distilling of spirituous liquors is the only one carried on on a large scale. This government corresponds to White Russia, properly so called. It was ceded by Poland in 1667, and the cession confirmed in 1686.

SMOLENSKO, a considerable town of European Russia, and the capital of the above government. It is built partly on two hills, and partly in a valley between them, which is watered by the Dnieper, here a navigable stream flowing from east to west. The part to the south of that river is surrounded with a massy wall 30 feet in height, 15 thick, and a mile and three quarters in circuit. The lower part of this wall is of stone, the upper of brick, and at each angle is a large tower. The whole is surrounded with a ditch and a sort of covered way; and some modern redoubts have been erected as outworks. Smolensko is thus a place of some strength, and standing on the great road to Moscow, the Russians made here their first serious opposition to the advance of the French, in the campaign of 1812. An obstinate conflict took place on the 16th and 17th of August, in which the town was bombarded and set on fire. The Russians were compelled to fall back, and the French extinguished the flames; but on quitting it in their disastrous retreat in November following, they blew up part of the works; and as most of the houses were of wood, about the half of them were destroyed on these two occasions.

Smolensko is thinly inhabited, containing within its circumference several large gardens; the houses are generally of one story, and the population is supposed not to exceed 12,600. One large street divides it into two, and is paved with stone; but the others are paved, or rather floored, with planks. The part rebuilt since 1812 is of a good construction, and the number of public edifices is considerable. Here are

nearly 20 churches and chapels, besides two cathedrals, and places of worship for Lutherans and Catholics. Smolensko is a bishop's see, has a seminary for priests, and a gymnasium or high school. It has also a military and trade's school, a foundling-hospital, and a consistory. The manufactures are linen, leather, soap, and hats; and there is a pretty active trade in corn and hemp; also wood, honey, wax, and furs, with Riga, and, to a smaller extent, with Dantzic and the Ukraine. Prince Potemkin, the favourite and general of Catherine II. was a native of this town; 225 miles west-south-west of Moscow, and 350 south-by-east of St. Petersburg. Lat. 54. 50. N. long. 31. 56. 36. E.

SMOLLET (Tobias), a writer of considerable reputation, was born, in 1720, at Dalquhurn, in Dumbartonshire. After a common education, he was put apprentice to a surgeon in Glasgow, and at the same time he availed himself of the opportunity of attending medical lectures at the university. At this early period he composed a tragedy. In his nineteenth year he quitted Scotland for London, where he quickly obtained the situation of surgeon's mate in the navy. He sailed in the expedition fitted out against Carthage, under Admiral Vernon and General Wentworth; and during the voyage he displayed his powers of observation, as well as his satirical turn, by the account he drew up of that ill-conducted and unsuccessful enterprize. He was soon disgusted with the service in which he had engaged, and quitted it in the West Indies. It had, however, been of great service, by introducing him to that acquaintance with the manners and language of sailors, of which he made the most amusing exhibitions in his novels. The savage cruelties used by the king's troops after the battle of Culloden called forth Smollet's warmest feelings, and occasioned his poem entitled, "The Tears of Scotland," which placed the author high in the rank of minor poets. It was followed by two satires, a species of composition to which the natural irritability of his temper gave him a propensity. He married in 1747, a lady, with whom he expected a good fortune, of which, however, he received very little, and the expensive style in which he set out in life brought him very soon into serious difficulties. In this emergency he had recourse to his pen, and in 1748 he produced his first novel, entitled, "Roderick Random," which had no doubt strong allusions to his own history, and became extremely popular. A Trip to Paris, in 1750, enlarged his knowledge of the world, and gave rise to his "Adventures of Peregrine Pickle," in which he exerted all the powers of humorous invention and delineation, though often at the expense of delicacy and morality. He now determined to pursue his profession, and commenced physician at Bath, but he met with so little success that he soon abandoned it, and resumed writing as a profession. His next publication was "Adventures of Ferdinand Count Fathom," which was followed by a new translation of Don Quixote. In 1756, he undertook the management of a new Review, under the title of the "Critical," which, after undergoing a number of changes, existed till very lately. His satirical and acrimonious spirit soon broke out in this journal, and involved him in a quarrel with Admiral Knowles, on whose conduct in the expedition to Rochefort he had spoken with great severity. Smollet was prosecuted and convicted of a libel, and suffered the punishment of the law, viz., fine and imprisonment.

After this he wrote for the theatre an after-piece, entitled, "The Reprisal, or the Tars of Old England;" this was acted at Drury-lane in 1757; and in the following year he published a hastily written "History of England, from the Descent of Julius Cæsar to the Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle," in two vols. 4to. About the same period he published a novel, entitled, "The Adventures of Sir Launcelot Greaves," and he is supposed to have written the histories of France, Italy and Germany, in the modern part of the Universal History. In 1761, he began to publish his "Continuation of the History of England," taken up at the Revolution, where Hume left it, and brought down to the year 1765.

At the beginning of the present reign, Dr. Smollet was

an advocate in defence of the measures adopted by the administration, at the head of which was Lord Bute, and in connection with others he published a weekly paper, called "The Briton," which was encountered by the more famous one entitled, "The North Briton," set on foot by the well-known John Wilkes. The rancour displayed on both sides dissolved the friendship which had long subsisted between these two political champions. Smollet, from some domestic afflictions, determined to visit the continent, whither he went in 1763, and he spent two years in a tour through France and Italy. After his return, he published, in 1766, his "Travels" in these countries, in a series of letters, in two vols. 8vo., which contained many lively and sensible remarks, but which were deeply tinged with the gloomy temper of mind, which rendered him dissatisfied and out of humour with almost every thing he saw. In 1769 he published a sort of political romance, entitled, "The Adventures of an Atom," intended to ridicule different administrations, but especially that of the Earl of Chatham.

Increasing ill-health induced him, in the year 1770, to pay another visit to Italy, accompanied by his wife, and during his last voyage he wrote his last novel, "The Expedition of Humphry Clinker," which some critics regard as the best of all his novels. He died in the neighbourhood of Leghorn, in October, 1771, in the fifty-first year of his age. "Dr. Smollet," says the author of the article in the General Biography, "was undoubtedly a man of talents and great variety of powers, though he did not attain the highest rank in any thing. He is best known as a novelist, and they who read those compositions for amusement only, without much nicety of taste, seldom fail of being entertained by him. Yet his portraits are often caricatures, his scenes of humour coarse and extravagant, and his jests borrowed. As an historian, he has attained more credit for the elegance and animation of his style, than for the higher qualities of judgment, accuracy and impartiality; and though his continuation is annexed to Hume's History, the two writers will bear no comparison." His poetic powers were considerable. His "Tears of Scotland," "Ode to Leven Water," and some other short pieces, are polished, tender, and picturesque. His "Ode to Independence" is a loftier flight, and has perhaps few superiors in the lyric strain." His satires are vigorous, but violent and disgusting.

To SMOOR, or SMORE, *v. a.* [smopan, Sax., *smooren*, Teut.] To suffocate; to smother. Used in Lancashire and Westmoreland.—Thou fast bound ball of *smoring* darkness. *More.*

SMOOTH, *adj.* [smæð, smœð, Saxon; *mwyth*, Welsh.] Even on the surface; not rough; level; having no asperities.

Nor box nor limes, without their use,
Smooth-grain'd, and proper for the turner's trade:
Which curious hands may carve, and steel with ease invade.

Dryden.

Evenly spread; glossy.
He for the promis'd journey bids prepare
The smooth-hair'd horses, and the rapid car.

Pope.

Equal in pace; without starts or obstruction.
The fair-hair'd queen of love
Descends smooth-gliding from the courts above.

Pope.

Gently flowing.
Smooth Adonis from his rock
Ran purple to the sea.

Milton.

Voluble; not harsh; soft.
When sage Minerva rose,
From her sweet lips smooth elocution flows.

Gay.

Bland; mild; adulatory.
The subtle fiend,
Though inly stung with anger and disdain,
Dissembled, and this answer smooth return'd.

Milton.

SMOOTH, *s.* That which is smooth.—The smooth of his neck. *Gen.*

To SMOOTH, *v. a.* [jmeðian, Sax.] To level; to make even on the surface.

Smiling she seem'd, and full of pleasing thought,
From ocean as she first began to rise,
And *smooth'd* the ruffled seas, and clear'd the skies.

Dryden.

To work into a soft uniform mass.—It brings up again into the mouth that which it had swallowed, and chewing it, grinds and *smooths* it, and afterwards swallows it into another stomach. *Ray.*—To make easy; to rid from obstructions.

Thou, Abelard! the last sad office pay,
And *smooth* my passage to the realms of day.

Pope.

To make flowing; to free from harshness.

In their motions harmony divine
So *smooths* her charming tones.

Milton.

To palliate; to soften.

Had it been a stranger, not my child,
To *smooth* his fault, I would have been more mild.

Shakspeare.

To calm; to mollify.

Now breathe we, lords: good fortune bids us pause,
And *smooth* the frowns of war with peaceful looks.

Shakspeare.

To ease.

Restor'd it soon will be; the means prepar'd,
The difficulty *smooth'd*, the danger shar'd:
Be but yourself.

Dryden.

To flatter; to soften with blandishments.

Because I cannot flatter, and look fair,
Smile in men's faces, *smooth*, deceive, and cog,
Duck with French nods, and apish courtesy,
I must be held a rancorous enemy.

Shakspeare.

He *smooths* us up in the good opinion of our own gracious disposition. *Bp. Hall.*

SMOOTH ISLAND, an island on the east coast of Van Diemen's Land, in Norfolk Bay, about three quarters of a mile long.

To SMO'OTHEN, *v. a.* [jmeðian, Saxon.] To make even and smooth.—With edged grooving tools they cut down and *smoothen* the extuberances left. *Moxon.*

SMO'OTHER, *s.* One who smooths, or frees from harshness.—They were distinguished by the name of scalds, a word which denotes *smoother*s and polishers of language. *Bp. Percy.*

SMO'OTHFACED, *adj.* Mild looking; having a soft air.

Let their heirs

Enrich their time to come with *smoothfac'd* peace,
With smiling plenty, and fair prosp'rous days.

Shakspeare.

SMO'OTHLY, *adv.* Not roughly; evenly.

Beneath the shade of flowing jet
The ivory forehead *smoothly* set.

Guardian.

With even glide.

The music of that murmuring spring
Is not so mournful as the strains you sing;
Nor rivers winding through the vales below
So sweetly warble, or so *smoothly* flow.

Pope.

Without obstruction; easily; readily.—Had Joshua been mindful, the fraud of the Gibeonites could not so *smoothly* have past unespied, till there was no help. *Hooker.*—With soft and bland language. Mildly; innocently.—Some look'd full *smoothly*, and had a false quart. *Skelton.*—Looking so *smoothly* and innocently on it, and so deceiving them. *Moore.*

SMO'OTHNESS, *s.* Evenness on the surface; freedom from asperity.—A countryman feeding his flock by the sea-side, it was so delicate a fine day, that the *smoothness* of the water tempted him to set up for a merchant. *L'Estrange.*—Softness or mildness on the palate.

Fallacious drink! ye honest men beware,
Nor trust its *smoothness*; the third circling glass
Suffices virtue.

Philips.

Sweetness and softness of numbers.—Virgil, though smooth, where *smoothness* is required, is so far from affecting it, that he rather disdains it; frequently using *synalephas*, and concluding his sense in the middle of his verse. *Dryden.*—Blandness and gentleness of speech.

She is too subtle far; and her *smoothness*,
Her very silence, and her patience,
Speak to the people, and they pity her.

Shakspeare.

SMORZATO, a musical term, now superseded by *diminuendo*.

SMOTE. The pret. of *smite*.—Death—with a trident *smote*. *Milton.*

To SMO'THER, *v. a.* [jmoþan, Saxon.] To suffocate with smoke, or by exclusion of the air.

The helpless traveller, with wild surprise,
Sees the dry desert all around him rise,
And *smother'd* in the dusty whirlwind dies.

Addison.

To suppress.—She was warmed with the graceful appearance of the hero: she *smothered* those sparkles out of decency, but conversation blew them up into a flame. *Dryden.*

To SMO'THER, *v. n.* To smoke without vent.—Hay and straw have a very low degree of heat; but yet close and *smothering*, and which drieth not. *Bacon.*—To be suppressed or kept close.—The advantage of conversation is such, that, for want of company, a man had better talk to a post than let his thoughts lie smoking and *smothering*. *Collier.*

SMO'THER, *s.* A state of suppression. *Not in use.*—A man were better relate himself to a statue, than suffer his thoughts to pass in *smother*. *Bacon.*—Smoke; thick dusk.

Thus must I from the smoke into the *smother*,

From tyrant duke unto a tyrant brother.

Shakspeare.

SMOTHER-FLY, a provincial term applied to the bean aphid.

To SMOUCH, *v. a.* To salute: answering to our *buss*. *North.*—What bussing, what *smouching* and slabbering one of another. *Stubbes.*

To SMO'ULDER, *v. a.* To burn slowly without flame. SMO'ULDERING, or SMO'ULDRY, *adj.* [jmoʒan, Sax., to smother; *smoel*, Dutch, hot.] Burning and smoking without vent.

None can breathe, nor see, nor hear at will,

Through *smouldry* cloud of duskish stinking smoke,

That the only breath him daunts who hath escap'd the stroke.

Spenser.

In some close pent room it crept along,
And, *smouldering* as it went, in silence fed;
Till the infant monster, with devouring strong,
Walk'd boldly upright with exalted head.

Dryden.

SMUG, *adj.* [the past participle of the Sax. jmeagan, jmeagan, *deliberare, studere, considerare*. Applied to the person, or to dress, it means *studied*. It appears to have been a common word in the northern languages.] Nice; spruce; dressed with affectation of niceness, but without elegance.—There I have a bankrupt for a prodigal, who dares scarce shew his head on the Rialto; a beggar that used to come so *smug* upon the mart. *Shakspeare.*

To SMUG, *v. a.* To adorn; to spruce.

My men,

In Circe's house, were all, in severall baine
Studiously sweetn'd, *smugg'd* with oile, and deekt
With in and outweeds.

Chapman.

To SMU'GGLE, *v. a.* [*smokkelen*, Dutch, which Serenius refers to the Su. Goth., *smygga, smeiga*, furtim raptare.] To import or export goods without paying the customs.—To manage or convey secretly.

SMU'GLER, *s.* One who imports or exports goods without payment of the customs, or such as are forbidden.

Here,

Here, in cabal, a disputatious crew,
Each evening meet; the sot, the cheat, the shrew:
Snarers and *smugglers* here their gains divide,
Ensnaring females here their victims hide.

Crabb.

SMU'GGLING, *s.* *Smuggling*, or the offence of importing goods without paying the duties imposed by the laws of the customs and excise, is restrained by a great variety of statutes. *Blackstone.*

SMU'GLY, *adv.* Neatly; sprucely.

Lillies and roses will quickly appear,
And her face will look wond'rous *smugly*.

Gay.

SMU'GNESS, *s.* Spruceness; neatness without elegance.

SMU'LY, *adj.* [A corruption of *smoothly*.] Looking smoothly; demure. *Used in Cumberland.*

SMUT, *s.* [ʃmɪtʃə, Sax.; *smette*, Dutch.] A spot made with soot or coal.—Must or blackness gathered on corn; mildew.—Farmers have suffered by smutty wheat, when such will not sell for above five shillings a bushel; whereas that which is free from *smut* will sell for ten. *Mortimer*.—Obscene conversation.

To SMUT, *v. a.* [ʃmɪtʃən, Saxon.] To stain; to mark with soot or coal.—I am wonderfully pleased to see my tenants play their innocent tricks, and *smutting* one another. *Addison*.—To taint with mildew.—Mildew falleth upon corn, and *smutteth* it. *Bacon*. See **SMITTLE**.

To SMUT, *v. n.* To gather must.—White red-eared wheat is good for clays, and bears a very good crop, and seldom *smuts*. *Mortimer*.

To SMUTCH, *v. a.* [for *smut*. This word is further corrupted, in the north of England, into *smudge*; where it is used for a suffocating smoke.] To black with smoke; to mark with soot or coal.—What, hast *smutch'd* thy nose? *Shakspeare*.

Have you seen but a bright lily grow,
Before rude hands have touch'd it?

Ha' you mark'd but the fall o' the snow,
Before the soil hath *smutch'd* it!

B. Jonson.

SMUTTILY, *adv.* Blackly; smokily; obscenely.—It is the same poverty which makes men speak or write *smuttily*, that forces them to talk vexingly. *Tatler*.

SMUTTINESS, *s.* Soil from smoke.—My vines and peaches, upon my best south walls, were apt to a soot or *smuttiness* upon their leaves and upon their fruits, which were good for nothing. *Temple*—Obsceneness.

SMUTTY, *adj.* Black with smoke or coal.—I leave the *smutty* air of London, and come hither to breathe sweeter. *Howell*.—Tainted with mildew.—*Smutty* corn will sell dearer at one time than the clean at another. *Locke*.—Obscene; not modest.—I must forbear blurring out a witty saying, if it be *smutty* or abusive. *Hornch*.

SMYRNA, a large and commercial city of Asia Minor, situated at the head of a long and winding gulf of the Grecian Archipelago. Smyrna is one of the most celebrated of the ancient cities of Asia, and claims, on pretty strong grounds, to be the birth-place of Homer. It is said originally to have been a colony from Ephesus, and soon attained to such a degree of prosperity, that it was received as the thirteenth city of Ionia. This original city, however, was destroyed by the Lydians; and the population continued dispersed in the neighbouring villages, till Antigonus and Lysimachus rebuilt it, though on a somewhat different spot. Its new splendour seems to have even surpassed what it formerly displayed: the streets were beautifully laid out, well-paved, and adorned with porticos; the city contained also a gymnasium, a library, and a structure called the Homeium, consisting of a temple and portico dedicated to Homer, with a statue of that poet. Smyrna has ever since continued a flourishing city, and in modern times has been particularly distinguished for its trade, which is so extensive as to make it be considered the emporium of the Levant. The present town is about four miles in circuit, and extends about a mile along the water, in approaching from which it makes a very beautiful appearance. The bay is so com-

pletely land-locked, that nothing is seen from the town but the projecting points that inclose it. The interior, as usual in Asiatic cities, does not correspond to the splendour of its approach. The streets are narrow, dirty and ill paved. The bazaars, though well provided with goods, are by no means splendid in their structure. There are two very fine caravanseras inclosing square courts, and which being covered with cupolas, make a very handsome appearance. The besesteins, or shops, also are arched over, and very fine. Although the external appearance of the houses be gloomy, the situation of those built along the water is very delightful, as they have all gardens attached to them, at the foot of which are summer-houses overlooking the sea. At the east end of the city is a large hill, about three quarters of a mile in circumference, on which the castle was built. This edifice appears to have been constructed by the Genoese, and to have been by no means distinguished by any extraordinary magnificence. Along its circuit, however, may still be traced the remains of a very thick and strong wall, apparently that of the ancient castle, and corresponding in its dimensions with another, which appears to have surrounded the whole city. Of the sumptuous edifices which rendered Smyrna one of the brightest ornaments of the Lesser Asia, scarcely any remains can now be traced. The reason seems justly pointed out by Pococke, in the circumstance of so great a new city being built on the site of the old; whence all the ancient structures have been demolished, to serve as materials for the modern ones. Only the foundations can be seen of the splendid theatre, on the slope of the hill, and the site of which is now covered with houses. On a gateway belonging to the castle is a colossal statue of very fine workmanship, though much mutilated, which has been supposed to be that of the Amazon Smyrna, from whom the city is reported to have derived its name. Marks of a very extensive aqueduct may also be traced, though a late traveller doubts if it be of very high antiquity. Behind the city is an extensive and most luxuriant plain, highly cultivated, and covered with numberless olive trees. It is watered by the river Meles, which is here from 50 to 100 yards broad, but contains little water, unless when artificially confined. The chief inconvenience in the situation of Smyrna is its being extremely liable to earthquakes, which from time to time cause some injury and great alarm to the inhabitants. A heavier calamity, common to it with all the oriental cities, is the plague. In 1814 this disease produced such ravages, that its victims were estimated at from 50,000 to 60,000. The inhabitants of Smyrna are usually reckoned at 100,000, of whom Mr. Turner supposes the Turks to amount to between 50,000 and 60,000; the Greeks to 30,000, the Armenians to 8000, and the Franks or Europeans to 2000 or 3000. The latter form a more numerous and agreeable society than in any other Turkish town. The export trade of Smyrna consists of very rich commodities; raw silk, Turkey carpets, unwrought cotton, and the beautiful goats' hair or mohair of Angora, which is used in several of our finer manufactures. It sends out also a considerable quantity of raisins, a little muscadine wine, and a variety of drugs, as rhubarb, amber, musk, lapis lazuli, and gums. A certain number of pearls, diamonds, and other precious stones, are also exported. The imports are chiefly woollen cloths, lead, tin, glass, and wrought silks. Lat. 38. 29. N. long. 27. 4. 45. E.

SMYRNA, a post township of the United States, in Chenango county, New York; 105 miles west of Albany. Population 1334.

SMYRNA, formerly **DUCK CREEK** or **SALISBURY**, a post township of the United States, in Kent county, Delaware, on Duck Creek, about 10 miles above its mouth. Population 600.

SMYRNIUM [Σμυρνιον of Dioscorides, from the city of Smyrna; or, from *σμυρνα* the same with *μυρρα*, the root yielding a gum like myrrh], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal, unequal, becoming daily bigger. Partial erect. Involucre universal,

universal none. Partial none. Perianth proper, scarcely apparent. Corolla universal, uniform. Floscules of the disk abortive. Proper of five lanceolate petals, slightly bent in, keeled. Stamina: filaments five, simple, length of the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ inferior. Styles two, simple. Stigmas two, simple. Pericarp none. Fruit oblong, striated, bipartite. Seeds two, lunulate, on one side convex, marked with three angles, flat on the other.—*Essential Character.* Petals acuminate, keeled. Fruit oblong, striated.

1. *Smyrniium perfoliatum*, or perfoliate Alexanders.—The lower leaves are superdecoumpounded, and the leaflets are in threes, ovate and indented. Stem smooth, hollow, three feet high, dividing towards the top into two or three branches. At each joint is placed one large orbicular leaf, the base of which is embracing; these are of a yellow colour, and their edges are entire. The branches are terminated by small umbels of yellowish flowers, on pedicels of unequal lengths.—Native of Candia and Italy.

2. *Smyrniium Ægyptiacum*, or Egyptian Alexanders.—Floral leaves two, simple; cordate quite entire.—Native of Egypt.

3. *Smyrniium laterale*, or side-flowering Alexanders.—Stem-leaves ternate, gashed, serrate; umbels lateral, sessile.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. *Smyrniium olusatrum*, or common Alexanders.—Stem-leaves ternate, petioled serrate. Root biennial, fleshy, branched.—Native of France, Spain, Italy, Belgium and Britain.

5. *Smyrniium apiifolium*, or smallage-leaved Alexanders.—Stem-leaves wedge-shaped, obtuse, trifid, toothed. The stalk rises higher, and grows more erect.—Native of Crete or Candia.

6. *Smyrniium aureum*, or golden Alexanders.—Leaves pinnate, serrate; hinder ternate: all the flowers fertile. Root perennial, black, and thick with clustered fibres.—Native of North America.

7. *Smyrniium integerrimum*, or entire-leaved Alexanders.—Stem-leaves doubly-ternate, quite entire. Root perennial. Stem a foot and a half high, even, little branched.—Native of Virginia.

Propagation and Culture.—All these plants may be propagated by sowing their seeds upon an open spot of ground in August, as soon as they are ripe; for if they are preserved till spring, they often miscarry; or at least do not come up until the second year; whereas those sown in autumn rarely fail of coming up in the spring, and will make much stronger plants than the other.

The common sort, when cultivated for the table, should be treated in the following manner:—

In the spring the plants should be hoed out, so as to leave them ten inches or a foot apart each way; and during the following summer, they must be constantly cleared from weeds, which, if permitted to grow among them, will draw them up slender, and render them good for little. In February following the plants will shoot up again vigorously, at which time the earth must be drawn up to each plant, to blanch them, and in three weeks after they will be fit for use, when they may be dug up, and the white part preserved, which may be stewed and eaten as celery.

SMYRUS, in Ichthyology, a name sometimes given by Pliny to the fish called the *Muræna myrus* by Linnæus.

SMYTHAM, in Mineralogy, lead-ore stamped and pounded down, like powder or sand, to cleanse the stones and earth from the ore.

SNABEDSK, a village of European Russia, in the government of Niznei-Novgorod, with large iron works.

SNACK, *s.* [from *snatch.*] A share; a part taken by compact.

For four times talking, if one piece thou take,
That must be cantled, and the judge go *snack.* *Dryden.*

All my demurs but double his attacks;
At last he whispers, "Do, and we go *snacks.*" *Pope.*

A slight, hasty repast. *Used in several parts of England.*

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SNACKET, or SNE'CKET, *s.* The hasp of a casement. *Sherwood.*

SNA'COT, *s.* [*acus*, Lat.] A fish. *Ainsworth.*

SNEFELL JOKLE, a lofty mountain of Iceland, on the north-west coast. It is 6800 feet in height, and more than the half of it is covered with perpetual snow.

SNA'FFLE, *s.* [*snavel*, Dutch, the nose.] A bridle which formerly crossed the nose; it is now used for a loose bit, differing from the curb bit.

The third o' th' world is your's, which with a *snaffle*
You may pace easy; but not such a wife. *Shakspeare.*

To SNA'FFLE, *v. a.* To bridle; to hold in a bridle; to hold to manage.

See him *snaffled!*
See him laugh'd at! see him baffled! *Fanshaw.*

SNAG, *s.* A jag, or sharp protuberance. *Unknown.*

The coat of arms,
Now on a naked *snag* in triumph born,
Was hung on high. *Dryden.*

A tooth left by itself, or standing beyond the rest; a tooth in contempt.

In China none hold women sweet,
Except their *snags* are black as jet:
King Chihu put nine queens to death,
Convict on statute, iv'ry teeth. *Prior.*

SNA'GGED, or SNA'GGY, *adj.* Full of snags; full of sharp protuberances; shooting into sharp points.

His stalking steps are stay'd
Upon a *snaggy* oak, which he had torn
Out of his mother's bowels, and it made
His mortal mace, wherewith his foemen he dismay'd. *Spenser.*

Snaggy is a northern word for testy, peevish.

SNAIL, *s.* [*rnæxl*, Saxon; *snegel*, Dutch.] A slimy animal which creeps on plants, some with shells on their backs; the emblem of slowness.—I can tell why a *snail* has a house.—Why?—Why, to put's head in; not to give it away to his daughters, and leave his horns without a case. *Shakspeare.*—A name given to a drone, from the slow motion of a snail.

Why prat'st thou to thyself, and answer'st not?
Dromio, thou drone, thou *snail*, thou slug, thou sot!
Shakspeare.

SNAIL, in Ichthyology. See LIPARIS NOSTRAS.

SNA'IL-CLAVEŔ, or SNA'IL-TREFOIL, *s.* [*trifolium*, Lat.] An herb.

SNAIL-LIKE, *adv.* In a way resembling the slowness of a snail.

A pox upon referring to commissions
I had rather hear that it were past the seals,
You courtiers move so *snail-like* in your business. *B. Jonson.*

SNAILWELL, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 3½ miles north-north-west of Newmarket.

SNAINTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 9½ miles south-west of Scarborough. Population 525.

SNAITH, a market town and parish of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It stands on a gentle eminence, which rises from the southern bank of the river Aire. The church is an ancient building in the pointed style, remarkable only as the burial place of the ancestors of Lord Viscount Down. The parish includes 11 townships, which united, contain 1133 houses, and 5095 inhabitants, of whom about 745 reside in the town. Market on Thursday, and three annual fairs for horned cattle, sheep, woollen cloth, linen, and cheese; 22 miles south-by-east of York, and 174 north-by-west of London.

SNAKE, *s.* [*rnaca*, Sax.; *snake*, Dutch; from the verb *rnacan*, to creep. *Serenius.*] A serpent of the oviparous kind, distinguished from a viper. The snake's bite is harmless. *Snake* in poetry is a general name for a serpent.

Glo'ster's shew beguiles him ;
As the *snake* roll'd in a flowery bank,
With shining checker'd slough, doth sting a child,
That for the beauty thinks it excellent. *Shakspeare.*

SNAKE CREEK, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri, 246 miles from the Mississippi.

SNAKE INDIANS, a tribe of savages in North America, on the south-west side of the Missouri. Lat. 47. N. long. 107. W. They are described under the title of **SHOSHONEES**, which see.

SNAKE ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the Indian sea, near the eastern coast Africa. Lat. 5. 20. S.

SNAKE-ROOT, *s.* A species of birthwort growing in Virginia and Carolina.

SNAKESHEAD *Iris, s.* [*hermodactylus*, Latin.] A plant.

SNAKE-WEED, or **BISTORT**, *s.* [*bistorta*, Latin.] A plant.

SNAKE-WOOD, *s.* A tree.

SNAKY, *adj.* Serpentine; belonging to a snake; resembling a snake.

Venomous tongue, tipt with vile adder's sting,
Of that self kind with which the furies fell
Their *snaky* heads do comb. *Spenser.*

The crooked arms Meander bow'd with his so *snaky* flood,
Resign'd for conduct the choice youth of all their mortal
brood. *Chapman.*

So to the coast of Jordan he directs
His easy steps, girded with *snaky* wiles. *Milton.*

Having serpents.
What was that *snaky*-headed gorgon shield
That wise Minerva wore, unconquer'd virgin,
Wherewith she freez'd her foes to congeal'd stone? *Milton.*

TO SNAP, *v. a.* [*snappa*, Su. Goth., *schnappen*, Germ.]
to snatch.—To break at once; to break short.—Light is
broken like a body, as when 'tis *snapped* in pieces by a
tougher body. *Digby.*—To strike with a knocking noise,
or sharp sound.

The bowzy sire
First shook from out his pipe the seeds of fire,
Then *snapt* his box. *Pope.*

To bite.—A gentleman passing by a coach, one of the
horses *snapt* off the end of his finger. *Wiseman.*—To
catch suddenly and unexpectedly.

Some with a noise and greasy light
Are *snapt*, as men catch larks at night. *Butler.*

[*Sucipa*, Icel. contumeliò afficere.] To treat with sharp
language.

A surly ill-bred lord
That chides and *snaps* her up at every word. *Granville.*

TO SNAP, *v. n.* To break short; to fall asunder; to
break without bending.

Note the ship's sicknesses, the mast
Shak'd with an ague, and the hold and waist
With a salt dropsy clogg'd; and our tacklings
Snapping, like to too high stretch'd treble strings. *Donne.*

To make an effort to bite with eagerness.—If the young
dace be a bate for the old pike, I see no reason but I may
snap at him. *Shakspeare.*—To express sharp language.

SNAP, *s.* The act of breaking with a quick motion.—
A greedy fellow.—He had no sooner said out his say, but up
rises a cunning *snap*, then at the board. *L'Estrange.*—A
quick eager bite.—With their bills, thwarted crosswise at the
end, they would cut an apple in two at one *snap*. *Carew.*
—A catch; a theft.

SNA'PDRAGON, or **CALF'S SNOOUT**, *s.* A plant. [*an-
tirrhinum*, Latin.]—A kind of play, in which the brandy is
set on fire, and raisins thrown into it, which those who are
unused to the sport are afraid to take out; but which may be

safely snatched by a quick motion, and put blazing into the
mouth, which being closed, the fire is at once extinguished.
—The thing eaten at *snapdragon*.—He bore a strange kind
of appetite to *snapdragon*. *Swift.*

SNAPE, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2½ miles south-
east of Saxmundham. Population 456.

SNAPE, a township of England, North Riding of York-
shire; 4¼ miles south of Bedale. Population 646.

SNA'PHANCE, *s.* [*schnapham*, Germ., *clavus bom-
bardæ*; *snaphaam*, Belg. *ipsa*, *bombarda portatilis*.
Wachter.] A kind of firelock. *Not now in use.*—There
arrived four horsemen,—very well appointed, having *snaph-
ances* hanging at the pomel of their saddles. *Shelton.*

SNA'PPER, *s.* One who snaps.—My father named me
Autolicus, being litter'd under Mercury; who, as I am, was
likewise a *snapper* up of unconsider'd trifles. *Shakspeare.*

SNA'PPISH, *adv.* Eager to bite.
The *snappish* cur, the passenger's annoy,
Close at my heel with yelping treble fits. *Swift.*

Peevish; sharp in reply.—I spoke to my lord chief justice
about lord Forbes's bail: the lord chief justice was very
snappish, and said, he would take none, whom Mr. Smith did
not approve of. *Earl of Clarendon.*

SNA'PPISHLY, *adv.* Peevishly; tartly.

SNA'PPISHNESS, *s.* Peevishness; tartness.

SNA'PSACK, *s.* [*snappsack*, Swedish.] A soldier's bag:
more usually *knapsack*, Dr. Johnson says.—We should
look upon him as a strange soldier, that when he is upon
his march, and to go upon service, instead of his sword
should take his *snapsack*. *South.*

TO SNAR, *v. n.* [*snarren*, Teut.] To snarl.

Tygers that did seeme to grin,
And *snar* at all that ever passed by. *Spenser.*

SNARE, *s.* [*snara*, Swedish and Icelandic; *snare*,
Danish; *snoor*, Dutch.] Any thing set to catch an animal;
a gin; a net; a noose.

O poor hapless nightingale, thought I,
How sweet thou sing'st, how near the deadly *snare*. *Milton.*

Any thing by which one is intrapped or intangled.—This
I speak for your own profit, not that I may cast a *snare* upon
you. 1 *Cor.*

Beauty, wealth, and wit,
And prowess, to the power of love submit;
The spreading *snare* for all mankind is laid,
And lovers all betray, or are betray'd. *Dryden.*

TO SNARE, *v. a.* To entrap; to entangle; to catch in
a noose.

Glo'ster's shew
Beguiles him, as the mournful crocodile
With sorrow *snares* relenting passengers. *Shakspeare.*

SNARER, *s.* One who lays snares.
Never prate on't; nor, like a cunning *snarer*,
Make thy clipp'd name the bird to call in others. *Middleton.*

SNARES, a cluster of seven craggy islands in the South
Pacific Ocean, discovered by Capt. Vancouver, on the 24th
Nov. 1791. They appeared destitute of verdure; and it is
more than probable they never produced any. The largest,
which is the north-easternmost, Capt. Vancouver supposed to
be in extent equal to all the rest: it is about 9 miles in cir-
cuit, sufficiently elevated to be seen in clear weather eight or
nine leagues off; and is situated lat. 48. 3. S. long. 166.
20. E. On the 23d of the same month, these islands had
been discovered by Mr. Broughton, who passed through
them, and gave to the largest the name of Knight's Island.
For Mr. Broughton's account, see **KNIGHT'S ISLAND**.

SNARESTON, or **SNARKESTON**, a hamlet of England,
in Leicestershire; 6 miles north-west of Market Bosworth.

SNARFORD, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5½
miles south-west of Market Raisin.

SNARGATE, a parish of England, in Kent; 6½ miles
north-west of New Romney.

To SNARL, *v. n.* [*snarren*, Teut.] To growl as an angry animal.

What! were you *snarling* all before I came,
Ready to catch each other by the throat,
And turn you all your hatred now on me? *Shakspeare.*

An angry cur
Snarls while he feeds. *Dryden and Lee.*

To speak roughly; to talk in rude terms.—'Tis malicious and unmannerly to *sarl* at the little lapses of a pen, from which Virgil himself stands not exempted. *Dryden.*

To SNARL, *v. a.* To entangle, to embarrass. *Unused.*
From her back her garments she did teare,
And from her head oft rent her *sarled* heare. *Spenser.*

Confused *sarled* consciences render it difficult to pull out thread by thread. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

SNARLER, *s.* One who snarls; a growling, surly, quarrelsome, insulting fellow.

SNARY, *adj.* Entangling; insidious.—Spiders in the vault their *sary* webs have spread. *Dryden.*

SNAST, *s.* The snuff of a candle. *Unused.*—It first burned fair, till some part of the candle was consumed, and the sawdust gathering about the *snasts*; but then it made the *snast* big and long, and burn duskishly, and the candle wasted in half the time of the wax pure. *Bacon.*

To SNATCH, *v. a.* [*snaeken*, Teut.] To seize any thing hastily.

Life's stream hurries all too fast:
In vain sedate reflections we would make,
When half our knowledge we must *snatch*, not take. *Pope.*

To transport or carry suddenly.—He had scarce performed any part of the office of a bishop in the diocese of London, when he was *snatched* from thence, and promoted to Canterbury. *Clarendon.*

Oh nature!
Inrich me with the knowledge of thy works,
Snatch me to heaven. *Thompson.*

To SNATCH, *v. n.* To bite, or catch eagerly at something.—Lords will not let me: if I had a monopoly of fools, they would have part on't; nay, the ladies too will be *snatching*. *Shakspeare.*

SNATCH, *s.* A hasty catch. A short fit of vigorous action.

After a shower to weeding a *snatch*;
More easily weed with the root to dispatch. *Tusser.*

A small part of any thing; a broken part.
She chaunted *snatches* of old tunes,
As one incapable of her own distress. *Shakspeare.*

A broken or interrupted action; a short fit.
The *snatches* in his voice,
And burst of speaking, were as his. *Shakspeare.*

A quip; a shuffling answer.—Come, leave your *snatches*,
yield me a direct answer. *Shakspeare.*

SNA'TCHER, *s.* One that snatches, or takes any thing in haste.

They of those marches
Shall be a wall sufficient to defend
Our inland from the pilfering borderers.
—We do not mean the coursing *snatchers* only,
But fear the main intendment of the Scot. *Shakspeare.*

SNATCHINGLY, *adv.* Hastily; with interruption.

To SNATHE; *v. a.* To prune; to lop. *Unused.*

SNATTOCK, *s.* A chip; a slice; a cutting.

SNAVE, a parish of England, in Kent; 4½ miles north-west of New Romney.

SNAYERS (Peter), a painter of very considerable merit in almost every branch, but particularly in battles, huntings and landscapes. He was born at Antwerp in 1593, and was a disciple of Henry van Balen. He was held in great estimation by the archduke Albert, who patronized him, appointed him his painter, and sent several of his pictures into

Spain. Besides this superior encouragement, he was employed for many of the churches in the Netherlands, and his battle-pieces are to be found in all the most choice collections of that country. Reubens and Vandyck honoured them with their approbation; and the latter painted the portrait of Snayers among the eminent artists of the day. He died in 1670, aged 77.

SNEADE, a township of England, in Worcestershire; 5½ miles south-west of Bewdley.

To SNEAK, *v. n.* [*snican*, to creep, Sax.] To creep slyly; to come or go as if afraid to be seen.

Once the eagle, England, being in prey,
To her unguarded nest the weazel went,
Comes *sneaking*, and sucks her princely eggs. *Shakspeare.*

To behave with meanness and servility; to crouch; to truckle.

When int'rest calls off all her *sneaking* train,
When all the oblig'd desert, and all the vain,
She waits, or to the scaffold, or the cell,
When the last lingering friend has bid farewell. *Pope.*

To SNEAK, *v. a.* To hide; to conceal.—Some sins dare the world in open defiance, yet this [slander] lurks, and *sneaks* its head. *Wake.*

SNEAK, *s.* A sneaking fellow.

SNEAK-CUP. See SNEAKUP.

SNEAKER, *s.* A small vessel of drink. A *sneaker* of punch is a term still used in several places for a small bowl.—I have just left the right worshipful and his myrmidons about a *sneaker* of five gallons! *Spectator.*

SNE'AKING, *part. adj.* Servile; mean; low.

When the smart dialogue grows rich,
With *sneaking* dog, and ugly bitch. *Rowe.*

Covetous; niggardly; meanly parsimonious.

SNE'AKINGLY, *adj.* Meanly; servilely.

Do all things like a man, not *sneakingly*:
Think the king sees thee still. *Herbert.*

In a covetous manner.

SNE'AKINGNESS, *s.* Niggardliness. Meanness; pitifulness.—A *sneakingness* which so implies a guilt. *Boyle.*

SNE'AKSBY, *s.* A paltry fellow; a cowardly, sneaking fellow.—A demure *sneaksby*, a clownish singularist. *Barrow.*

SNE'AKUP, *s.* A cowardly, creeping, insidious scoundrel. *Obsolete.*—*Sneak-up* is the word as given by the modern editors of Shakspeare, with the explanation of "one who takes his glass in a sneaking manner." Notes on Twelfth Night.—The prince is a jack, a *sneakup*; and if he were here, I would cudgel him like a dog, if he would say so. *Shakspeare.*

To SNEAP, *v. a.* [from the Icel. *sneipa*, contumeliâ afficere.] To reprimand; to check.

Life that's here,
When into it the soul doth closely wind,
Is often *sneap'd* by anguish and by fear. *orc.*

To nip.

What may
Breed upon our absence, may there blow
No *sneaping* winds at home. *Shakspeare.*

SNEAP, *s.* A reprimand; a check.—My lord, I will not undergo this *sneap* without reply: you call honourable boldness impudent sauciness: if a man will make courtesy and say nothing, he is virtuous. *Shakspeare.*

SNEATH, or SEETH, provincially, a term applied to the shaft of a scythe in some places.

SNEATON, a village in the North Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles south-by-west of Whitby.

To SNEB, *v. a.* To check; to chide; to reprimand.

Which made this foolish brere wexe so bold,
That on a time he cast him to scold
And *snebbe* the good oak, for he was old. *Spenser.*

SNECK, *s.* [of uncertain etymology.] The latch or bolt of

of a door. *Prompt Parv.* Retained in the north; where, to *sneek* the door also, is to latch it.

To *SNED*. See *To SNATHE*.

SNEECK, or *SNITS*, a fortified town of the Netherlands, in the province of Friesland, situated in a low marshy district, on a lake of the same name. It is well built, and contains 5000 inhabitants. It has a considerable trade in beer, and some manufactures of linen; 13 miles south of Leeuwarden.

SNEED, *s.* [ʃnæð; Sax.] The handle of a sithe.—This is fixed on a long *sneed*, or strait handle. *Evelyn*.

SNEEHATTA, the highest of all the mountains of Norway, is situated in the Doffrefield chain, about Lat. 62. 18. N. Its elevation above the sea is not more than 8000 feet; but in this latitude, above 4000 of these are above the line of perpetual congelation.

To *SNEER*, *v. n.* [etymology unknown.] To show contempt by looks. To insinuate contempt by covert expressions.—I could be content to be a little *sneered* at in a line, for the sake of the pleasure I should have in reading the rest. *Pope*.—To utter with grimace.—I have not been *sneering* fulsome lies, and nauseous flattery, at a little tawdry whore. *Congreve*.—To show awkward mirth.—I had no power over one muscle in their faces, though they *sneered* at every word spoken by each other. *Tatler*.

SNEER, *s.* A look of contemptuous ridicule.

Did not the *sneer* of more impartial men
At sense and virtue, balance all agen?

Pope.

An expression of ludicrous scorn.—Socrates or Cæsar might have a fool's coat clapt upon them, and in this disguise neither the wisdom of the one nor the majesty of the other, could secure them from a *sneer*. *Watts*.

SNEERER, *s.* One that sneers or shows contempt.—The buffoon and *sneerer* are still on the wrong side of the charter. *Warburton*.

SNEERONGLY, *adv.* With a look or with expression of ludicrous scorn.

SNEERFUL, *adj.* Given to sneering. *A bad word.*

The *sneerful* maid

Will not fatigue her hand.

Shenstone.

To *SNEEZE*, *v. n.* [nrejan, Saxon; *niesen*, Dutch; *sneysa*, Icel. from *naeje*, Sax.; *nasus*, Lat., the nose. See *Ihre* and *Serenius*.] To emit wind audibly by the nose.—An officer put the sharp end of his half-pike a good way up into my nostril, which tickled my nose like a straw, and made me *sneeze* violently. *Swift*.

SNEEZE, *s.* Emission of wind audibly by the nose.

I heard the rack

As earth and sky would mingle; but

These flaws, though mortals fear them

As dangerous to the pillar'd frame of heaven,

Are to the main as wholesome as a *sneeze*

To man's less universe, and soon are gone.

Milton.

SNEEZING, *s.* Act of sneezing; sternutation. Medicine to promote sneezing.—*Sneezings*, masticatories, and nasals are generally received. Montaltus gives several receipts of all three. *Burton*.

SNEEZEWORD, *s.* [*ptarmica*, Lat.] A plant.

SNEIRNE, a village of Irak, in Persia; 57 miles west-north-west of Hamadan.

SNELL, *adj.* [ʃnel, Saxon.] Nimble; active; lively. *Obsolete.* *Lyc.*

SNELL (Willebrord), an excellent mathematician, was born at Leyden in the year 1591, where he succeeded his father in the professorial chair in 1613, and where he died in 1626, at the premature age of 35 years. He was the author of several valuable works and discoveries. To him we owe the first discovery of the true law of the refraction of the rays of light; and this discovery was made, as Huygens assures us, before it was announced by Des Cartes. Snellius undertook also to measure the earth; and this operation he effected by observing the interval between Alcaer and Bergen-op-Zoom, corresponding to a difference of Latitude of 1° 11' 30". He

also determined the distance between Alcaer and Leyden; and from a mean of these measurements, he made a degree to consist of 55,021 French toises or fathoms. These measures were afterwards repeated and corrected by Muschenbroeck, who then found the degree to contain 57,033 toises. His works were numerous, and the principal of them are enumerated in Hutton's Dictionary.

SNELLAND, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles west-north-west of Wragby.

SNELLINCKS (John), was born at Mechlin in 1544. He painted in history and still-life; but he derives his principal renown from his skill in representing battles, particularly attacks of cavalry, which were regarded as pre-eminent among works of that kind. He was honoured by the patronage of the archduke and duchess, and most of the nobility of the Netherlands, and enjoyed all the gratifications which employment and applause are calculated to afford. His taste in grouping is judicious, and he knew how to take advantage of the circumstances of a battle to display his knowledge of chiaro-scuro with great effect. Vandyck appears to have honoured him with his approbation, and has painted his portrait among the distinguished artists of his day, and also etched a plate of it. He died in 1638, aged 94.

SNELLSTON, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 5 miles south-east of Nether Knutsford.

SNELSTON, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 3 miles south-west of Ashborne. Population 449.

SNENTON, a village of England; three quarters of a mile from the town of Nottingham. Population 953.

SNET, *s.* [among hunters.] The fat of a deer.

SNETTERTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles north of East Harling.

SNETTISHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6½ miles north-by-east of Castle Rising. Population 880.

SNETTISHAM PORT, a harbour on the west coast of North America, in Stephens's Passage, which extends a league from its entrance in a north-east direction, where on each side the shores form an extensive cove, terminated by a sandy beach, with a fine stream of fresh water. The shores are high and steep, and produce very few trees. Lat. 57. 53. N. long. of its north-west point, 226. 22. E.

SNEUWBERG, or *SNOW MOUNTAIN*, an extensive range, stretching through the district of Graaf Reynet, in the eastern part of the territory of the Cape of Good Hope. It forms one of the divisions into which this district is divided. The pasture is excellent, and the abundance of cattle very great, though the settlers cannot without difficulty defend their property against the attacks of the wild Bosjesmans. This track, however, may be considered as the grand repository both of sheep and horned cattle in the colony, many families possessing 4000 or 5000 head.

SNEW. The old pret. of *To snow*.—It *snowed* in his hous, &c. *Chaucer*.

SNEYDERS, or *SNYDERS* (Francis). This ingenious painter was born at Antwerp in 1579, and was a disciple of Henry van Balen. At the beginning of his practice he confined himself to fruits, flowers and other objects of still-life; but he soon advanced to the imitation of animated nature, and in the representation of animals in all the vigour of life and action, in scenes of huntings and fightings, if he has had any rival, he has not been surpassed for freedom, truth and energy.

Though Rubens was excellent in subjects of this nature himself, yet he frequently employed Sneyders to introduce animals into his pictures; and such was his excellence in colouring and execution, that in this dread competition he rose to a level with his great compeer; and produced an union of spirit and effect, which has rarely occurred where two artists have been engaged upon one canvas. Sometimes Rubens, and Joardaens also, returned the compliment, and painted figures in Sneyders' assemblages of beasts, dead game, fish, vegetables, &c. Of these combined labours, we have many excellent examples in this country; and as Sneyders lived to the age of 78, and was an industrious man, they are not thinly scattered on the continent. It is impossible

impossible not to be struck with the astonishing facility with which his works are completed; or with the delicacies of drawing, the correctness and fulness of expression, he has given to his animals, their ferocity or their alarm, even their affection for their young or their benefactor. Vandyck painted an excellent portrait of Sneyders, which was in the Orlean's collection, and is engraved in the set of his heads. He himself handled the point, and has left several etchings of various animals. They are now become scarce. He died in 1657.

SNEYDSBOROUGH, or **SNERDSBOROUGH**, a post township of the United States, in Richmond county, North Carolina, on the Yadkin.

SNIATYN, a town of Austrian Galicia, near the Pruth. It is surrounded by marshes, and contains 4000 inhabitants, of whom about 500 are Armenians. There are here considerable tanneries; 120 miles south-east of Lemberg, and 28 west of Czernowitz. Lat. 48. 39. N. long. 22. 48. E.

To SNIB, *v. a.* [Su. Goth. *snyfba*, verbis increpare.] To check; to nip; to reprimand.—Him wolde he *snybben* sharply for the nones. *Chaucer.*

Asked for their pass by every squib,
That list at will them to revile or *snib*. *Spenser.*

SNIBSTON, a hamlet of England, county of Leicester; 5 miles south-east of Ashby de la Zouch.

SNICK, *s.* A small cut or mark. A latch. See **SNECK**.
SNICK AND SNEE, *s.* [*snee*, Dutch, a cut, a gash. *Sevel.*—Perhaps *snick* is a cant expression for a knife.] A combat with knives.—Among the Dunkirkers, where *snick and snee* was in fashion, a boatswain with some of our men drinking together, became quarrelsome: one of our men beat him down; then kneeling upon his breast, he drew out a knife, sticking in his sash, and cut him from the ear towards the mouth. *Wiseman.*

To SNICKER, or **SNIGGER**, *v. n.* [*etymology unknown.*] To laugh slyly, wantonly, or contemptuously; to laugh in one's sleeve.

SNICKER'S GAP, a post village of the United States, in Loudoun county, Virginia.

SNIESCNICZA, a mountain in Austrian Dalmatia, in the Ragusan territory, called from its height "the Snowy Mountain," and still containing the ruins of a temple dedicated to Æsculapius.

To SNIFF, *v. n.* [*snyfsta*, Su. Goth. See **To SNUFF**.] To draw breath audibly up the nose.

So then you look'd scornful, and *snift* at the dean,
As, who should say, now I am skinny and lean? *Swift.*

To SNIFF, *v. a.* To draw in with the breath.

SNIFF, *s.* Perception by the nose.

O, could I but have had one single sup,
One single *sniff*, at Charlotte's caudle-cup! *Warton.*

To SNIFF, *v. n.* To snort: "to *snift* in contempt."
See **To SNUFF**.—Resentment expressed by *snifsting*. *Johnson.*

SNIG, *s.* A kind of eel.

To SNI'GGLE, *v. n.* To fish for eels.—*Sniggl*ing is thus performed: in a warm day, when the water is lowest, take a strong small hook, tied to a string about a yard long; and then into one of the holes, where an eel may hide herself, with the help of a short stick put in your bait leisurely, and as far as you may, conveniently: if within the sight of it, the eel will bite instantly, and as certainly gorge it: pull him out by degrees. *Walton.*

To SNI'GGLE, *v. a.* To catch; to snare.

Have you remembered what we thought of?
—Yes, sir, I have *sniggl*ed him. *Beaum. and Fl.*

To SNIP, *v. a.* [*snippen*, Teut.] To cut at once with scissars.—Putting one blade of the scissars up the gut, and the other up the wound, *snip* the whole length of the fistula. *Sharp.*

SNIP, *s.* A single cut with scissars.—The ulcer would

not cure farther than it was laid open; therefore with one *snip* more I laid it open to the very end. *Wiseman.*—A small shred.—Those we keep within compass by small *snips* of emplast, hoping to defend the parts about; but, in spite of all, they will spread farther. *Wiseman.*—A share; a snack. *A low word.*—He found his friend upon the mending hand, which he was glad to hear, because of the *snip* that he himself expected upon the dividend. *L'Estrange.*

SNIFE, *s.* [*schneppe*, Germ., *snip*, Dutch; from *schnebbe*, the beak. Wachter, Serenius, and Lye. The Saxon word is *snice*; the Welsh *ysnit*; and we have also *snite*, which is of similar origin, viz., the *snout*; Swed. *snyte*, Teut. *snygte*, the same.]—A small fen fowl with a long bill. See **SCOLOPAX**.—A fool; a blockhead.

Thus do I ever make my fool my purse;
For I mine own gain'd knowledge should profane,
If I should time expend with such a *snipe*,
But for my sport and profit. *Shakespeare.*

SNIPPER, *s.* One that snips.

SNIPPET, *s.* A small part; a share.

Witches simpling, and on gibbets
Cutting from malefactors *snippets*;
Or from the pill'ry tips of ears. *Hudibras.*

SNIPSNAP, *s.* [A cant word formed by reduplication of *snap*.] Tart dialogue; with quick replies.

Dennis and dissonance, and captious art,
And *snipsnap* short, and interruption smart. *Pope.*

SNITE, *s.* [*snita*, Saxon.] A snipe. This is perhaps the true name; but *snipe* prevails.—Of tame birds Cornwall hath doves, geese, and ducks: of wild, quail, rail, *snite*, and wood-dove. *Carew.*

To SNITE, *v. a.* [*snycan*, Saxon; *snyuten*, Teut., from *snyute*, the nose.] To blow the nose. This word is used in Scotland, not only in relation to the nose, as in England; but also as to a candle; "*snite* the candle, *snuff* it." It is also English: "To *snytyn* a nose of candell." Prompt. Parv. And in Wodroephe's Fr. Gramm. 1623, p. 307. "*Snut* that candle; where be the *snutters*?"—Nor would any one be able to *snite* his nose, or to sneeze; in both which the passage of the breath through the mouth, being intercepted by the tongue, is forced to go through the nose. *Grew.*

SNITHE, or **SNIT'HY**, *adj.* [*snidan*, Sax., *to cut*.] Sharp; piercing; cutting: applied to the wind, in some of the northern parts of England.

SNITTER, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 13½ miles south-west of Alnwick.

SNITTERBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 9 miles north-west of Market Raisin.

SNITTERFIELD, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 4 miles north-by-east of Stratford-upon-Avon. Population 605.

SNITTERTON, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire; 2 miles west-by-north of Matlock.

SNIVEL, *s.* [*snýpluz*, *snopel*, Sax., *mucus*.] Snot; the running of the nose.

To SNIVEL, *v. n.* To run at the nose.—To cry as children.—Funeral tears are hired out as mourning cloaks; and whether we go to our graves *snivelling* or singing, 'tis all mere form. *L'Estrange.*

SNIVELLER, *s.* A weeper; a weak lamenter.

He'd more lament when I was dead,
Thanall the *snivellers* round my bed. *Swift.*

SNIVELLY, *adj.* Running at the nose.—Pitiful; whining.

SNIZORT, a parish of Scotland, in the isle of Skye, about 18 miles long and 9 broad, of an irregular figure. Population 2750.

SNOD, *s.* [*snob*, Sax., *vitta*.] A fillet; a riband. One of our western words, as *snod*; but in the north, *snood*, or *snude*. See also Cowel.

SNOD, *adj.* [perhaps from *snidan*, Sax., *to cut*.] Trimmed; smooth: applied, in some parts of the north, both to persons and to grass; in the former meaning well dressed, in the latter even. It is also pronounced *snog*. See **SNUG**.

SNODLAND, a parish of England, in Kent; 2 miles north-west of Aylesford.

To SNOOK, *v. n.* [*snoka*, Swed. insidioso scrutari. Serenius.] To lurk; to lie in ambush. *Unused*.

To SNORE, *v. n.* [*snorcken*, Teut., *snarchen*, Germ., *snarka*, Suec.] To breathe hard through the nose, as men in sleep.

Is not yonder Proteus' cave?
It is; and in it lies the god asleep;
And *snoring* by
We may descry
The monsters of the deep.

Dryden.

SNORE, *s.* [σνορη, Saxon.] Audible respiration of sleepers through the nose.

The surfeited grooms
Do mock their charge with *snores*: I've drugg'd their
possets. *Shakspeare.*

SNOREHAM, a hamlet of England, in Essex; 5½ miles south-south-east of Maldon.

SNO'RRER, *s.* On who snores. *Prompt. Parv.*

SNORING, GREAT, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles south-south-east of Little Walsingham.

SNORING, LITTLE, a hamlet in the foregoing parish; 3 miles north-east of Fakenham.

To SNORT, *v. n.* [*snorcken*, Teut.] To breathe hard through the nose, as men in sleep.—He found a country fellow dead-drunk, *snorting* on a bulk. *Burton*.—No more able to direct thy course, than a pilot who *snorts*, when a ship is tossed in the midst of the sea. *Patrick*.—To blow through the nose as a high-mettled horse.

The fiery war-horse paws the ground,
And *snorts* and trembles at the trumpet's sound. *Addison.*

To SNORT, *v. a.* To turn up in anger, scorn, or derision: applied to the nose.

Yfrowned foulc was hir visage,
And grinning for dispiteous rage;
Her nose *ysnorted* up for tene.

Chaucer.

SNO'RTER, *s.* A snorer; one who snorts. *Sherwood.*

SNOR'TING, *s.* Act of snoring.—Act of blowing through the nose as a high-mettled horse.—The *snorting* of his horses was heard. *Jer.*

SNOT, *s.* [snote, Saxon; *snot*, Teut., from *snȳtan* and *snuyten*. See **To SNITE**.] The mucus of the nose.

Thus, when a greedy sloven once has thrown
His *snot* into the mess, 'tis all his own. *Swift.*

To SNOT, *v. a.* [snȳtan, Sax.] To snite or blow the nose. *Sherwood.*

To SNOT'TER, *v. n.* To snivel; to sob or cry. *North.*

SNO'TTY, *adj.* Full of snot.—This squire South my husband took in a dirty *snotty*-nosed boy. *Arbuthnot.*

SNOW, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Wilna.

SNOUT, *s.* [*snuyt*, Teut. *snute*, Sax. inf. *schnautze*, Germ. *snute*, Swed. *nasus*, et *rostrum animalium*. See *Wachter* and *Serenius*.—The nose of a beast.—His nose in the air, his *snout* in the skies. *Tusser.*

In shape a beagle's whelp throughout,
With broader forehead, and a sharper *snout*. *Dryden.*

The nose of a man, in contempt
Her subtle *snout*
Did quickly wind his meaning out. *Hudibras.*
But when the date of Nock was out,
Off dropt the sympathetic *snout*. *Hudibras.*

The nosel or end of any hollow pipe.

To SNOUT, *v. a.* To furnish with a nosel or point.—Their shoes and pattens are *snouted* and piked more than a finger long. *Camden.*

SNO'UTED, *adj.* Having a snout.—Their dogs *snouted* like foxes, but deprived of that property which the logicians call *proprium quarto modo*, for they could not bark. *Heylin.*

SNO'UTY, *adj.* Resembling a beast's snout.

The nose was ugly, long, and big,
Broad and *snouty* like a pig.

Otway.

SNOW, *s.* [*snaiws*, M. Goth. *sneeuw*, Teut., *snap*, Sax., *snior*, Icel., *snio*, Swed., *snee*, Germ.]—The small particles of water frozen before they unite into drops. *Locke.*

He gives the Winter's *snow* her airy birth,
And bids her virgin fleeces clothe the earth. *Sandys.*

A ship with two masts: generally the largest of all two-masted vessels employed by Europeans. *Falconer.*

To SNOW, *v. n.* [snapan, Saxon; *sneeuwen*, Dutch.]—To fall in snow.—The hills being high about them, it *snows* at the tops of them oftener than it rains. *Brown.*

To SNOW, *v. a.* To scatter like snow.

If thou be'st born to see strange sights,
Ride ten thousand days and nights,
Till age *snow* white hairs on thee. *Donne.*

SNOW BIRD LAKE, a lake of North America, west of Hudson's bay.

SNOW RIVER, a river of North America, which runs into the Missouri; 35 miles below the Great Falls.

SNO'WBALL, *s.* A round lump of congelated snow.—They passed to the east-riding of Yorkshire, their company daily increasing, like a *snowball* in rolling. *Hayward.*

SNO'WBROTH, *s.* Very cold liquor.

Angelo, a man whose blood
Is very *snowbroth*, one who never feels
The wanton stings and motions of the sense. *Shakspeare.*

SNO'WCROWNED, *adj.* Having the top covered with snow.—From *snow-crown'd* Skiddow's lofty cliffs. *Drayton.*

SNO'WDEEP, *s.* [*viola bulbosa*, Lat.] An herb.

SNOWDON MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Wales, in the county of Caernarvon, the highest mountain of Wales, and the most remarkable for the extent of the great ridge of hills with which it is connected and forms the summit. These mountains, which take the general name of Snowdon, are situated to the south-east of the county, and extend to the confines of Merionethshire. They are called by the Welsh the mountains of Eryri, and according to an ancient proverb mentioned by Giraldus, were considered to be so extensive and productive, as to be capable of yielding sufficient pasture for all the herds in Wales, if collected together. *Camden* remarks of these mountains, that "they may be properly termed the British Alps; for besides their great height, they are also no less inaccessible, by reason of the steepness of their rocks, than the Alps themselves; and they all encompass one hill, which, far exceeding the rest in height, does so tower its head aloft, that it seems, I shall not say to threaten the sky, but to thrust its summit into it. It harbours snow continually, being throughout the year covered with it, or rather with a hardened crust of snow; and hence the British name of *Craig Eryri*, and the English one of *Snowdon*." The highest peak of Snowdon is elevated, according to the Trigonometrical Survey of England, 3571 feet above the level of the sea. But this is still nearly 2000 feet below the line of perpetual snow in that latitude; so that *Camden* is mistaken when he says that snow lies here all the year. The snow, however, begins to fall in November, and is seldom melted till the middle of June. Snowdon, though the highest mountain in Wales, is far from being the most picturesque in its form. *Cader Iris*, *Molwyn*, and *Arran*, in North Wales, and *Cader Arthur*, near Brecknock, present a much bolder outline. The usual mode of ascent to Snowdon

is by Llyn Cawellyn, about midway between Beddgelert and Caernarvon. The view from the summit is beyond measure grand and extensive; and in a clear day, and when the mountain is free of clouds, which, however, is but seldom the case, the eye can trace the hills of Scotland, with part of the coast, the high mountains of Westmoreland and Cumberland, and some of the hills of Lancashire; even the county of Wicklow is on some occasions partly visible, and the whole of the Isle of Man. All the intermediate country appears as if in a map; and even the adjacent mountains, which are of great height, seem directly under the eye. The mountain of Snowdon was held sacred by the ancient Britons, in the same manner as Parnassus was by the Greeks, and Ida by the Cretans.

SNOWDROP, *s.* [*narcissoleucoium*, Lat.] An early flower.

The little shape, by magic power,
Grew less and less, contracted to a flower;
A flower, that first in this sweet garden smil'd,
To virgins sacred, and the *snowdrop* styl'd.

Tickell.

SNOWHILL, a post town and port of entry of the United States, and capital of Worcester county, Maryland, on the Pocomoke, 25 miles from its mouth. It is pleasantly situated, and contains a court-house, a jail, an academy, a bank, three houses of public worship, one for Presbyterians, one for Episcopalians, and one for Methodists, and about 1000 inhabitants, and has considerable trade. The shipping belonging to this port, in 1816, amounted to 8458 tons; 125 miles south of Philadelphia. Lat. 38. 10. N. long. 75. 30. W.

SNOWHILL, a post village of the United States, in Greene county, North Carolina.

SNO'WLIKE, *adj.* [*ʃnəp-lic*, Saxon.] Resembling snow.

SNOWSHILL, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 5 miles north-east of Winchcombe.

SNOW-WHITE, *adj.* [*ʃnəp hpiʃe*, Saxon.] White as snow.

Let fair humanity abhor the deed,
That spots and stains love's modest *snow-white* weed.

Shakspeare.

SNO'WY, *adj.* White like snow.

Now I see thy jolly train:
Snowy headed Winter leads;
Spring and Summer next succeeds;
Yellow Autumn brings the rear;
Thou art father of the year.

Rowe.

Abounding with snow.

These first in Crete

And Ida known; thence on the *snowy* top
Of cold Olympus rul'd the middle air.

Milton.

Pure; white; unblemished.

There did he lose his *snowy* innocence,
His undepraved will.

J. Hall.

SNUB, *s.* [from *snebbe*, Dutch, a nose, or *knubel*, a joint of the finger.] A jag; a snag; a knot in wood.

Lifting up his dreadful club on high,
All arm'd with ragged *snubs* and knotty grain,
Him thought at first encounter to have slain.

Spenser.

To **SNUB**, *v. a.* [Swedish *snubba*, to huff, to check; Icel. the same, or rather to correct sharply or roughly.] To check; to reprimand.—We frequently see the child, in spite of being neglected, *snubbed*, and thwarted at home, acquire a behaviour which makes him agreeable to all the rest of the world. *Tatler*.—To nip.—Near the sea-shores the heads and boughs of trees run out far to landward; but toward the sea are so *snubbed* by the winds, as if their boughs had been pared or shaven off. *Ray*.

To **SNUB**, *v. n.* [*schnauben*, Germ.] To sob with convulsion.

SNU'NOSED, *adj.* Having a flat or short nose: a

corruption of *snut-nosed*, which is in the old dictionaries, and which is from *snout*.

To **SNUDGE**, *v. n.* [*sniger*, Danish; *ʃnican*, Sax.; *snaghim*, Gael. See To **SNEAK**.] To lie idle, close, or snug.

Now he will fight it out, and to the wars;
Now eat his bread in peace,
And *snudge* in quiet; now he scorns increase;
Now all day spares.

Herbert.

SNUDGE, *s.* A miser; a curmudgeon; a niggardly or sneaking fellow.

SNUFF, *s.* [*snuffen*, Teut. *naribus spirare*; *snufsta*, Su. Goth.; *snufwa*, Swed.; all from the ancient word *nef*, the nose.] Smell.—The Immortal, the Eternal, wants not the *snuff* of mortal incense for his, but for our sakes. *Stukely*.—The useless excrescence of a candle.

My *snuff* and loathed part of nature should
Burn itself out.

Shakspeare.

But dearest heart, and dearer image, stay!
Alas! true joys at best are dreams enough:

Though you stay here, you pass too fast away;
For even at first life's taper is a *snuff*.

Donne.

A candle almost burnt out.

Lamentable!

To hide me from the radiant sun, and solace
I' the dungeon by a *snuff*.

Shakspeare.

The fired wick of a candle remaining after the flame.—A torch, *snuff* and all, goes out in a moment, when dipped into the vapour. *Addison*.—Resentment expressed by snifing; perverse resentment. This is a word borrowed from the Sax. *ʃnoʃra*, *nausea*. It is thus learnedly illustrated by Bishop Andrews: "The Pharisees derided Christ; which is elegant in the original, *ἐξημυκλιγοῦσιν, naso suspendebant*, they took it in **SNUFF**; and, expressing their derision by drawing together the nose, they made noses at him."

What hath been seen

Either in *snuffs* or packings of the duke's,
Or the hard rein which both of them have borne
Against the old kind king.

Shakspeare.

Jupiter took *snuff* at the contempt, and punished him: he sent him home again. *L'Estrange*.—Powdered tobacco taken by the nose. [Our old word was *snush*; as in Kersey's Dict. "*Snush* or *sneezing-powder*." This carries us to *sneeze*, as the origin of that expression; and *snus*, Swedish, is also *snuff*. *Snuff* probably was made soon after the introduction of tobacco into this country.]

He administer'd a dose
Of *snuff* mundungus to his nose.

Hudibras.

Just where the breath of life his nostrils drew,
A charge of *snuff* the wily virgin threw;
The gnomes direct to every atom just
The pungent grains of titillating dust.

Pope.

To **SNUFF**, *v. a.* [*snuffen*, Teut.] To draw in with the breath.

With delight he *snuff'd* the smell
Of mortal change on earth.

Milton.

He *snuffs* the wind, his heels the sand excite;
But when he stands collected in his might,
He roars and promises a more successful fight.

Dryden.

To scent.

O'er all the blood-hound boasts superior skill,
To scent, to view, to turn, and boldly kill!
His fellows vain alarms rejects with scorn,
True to the master's voice, and learned horn:
His nostrils oft, if ancient fame sing true,
Trace the sly felon through the tainted dew:
Once *snuff'd*, he follows with unalter'd aim.
Nor odours lure him from the chosen game;
Deep-mouth'd he thunders, and inflam'd he views,
Springs on relentless, and to death pursues.

Tickell.

To

To crop the candle.
The late queen's gentlewoman!
To be her mistress' mistress!
This candle burns not clear: 'tis I must *snuff* it,
And out it goes. *Shakespeare.*

To SNUFF, *v. n.* To snort; to draw breath by the nose.
The fury fires the pack, they *snuff*, they vent,
And feed their hungry nostrils with the scent. *Dryden.*

To snift in contempt.—Do the enemies of the church rage
and *snuff*, and breathe nothing but threats and death?
Bp. Hall.

SNUFFBOX, *s.* The box in which snuff is carried.
Sir Plume, of amber *snuffbox* justly vain,
And the nice conduct of a clouded cane. *Pope.*

SNUFFER, *s.* One that snuffs.
SNUFFERS, *s.* The instrument with which the candle
is clipped.—When you have snuffed the candle, leave the
snuffers open. *Swift.*

To SNUFFLE, *v. n.* [*snuffelen*, Teut.] To speak
through the nose; to breathe hard through the nose.
Bagpipes of the loudest drones,
With *snuffling* broken-winded tones,
Whose blasts of air in pockets shut,
Sound filthier than from the gut. *Hudibras.*

SNUFFLER, *s.* One that speaks through the nose.
SNUFFTAKER, *s.* One who takes snuff.—The whetter
is obliged to refresh himself every moment with a liquor, as
the *snuff-taker* with a powder. *Tatler.*

SNUFFY, *adj.* Grimed with snuff.
To SNUG, *v. a.* [*sniger*, Dan. See *To SNUDGE.*] To
lie close; to snudge.—As the loving couple lay *snugging*
together, Venus, to try if the cat had changed her manners
with her shape, turned a mouse loose into the chamber.
L'Estrange.

SNUG, *adj.* Close; free from any inconvenience, yet
not splendid.

They spy'd a country farm,
Where all was *snug*, and clean, and warm;
For woods before, and hills behind,
Secur'd it both from rain and wind. *Prior.*

Close; out of notice.
At Will's
Lie *snug*, and hear what criticks say. *Swift.*

Slyly or insidiously close.
Did I not see you, rascal, did I not!
When you lay *snug* to snap young Damon's goat? *Dryden.*

SNUG BAY, a bay in the straits of Magellan, north-north-
west of Cape Froward.

SNUG BAY POINT, a cape in the straits of Magellan; 8
miles north-north-west of Cape Froward.

SNUG COVE, a harbour on the east coast of New
Holland, in Two-fold bay. Lat. 37. 4. S. long. 150.
3. W.

SNUG CORNER COVE, a bay on the west coast of
North America, in Prince William Sound, which takes first a
direction south-by-east four miles, and then east about four
miles further. Its west point is situated in Lat. 60. 45. N.
long. 213. 48. E.

To SNUGGLE, *v. n.* To lie close; to lie warm.

SNUGLY, *adv.* Safely; closely. *Bullokar.*

SNU'GNESS, *s.* Retiredness.
O'er me soft *snugness* spreads her wings;
And innocence reflects her ray
To gild my calm sequester'd way. *Warton.*

SNYDALL, or SNIDALE, a hamlet of England, West
Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Pontefract.

SNYING, in Ship-Building, a term applied to those
planks, whose edges curve or round upwards. The great
 sny occasioned in full bows or buttocks is only to be pre-
vented by introducing steelers.

SNYTE, a small river of England, which rises in Leices-

tershire, and passing through Nottinghamshire, runs into th^e
Dean at Shilton.

SO, *adv.* [*ῥῶπα*, Sax.; *soo*, Dutch; *so*, Germ.] In like
manner. It answers to *as* either preceding or following.
Noting comparison.

As whom the fables feign of monstrous size,
Titanian or earthborn that warr'd on Jove,
So stretched out huge in length the arch-fiend lay. *Milton.*

Thick *as* autumnal leaves that strew the brooks,
In Valombrosa, where the Etrurian shades
High over-arch'd embower, *so* thick bestrewn
Abject and lost lay these. *Milton.*

To such a degree.—Why is his chariot *so* long in coming?
Judg.

Can nothing great, and at the height,
Remain *so* long, but its own weight
Will ruin it? Or is't blind chance
That still desires new states t' advance? *B. Jonson.*

In such a manner.
There's no such thing, as that we beauty call,
It is meer cosenage all;
For though some long ago
Lik'd certain colours mingled *so* and *so*,
That doth not tie me now from chusing new. *Suckling.*

I shall minutely tell him the steps by which I was brought
into this way, that he may judge whether I proceeded
rationally, if *so* be any thing in my example is worth his
notice. *Locke.*—It is regularly answered by *as* or *that*, but
they are sometimes omitted.

So frowned the mighty combatants, *that* hell
Grew darker at their frown. *Milton.*

In the same manner.
Of such examples add me to the roll;
Me easily indeed mine may neglect,
But God's propos'd deliverance not *so*. *Milton.*

Thus; in this manner.
Not far from thence the mournful fields appear,
So call'd from lovers that inhabit there. *Dryden.*

Does this deserve to be rewarded *so*?
Did you come here a stranger or a foe? *Dryden.*

Therefore; for this reason; in consequence of this.
The god, though loth, yet was constrain'd t' obey;
For longer time than that, no living wight,
Below the earth, might suffer'd be to stay:
So back again him brought to living light. *Spenser.*
On these terms; noting a conditional petition: answered
by *as*.

O goddess! tell what I would say,
Thou know'st it, and I feel too much to pray,
So grant my suit, *as* I enforce my might,
In love to be thy champion. *Dryden.*

Provided that; on condition that; *modo*.
Be not sad:
Even into the mind of God or man
May come and go *so* unprov'd, and leave
No spot or blame behind. *Milton.*

In like manner; noting concession of one proposition and
assumption of another, answering to *as*. *As* a war should
be undertaken upon a just motive, *so* a prince ought to con-
sider the condition he is in when he enters on it. *Swift.*—
So sometimes returns the sense of a word or sentence going
before, and is used to avoid repetition; *as*, the two brothers
were valiant, but the eldest was more *so*; that is, more
valiant. The French article *le* is often used in the same
manner. This mode of expression is not to be used but in
familiar language, nor even in that to be commended.

However soft within themselves they are,
To you they will be valiant by despair;
For having once been guilty, well they know
To a revenged prince they still are *so*. *Dryden.*

Thus

Thus it is ; this is the state.

How sorrow shakes him !

So, now the tempest tears him up by the roots,
And on the ground extends the noble ruin.

Dryden.

At this point ; at this time.

When

With wild wood-leaves and weeds I ha' strew'd his grave
And on it said a century of prayers,
Such as I can, twice o'er, I'll weep and sigh ;
And, leaving so his service, follow you.

Shakspeare.

It notes a kind of abrupt beginning. Well.

O, so, and had you a council
Of ladies too ? Who was your speaker,
Madam ?

B. Jonson.

It sometimes is little more than an expletive, though it implies some latent or surd comparison. In French *si*.—An astringent is not quite *so* proper, where relaxing the urinary passages is necessary. *Arbuthnot*.—A word of assumption ; thus be it.—I will never bear a base mind : if it be my destiny, *so* ; if it be not, *so*. No man is too good to serve his prince. *Shakspeare*.—A form of petition.

Ready are the appellant and defendant,
The armourer and his man, to enter the lists,
So please your highness to behold the fight.

Shakspeare.

So *forth*. Denoting more of the like kind.—Is not birth, beauty, good shape, discourse, manhood, learning, and so *forth*, the spice and salt that season a man ? *Shakspeare*.—So *much as*. However much. This is, I think, an irregular expression.—*So much as* you admire the beauty of his verse, his prose is full as good. *Pope*.—So *so*. An exclamation after something done or known. Corrupted, I think, from *cesser*.

I would not have thee linger in thy pain :

So *so*.

Shakspeare.

So *so*. [*cosi, cosi*, Italian.] Indifferently ; not much amiss nor well.

He's not very tall ; yet for his years he's tall ;
His leg is but *so, so* : and yet 'tis well.

Shakspeare.

So *then*. Thus then it is that ; therefore.

So *then* the Volscians stand but as at first
Ready, when time shall prompt them, to make road
Upon's again.

Shakspeare.

SOA, a small island of the Hebrides, above a mile in circumference, lying near the remote island of St. Kilda.

SOA, a settlement in the island of Cuba ; 60 miles north of St. Jago.

SOAGHUN, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 12. N. long. 74. 50. E.

To SOAK, *v. a.* [*rocian*, Saxon.] To macerate in any moisture ; to steep ; to keep wet till moisture is imbibed ; to drench.

Many of our princes

Lie drown'd and *soak'd* in mercenary blood :
So do our vulgar drench their peasant limbs
In blood of princes.

Shakspeare.

To drain ; to exhaust. This seems to be a cant term, perhaps used erroneously for *suck*.—Plants that draw much nourishment from the earth, and *soak* and exhaust it, hurt all things that grow by them. *Bacon*.

To SOAK, *v. n.* To lie steeped in moisture.

For thy conceit in *soaking* will draw in
More than the common blocks.

Shakspeare.

To enter by degrees into pores.—Lay a heap of earth in great frosts upon a hollow vessel, putting a canvas between, and pour water upon it so as to *soak* through : it will make harder ice in the vessel, and less apt to dissolve than ordinarily. *Bacon*.—To drink gluttonously and intemperately. *This is a low term*.—Let a drunkard see that his health
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decays, his estate wastes, yet the habitual thirst after his cups drives him to the tavern, though he has in his view the loss of health and plenty ; the least of which he confesses is far greater than the tickling of his palate with a glass of wine, or the idle chat of a *soaking* club. *Locke*.

SO'AKER, *s.* One that macerates in any moisture ; a great drinker. *In low language*.—A good fellow ! a painful, able, and laborious *soaker* ; — who owes all his good-nature to the pot and the pipe. *South*.

SOAL, *s.* See SOLE.

SOAL, or SOLE, in Ichthyology, called by the generality of authors the *buglossus* ; the *Pleuronectes Solea* of Linnæus.

SOANE, a river of Hindostan, which has its source in the vicinity of the famous temple of Omercuntuc, in the province of Gundwaneh. It first runs in a northerly direction through part of the province of Allahabad ; after which, turning to the eastward, it pursues its course towards the Ganges, and joins that river 29 miles above the city of Patna, in Bahar, after having performed a winding course of about 500 miles. It is said formerly to have produced gold, and to have received its name from that circumstance. At present it produces a variety of pebbles, particularly a black stone called *salagram*, held in great veneration by Hindoos. It is only navigable by large boats during the rainy season ; and during the other part of the year it is fordable everywhere but near the mouth, but is full of quicksands. Some persons are of opinion that the Palibothra of the Greeks stood at the junction of this river with the Ganges ; but at that period it was several miles lower down than at present.

SOANGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, district of Surat. It is situated on the south bank of the Taptee river, and formerly possessed a strong fort. It now belongs to the British. Lat. 21. 10. N. long. 73. 33. E.

SOANK, a river of Hindostan, which rises in the province of Bahar, and bending its course to the southward, falls into the bay of Bengal, a little above point Palmiras.

SOAP, *s.* [*sape*, Saxon ; *sapo*, Lat.] A substance used in washing, made of a lixivium of vegetable alkaline ashes and any unctuous substance.—*Soap* is a mixture of a fixed alkaline salt and oil ; its virtues are cleansing, penetrating, attenuating, and resolving ; and any mixture of any oily substance with salt may be called a *soap*. *Arbuthnot*.

SO'AP-BOILER, *s.* One whose trade is to make soap.—A *soap-boiler* condoles with me on the duties on castile-soap. *Addison*.

SO'AP-WORT, *s.* [*japonaria*, Lat.] A species of campan. *Miller*.

SO'APY, *adj.* Resembling soap ; having the quality of soap.—Tar-water, — as a *soapy* medicine, dissolves the grumous concretions of the fibrous part. *Bp. Berkeley*.

To SOAR, *v. n.* [*sorare*, Italian.] To fly aloft ; to tower ; to mount ; properly to fly without any visible action of the wings. Milton uses it actively.

'Tis but a base ignoble mind

That mounts no higher than a bird can *soar*. *Shakspeare*.

To mount intellectually ; to tower with the mind.—How high a pitch his resolution *soars*. *Shakspeare*.

To rise high.

Who aspires must down as low

As high he *soar'd*.

Milton.

SOAR, *s.* Towering flight.

Within *soar*

Of towering eagles, to all the fowls he seems
A phoenix.

Milton.

SOAR, *adj.* See SORE.

SOAR, or SOUR, anciently called *Leire*, a river of England, which rises about 5 miles from Lutterworth, passes by Leicester, &c., and runs into the Trent on the borders of Nottinghamshire, about 3 miles north-north-east of Kegworth.

SO'ARING, *s.* The act of mounting aloft ; the act of elevating

elevating the mind.—Proverbs were ambitiously seized by the lyric and by the epic in their most rapid career, and their sublimest *soarings*. *Parr.*

SOAVE, a town of Austrian Italy, in the Veronese. Population 1600; 10 miles east of Verona.

SOAY, a small island of Scotland, on the south-west coast of the isle of Skye.

SOAY, two small islands of Scotland, on the west coast of Harris.

SOAY, a small pasture island of Scotland, on the coast of Sutherlandshire, near the entrance of Loch Inver harbour, in the parish of Assint.

To SOB, *v. n.* [reobzeno, complaining, Saxon. It is from the verb *reopian*, to grieve, to lament. See *Lye and Serenius*.] To heave audibly with convulsive sorrow; to sigh with convulsion.

When thy warlike father, like a child,
Told the sad story of my father's death,
He twenty times made pause to *sob* and weep. *Shakspeare.*

SOB, *s.* A convulsive sigh; a convulsive act of respiration obstructed by sorrow.

Break heart, or choak with *sobs* my hated breath;
Do thy own work, admit no foreign death. *Dryden.*

To SOB, *v. a.* To soak. *A cant word.*—The tree being *sobbed* and wet, swells. *Mortimer.*

SOBBING, *s.* Act of lamenting.—The hoarse *sobbings* of the widow'd dove. *Drummond.*

SOBER, *adj.* [*sobrius*, Lat., *sobre*, Fr.] Temperate, particularly in liquors; not drunken.—Live a *sober*, righteous and godly life. *Common Prayer.*—The vines give wine to the drunkard as well as to the *sober* man. *Bp. Taylor.*—No *sober* temperate person, whatsoever other sins he may be guilty of, can look with complacency upon the drunkenness and sottishness of his neighbour. *South.*—Not overpowered by drink.—A law there is among the Grecians, whereof Pittacus is author; that he which being overcome with drink did then strike any man, should suffer punishment double, as much as if he had done the same being *sober*. *Hooker.*—Not mad; right in the understanding.—Another, who had a great genius for tragedy, following the fury of his natural temper, made every man and woman in his plays stark raging mad: there was not a *sober* person to be had; all was tempestuous and blustering. *Dryden.*—No *sober* man would put himself into danger, for the applause of escaping without breaking his neck. *Dryden.*—Regular; calm; free from inordinate passion.—This same young *sober*-blooded boy a man cannot make him laugh. *Shakspeare.*—Cieca travelled all over Peru, and is a grave and *sober* writer. *Abbot.*—Young men likewise exhort to be *sober* minded. *Tit.*—The governor of Scotland being of great courage and *sober* judgment, amply performed his duty both before the battle and in the field. *Hayward.*—These confusions disposed men of any *sober* understanding to wish for peace. *Clarendon.*—Among them some *sober* men confessed, that as his Majesty's affairs then stood, he could not grant it. *Clarendon.*

To these, that *sober* race of men, whose lives
Religious, titled them the sons of God,
Shall yield up all their virtue, all their fame
Ignobly to the trains and to the smiles
Of these fair atheists.

Milton.

Be your designs ever so good, your intentions ever so
sober, and your searches directed in the fear of God. *Waterland.*—Serious; solemn; grave.

Petruchio
Shall offer me, disguis'd in *sober* robes,
To old Baptista as a schoolmaster. *Shakspeare.*

Come, civil night,
Thou *sober*-suited matron, all in black. *Shakspeare.*

Twilight grey
Had in her *sober* livery all things clad. *Milton.*

What parts great France from *sober* Spain,
A little rising rocky chain:

Of men born south or north the hill,
Those seldom move; these ne'er stand still. *Prior.*

For Swift and him despis'd the farce of state,
The *sober* follies of the wise and great. *Pope.*

See her *sober* over a sampler, or gay over a jointed baby.
Pope.

To SO'BER, *v. a.* To make sober; to cure of intoxication. *Dr. Johnson.*—This is a very old English verb: it occurs in the Prompt. Parvulorum.

A little learning is a dangerous thing;
Drink deep, or taste not the Pierian spring;

There shallow draughts intoxicate the brain,
And drinking largely *sobers* us again. *Pope.*

SOBERLY, *adv.* Without intemperance; without madness; temperately; moderately.—Let any prince think *soberly* of his forces, except his militia of natives be valiant soldiers. *Bacon.*—Coolly; calmly.—Whenever children are chastised, let it be done without passion, and *soberly*, laying on the blows slowly. *Locke.*

SOBERMINDEDNESS, *s.* [from *sober-minded*; which see in the fourth sense of SOBER.] Calmness; regularity; freedom from inordinate passion.—To induce habits of modesty, humility, temperance, frugality, obedience; in one word *sober-mindedness*. *Bp. Porteus.*

SOBERNESS, *s.* Temperance, especially in drink.—Keep my body in temperance, *soberness* and chastity. *Common Prayer.*—Calmness; freedom from enthusiasm; coolness.—I am not mad, most noble Festus, but speak forth the words of *soberness* and truth. *Acts.*—A person noted for his *soberness* and skill in spagyrical preparations, made Helmont's experiment succeed very well. *Boyle.*—The *soberness* of Virgil might have shewn the difference. *Dryden.*

SOBERNHEIM, a town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, on the river Nahe. Population 1400.

SOBERTON, or SUBERTON, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 3½ miles east of Bishop's Waltham. Population 760.

SOBIESLAU, a town in the interior of Bohemia; 58 miles south-south-east of Prague. Population 2200.

SOBOTKA, a town of Bohemia; 42 miles east-north east of Prague. Population 1400.

SOBRIETY, *s.* [from *sobriete*, Fr., *sobrius*, Lat. Not frequent in the plural number; nor has Dr. Johnson furnished an example of that kind. Bishop Taylor and South use it. See the fifth meaning.] Temperance in drink; soberness.—Drunkenness is more uncharitable to the soul, and in Scripture is more declaimed against than gluttony; and *sobriety* hath obtained to signify temperance in drinking. *Bp. Taylor.*—Present freedom from the power of strong liquor; general temperance.—In setting down the form of common prayer, there was no need that the book should mention either the learning of a fit, or the unfitnes of an ignorant minister, more than that he which describeth the manner how to pitch a field, should speak of moderation and *sobriety* in diet. *Hooker.*—Freedom from inordinate passion.—The libertine could not prevail on men of virtue and *sobriety* to give up their religion. *Rogers.*—Calmness; coolness.—Enquire with all *sobriety* and severity, whether there be in the footsteps of nature, any such transmission of immaterial virtues and what the force of imagination is. *Bacon.*—The *sobrieties* of a holy life. *Bp. Taylor.*—The *sobrieties* of virtue. *South.*—*Sobriety* in our riper years is the effect of a well concocted warmth; but where the principles are only phlegm, what can be expected but an insipid manhood, and old infancy. *Dryden.*—If sometimes Ovid appears too gay, there is a secret gracefulness of youth, which accompanies his writings, though the stayedness and *sobriety* of age be wanting. *Dryden.*—Seriousness; gravity.—A report without truth; and I had almost said, without any *sobriety* or modesty. *Waterland.*

Mirth

Mirth makes them not mad;
Nor *sobriety* sad.

Denham.

SOC, *s.* [roc, Sax. In hoc differebant inter se *sac* et *soc*; quòd istud, nempè *sac*, privilegium erat, sive potestas, cognoscendi causas et lites dirimendi; hæc autem, nempè *soc*, territorium, sive præinctus, in quo *saca* et cætera privilegia exercebantur: *Soc*, curia: *Sac*, causarum in ipsa curia cognitio. *Hickes.*]—Jurisdiction; circuit or place where a lord has the power or liberty of holding a court of his tenants, and administering justice.—The said Robert le Fitz-Walter—hath a *soke* [*soc*] in the City of London:—if any thief shall be taken in his *soke*, he ought to have his stocks and imprisonment in his *soke*. *Blount.*—Liberty or privilege of tenants excused from customary burthens. *Cowel.*—An exclusive privilege claimed by millers of grinding all the corn which is used within the manor or township, wherein their mill stands. Some trials at law relative to this ancient privilege have lately taken place; but the millers have generally been cast. Marshall's Yorkshire. *Grose.*

SOC, SOK, or *Soka*, in Law, denotes jurisdiction; or a power or privilege to administer justice, and execute laws.

The word is also used for the shire, circuit or territory, in which such power is exercised by him endued with such jurisdiction.

Hence, also, the law Latin *soca*, used for a seignory or lordship franchised by the king with liberty of holding a court of his *soc-men* or *socagers*, that is, his tenants; whose tenure is hence called *socage*.

SOCAGE, or SOCCAGE, in its most extensive signification, seems to denote a tenure by any certain and determinate service. And thus, our ancient writers constantly put it in opposition to chivalry or knight-service, where the render was uncertain.

Thus Bracton, if a man holds by a rent in money, without any escuage or serjeanty, *id tenementum dici potest socagium*. Littleton also defines it to be, where the tenant holds his tenement of the lord by any certain service in lieu of all other services, so that they be not services of chivalry or knight-service: therefore, he tells us, that whatsoever is not tenure of chivalry is tenure in socage. The service must therefore be certain, in order to denominate it socage; as to hold by fealty and 20s. rent; or by homage, fealty and 20s. rent; or by homage and fealty, without rent; or by fealty and certain corporal services, as ploughing the lord's land for three days; or by fealty only, without any other service; for all these are tenures in socage. See SOCCAGE.

SOCALBAMBA, a lake of Peru, in the province of Canta, whence rises the river Carabaillo.

SOCANDAGA, or SAGENDAGA, the west branch of Hudson's river, which runs a south and south-east course, and about 15 miles from its mouth takes a north-east direction, and joins that river about 13 or 14 miles west-by-north of Fort Edward.

SOCCAGE, *s.* [*soc*, French, a ploughshare; *socagium*, barbarous Latin.] In law, is a tenure of lands for certain inferior or husbandly services to be performed to the lord of the fee. All services due to land being knight's service, or *socage*; so that whatever is not knight's service, is *socage*. This *socage* is of three kinds; a *socage* of free tenure, where a man holdeth by free service of twelve pence a year for all manner of services. *Socage* of ancient tenure is of land of ancient demesne, where no writ original shall be sued, but the writ *secundum consuetudinem maneri*. *Socage* of base tenure is where those that hold it may have none other writ but the *monstraverunt*; and such socmen hold not by certain service. *Cowel.*—The lands are not holden at all of her Majesty, or not holden in chief, but by a mean tenure in *socage*, or by knight's service. *Bacon.*

SOCCAGER, *s.* A tenant by socage.

SOCCAVO, a small town in the neighbourhood of Naples, with 1300 inhabitants.

SOCCELLI, among the Romans, were swaths or bands, which covered the leg down to the soccus.

SOCCUS, or SOCK, a kind of high shoe, reaching above the ankle, worn by the actors in the ancient drama, in the representation of comic characters.

The soccus was much lower than the cothurnus, and was the distinguishing wear of the comedians; as the cothurnus was of the tragedians; hence soccus is frequently used for comedy itself.

SOCHA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja. Population 100 house-keepers, and 70 Indians; 36 miles north-east of Tunja.

SOCIABILITY, *s.* Sociableness.—He introduceth the system of human *sociability*, by showing it to be the dictate of the Creator. *Warburton.*

SO'CIABLE, *adj.* [*sociable*, Fr., *sociabilis*, Lat.] Fit to be conjoined.—Another law toucheth them as they are *sociable* parts united into one body; a law which bindeth them each to serve unto other's good, and all to prefer the good of the whole before whatsoever their own particular. *Hooker.*—Ready to unite in a general interest.

To make man wild, and *sociable* to man;
To cultivate the wild licentious savage
With wisdom, discipline.

Addison.

Friendly; familiar; conversible.

Them thus employ'd, beheld
With pity heav'n's high King, and to him call'd
Raphael, the *sociable* spirit, that deign'd
To travel with Tobias.

Milton.

Inclined to company.—In children much solitude and silence I like not, nor any thing born before his time, as this must needs be in that *sociable* and exposed age. *Wotton.*

SO'CIABLE, *s.* A kind of less exalted phaeton, with two seats facing each other, and a box for the driver. *Mason.*

SO'CIABLENESS, *s.* Inclination to company and converse.

Such as would call her friendship love, and feign
To *sociableness* a name profane.

Donne.

The two main properties of man are contemplation and *sociableness*, or love of converse. *More.*—Freedom of conversation; good fellowship.—He always used courtesy and modesty, disliked of none; sometimes *sociableness* and fellowship well lik'd by many. *Hayward.*

SO'CIABLY, *adv.* Conversibly; as a companion.

Yet not terrible,
That I should fear; nor *sociably* mild,
As Raphael, that I should much confide;
But solemn and sublime.

Milton.

SO'CIAL, *adj.* [*socialis*, Lat.] Relating to a general or public interest; relating to society.—To love our neighbour as ourselves is such a fundamental truth for regulating human society, that by that alone one might determine all the cases in *social* morality. *Locke.*—True self-love and *social* are the same. *Pope.*—Easy to mix in friendly gaiety; companionable.

Withers, adieu! yet not with thee remove
Thy martial spirit or thy *social* love.

Pope.

Consisting in union or converse with another.

Thou in thy secrecy although alone,
Best with thyself accompany'd, seek'st not
Social communication.

Milton.

SOCIA'LITY, *s.* Socialness.—The progress of *sociality*. *Sterne.*—A scene of perfectly easy *sociality*. *Boswell.*

SO'CIALLY, *adv.* In a social way.

SO'CIALNESS, *s.* The quality of being social.

SOCIETY, *s.* [*société*, Fr., *societas*, Lat.] Union of many in one general interest.—If the power of one *society* extend likewise to the making of laws for another *society*, as if the church could make laws for the state in temporals; or the state make laws binding the church, relating to spirituals, then is that *society* entirely subject to the other. *Leslie.*—Numbers united in one interest; community.—As

the

the practice of piety and virtue is agreeable to our reason, so is it for the interest of private persons and public *societies*. *Tillotson*.—Company; converse.

To make *society*
The sweeter welcome, we will keep ourself
Till supper-time alone. *Shakspeare*.

Whilst I was big in clamour, came there a man,
Who having seen me in my worsor state,
Shunn'd my abhorr'd *society*. *Shakspeare*.

Solitude sometimes is best *society*,
And short retirement urges sweet return. *Milton*.

Partnership; union on equal terms.—Among unequals
what *society* can sort? *Milton*.

Heaven's greatness no *society* can bear;
Servants he made, and those thou wan'st not here. *Dryden*.

SOCIETY HILL, a post village of the United States, in
Iredell county, North Carolina.

SOCIETY ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the South
Pacific Ocean, so named by Captain Cook, in the year 1769.
They are Ulietea, Otaha, Bolabola, Huaheine, Tubai, and
Maurua; the two last are very small. Captain Cook says
he called them thus because they lay contiguous to each
other, but did not think it proper to distinguish them sepa-
rately by any other names than those by which they were
known to the natives. They are situated between the lati-
tude of 16. 10. and 16. 55. S. and between the longitude of
150. 57. and 152. W. from the meridian of Greenwich.
Ulietea and Otaha lie within about two miles of each other,
and are both inclosed within one reef of coral rocks, so that
there is no passage for shipping between them. This reef
forms several excellent harbours; the entrances into them,
indeed, are but narrow, yet when a ship is once in, nothing
can hurt her. The inhabitants, climate and produce are sim-
ilar, in many respects, to those of Otaheite, from which
island they are not above fifty leagues distant towards the
north-west. Huaheine seems to be a month forwarder in its
productions than Otaheite. Of the cocoa-nuts the inhabi-
tants make a food which they call *poe*, by mixing them with
yams; they scrape both fine, and having incorporated the
powder, they put it into a wooden trough, with a number
of hot stones, by which an oily kind of hasty-pudding is
made, that the English seamen relished very well, especially
when it was fried.

The inhabitants of these islands are generally considered
taller and more robust than those of Otaheite, and the wo-
men more handsome. They are similar in their manners,
being addicted to the same superstitions and customs; and
being also under a similar climate, their mode of living is
generally the same. The islands are fruitful, and the inhabi-
tants trust to the spontaneous produce of the earth rather
than to their own labours; but when this fails, they are in
the greatest straits. These islands so much resemble Ota-
heite in their climate and productions, and in the manners
of the inhabitants, that any farther account of these would
only be to repeat what has been already stated in our account
of that island.

In the account of Otaheite, the persevering and success-
ful labours of the missionaries to civilize and convert the
natives from their superstitions, were noticed. Though long
disappointed, and though their lives were also frequently en-
dangered by the contests and revolutions which agitated
those islands, the missionaries would not relinquish their
task, and their efforts have been at length so far crowned
with success, that the sovereigns of many of these islands,
together with a large proportion of the inhabitants, have re-
linquished the superstitions of their forefathers, and pro-
fessed their belief in the truths of Christianity. This change
has extended to several of the Society Islands, viz., Hua-
heine, Raiatea or Ulietea, Taha or Otaha, and Borabora or
Bolabola. The principal chief of these islands had relin-
quished his old and idolatrous creed, and had embraced the
new faith. At the two latter islands, two of the chiefs had
distinguished themselves by their zeal in destroying all ido-

latrous places of worship, and erecting a Christian church
in their place. In Raiatea, Tapa, one of the chiefs, was
proceeding to destroy the ancient idols which he had been
accustomed to worship, when the idolaters rose upon him.
They were in the end, however, completely subdued, and
though they still continued to plot new schemes for the re-
storation of the old religion, there was no probability that
they would accomplish their object. The missionaries will
therefore proceed with fresh vigour in their task of instruct-
ing these ignorant natives, and of reclaiming them from their
barbarous superstitions and customs. They had made tours
round Huaheine, Raiatea, Taha, and had visited Borabora,
and they calculated that in these islands there were nearly
4000 converts to Christianity. They were, however, with-
out instruction, except from books, with which they were
supplied by the missionaries.

SOCI'NIAN, *adj.* Of or belonging to Socinianism.

SOCI'NIANISM, *s.* The tenets of Socinus.

SOCI'NIANS, a sect of Antitrinitarians, who are said to
have derived this denomination from the illustrious family of
the Sozzini, which flourished a long time at Sienna, in
Tuscany, and produced several great and eminent men;
and, among others, Lælius and Faustus Socinus, who are
commonly supposed to have been the founders of this sect.
Lælius was the son of Marianus, a famous lawyer, and dis-
tinguished by his genius and learning, as well as by the lustre
of an unblemished and virtuous conduct. Having conceiv-
ed a disgust against popery, and disapproving many
doctrines of the church, he left his country in 1547; and
having passed four years in visiting France, England, Hol-
land, Germany, and Poland, he at last fixed his residence at
Zurich, in Switzerland, where he died in 1562, in the
thirty-seventh year of his age. Although he adopted the
Helvetic confession of faith, and professed himself a member
of the church of Switzerland, he entertained doubts with
respect to certain doctrines of religion, which he communi-
cated to some learned men, whose judgment he respected,
and in whose friendship he could confide. However, his
sentiments were propagated in a more public manner, after
his death; as Faustus, his nephew and his heir, is supposed
to have drawn from the papers he left behind him, that reli-
gious system, upon which the sect of the Socinians was
founded. This Faustus Socinus was born at Sienna in 1539;
and having continued many years in his own country, twelve
of which he spent in the court of the grand duke of Tuscany,
he determined, in the year 1574, and the thirty-fifth of his
age, to withdraw from Italy into Germany. During this
period he had laboured under many disadvantages in the pur-
suit of knowledge, and his studies had been chiefly confined
to the rudiments of logic and jurisprudence; but at Basil,
where he first resided after his voluntary exile, he devoted
himself for three years to the study of theology, under the
direction and assistance of the writings of his uncle Lælius;
and in 1577 he began to propagate his religious opinions
without reserve or disguise. In 1578 he was invited by
Blandrata, a person of eminence in Transylvania, to compose
the commotions which were occasioned by a party under the
lead of Francis David, in the Antitrinitarian churches of that
country. But failing of success, he removed to Poland in
1579, zealously wishing to join himself to the Unitarian
churches; but here he suffered many vexations, and much
opposition, from a considerable number of persons, who
looked upon some of his tenets as highly erroneous. At length,
however, he vanquished the animosity of his enemies by his
gentleness and firmness, by his address and eloquence, and
the favours and protection of the nobility, with which he was
honoured, and lived to form the Unitarians into one com-
munity, under his own superintendency and direction.
Having retired to a village about nine miles from Cracow,
he there closed his life, in the year 1604; and the following
epitaph was inscribed on his tomb:

“Tota licet Babylon destruxit tecta Lutherus,
Muros Calvinus, sed fundamenta Socinus:”

i. e. Luther destroyed the houses of Babylon, Calvin the
walls,

walls, but Socinus, subverted the foundations. The sentiments of Socinus, with regard to the principal theological subjects controverted among Christians, will appear in the following abstract of them from his own writings; some of which were published during his own life, and some after his death; and the collection of them, in two volumes, folio, forms part of the "Bibliotheca Fratrum Polonorum." With regard to the nature and character of Christ, Socinus maintained, that he was a man, conceived and formed in the womb of the Virgin, without the intervention of a man, by the power of the divine spirit.

Socinus does also expressly deny the distinct personality of the Holy Ghost, understanding by the Holy Spirit a divine energy or influence.

Socinus denied the perpetuity of baptism, and thought, that, in order to the right administration of baptism, it is previously necessary that the baptized person should be a believer, and he, therefore, reckoned the practice of infant baptism unscriptural and erroneous.

The chief school of the Socinians was at Racow, where they obtained the grant of a settlement, and there all their first books were published. But in the year 1633, in consequence of the intemperate zeal of some students of the Unitarian academy in this city against Popery, a law was enacted at Warsaw, by which it was decreed, that the academy of Racow should be destroyed, its professors banished, the printing-house of the Socinians destroyed, and their churches shut up.

SOCK, *s.* [*soccus*, Latin; *pocc*, Saxon; *socke*, Teut. *sockr*, Icel. vox plurimis linguis communis, antiquissima et Phrygica. See *Wachter and Serenius*.] Something put between the foot and shoe.—Ere I lead this life long, I'll sow nether *socks*, and mend them, and foot them too, *Shakspeare*.—The shoe of the ancient comic actors, taken in poems for comedy, and opposed to buskin or tragedy.

Then to the well trod stage anon,
If Jonson's learned *sock* be on,
Or sweetest *Shakspeare*, Fancy's child,
Warble his native wood-notes wild.

Milton.

A ploughshare, or plough-sock. [*soc d'une charrue*, Fr. the coulter or share of a plough, *Cotgrave*; perhaps from the Lat. *seco*, to cut.] A northern word. See *Ray and Grose*.

SOCKACZOW, or **SOCKACZEW**, a town of Poland, on the river Bura. Population 3000, Christians and Jews.

SOCKBRIDGE, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland, situated on the Elmot; 3 miles south-south-west of Penrith.

SOCKBURN, a village of England, in Durham, situated on the Tees; 7 miles south-east of Darlington.

SOCKET, *s.* [*souchette*, Fr.] Any hollow pipe; generally the hollow of a candlestick.

The stars amaz'd ran backward from the sight,
And, shrunk within their *sockets*, lost their light. *Dryden.*

The receptacle of the eye.

His eye-balls in their hollow *sockets* sink;
Bereft of sleep he loths his meat and drink;
He withers at his heart, and looks as wan
As the pale spectre of a murder'd man.

Dryden.

Any hollow that receives something inserted.

On either side the head produce an ear,
And sink a *socket* for the shining share.

Dryden.

SOCKETCHISEL, *s.* A stronger sort of chisels.—Carpenters, for their rougher work, use a stronger sort of chisels, and distinguish them by the name of *socketchisels*; their shank made with a hollow *socket* a-top, to receive a strong wooden sprig made to fit into the *socket*. *Moxon.*

SOCKIA, a small town of Hedjäs, in Arabia; 75 miles south of Medina.

SOCKLESS, *adj.* Wanting socks or shoes.—You shall behold one pair of legs, the feet of which were in times past *sockless*, but are now, through the change of time that alters all things, very strangely become the legs of a knight and courtier. *Beaum. and Fl.*

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SOCKNA, a town in the northern part of Fezzan, in Africa, situated on an immense plain of gravel, bounded on the south by the Soudeck mountains. It is surrounded by a wall with seven gates, only one of which can admit a loaded camel. The streets are very narrow, and the houses built of mud and small stones intermixed. They have no windows, the light being admitted only by the doors. The town is surrounded by most extensive plantations of dates, which are of excellent quality; but there is no food for camels at less than five miles distance. The population is estimated by Captain Lyon at 2000. He makes heavy complaints of the inhabitants, for their impudence and beggary.

SO'CLE, *s.* [With architects.] A flat square member, under the bases of pedestals of statues and vases: it serves as a foot or stand. *Bailey.*

SO'CMAN, or **SO'CCAGER**, *s.* [*jocajman*, Sax.] A sort of tenant that holds lands and tenements by soccage tenure, of which there are three kinds. See **SOCAGE**. *Cowel.*

SO'CMANRY, *s.* [from *socman*; low Lat. *sokemanria*.] Free tenure by soccage. *Cowel.*—It shall be lawful for the *sokenan* of the *sokemanry* of the said Robert le Fitz Walter to demand the court of the said Robert. *Blount.*

SOCNA, a privilege, liberty, or franchise. The word is Saxon.

SOCO, in Ornithology, the name of a Brazilian bird of the heron-kind, the *ardea Brasiliensis* of Linnæus, remarkable, beyond all the rest of that genus, for the length of its neck. It is very common in the Brazils; it is smaller than the common heron; its beak is strong, straight, and sharp; its tail short; its head and neck brown, and variegated with black; and its body is of the same colours in different variegations, but its wings have a mixture of whiteness. See **ARDEA**.

SO'COME, *s.* [In the old law.] A custom of tenants to grind corn at their lord's mill.—There is bond-*socome*, where tenants are bound to grind at the lord's mill; and love-*socome*, where they do it freely out of love to their lord. *Cowel.*

SOCONUSCO, a province of Guatimala, in North America, bounded on the north by Vera Paz, Chiapa, Guaxaca and Honduras, on the south by the Pacific, on the east by Nicaragua, and on the west by Guaxaca and the Pacific Ocean. Guatimala or St. Jago de Guatimala is its capital, as well as that of the whole audience. It is subdivided into the following districts, from the north to the south, along the coast of the Pacific:—Soconusco, Suchitepec, Sansonate, St. Salvador, St. Miguel, Tiguessgalpa, and Choluteca or Xeres. It is 35 leagues long from north to south, and as many more from east to west. The air in this district is exceeding hot, and the general state of the climate either rainy or sultry: the rains last from April till September, and violent storms are very frequent. Soconusco is neither a healthy nor a pleasant country, and the soil is not so fertile as in some other parts of Guatimala, the corn and maize not growing so abundantly; but to compensate this, it produces pimento, indigo and cacao in great quantities, and with these articles it carries on a great trade with the other North American colonies of Spain. The Spaniards are not numerous in Soconusco, it being chiefly inhabited by Indians, but the few Spaniards who reside there are very rich.

SOCONUSCO, the capital of the above province, situated on a small river which runs into the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 18. 30. N. long. 120. 40. W.; 460 miles south-east of Mexico.

SOCORRO, one of the Revillagigedo islands, in the North Pacific Ocean, about 200 miles from the west coast of Mexico. It is uninhabited and barren, and is about 15 or 20 miles broad, and as many long. It is the largest of the group to which it belongs, and is about 3657 feet above the level of the sea. Lat. 18. 48. N. long. 110. 9. W. It was visited in 1793 by Captain Collnett. It is also the name of several inconsiderable missionary settlements in Spanish America.

SOCORRO, a small town of New Granada, in the province

vince of Santa Fe, near the banks of Sarabita or the Suarez. Population 3500; 123 miles north-north-east of Santa Fe, and 76 north of Tunja.

SOCOSTA, a small island in the Atlantic, near the western coast of Africa. Lat. 29. 45. S.

SOCOTA, a considerable town of Abyssinia, capital of the province of Lasta.

SOCOTARA, an island of the Indian Ocean, about forty leagues to the eastward of Cape Guardafui. It is 27 leagues long, and 7 broad, generally high and mountainous, with a bold shore, which affords, however, excellent harbours. The population is said to be pretty considerable, and it is governed by a king, who generally pays tribute to Arabia. The chief commodity for which the island is resorted to, consists of aloes, which are here considered to be of superior quality to those produced in any other part of the world, insomuch that the duty laid upon them is considerably higher. Dragon's blood may also be met with in small quantity. Bullocks, goats, fish, and dates, are to be procured at reasonable prices; and the inhabitants are in general civil to strangers. The most eligible place to touch at for refreshment is the Bay of Tamarida, the residence of the king, on the north-eastern side of the island. The anchorage is in 10 to 12 fathoms, the body of the town bearing south about a mile off shore. The town makes a handsome appearance, the houses being built of stone and lime, with several mosques. There is another anchoring place on the south-western side of the island, called Delisa, but it is seldom visited. The king's residence is in long. 53. 33. E. lat. 12. 39. N.

SOCRATES, an ancient moral philosopher, eminently distinguished by his principles and conduct, and proverbially recognized as one of the wisest and best men, whose name and character history has recorded. He was born at Alopece, a village near Athens, in the fourth year of the 77th Olympiad, B. C. 469. His parentage was obscure; and at an early age he is said to have executed statues of the habited Graces. Reduced to the necessity of supporting himself by manual labour, in the exercise of his profession as a statuary, he could only command occasional intervals, which he devoted to the study of philosophy. He soon, however, obtained the patronage of Crito, a wealthy Athenian, who engaged him in the office of instructing his children; and in this situation he availed himself of the opportunities, which were thus afforded him, of attending the public lectures of the most eminent philosophers. He also derived considerable assistance in his education from Aspasia, a woman highly celebrated for her intellectual as well as personal accomplishments, to whose house persons of the most distinguished character resorted. Socrates by the improvement of these advantages, attracted some attention at Athens. His military valour was no less conspicuous than his other qualities; nor did he decline any service, however hazardous or difficult, which private friendship or the public interest demanded. On one occasion he preserved the life and arms of Alcibiades, when he fell wounded in an engagement, in which they were jointly concerned. On another occasion, he hazarded his own life, in order to rescue Xenophon, who was wounded on the field of battle.

Socrates, declining military expeditions, settled at Athens; and he was upwards of 60 years, before he undertook to serve his country in any civil office. Accordingly he was chosen to represent his own district in the senate of 500; and though he was first treated contemptuously by his colleagues, on account of his inexperience, he soon convinced them that in wisdom and integrity he was much their superior. No consideration could ever induce him to give a vote, or sanction a measure, that appeared to him to be contrary to justice and the laws; and in opposition to the thirty tyrants, he exposed even his life to danger. These proofs of public virtue, both in a military and civil capacity, says one of his biographers, are sufficient to entitle the name of Socrates to a distinguished place in the catalogue of good citizens. But his highest honour and praise are those which belong to him as a philosopher and moral preceptor. Ob-

serving with regret how the Athenian youth were misled, and even corrupted in their principles and taste, by the mode of teaching that prevailed among speculative philosophers and sophists, he determined to institute a new and more useful method of instruction. He justly conceived the true end of philosophy to be, not to make an ostentatious display of superior learning and ability in subtle disputations or ingenious conjectures, but to free mankind from the dominion of pernicious prejudices; to correct their vices; to inspire them with the love of virtue, and thus conduct them in the path of wisdom to true felicity. He, therefore, assumed the character of a moral philosopher; and, looking upon the whole city of Athens as his school, and all who were disposed to lend him their attention as his pupils, he seized every occasion of communicating moral wisdom to his fellow-citizens. He passed his time chiefly in public. It was his custom, in the morning, to visit the places made use of for walking and public exercises; at noon, to appear among the crowds in the markets or courts; and to spend the rest of the day in those parts of the city which were most frequented. Sometimes he collected an audience about him in the Lyceum (a pleasant meadow on the border of the river Ilyssus), where he delivered a discourse from the chair, whilst his auditors were seated on benches around him. At other times he conversed, in a less formal way, with any of his fellow-citizens in places of common resort, or with his friends at meals, or in their hours of amusement; thus making every place to which he came a school of virtue. Not only did young men of rank and fortune attend upon his lectures, but he sought for disciples even among mechanics and labourers.

The method of instruction, which Socrates chiefly made use of, was, to propose a series of questions to the person with whom he conversed, in order to lead him to some unforeseen conclusion. He first gained the consent of his respondent to some obvious truths, and then obliged him to admit others, from their relation, or resemblance, to those to which they had already assented. He commonly conducted these conferences with such address, as to conceal his design, till the respondent had advanced too far to recede. He never assumed the air of a morose and rigid preceptor, but communicated useful instruction with all the ease and pleasantries of polite conversation.

The modesty of Socrates was no less distinguished than his wisdom. He professed "to know only this, that he knew nothing;" meaning by this declaration, which he often repeated, that he had no other intention than to convince his hearers of the narrow limits of the human understanding. Far from encouraging universal scepticism, he always spoke confidently and decidedly on moral subjects; but at the same time he wished to expose to contempt the arrogance of those pretenders to science, who would not acknowledge themselves to be ignorant of any thing. He preferred moral to speculative wisdom; and therefore condemned those whose whole attention and time were occupied about abstruse researches into nature, and who took no pains to render themselves useful to mankind. His favourite maxim was, "whatever is above us, doth not concern us." He estimated the value of knowledge by its utility, and recommended the study of geometry, astronomy, and other sciences, only so far as they admit of a practical application to the purposes of human life. His great object, in all his conferences and discourses, was to lead men into an acquaintance with themselves; to convince them of their follies and vices; to inspire them with the love of virtue; and to furnish them with useful moral instructions. Cicero might, therefore, very justly say of Socrates, that he was the first who called down philosophy from heaven to earth, and introduced her into the public walks and domestic retirements of men, that she might instruct them concerning life and manners.

The moral lessons which Socrates taught, he himself diligently practised; whence he excelled other philosophers in personal merit, no less than in his method of instruction. His conduct was uniformly such as became a teacher of moral

moral wisdom. His mind, through the whole of his life, was superior to the attractions of wealth and power. His instructions were gratuitous, and he refused rich presents, that were offered to him by Alcibiades and others, though his wife earnestly importuned him to accept them. He wanted little for his own personal accommodation. In his clothing and food, he consulted only the demands of nature. Although his fare was simple, he was hospitable; and sometimes invited men of superior rank to partake of his meals. On one of these occasions, his wife complained of the incompetency of their provision for their guests; but to these complaints he replied, that if his guests were wise men, they would be satisfied with the provisions which his table afforded; if otherwise, they were unworthy of notice. "Whilst others," says he, "live to eat, wise men eat to live."

In his domestic connection he was unfortunate, yet he converted this into an occasion of exercising his virtue. Xantippe, of whom many tales, that are mere fabrications, are related, was without doubt a woman of a high and unmanageable spirit. Socrates himself, however, allows that she possessed many domestic virtues; and towards the close of his life, and during his imprisonment, she expressed great affection for her husband; it would have been strange, if it had been otherwise. On all occasions, however, he maintained his equanimity of temper; always exercising that self-command, which is founded on reflection. In this respect he was the more praise-worthy, as he himself acknowledges, that he was, in his natural disposition, prone to vice, but that he had subdued his inclinations by the power of reason and philosophy.

It was one of the maxims of Socrates, "that a wise man will worship the gods according to the institutions of the state to which he belongs." He taught, however, a doctrine concerning religion much more pure and rational, than that which was delivered to the people by the priests, and he reprobated the popular fables concerning the gods.

Socrates, notwithstanding the superiority of his talents, the excellence of his character, and the number of his followers, who venerated and esteemed him, had many enemies. They were chiefly the interested Sophists, whose influence and whose emoluments were diminished in consequence of the prevalence of his doctrines and precepts. In order to degrade him in the estimation of the Athenian youth, and to restrain his popularity, they engaged Aristophanes, the first buffoon of the age, to write a comedy, in which Socrates should be the principal character. Aristophanes, pleased with so promising an occasion of displaying his low and malignant wit, undertook the task, and produced the comedy of "The Clouds," still extant in his works. In this piece Socrates is introduced hanging in a basket in the air, and thence pouring forth absurdity and profaneness. The philosopher, though he seldom visited the theatre, except when the tragedies of Euripides were performed, attended the representation of this play, at a time when the house was crowded with strangers, who happened to be at Athens during the celebration of a Bacchanian festival. When the performer, who represented Socrates, appeared upon the stage, a general whisper passed along the benches on which the strangers sat, to inquire who the person was whom the poet meant to satirize. Socrates, who had taken his station in one of the most public parts of the theatre, observed this circumstance; and immediately, with great coolness, rose up, to gratify the curiosity of the audience, and continued standing during the remainder of the representation. One of the spectators, astonished at the magnanimity which this action discovered, asked him, whether he did not feel himself much chagrined, to be thus held up to public derision? "By no means," replied Socrates, "I am only a host at a public festival, where I provide a large company with entertainment."

These efforts of envy were not of long duration. When Aristophanes attempted, the year following, to renew the piece with alterations and additions, the representation was so much discouraged, that he was obliged to discontinue it.

From this time, Socrates continued, for many years, to prosecute his laudable design of instructing and reforming his fellow-citizens. But as he persevered in opposing every kind of political corruption and oppression, both under the democracy and oligarchy, the number of his enemies increased, and a conspiracy, which had been long concerted against his life, was resumed. The minds of the people being sufficiently inflamed, a direct accusation was preferred against Socrates before the supreme court of judicature. This accusation was delivered to the senate in these words: "Melitus, son of Melitus, of the tribe of Pythos, accuseth Socrates, son of Sophroniscus, of the tribe of Alopec. Socrates violates the laws, in not acknowledging the gods which the state acknowledges, and by introducing new divinities. He also violates the laws by corrupting the youth. Be his punishment death."

This charge was delivered upon oath to the senate, and Crito, a friend of Socrates, became surety for his appearance on the day of trial. Anitus, soon afterwards, sent a private message to Socrates, assuring him, that if he would desist from censuring his conduct, he would withdraw his accusation. But Socrates refused to comply with so degrading a condition, and, with his usual spirit, replied, "Whilst I live I will never disguise the truth, nor speak otherwise than my duty requires." The interval between the accusation and the trial he spent in philosophical conversations with his friends, chusing to discourse upon any other subject, rather than his own situation. Hermogenes, one of his friends, was much struck with this circumstance, and asked him, why he did not employ his time in preparing his defence: "Because," replied Socrates, "I have never in my life done any thing unjust." The eminent orator Lysias composed an apology, in the name of his master, which he requested him to adopt; but Socrates excused himself by saying, that though it was eloquently written, it would not suit his character.

When the day of trial arrived, his accusers appeared in the senate, and attempted to support their charge in three distinct speeches, which strongly marked their respective characters. Plato, who was a young man, and a zealous follower of Socrates, then rose up to address the judges in defence of his master: but whilst he was attempting to apologise for his youth, he was abruptly commanded by the court to sit down. Socrates, however, needed no advocate. Ascending the chair with all the serenity of conscious innocence, and with all the dignity of superior merit, he delivered, in a firm and manly tone, an unpremeditated defence of himself, which silenced his opponents, and ought to have convinced his judges. After tracing the progress of the conspiracy which had been raised against him to its source, the jealousy and resentment of men whose ignorance he had exposed, and whose vices he had ridiculed and reformed, he distinctly replied to the several charges brought against him by Melitus. To prove that he had not been guilty of impiety towards the gods of his country, he appealed to his frequent practice of attending the public religious festivals. The crime of introducing new divinities, with which he was charged, chiefly, as it seems, on the ground of the admonitions which he professed to have received from an invisible power, he disclaimed, by pleading that it was no new thing for men to consult the gods, and receive instructions from them. To refute the charge of his having been a corrupter of youth, he urged the example which he had uniformly exhibited of justice, moderation, and temperance, the moral spirit and tendency of his discourses, and the effect which had actually been produced; and disdaining to solicit the mercy of his judges, he called upon them for that justice, which their office and their oath obliged them to administer.

The judges, whose prejudices would not suffer them to pay due attention to this apology, or to examine with impartiality the merits of the cause, immediately declared him guilty of the crimes of which he stood accused. Socrates, in this stage of the trial, had a right to enter his plea against the punishment which the accusers demanded, and instead

of the sentence of death, to propose some pecuniary amercement. But he, at first, peremptorily refused to make any proposal of this kind, imagining that it might be construed into an acknowledgment of guilt; and asserted, that his conduct merited, from the state, reward rather than punishment. At length, however, he was prevailed upon by his friends to offer, upon their credit, a fine of thirty *mine*. The judges, notwithstanding, still remained inexorable: they proceeded, without farther delay, to pronounce sentence upon him; and he was condemned to be put to death by the poison of hemlock. Socrates received the sentence with perfect composure, and by a smile testified his contempt both for his accusers and his judges. Then, turning to his friends he expressed his entire satisfaction in the recollection of his past life, and declared himself firmly persuaded, that posterity would do so much justice to his memory as to believe, that he had never injured or corrupted any one, but had spent his days in serving his fellow-citizens, by communicating to them without reward, the precepts of wisdom. Conversing in this manner, he was conducted from the court to the prison, which he entered with a serene countenance and a lofty mind, amidst the lamentations of his friends.

On the day of the condemnation, it happened that the ship which was employed to carry a customary annual offering to the island of Delos, set sail. It was contrary to the law of Athens, that, during this voyage, any capital punishment should be inflicted within the city. This circumstance delayed the execution of the sentence against Socrates for thirty days. So long an interval of painful expectation, however, only served to afford farther scope for the display of his constancy. When his friends were with him, he conversed with his usual cheerfulness. In their absence, he amused himself with writing verses. His friends urged him to attempt his escape, or at least to permit them to convey him away; and Crito went so far, as to assure him that, by his interest with the gaoler, it might be easily accomplished, and to offer him a retreat in Thessaly; but Socrates rejected the proposal, as a criminal violation of the laws; and asked them, whether there was any place out of Attica which death could not reach.

News being, at length, brought of the return of the ship from Delos, the officers, to whose care he was committed, delivered to Socrates, early in the morning, the final order for his execution, and immediately, according to the law, set him at liberty from his bonds. His friends, who came thus early to the prison that they might have an opportunity of conversing with their master through the day, found his wife sitting by him with a child in her arms. As soon as Xantippe saw them she burst into tears, and said, "O, Socrates, this is the last time your friends will ever speak to you, or you to them." Socrates, that the tranquillity of his last moments might not be disturbed by her unavailing lamentations, requested that she might be conducted home. With the most frantic expressions of grief, she left the prison. An interesting conversation then passed between Socrates and his friends, which chiefly turned upon the immortality of the soul. In the course of this conversation, Socrates expressed his disapprobation of the practice of suicide, and assured his friends, that his chief support in his present situation was an expectation, though not unmixed with doubts, of a happy existence after death. "It would be inexcusable in me," said he, "to despise death, if I were not persuaded that it will conduct me into the presence of the gods, who are the most righteous governors, and into the society of just and good men: but I derive confidence from the hope, that something of man remains after death, and that the condition of good men will then be much better than that of the bad." Crito, afterwards asking him in what manner he wished to be buried, Socrates replied, with a smile, "As you please, provided I do not escape out of your hands." Then, turning to the rest of his friends, he said, "Is it not strange, after all that I have said to convince you that I am going to the society of the happy, that Crito still

thinks this body, which will soon be a lifeless corpse, to be Socrates? Let him dispose of my body as he pleases, but let him not, at its interment, mourn over it, as if it were Socrates."

Towards the close of the day, Socrates retired into an adjoining apartment to bathe; his friends, in the mean time, expressing to one another their grief at the prospect of losing so excellent a friend. After a short interval, during which he gave some necessary instructions to his domestics, and took his last leave of his children, the attendant of the prison informed him, that the time for drinking the poison was come. The executioner, though accustomed to such scenes, shed tears, as he presented the fatal cup. Socrates received it without change of countenance, or the least appearance of perturbation: then, offering up a prayer to the gods, that they would grant him a prosperous passage into the invisible world, with perfect composure he swallowed the poisonous draught. His friends around him burst into tears. Socrates alone remained unmoved. He upbraided their pusillanimity, and entreated them to exercise a manly constancy, worthy of the friends of virtue. He continued walking, till the chilling operation of the hemlock obliged him to lie down upon his bed. After remaining, for a short time, silent, he requested Crito (probably in order to refute a calumny which might prove injurious to his friends after his decease), not to neglect the offering of a cock, which he had vowed to Esculapius. Then covering himself with his cloak, he expired. Such was the fate of the virtuous Socrates! a story, says Cicero, which I never read without tears.

The friends and disciples of this illustrious teacher of wisdom were deeply afflicted by his death, and attended his funeral with every expression of grief. Apprehensive, however, for their own safety, they, soon afterwards, privately withdrew from the city, and took up their residence in distant places. Several of them visited the philosopher Euclid, of Megara, by whom they were kindly received.

No sooner was the unjust condemnation of Socrates known through Greece, than a general indignation was kindled in the minds of good men, who universally regretted that so distinguished an advocate for virtue should have fallen a sacrifice to jealousy and envy. The Athenians themselves, so remarkable for their caprice, who never knew the value of their great men till after their death, soon became sensible of the folly, as well as criminality, of putting to death the man who had been the chief ornament of their city, and of the age, and turned their indignation against his accusers. Melitus was condemned to death, and Anytus, to escape a similar fate, went into voluntary exile. To give a farther proof of the sincerity of their regret, the Athenians, for a while, interrupted public business; decreed a general mourning; recalled the exiled friends of Socrates; and erected a statue to his memory in one of the most frequented parts of the city. His death happened in the first year of the ninety-sixth Olympiad, and in the 70th year of his age. *Brucker's Hist. Phil. by Enfield.*

As Socrates left nothing in writing, we are indebted to his illustrious pupils, Xenophon and Plato, for what is known both of his opinions and manner of teaching; and more especially to the former, whose memoirs of Socrates contain more accurate information than the dialogues of Plato, because the latter mixes his own conceptions and diction with the ideas and language of his master. Accordingly it is related, that when Socrates heard Plato make his Lysis, he said, "How much does this young man make me say, which I never conceived!" The distinguishing character of Socrates was that of a moral philosopher; and to this purpose Xenophon denies that he ever taught natural philosophy, or any mathematical science, and charges with misrepresentation and falsehood those who had ascribed to him dissertations of this kind, probably in this charge referring to Plato, in whose works Socrates is introduced as discoursing on these subjects.

The doctrine of Socrates concerning God and religion is rather

rather practical than speculative. He taught, that the Supreme Being, though invisible, is clearly seen in his works, which at once demonstrate his existence, and his wise and benevolent providence. "Reflect," says he, "that your own mind directs your body by its volitions, and you must be convinced that the intelligencer of the universe disposes all things according to his pleasure.—Can you imagine, that your eye is capable of discerning distant objects, and that the eye of God cannot, at the same instant, see all things; or that, whilst your mind contemplates the affairs of different countries, the understanding of God cannot attend, at once, to all the affairs of the universe? Such is the nature of the Divinity, that he sees all things, hears all things, is every where present, and constantly superintends all events." Again: "He who disposes and directs the universe, who is the source of all that is fair and good, who, amidst successive changes, preserves the course of nature unimpaired, and to whose laws all beings are subject, this Supreme Deity, though himself invisible, is manifestly seen in his magnificent operations. Learn, then, from the things which are produced, to infer the existence of an invisible power, and to reverence the Divinity."

Besides the one Supreme Deity, Socrates admitted the existence of beings who possess a middle station between God and man, to whose immediate agency he ascribed the ordinary phenomena of nature, and whom he supposed to be particularly concerned in the management of human affairs. Hence, he spoke of thunder, wind, and other agents in nature, as servants of God.

Concerning the human soul, the opinion of Socrates, according to Xenophon, was, that it is allied to the divine being, not by a participation of essence, but by a similarity of nature; that man excels all other animals in the faculty of reason; and that the existence of good men will be continued after death, in a state in which they will receive the reward of their virtue. The doctrine which Cicero ascribes to Socrates, on this head, is, that the human soul is a divine principle, which, when it passes out of the body, returns to heaven; and that this passage is most easy to those who have, in this life, made the greatest progress in virtue.

The system of morality which Socrates made it the business of his life to teach, was raised upon the firm basis of religion. The first principles of virtuous conduct, which are common to all mankind, are, according to this excellent moralist, laws of God: and the conclusive argument by which he supports this opinion is, that no man departs from these principles with impunity. "It is frequently possible," says he, "for men to screen themselves from the penalty of human laws, but no man can be unjust, or ungrateful, without suffering for his crime: hence, I conclude, that these laws must have proceeded from a more excellent legislator than man." Socrates taught, that true felicity is not to be derived from external possessions, but from wisdom, which consists in the knowledge and practice of virtue; that the cultivation of virtuous manners is necessarily attended with pleasure, as well as profit; that the honest man alone is happy; and that it is absurd to attempt to separate things, which are in nature so closely united as virtue and interest.

But it is impossible, in detached sentences, to give the reader any clear idea of the moral doctrines of Socrates. We must therefore refer him, on this head, to that valuable treasure of ancient wisdom, the "Memorabilia" of Socrates; a work in which he will find his original conversations on many interesting topics, related with beautiful simplicity, by Xenophon.

The followers of Socrates were Alcibiades and Critias; the poets Eumenes and Euripides, the orators Lysias and Isocrates; Aristippus, the founder of the Cyrenaic sect; Phædo, of the Eliac; Euclid, of the Megaric; Plato, of the Academic; and Antisthenes, of the Cynic, Xenophon, Æschines, Simon, and Cebes.

SOCRATES, an ecclesiastical historian, was born and educated at Constantinople: and having studied under the grammarians Helladius and Ammonius, he commenced his career at the bar. But after some time he relinquished the

profession of a law-pleader, and engaged in writing his ecclesiastical history, which comprehends, in seven books, the interval of about 133 years, from the year 306, when Constantine was declared emperor, to the seventeenth consulship of Theodosius, A.D. 439. Socrates, Sozomen, and Theodoret, may be considered as continuators of Eusebius of Cæsarea; and these three writers, who lived in the time of Theodosius the younger, whose reign extended from the year 408 to 450, published their respective histories, which are valuable monuments of antiquity, about the same time, near the end of this reign. Socrates seems to have been distinguished by his moderation and candour, which we may infer from the freedom with which he censures the squabbles and contentions that subsisted amongst the Christian clergy, and he condemns the persecution that occurred in the reign of Julian. He is also judicious in his observations upon men and things, and generally accurate in his chronology. The best editions of his works are those of Valesius, fol. Paris, 1668, and of Reading, fol. Cant. 1720.

SOCRATIC, or SOCRATIC, *adj.* After the manner or doctrine of the philosopher *Socrates*.—He winked at that with a *socratical* and philosophical patience. *Sir J. Harrington.*

SOCRATICALLY, *adv.* With the socratical mode of disputation.—Is it such a pleasure to be non-plus'd in mood and figure, that you had rather be snapped in the mousetrap of a syllogism, than treated *socratically* and genteely? *Goodman.*

SOCRATISM, *s.* The philosophy of Socrates.

SOCRATIST, *s.* A disciple of Socrates.—There arose a great question between Pythagoras' disciples and the scholars of Socrates, for that the *socratists* said it was better and more commodious that all things should be in common. *Martin.*

SOD, *s.* [*soed*, Dutch.] A turf; a clod.

Here fame shall dress a sweeter *sod*,
Than fancy's feet have ever trod.

Collins.

SOD, *adj.* Made of turf.

Her casement sweet woodbines crept wantonly round,
And deck'd the *sod* seats at her door.

Cunningham.

SOD. The preterite of *seethe*.

Never caldron *sod*

With so much fervour, fed with all the store
That could enrage it.

Chapman.

The participle passive.—Wine and water, in which are *sod* southernwood, melilot, &c. *Burton.*

SO'DA, *s.* A fixed alkali; sometimes found native, but most generally obtained by burning maritime plants.

SODA Water. A medicated drink, prepared by dissolving salt of soda in certain proportions of water.

SODALITE, in Mineralogy, a stone which derives its name from the large portion of mineral alkali that enters into its composition. See MINERALOGY.

SODALITIUM, among the Anglo-Saxons, was the name of a voluntary association, the object of which was the personal security of those who joined in it, and which the feebleness of government at the time rendered necessary. Among other regulations, which are contained in one of these still extant, the following deserves notice:—If any associate shall either eat or drink with a person who has killed any member of the sodalium, unless in the presence of the king, the bishop, or the count, and unless he can prove that he did not know the person, let him pay a great fine. *Hickes Diss. Epist. apud Thes. Ling. Septentr. vol. 1. p. 21.*

SODA'LITY, *s.* [*sodalité*, old French; *sodalitas*, Lat.] A fellowship; a fraternity.—A new confraternity was instituted in Spain, of the slaves of the Blessed Virgin, and this *sodality* established with large indulgences. *Stillingfleet.*

SODBURY, CHIPPING. See CHIPPING SODBURY.

SODBURY, LITTLE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-south-east of Chipping Sodbury.

SODBURY, OLD, a parish in the above county; $2\frac{1}{2}$ east of Chipping Sodbury. Population 765.

SO'DDEN. [from *seethe*; *sieden*, Germ. See *TO SEETHE*. It is written *sodyn* or *sothyn* in the *Promp. Parv.*] Used in the past tense active; boiled.—The hands of the pitiful women have *sodden* their own children; they were their meat in the destruction of the daughter of my people *Lament*.—The participle passive of *seethe*; boiled; seethed.—Thou *sodden*-witted lord; thou hast no more brain than I have in my elbows. *Shakespeare*.

SODDOMA (II), the cognomen of Giovanni Antonio Razzi, a native of Urcelli, in Piedmont, born about the year 1479. He was instructed in painting by Giacomo dalle Fonte; but his chief object of study was the style of L. da Vinci. He was employed by Julius II. to paint the chambers of the Vatican; but the charms of Raphael's first productions in that palace were the signal for the obliteration of all other works there: among them Il Soddoma's. Other pictures, which he painted for Agostino Ghigi in the Farnesina, were more fortunate, and yet remain. Their subjects are taken from the history of Alexander the Great, and though inferior to the works of Lionardo, yet they exhibit very considerable talent, many beauties of perspective, and much playful imagery.

After he left Rome, he had considerable employment at Sienna, and there his best productions are to be found, in which he has combined the excellent qualities of the best artists of his day. He died in 1554.

SO'DDY, *adj.* Turfy; full of sods. *Cotgrave and Sherwood*.

SODEN, a town of Bavarian Franconia. Population 1000.

SODEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, with manufactures of salt; 20 miles north-west of Frankfort-on-the-Maine.

To SODER, *v. a.* [*souder*, French; *souderen*, Dutch. It is generally written *solder*, from *soldare*, Ital. *solidare*, Latin; and sometimes, improperly, *sodder*.] *To cement with some metallic matter.*—Let him bethink—how he will *sodder* up the shifting flaws of his ungirt permissions. *Milton*.

SODER, *s.* Metallic cement.—Still the difficulty returns, how these hooks were made: what is it that fastens this *soder*, and links these first principles of bodies into a chain? *Collier*.

SODER, a village of Germany, in Hanover, remarkable for its castle.

SODERAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore, situated on the eastern side of the Chinaub river. It belongs to the Seiks. Lat. 32. 27. N. long. 73. 30. E.

SODERFORS, a small town or Middle Sweden, in Sudermania, government of Upsal. Here is a forge for anchors, one of the finest establishments of the kind in Europe, in which are employed about 600 workmen.

SODERHAM, a town of Sweden, on the gulf of Bothnia. It has manufactures of linen and iron; also an export trade in timber and flax. Population 2000; 20 miles north of Gefle. Lat. 61. 17. 47. N. long. 17. 0. 30. E.

SODERTELGE, a small town of Middle Sweden, in the province of Sudermania; 16 miles west-south-west of Stockholm. It stands on a point of land surrounded by hills, between the Baltic and the Malar lake, which are here joined by a canal. Population 1000. Lat. 59. 12. 30. N. long. 17. 39. E.

SODIUM. See *MINERALOGY*.

SODUS, a post township of the United States, in Ontario county, New York, on Great Sodus bay, and south side of Lake Ontario. Population 1557; 212 miles west of Albany.

SODUS BAY, GREAT, a bay on the south side of Lake Ontario; 4 miles across, and 2 deep. The entrance to it is narrow, being formed by two projecting points; that on the westward is high, and near to it is the deepest water. A sandy bar stretches across the mouth of the bay, on which there is generally six feet water, but under the western point seven and eight; within it there are several

fathoms. On the eastern side there is a small island. This place forms a very good station for building vessels, and is accounted the best harbour on the side of the lake; 16 miles west of Oswego. Little Sodus bay is 12 miles east of Great Sodus.

SOE, *s.* [written also *so* and *soa*; Scottish, *sae*; Su. Goth. *saa*; old Fr. *seau*, a bucket or water-pail.] A large wooden vessel with hoops for holding water; a cowl.—A pump grown dry will yield no water; but pouring a little into it at first, for one bason full you may fetch up as many *soe*-fulls. *More*.

SOEST, or **ZOEST** (Gerard), was a native of Westphalia, born about the year 1637. He acquired the art of painting in his own country, but practised principally in this, whither he came rather before the period of the restoration. His portraits have a considerable portion of truth and animation, wrought in a finished manner, and with great warmth and glow of colour; so much so as to class him among the better rivals of Sir Peter Lely. He was most successful in his portraits of men, among whom he had a very considerable share of employment; but the more graceful and engaging pencil of Sir Peter secured the charms of the softer sex to himself. Soest died at the early age of 44.

SOEST, a town of Prussian Westphalia, in the government of Arensburg; 33 miles south-east of Munster. It was formerly a Hanse town, and retained the privileges of an imperial town, down to the middle of last century. It is surrounded with a wall, contains 5400 inhabitants, eight Protestant and three Catholic churches, a central school, and several convents and monasteries. Its manufactures are still considerable, consisting chiefly of woollens, stockings, hats, and leather. Lat. 51. 34. 51. N. long. 8. 5. 20. E.

SOEVER, *adv.* A word properly joined with a pronoun or adverb, as, *whosoever*; *whatsoever*; *howsoever*.

What love *soever* by an heir is shown,
Or you could ne'er suspect my loyal love.

Dryden.

SO'FA, *s.* [An eastern word.] A splendid seat covered with carpets.—The king leaped off from the *sofi* on which he sat, and cried out, 'Tis my Abdallah! *Guardian*.

The **SOFA**, in the East, is a kind of alcove raised half a foot above the floor of a chamber, or other apartment; and used as a place of state, where visitors of distinction are received.

Among the Turks, the whole floor of their state-room is covered with a kind of tapestry, and on the window-side is raised a sofa or sopha, laid with a kind of mattress, covered with a carpet much richer than the other. On this carpet the Turks are seated, both men and women, like the tailors in England, cross-legged, leaning against the wall, which is bolstered with velvet, satin, or other stuff, suitable to the season. Here they eat their meals; only laying a skin over the carpet, to serve as a table-cloth, and a round wooden board over all, covered with plates, &c.

SOFALA, a country and city of Eastern Africa, situated at the mouth of a considerable river of the same name. At the time of the first arrival of the Portuguese, it was a place of great commercial importance, being the emporium of the gold and ivory brought in large quantities from the interior, down the great river Cuama or Zambeze. Since Mosambique became the capital of the Portuguese settlements, the fort of Quilimane has been the channel by which this trade is conducted, and Sofala has sunk into comparative unimportance. The town is said to be no better than a village, composed chiefly of huts. The Portuguese, however, still maintain here a fort, which holds the supremacy over those of Inhambane and Corrientes, the most southerly possessed by this nation on the eastern coast of Africa. An annual vessel comes from Mosambique, bringing coarse cottons and other articles suited to the taste of the natives, and exporting gold ivory, and slaves. The river empties itself into a bay, the navigation of which is very dangerous, in consequence of the numerous shoals with which it is filled. They appear to have perceptibly increased, since this coast was first visited

visited by Europeans, and resemble the sands at the mouth of the Ganges, being, like them, probably liable to shift their position. The great bank of Sofala extends for two days' sail, and appears to have been thrown up by the violence of the south-easterly winds, which generally prevail, blowing in direct opposition to the currents of many rapid rivers, which here flow into the sea. Ships, however, by carefully tracing their course, may find a channel of 12 fathoms, and should never go into a smaller depth. The Portuguese, in order to avoid these banks, carry on their whole trade by smaller coasting vessels. Whales are found here in vast multitudes, often 20 or 30 at a time. The town is situated up a river, navigable only for small vessels, and having a bar at its entrance only 12 or 14 feet deep at low water. It lies on the northern bank; and the fort is situated on a point of land insulated at high water. The anchorage is about four miles from the fort; but ships ought not to enter without a pilot. Opposite to the mouth of the river is a small island, called also Sofala. The surrounding country is wild, and thinly inhabited, traversed by vast herds of elephants, the ivory from which affords a staple article of commerce. The people, in their stature, colour, habits, and language, appear nearly allied to the Kaffres, and perfectly distinct from either the Hottentot or negro race. They are well armed, brave, and apparently quite independent. The villages consist of huts, interspersed with large trees like the India fig, huilt in regular order. On the upper part of the river Sofala, is Zimboas, capital of the dominions of the Quiteue. According to Vossius, Vincent, and other learned inquirers, Sofala is the *Ophir* of Solomon, whither the fleets of that monarch made regular voyages in search of gold; and notwithstanding the very opposite hypothesis of Gosselin, much probability seems still to attach to the supposition. The town is in Lat. 20. 15. S. long. 34. 35. E.

SOFFIETA, in Ichthyology, the bellows-fish, a name by which some have called the scolopax; a small sea-fish, common in the markets of Rome and Venice.

SOFFITA, **SOFFIT**, or **SOFIT**, in Architecture, any timber ceiling, formed of cross-beams, or flying corniches.

SOFFITA is also used for the under side or face of an architrave.

SOFIA, or **SOPHIA**, a city in the north of European Turkey, the capital of Bulgaria, pleasantly situated in a plain at the foot of the mountains of Argentaro, on the river Bogana. It is large and populous, being said to contain no less than 50,000 inhabitants, and carrying on, though an inland place, a very extensive trade, which is for the most part in the hands of Greeks and Armenians. The Turks form a comparatively small part of the population. Sofia contains a number of handsome baths and mosques, but the streets are narrow, uneven, and dirty, the houses meanly built, and the air unhealthy. It was built by the emperor Justinian, on the ruins of the ancient Sardica. It is the see of a Greek metropolitan and of a Catholic bishop. It stands in the high road leading from Constantinople to Belgrade; 280 miles west-north-west of Constantinople, and 160 west-north-west of Adrianople. Lat. 42. 56. N. long. 23. 14. E.

SOFIA, a town of Naples, in Calabria Citra, with 1200 inhabitants.

SOFIT, or **SOFFIT**. See **SOFFITA**.

SOFLINGEN, a town of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 2 miles west of Ulm. Population 1400.

SOFR, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 70 miles south-east of Mecca.

SOFRA, a village of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 50 miles north-east of Kariatein.

SOFROI, a small town of Fez, which carries on some trade in oil; 12 miles east of Fez.

SOFT, *adj.* [ʃɒft, Saxon; *soft*, Teut. which Junius refers to *saft*, Su. Goth. succus; and *Serenius* to the Icel. *sefa*, sedare.] Not hard.—Hard and *soft* are names we give things, only in relation to the constitutions of our own bodies; that being called hard, which will put us to pain sooner than change figure, by the pressure of any part of

our bodies: and that *soft*, which changes the situation of its parts upon an easy touch. *Locke*.—Not rugged; not rough.—What went ye out for to see? a man clothed in *soft* raiment? behold, they that wear *soft* raiment are in king's houses. *St. Matthew*.—Ductile; not unchangeable of form.

Spirits can either sex assume; so *soft*
And uncompounded is their essence pure. *Milton*.

Facile; flexible; not resolute; yielding.—A few divines of so *soft* and servile tempers as disposed them to so sudden acting and compliance. *King Charles*.—Tender; timorous.

Curst be the verse, how well soe'er it flow,
That tends to make one worthy man my foe;
Give virtue scandal, innocence a fear,
Or from the *soft*-ey'd virgin steal a tear. *Pope*.

Mild; gentle; kind: not severe.
Would my heart were flint like Edward's;
Or Edward's *soft* and pitiful like mine. *Shakspeare*.

Meek; civil; complaisant.
Thou art their soldier, and being bred in broils,
Has not the *soft* way, which thou dost confess
Were fit for thee to use, as they to claim
In asking their good loves. *Shakspeare*.

Placid; still; easy.
On her *soft* axle while she paces even,
She bears thee *soft*, with the smooth air along. *Milton*.

Effeminate; viciously nice.—An idle and *soft* course of life is the source of criminal pleasures. *Broome*.—Delicate; elegantly tender.—Her form more *soft* and feminine. *Milton*.—Weak; simple.—The deceiver soon found this *soft* place of Adam's, and innocence itself did not secure him: *Glanville*.—Gentle; not loud; not rough.

Her voice was ever *soft*,
Gentle and low, an excellent thing in women. *Shakspeare*.

Smooth; flowing; not vehement; not rapid.—The solemn nightingale tun'd her *soft* lays. *Milton*.—Not forcible; not violent.—Sleep falls with *soft* slumberous weight. *Milton*.—Mild; not glaring.—The sun shining upon the upper part of the clouds, made them appear like fine down or wool, and made the *softest* sweetest lights imaginable. *Brown*.

SOFT, *adv.* Softly; gently; quietly.
There *soft* extended, to the murmuring sound
Of the high porch, Ulysses sleeps profound. *Pope*.

SOFT, *interj.* Hold; stop; not so fast.
But *soft*, I pray you; did king Richard then
Proclaim my brother? *Shakspeare*.

To **SOFTEN**, *v. a.* To make soft; to make less hard.—Bodies, into which the water will enter, long seething will rather *soften* than indurate. *Bacon*.

Their arrow's point they *soften* in the flame,
And sounding hammers break its barbed frame. *Gay*.

To intenerate; to make less fierce or obstinate; to mollify.—I will *soften* stony hearts. *Milton*.—To make easy; to compose; to make placid; to mitigate; to palliate; to alleviate.

Call round her tomb each object of desire,
Bid her be all that cheers or *softens* life,
The tender sister, daughter, friend and wife. *Pope*.

To make less harsh; less vehement; less violent.
He bore his great commission in his look,
But sweetly temper'd awe, and *soften'd* all he spoke. *Dryden*.

To make less glaring. To make tender; to enervate.
To **SOFTEN**, *v. n.* To grow less hard.—Many bodies that will hardly melt, will *soften*; as iron in the forge. *Bacon*.—To grow less obstinate, cruel or obstinate.

He may *soften* at the sight of the child ;
The silence often of pure innocence
Persuades, when speaking fails.

Shakspeare.

SOFTENER. See **SOFTNER.**

SOFTENING, *s.* The act of making less hard, less vehement, or less violent.—I allow that elevations and *softenings* of the voice, judiciously managed, are both ornamental and useful; but those sudden starts and explosions are most ungraceful and unbecoming the gravity of the pulpit. *Abp. Hort.*

SOFTHEARTED, *adj.* Kind-hearted; gentle; meek.—A right reasonable, innocent, and *soft-hearted* petition. *Milton.*

SOFTLING, *s.* An effeminate or viciously nice person.—We receive fashions of our companions: the drunkard leadeth his guests into drunkenness. Effeminate men and *softlings* cause the stoute man to waxe tender. *Woolton.*

SOFTLY, *adv.* Without hardness. Not violently; not forcibly.—Small bodies, if very *softly* percussed, give no sound; as when a man treadeth very *softly* upon boards. *Bacon.*—Not loudly.

In this dark silence *softly* leave the town,
And to the general's tent direct your steps.

Dryden.

Gently; placidly.

She with a wreath of myrtle crowns his head,
And *softly* lays him on a flowery bed.

Dryden.

Mildly; tenderly.

The king must die ;
Though pity *softly* plead within my soul,
Yet he must die, that I may make you great.

Dryden.

SOFTNER, *s.* That which makes soft. One who palliates.—Those *softners*, and expedient-mongers, shake their heads so strongly, that we can hear their pockets jingle. *Swift.*

SOFTNESS, *s.* [σοφύτης, Sax.] The quality of being soft; quality contrary to hardness.—*Softness* cometh by the greater quantity of spirits, which ever induce yielding and cession; and by the more equal spreading of the tangible parts, which thereby are more sliding and following; as in gold. *Bacon.*—Their hearts are enlarged, they know how to gather the down and *softnesses* from the sharpest thistles. *Bp. Taylor.*—Mildness; kindness.—A wise man, when there is a necessity of expressing any evil actions, should do it by a word that has a secondary idea of kindness or *softness*; or a word that carries in it rebuke and severity. *Watts.*—Civility; gentleness.—Improve these virtues, with a *softness* of manners, and a sweetness of conversation. *Dryden.*—Effeminacy; vicious delicacy.—He was not delighted with the *softnesses* of the court. *Clarendon.*—Timorousness; pusillanimity.—This virtue could not proceed out of fear or *softness*; for he was valiant and active. *Bacon.*—Saving a man's self, or suffering, if with reason, is virtue: if without it is *softness*, or obstinacy. *Grew.*—Quality contrary to harshness.—*Softness* of sounds is distinct from the exility of sounds. *Bacon.*—Facility; gentleness; candour; easiness to be effected.—Such was the ancient simplicity and *softness* of spirit, which sometimes prevailed in the world, that they whose words were even as oracles amongst men, seemed evermore loth to give sentence against any thing publicly received in the church of God. *Hooker.*—Contrariety to energetic vehemence.

Who but thyself the mind and ear can please,
With strength and *softness*, energy and ease ?

Hartc.

Mildness; meekness.

For contemplation he and valour form'd,
For *softness* she and sweet attractive grace.

Milton.

Weakness; simplicity.

SOGAMOSO, the capital of a district of the same name, in New Granada, and province of Bogota. Population 500 housekeepers, and 200 Indians; 28 miles north-east of Tunja.

SOGAMOSO. See **CHICHAMOCHO.**

SOGERVI, a village of Nubia, on the Nile; 20 miles west of Ibrim.

SO'GGY, *adj.* [*soggr*, Icel. moist; *soegen*, Welsh, wet, soaked.] Moist; damp; steaming with damp. A recent editor of Ben Jonson's Works observes, that "he has heard the word applied (with what propriety he knows not) to hay that has been cut too early, and sweats as it lies in heaps." The propriety of the usage will now from the etymology, be obvious.—The warping condition of this green and *soggy* multitude. *B. Jonson.*

SOGLAH, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 42 miles south of Konieh.

SOGNO. See **SONHO.**

SOGONI, a village of Nubia on the Nile; 115 miles south of Syene.

SOHAIG, a village of Upper Egypt, on the western bank of the Nile; 14 miles north of Girge.

SOHAJEPORE, a district of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh, situated between the 23d and 24th degrees of northern latitude. It is a mountainous and unfruitful country. It is governed by a Hindoo chief, who is tributary to the rajah of Nagpore.

SOHAJEPORE, the capital of the abovementioned district, and residence of the chief. The poverty of these countries has prevented their being wholly subjugated, either by the Mahometans or the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 29. N. long. 81. 45. E.

SOHAM, EARL'S. See **EARL'S SOHAM.**

SOHAM, or **MONK'S SOHAM,** a market town of England, in the county of Cambridge, situated on the borders of Suffolk, on the east side of the river Cam. The town is large and irregularly built. During the Anglo-Saxon dynasty, it appears to have been a place of some consequence, and according to Leland was the seat of the East Anglian bishops. The bishop's palace and the church were destroyed by the Danes in 870. Some remains of ancient buildings are now visible. The present church is a spacious building, in the form of a cross, having a tower at the west end, the upper part of which is ornamented with a tessellated work, composed of flints. Here is a large charity school, at which the children of the poor inhabitants are educated under two masters. Three alms-houses were founded here in 1502, by Richard Bond; and in 1581, nine others for widows were founded by Thomas Pechey. The chief produce of the place is from the dairies; and cheese of an excellent quality, and very similar both in taste and flavour to the Stilton, is made here. In 1811, Soham contained 551 houses, and 2386 inhabitants. Market on Saturday; 5 miles south-east of Ely, and 7 north of Newmarket.

SOHAM, MONK'S, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles west-by-north of Framlingham. Population 325.

SOHAR, an ancient and celebrated city of Ommon, in Eastern Arabia, situated on a river, which, when swelled by rain, reaches the sea, but in the dry season loses itself in the sands. It is now much declined, the trade and importance of this part of Arabia centering chiefly in Maskat. Lat. 24. 17. N.

SOHAUL, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, and district of Bundelcund, now subject to the British. Lat. 24. 40. N. long. 80. 52. E.

SOHL, or **ZOLYOM VARMEGYE,** a palatinate in the north-west of Hungary, lying on both sides of the Gran, to the north of the counties of Honth and Neograd. Its superficial extent is 1060 square miles; its population above 76,000, who are partly of German, partly of Slavonic origin. It lies among the Carpathians, and is consequently hilly, fitter for pasture than tillage, and containing a number of mines. The chief town is New Sohl. The highest mountain is called Sturetz.

SOHL. See **ALTSOHL** and **NEUSOHL.**

SOHLAND, a village of Saxony, in Upper Lusatia; 40 miles east of Dresden. Population 1100.

SOHNPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh,

waneh, situated on the south side of the Mahanuddy river. Lat. 20. 47. N. long. 83. 45. E.

SOHO, *interj.* A form of calling from a distant place; a sportsman's halloo.

Laun. So-ho! so-ho!

Prot. What seest thou?

Laun. Him we go to find.

Shakspeare.

SOHO, the name of the celebrated and extensive manufactory in England, of Messrs. Boulton and Watt, near Birmingham.

SOIGNIES, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, on the small river Senne. It has 4700 inhabitants, and in the neighbourhood is a small forest (distinct from that of Soigne), to which it gives name; 7 miles north-east of Mons, and 25 south-west of Brussels.

TO SOIL, *v. a.* [*Jñlan*, Sax.; *sulen*, Germ.; *souiller*, Fr.; *saufjan*, *bisauljan*, Goth.] To foul; to dirt; to pollute; to stain; to sully.

I would not soil these pure ambrosial weeds,
With the rank vapours of this sin-worn mould.

Milton.

To dung; to manure.—Men now present, just as they soil their ground, not that they love the dirt, but that they expect a crop. *South.*—To soil a horse; to purge him by giving him grass in the spring. [Dr. Johnson refers this meaning to the Fr. *saouler*, to glut.]—The soiled horse.

SOIL, *s.* Dirt; spot; pollution; foulness.

Vexed I am with passions,
Which give some soil perhaps to my behaviour.

Shakspeare.

[*Sol*, Fr.; *solum*, Lat.] Ground; earth, considered with relation to its vegetative qualities.

Her spots thou see'st
As clouds, and clouds may rain, and rain produce
Fruits in her soften'd soil.

Milton.

Land; country.

O unexpected stroke, worse than of death!
Must I thus leave thee, paradise! thus leave
Thee, native soil! these happy walks and shades,
Fit haunts of gods.

Milton.

Dung; compost.—The haven has been stopped up by the great heaps of dirt that the sea has thrown into it; for all the soil on that side of Ravenna has been left there insensibly by the sea. *Addison.*

To take SOIL. To run into the water, as a deer when closely pursued.—O sir, have you ta'en soil here? It's well a man may reach you after three hours running yet. *B. Jonson.*

SOYLINESS, *s.* Stain; foulness.—Make proof of the incorporation of silver and tin, whether it yield no soylineess more than silver. *Bacon.*

SOILDRO, a settlement of the island of Cuba; 75 miles east-south-east of Havannah.

SOILURE, *s.* Stain; pollution.

He merits well to have her,
Not making any scruple of her soilure.

Shakspeare.

To SOJOURN, *v. n.* [*sejourner*, French; *seggionare*, Italian.] To dwell any where for a time; to live as not at home; to inhabit as not in a settled situation. *Almost out of use.*

If, till the expiration of your month,
You will return and sojourn with my sister,
Dismissing half your train, come then to me.

Shakspeare.

SOJOURN, *s.* [*sejour*, French.] A temporary residence; a casual and not settled habitation. This word was anciently accented on the last syllable: Milton accents it indifferently.

The princes, France and Burgundy,
Long in our court have made their am'rous sojourn.

Shakspeare.

SOJOURNER, *s.* A temporary dweller.

Waves o'erthrew

Busiris, and his Memphian chivalry,
While with perfidious hatred they pursu'd
The sojourners of Goshen.

Milton.

SOJOURNING, *s.* The act of dwelling any where but for a time.—The sojourn of Israel, who dwelt in Egypt, was four hundred and thirty years. *Exod.*

SOISSONS, a town of France, department of the Aisne, situated in a pleasant valley, watered by the river Aisne. Its population is about 7500, but it is ill built, and has few objects entitled to particular attention. The cathedral is an extensive edifice, with a library and manuscripts. The other remarkable objects are the church of Notre Dame, the academy established in 1674, the lyceum, the theatre, and a pleasant walk on the banks of the Aisne. The trade of Soissons consists chiefly in corn, and its manufactures are of coarse linen, stockings, thread, leather and ropes. This town lays claim to great antiquity: it was a place of note in the time of Julius Cæsar; and the successors of Clovis made it the seat of their empire. It was the scene of some serious fighting between the French and allies, in February and March 1814; 65 miles south-east of Amiens, and 70 north-east of Paris. Lat. 49. 22. 52. N. long. 3. 19. 37.

SOIT, *fait comme il desire*, be it done as it is desired; a form used when the King gives the royal assent to a private bill preferred in Parliament.

SOKE, a river in the east of European Russia, which falls into the Wolga, in the government of Simbirsk.

SOKE, an ancient term, used to signify the privilege of mills, &c. By it the lord, in certain cases, was enabled to raise a considerable rent.

SOKE-MILL, that kind of mill which belongs to the lord or superior of the manor, and at which all the tenants, and sometimes the whole parish, are bound to grind their grain. Mills of this nature were once very common, and they exist still in a few places.

SOKE-REEVE, in our old Writers, the lord's rent gatherer in the soke.

SOKEL, a small town of Galicia; 40 miles north-north-east of Lemberg.

SOKHIO, a name used by some authors for a peculiar species, if it may be so called, of the lignum aloes.

SOKO, the name sometimes given to a fertile district of the Gold coast of Africa, situated at the mouth of the river Volta.

SOKOLKA, a town of Russian Lithuania, with 1100 inhabitants, situated near a lake; 21 miles north-north-east of Bialystok.

SOKOLOW, a town of Poland; 56 miles east-by-north of Warsaw, with 1200 inhabitants.

SOKOLOWKA, a small town of Austrian Poland; 53 miles south-by-east of Lemberg.

SOKOR ZOK, a town of Armenia, situated about midway between Bellis and Diarbekir. It is governed by a powerful, independent, and hereditary prince, who has under his orders many different tribes of Kurds and Turcomans, of a martial and barbarous disposition, and who, it is said, can bring 20,000 men into the field. The district is extensive, and covered with villages; but the population of the town does not exceed 6000.

SOKUL, a town of European Russia, in the government of Volhynia, on the river Styr; 27 miles north of Sluck.

SOKULK INDIANS, Indians of North America, on the Columbia, below Clerk's river. Number 2400.

SOL, *s.* The name of one of the musical notes in *sol-fa*ng. See **To SOL-FA**.

To SOL-FA, *v. n.* To pronounce the several notes of a song by the terms of the gamut, *ut, re, mi, fa, sol*; and in learning to sing.—I'll try how you can *sol-fa*.

Shakspeare.

SOLA, a small island in the Caribbean sea; 30 miles east of Margarita.

SOLA, a small island among the Philippines, near the south

south coast of the island of Lucon. Lat. 13. 22. N. long. 12. 46. E.

SOLA, LA. See PYLSTART.

To SO'LACE, *v. a.* [*solasier*, old French; *solazzare*, Italian; *solatium*, Latin.] To comfort; to cheer; to amuse.

The birds with song
Solac'd the woods.

Milton.

To SO'LACE, *v. n.* To take comfort; to be recreated.
Obsolete.

One poor and loving child,
But one thing to rejoice and *solace* in,
And cruel death hath catch'd it from my sight. *Shakspeare.*

SO'LACE, *s.* [*solas*, old Fr.] Comfort; pleasure; alleviation; that which gives comfort or pleasure; recreation; amusement.

Therein sat a lady fresh and fair,
Making sweet *solace* to herself alone;
Sometimes she sung as loud as lark in air,
Sometimes she laugh'd, that nigh her breath was gone.

Spenser.

SOLA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*solacieux*, old Fr.] Affording comfort, recreation, or amusement. This is an old English word, which Cotgrave and Sherwood also have noticed.—*Solacynose* pastymes, ydelnesse, and crueltie. *Bale.*

SOLAN, a county of Central Africa, on the northern bank of the Niger, between Tombuctoo and Cassina. It was described to Horneman, as one of those composing the extensive country of Haoussa or Houssa; but no particulars are known respecting it.

SO'LAND-GOOSE. See SOLUND-GOOSE.

SOLA'NDER, *s.* [*souldandres*, French.] A disease in horses.

SOLANDER'S ISLAND, an island in the Pacific Ocean, near the south coast of New Zealand, discovered by Captain Cook in the year 1770. It is nothing but a barren rock, about a mile in circuit, remarkably high, and lies full five leagues distant from the main. This island he named after Dr. Solander. The shore of the main lies nearest east-by-south and west-by-north, and forms a large open bay, in which there is no appearance of any harbour, or shelter for shipping against south-west and southerly winds. The surface of the country is broken into craggy hills, of a great height, on the summits of which are some patches of snow. It is not, however, wholly barren, for wood was seen not only in the valleys, but upon the highest ground, yet no appearance of its being inhabited. Lat. 46. 31. S. long. 192. 49. W.

SOLANDRA [so named by the younger Linnæus, in honour of Daniel Charles Solander, a Swede], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, large, angular, permanent, three-cleft or five-cleft: segments lanceolate, erect. Corolla one petalled, funnel-form, very large: tube bell-shaped, ventricose, a little shorter than the calyx: border five-cleft; segments roundish, waved, patulous. Stamina: filaments five, filiform, length of the tube, ascending at the top. Anthers oblong, versatile. Pistil: germ superior, oval. Style filiform, longer than the stamens, bent in. Stigma obtuse, bifid; segments ovate. Pericarp: berry oval, conical at top, smooth, four-celled. Seeds very numerous, oblong, nestling.—*Essential Character.* Calyx bursting. Corolla clavate-funnel-form, very large. Berry four-celled, many-seeded.

Solandra grandiflora, or great-flowered Solandra.—This is a small tree from twelve to twenty feet high, with a branching trunk, and a cloven ash-coloured bark, green within. The wood is spongy. The branches are loose, bent down, divaricating, very long. The leaves are in clusters towards the ends of the branchlets, obovate-oblong, acute, entire, smooth, thickish, from three to seven inches in length, on round smooth petioles, five times shorter than the leaves. Flowers terminating, subsessile, subsolitary, very large. Pe-

duncles very short, thick, round, smooth, one-flowered. Calyx from one to three inches long, subquinquefid, as the fruit ripens bursting to the base into three or five segments. Seeds black. The very handsome sweet flowers appear in the months of January and February. The fruit ripens in August, and is of a sweet subacid flavour.—Native of Jamaica.

SOLANEÆ, the 41st natural order in Jussieu's system, the 8th of his 8th class. It is thus named from the Nightshade, which is one of the tribe, and the order is nearly equivalent to the Linnæan LURIDÆ: see that article.

SOLANO, a small town of Spain, in La Mancha, on the river Azuer. Population 1300; 103 miles south-by-east of Madrid.

SOLANO, a small island near the coast of Peru. Lat. 12. 20. S.

SOLANO, a river of Guatemala, in the province of Costa Rica, which runs west, and enters the Pacific Ocean.

SOLANOS, in Meteorology, a name given to monsoon winds, in the vicinity of the Persian Gulf, and in the interior of Africa.

SOLANTO, a small sea-port of Sicily, in the district called the Val di Mazzara.

SOLANUM [of Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of luridæ, solaneæ (*Juss.*).—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, half five-cleft, erect, acute, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, wheel-shaped: tube very short: border large, half-five-cleft, from reflex flat, plaited. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, very small. Anthers oblong, converging, subcoalescent, opening at the top by two pores. Pistil: germ roundish. Style filiform, longer than the stamens. Stigma blunt. Pericarp: berry roundish, smooth, dotted at the top, two-celled, with a convex fleshy receptacle on each side. Seeds very many, roundish, nestling.—*Essential Character.* Corolla wheel-shaped. Anthers subcoalescent, opening at top. Berry two-celled.

I.—Unarmed.

1. *Solanum laurifolium*, or bay-leaved nightshade.—This is an unarmed tree. Leaves a span long, quite entire, brown. Panicle solitary, dichotomous, composed of one-ranked racemes. Berries black.—Native of South America, in large woods.

2. *Solanum verbascifolium*, or mullein-leaved nightshade.—Stem shrubby; leaves ovate, tomentose, entire; corymbs bifid, terminating. Flowers white, inodorous.—Native of America.

3. *Solanum auriculatum*, or ear-leaved nightshade.—Shrubby; leaves ovate, acuminate, tomentose, entire; stipules cordate; corymbs bifid, terminating. This is very like the preceding.—Native of the islands of Madagascar, Mauritius and Bourbon.

4. *Solanum pubescens*, or pubescent nightshade.—Stem shrubby; leaves ovate, decreasing at the base, quite entire, pubescent; racemes subumbelled, axillary.—Native of the East Indies.

5. *Solanum Bombense*, or Tierra Bomba nightshade.—Stem frutescent; leaves oval, attenuated at both ends, quite entire; racemes cymed.—Found in the island of Tierra Bomba, near Carthage, in America.

6. *Solanum pseudo-capsicum*. Shrubby nightshade, or winter cherry.—Stem shrubby; leaves lanceolate, repand; umbels sessile.—It is a native of the island of Madeira.

7. *Solanum microcarpum*, or small-fruited nightshade.—Stem shrubby; leaves ovate-lanceolate; umbels lateral, peduncled.—Native of Egypt.

8. *Solanum terminale*, or end-flowering nightshade.—Frutescent; leaves lanceolate-ovate, mostly entire, hairy; umbels terminating.—Native of Arabia Felix.

9. *Solanum pauciflorum*, or few-flowered nightshade.—Leaves ovate, quite entire; branches and calyxes ten-toothed, tomentose; peduncles axillary, in pairs, one-flowered.—Native of the island of Martinique.

10. *Solanum diphylum*, or two-leaved nightshade.—Stem shrubby;

shrubby; leaves in pairs, one smaller than the other; flowers in cymes.—Native of the West Indies.

11. *Solanum fugax*, or fugacious nightshade. — Stem shrubby, dichotomous, divaricating; leaves lanceolate, quite entire, smooth; peduncles solitary, axillary, one-flowered; calyx ten-toothed.—Native of the Caraccas.

12. *Solanum geminatum*, or two-flowered nightshade.—Leaves ovate, entire; calyxes ten-toothed, smooth; peduncles axillary, in pairs, one-flowered; stem scandent.—Native of Cayenne, where it was found by Von Rohr.

13. *Solanum retrofractum*, or broken nightshade.—Leaves ovate, smooth; branches axillary, retrofracted; umbels axillary and terminating, sessile; calyxes truncate.—Native of South America.

14. *Solanum stellatum*, or starry nightshade. — Stem shrubby, scandent, flexuose; leaves ovate, smooth, acuminate; peduncles subgeminat, one-flowered, axillary; calyxes unequally toothed.

15. *Solanum dulcamara*. Woody nightshade, or bitter-sweet.—Stem frutescent, flexuose; upper leaves hastate; racemes cymed. Root perennial, woody.—Native of Europe, Africa and Siberia, in moist hedges, shady places and the sides of ditches: flowering in June and July. The berries are ripe in September and October.

16. *Solanum tuberosum*. Tubercous-rooted nightshade, or common potatoe.—Stem herbaceous; leaves pinnate, quite entire; peduncles subdivided. The potatoe is well known for its tuberous root. Stem from two to three feet in height, succulent, somewhat angular, striated, slightly hairy, frequently spotted with red, branched; the branches long and weak. Leaves interruptedly pinnate, having three or four pairs of leaflets, with smaller ones between, and one at the end larger than the rest; the leaflets are somewhat hairy, and dark green on the upper surface. The flowers are either white or tinged with purple; or, as old Gerard describes them, of a light purple, striped down the middle of every fold or welt with a light show of yellowness. The fruit is a round berry, the size of a small plum, green at first, but black when ripe, and containing many small flat roundish white seeds. Native of Quito.

17. *Solanum lycopersicum*. Love-apple, or tomato.—Stem herbaceous; leaves pinnate, gashed; racemes two-parted, leafless; fruits smooth. The one commonly cultivated in the south of Europe to put into soups and sauces, to which it imparts an agreeable acid flavour. The fruit in this is very large, compressed both at top and bottom, and deeply furrowed all over the sides, red or yellow.—Native of South America.

18. *Solanum pseudo-lycopersicum*, or false tomato.—Stem herbaceous; leaves pinnate, gashed; racemes simple; fruits subvillose.

19. *Solanum nigrum*. Common, or garden nightshade.—Branches round; leaves quite entire, hirsute. Stem herbaceous; leaves ovate; tooth angular; racemes distich, nodding. Root annual, much branched. This species is common in Europe, Africa and America, both in cultivated and waste ground, especially on dunghills: flowering from June to September.—There are eight varieties of this species.

20. *Solanum melongena*. Large-fruited nightshade, or egg plant.—Stem herbaceous; leaves ovate, tomentose; peduncles pendulous, incrassated; calyxes unarmed. The egg plant is a native of Asia, Africa and America, where the climate is warm enough.—There are three varieties.—The remains of this section are, *Solanum triquetrum*, scandens, lyratum, Tegore, quercifolium, laciniatum, radicans, havanense, triste, racemosum, corymbosum, quadrangulare, repandum, bonariense, macrocarpon, pimpinellifolium, Peruvianum, montanum, nidiflorum, Æthiopicum, subierme, longiflorum and muricatum.

II.—Prickly.

21. *Solanum insanum*, or round-fruited prickly nightshade.—Stem herbaceous; leaves ovate, tomentose; peduncles pendulous, incrassated; calyxes prickly. Annual.

22. *Solanum torvum*.—Stem shrubby; prickles crooked; leaves subcordate, ovate, sinuate, tomentose; rachis prickly; calyxes unarmed.—Native of Jamaica, Hispaniola and the Bermuda islands, in hedges.

23. *Solanum volubile*, or twining nightshade. — Stem shrubby, scandent; leaves angular; petiole; rachis and calyx prickly.—Found in the woods of Hispaniola and in the West Indies.

24. *Solanum ferox*, or Malabar nightshade. — Stem prickly, herbaceous; leaves cordate, angular, tomentose, prickly; berries rough-haired, covered with the calyx.—Native of Malabar.

25. *Solanum Campechiense*, or yellow-spined nightshade.—Stem prickly, rough-haired; leaves cordate-oblong, five-lobed, toothed; calyxes very prickly.—Native of La Vera Cruz, in New Spain.—There remains of this section *Solanum fuscatum*, mammosum, hirtum, paniculatum, aculeatissimum, Virginianum, Jacquini, Xanthocarpum, coajulans, Jamaicaense, Indicum, Carolinense; sinuatum, sodomeum, Capense, marginatum, stramonifolium, Vespertilio, sanctum, hybridum, tomentosum, polygamum, obscurum, Bahamense, giganteum, flexuosum, lancefolium, lanceolatum, eleagnifolium, polyacanthos, igneum, Milleri, trilobatum, lycioides, biflorum, album, dichotomum, procumbens, angustifolium, quercifolium, scandens, Houstoni, umbellata and racemosum.

Propagation and Culture.—All the species from the Cape of Good, and other warm climates, require an open airy glass case or warm greenhouse in winter, but in summer may be placed abroad in a sheltered situation. All the annuals are of course propagated by seeds; the shrubby plants by layings or cuttings.

The potatoe is highly valuable for its tuberous esculent root. These roots may be obtained for use plentifully almost the year-round: the early sorts, being planted forward in the spring, often afford tolerable crops fit to take up in the beginning of June and in July following, especially in rich warm grounds; but the main crops are permitted to continue growing till autumn, as about the latter end of October or beginning of November, when the stalks or haulm begin to decay, at which time the roots will be arrived to full maturity; and being then taken out of the ground, and housed in some close dry apartment, keep in good perfection for eating all winter and spring, until the arrival of the new crops in the following summer.

With regard to the properties of the different sorts or varieties of this root, so far as they relate to their usefulness as food, or their nourishing qualities, there is probably no very material difference; but insomuch as their agreeableness for the purpose of eating by man is concerned, there is considerable diversity; some sorts being naturally farinaceous and mealy, while other kinds are heavy and clayey, or waxy, the former of which are, for the most part, highly desirable and greatly relished, while the latter are disagreeable to and disrelished by many. The red sorts were formerly held in great esteem, and supposed the best; and though they are most probably in no respect inferior to those of the white kinds, these have of late, in general, been much preferred, especially the round, the oblong white or whitish red, and the kidney sorts, as being more productive, more saleable in the markets, and the most desirable for eating.

The best and most useful varieties, in each kind, should be cultivated in sufficient and suitable proportions. The early sorts are, however, the most proper and suitable for being cultivated in gardens in most cases.

It is of importance in the garden, as well as the field, to have good sized potatoes for sets, or for taking the sets from, whatever the sort may be, as the very small potatoes or chats, as they are called, never answer well in this intention. And it is equally important to have a frequent change of the seed or sets which are employed for raising the crops, as every two or three years, new, or such potatoes as are fresh from other grounds, being found highly useful in preventing degeneracy and promoting the goodness and abundance of the

the crops, as well as in obviating their tendency to the curl, which is so greatly injurious to them.

The plants are increased by the root, either whole or cut in pieces, each cutting forming a proper set or plant. This is their general method of cultivation; but they may likewise be raised from seed to gain new varieties.

In most places the general season for planting this root is from about the middle or the latter end of February to the middle of April; the early sorts, for forward crops, being planted in the latter end of February or early in March; but for the general crops, March, and the first fortnight in April, is the most proper planting season, especially in moist land; as, if planted earlier, and much wet should succeed, it would rot the sets, more particularly if cuttings; though in cases of necessity, where the ground is not ready before, they may be planted any time in April, or even in May, and yield tolerable crops by October. And the ground for this purpose should always be dug over for the reception of the plants to one full spade deep.

But as to the planting, it may be performed by means of a dibble, by holeing in with a spade, or drilling in with a hoe, bedding in, &c., in rows or two feet asunder, eight, twelve or fifteen inches distant in each row, and not more than four or five inches deep at the most.

Dibble-planting is performed with a common large garden dibble, blunted at the bottom, making holes four or five inches deep, at the distance before mentioned, dropping one set into each hole as you go on, and striking the earth in over them, or raking it afterwards, which is a better method.

The surface of the ground should, some time afterwards, be further raked, and left perfectly even and level.

In *drill-planting* the drill may be formed either with a large hoe, two feet asunder, and four or five inches deep, in which drop the sets a foot asunder, and cover them in with the earth equally the depth of the drill; or the drills may be made with a spade, and the sets covered in by means of a rake.

Furrow-planting is performed by putting in the dung, and then dropping the sets in the furrow immediately upon it, and with the next furrow of course cover them.

Lazy-bed planting is sometimes done in low wettish land, for the sake of raising the beds, and sinking the alleys deep enough to drain off the too copious moisture, and is thus performed:—the ground is divided into four, five or six feet wide beds, with alleys two or three feet wide between bed and bed; and the beds being dug, the potatoe-sets are placed upon a little fresh dung on the surface in rows lengthwise; and then the alleys dug out a spade deep, casting the earth over the sets about three or four inches thick; or the alleys may be first dug out to raise the beds, and the sets then planted with a dibble in the common method: thus, by either of these methods, in wet ground, the alleys being sunk, and the beds raised, the alleys drain off the redundant moisture, which might rot the sets before they begin to sprout out and grow.

And this method of planting is sometimes performed on grass or sward-land, marking out beds as above with alleys between of proportionable width; then, without digging the beds, the potatoe-sets are placed immediately upon the sward at proper distances; the alleys being then dug and the spits turned grass-side downward upon the beds over the sets, covering them the proper depth as above, in which, if any additional depth is wanted, it may be supplied from the under earth of the alleys; and thus the sets being between two swards, grow, and often are productive of very good crops, if permitted to have full growth. This is a sort of lazy-bed mode of planting, that is not to be much practised in gardens.

In the after-management of the crops, where the weeds begin to over-run the ground, two or three hoeings should be given to kill them and loosen the surface of the soil; and when the plants have some growth, some hoe up a ridge of earth close to each side of every row of plants in the first

or second hoeing, to strengthen their growth more effectually, and render them more prolific, as the bottom of the stalks so landed up generally emits roots in the earth that become productive of potatoes the same as the principal roots.

Before the potatoes are begun to be dug up, whether in the early or late crops, the haulm should be cut close to the ground and cleared away, in the former only to the extent of what is to be taken up at the time, but in the latter for the whole space which is to be dug up in the day, or other length of time, or for the quantity there may be. It is to be turned off in heaps on to the dug land, that the surface of the ground to be dug for potatoes may be rendered perfectly clear and convenient for the work. This is usually done as the workman proceeds. In forking the crop up, the labour then goes on, by first opening a trench along one end of the ground to the depth and width of a good spit, proceeding in the same way with the rest, throwing the whole of the potatoes, as they are dug up, into large baskets placed for the purpose, carefully digging over all the land in a regular manner spit by spit, turning each clean upside down into the previous open trench. In this manner the whole is to be completed. Potatoes are very valuable as food for cattle.

SOL'AR, or **SO'LARY**, *adj.* [*solaire*, Fr., *solaris*, Lat.] Being of the sun.

Instead of golden fruits,
By genial show'rs and *solar* heat supply'd,
Unsuferable Winter hath defac'd
Earth's blooming charms, and made a barren waste.

Blackmore.

Belonging to the sun.—They denominate some herbs *solar*, and some lunar. *Bacon*.—Born under or in the predominate influence of the sun.

The cock was pleas'd to hear him speak so fair,
And proud beside, as *solar* people are.

Dryden.

Measured by the sun.—The rule to find the moon's age, on any day of any *solar* month, cannot shew precisely an exact account of the moon, because of the inequality of the motions of the sun and moon, and the number of days of the *solar* months. *Holder.*

SOL'AR, *s.* See **SOLLAR**.

SOLARI (Andrea), a native of Milan, called also del Gobbo. Vasari says he flourished in the time of Coreggio; and praises him as a pleasing colourist, and a graceful designer. He is one of those artists whose figures of the Virgin, &c., are constantly sold as Lionardo da Vinci's productions. He died about 1530.

SOLAROLO, a small town of Italy, in the province of Ferrara.

SOLAROSSA, a small town of the island of Sardinia, in the Capo di Cagliari, with 2000 inhabitants.

SOLARS, three small islands in the Eastern seas, under the power of the Dutch, with provisions of every kind; and the middlemost is said to have a good harbour for shipping, situated to the east of Ende island.

SOLBE, a small river of England, in the Isle of Man, which falls into the Irish sea.

SOLCI, a small town of Sardinia, with a good harbour, and the see of a bishop.

SOLD. The preterite and participle passive of *sell*.

SOLD, *s.* [*sould*, old Fr. *Trevoux*.] Military pay; warlike entertainment.

But were your will her *sold* to entertain,
And number'd be amongst knights of maidenhead,
Great guerdon, well I wot, should you remain,
And in her favour high be reckoned.

Spenser.

SOLDAN, *s.* [*solidano*, Ital., *souldan*, old Fr. from the Arab. "Sultan, sultan, souldan, and with the article *as* is the name of supreme honour amongst the Arabians, and seemeth to be as much as *imperator* was amongst

amongst the Romans." See the Arabian Trudgman in Bedwell's Mohamm. Impost. 1615. p. 103. See also SULTAN,] The emperor of the Turks.—They at the *soldan's* chair defy'd the best. *Milton*.

SOLDANEL, *s.* [*soldanella*, Latin.] A plant. *Miller*.
SOLDANELLA [a *soldo*, nummo. So named from the roundness of the leaves, like a piece of money], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of *precia*, *lysimachia* (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, straight, permanent; segments lanceolate. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped, widening gradually, straight: mouth torn into many clefts, acute. Stamina: filaments-five, awl-shaped: anthers simple, sagittate. Pistil: germ roundish. Style filiform, length of the corolla, permanent. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule oblong, round obliquely striated, one-celled, opening by a many-toothed top. Seeds numerous, acuminate, very small. Receptacle columnar, free.—*Essential Character*. Corolla bell-shaped, lacero-multifid. Capsule one-celled many-toothed at the top.

Soldanella Alpina, or *Alpine soldanella*.—Root perennial, fibrous. Leaves almost kidney-shaped, about three quarters of an inch over each way, of a dark green colour, on long foot stalks. Among these arises a naked flower-stalk or scape, about four inches long, sustaining at the top two small open bell-shaped flowers, with the brim cut into many fine segments like a fringe: the most frequent colour is blue, but it is sometimes snow white. It flowers in April, and the seeds ripen in July.—Native of the Alps of Switzerland, Austria, Bohemia, Dauphiné and Piedmont.

Propagation and Culture.—Part the roots in September. If removed in spring, the plants never flower strong; and if the season should prove dry, they will decay, unless they are constantly supplied with water. The seeds seldom grow unless they are sowed soon after they are ripe; for which reason those sent from abroad seldom succeed.

This plant thrives best in a strong cool loam, and must have a shady situation.

SOLDAU, or **DZIALDOWO**, a town of East Prussia, on a river of the same name; 100 miles south-by-west of Königsberg. Population 1700. Lat. 53. 13. N. long. 20. 11. E.

To SOLDER, *v. a.* [*souder*, Fr., *soldare*, Ital. *solidare*, Lat. See **SODER**.] To unite or fasten with any kind of metallic cement.—A concave sphere of gold, filled with water, and *soldered* up, has, upon pressing the sphere with great force, let the water squeeze through it, and stand all over its outside in multitudes of small drops like dew, without bursting or craking the body of the gold. *Newton*.—To mend; to unite any thing broken.

Thou visible god,
That *solderest* close impossibilities,
And mak'st them kiss!

Shakspeare.

SOLDER, *s.* Metallic cement. A metallic body that will melt with less heat than the body to be soldered.

Goldsmiths say, the coarsest stuff
Will serve for *solder* well enough.

Swift.

SOLDERER, *s.* One that solders or mends.

SOLDIER, *s.* [*soldat*, Fr., from *solidarius*, low Latin; of *solidus*, a piece of money, the pay of a soldier, as Dr. Johnson has observed; but our word seems to be immediately from the old Fr. *soldoier*, *soudoyer*, *sodier*. See Lacombe. *Soudyovre* is also our old word in the Prompt. Parv. and rendered "stipendiarius;" and we retain it in the vulgar pronunciation, *sojer*. We had formerly another term for *soldier* from the Ital. *soldato*, viz. *soldado*:

"Those, that are *soldadoes* in thy state,
Do beare the badge of base, effeminate,
"Ev'n on their plumie crests."

Marston.

So the German *soldat*, (as well as the French,) from *sold*, pay; *solden*, to make payment of wages; *solidare*, low Lat. the same.] A fighting man; a warrior. Originally one who served for pay.—Your sister is the better *soldier*.

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Shakspeare.—It is generally used of the common men, as distinct from the commanders.—It were meet that any one, before he came to be a captain, should have been a *soldier*.
Spenser.

SOLDIER'S GUT, a cove on the north-east coast of the island of St. Christopher.

SOLDIER'S RIVER, a river of North America, which flows into the Missouri; 689 miles above the Mississippi. It is about 40 yards wide at its mouth.

SOLDIERESS, *s.* A female warrior.

Honour'd Hippolita,
Most dreaded Amazonian;—*Soldieress*,
That equally canst poise sternness with pity.

Beaum. and Fl.

SOLDIERLIKE, or **SOLDIERLY**, *adj.* Martial; warlike; military; becoming a soldier.—Although at the first they had fought with beastly fury rather than any *soldierly* discipline, practice had now made them comparable to the best. *Sidney*.

SOLDIERSHIP, *s.* Military character; martial qualities; behaviour becoming a soldier; martial skill.

By sea you throw away
The absolute *soldiership* you have by land,
Distract your army, which doth most consist
Of war-mark'd footmen.

Shakspeare.

SOLDIERY, *s.* Body of military men; soldiers collectively.

The Memphian *soldiery*,
That swell'd the Erythrean wave, when wall'd,
The unfroze waters marvellously stood.

Philips.

Soldiership; military service.—Offering him, if he would exercise his courage in *soldiery*, he would commit some charge unto him under his lieutenant Philanax. *Sidney*.

SOLDIN, a town of the Prussian states, formerly the capital or the New Mark of Brandenburg. It stands in a low flat district, surrounded by a number of small lakes, is fortified, contains 3200 inhabitants, and has manufactures of woollens, leather, and some small articles; 70 miles east-north-east of Berlin.

SOLDINA, a river of the New Kingdom of Granada, in the province of Panches, which enters the river Magdalena.

SOLDURII, a kind of military clients, or retainers to the great men in Gaul, particularly in Aquitania, mentioned by Cæsar.

SOLE, *s.* [*solum*, Lat.] The bottom of the foot.—I will only be bold with Benedict for his company; for from the crown of his head to the *sole* of his foot he is all mirth. *Shakspeare*.—The foot.

To redeem thy woeful parent's head
From tyrant's rage and ever-dying dread,
Hast wander'd through the world now long a day,
Yet ceasest not thy weary *soles* to lead.

Spenser.

[*Solca*, Lat. *sol*, Sax. *sulja*, Goth.] The bottom of the shoe.

Nay, gentle Romeo, we must have you dance.
—Not I, believe me: you have dancing shoes,
With nimble *soles*.

Shakspeare.

The part of any thing that touches the ground.—The strike-block is a plane shorter than the jointer, having its *sole* made exactly flat and straight, and is used for the shooting of a short joint. *Moxon*.—A kind of sea-fish. [sometimes written *soal*, by way of distinction, which, as Mr. Bagshaw and Mr. Nares also observe, is improper; the fish being originally called *solca* from its shape, resembling the *sole* of a shoe or sandal.]—Of flat fish, rays, thornbacks, *soles*, and flowks. *Carew*.

SOLE, in Ship-Building, a sort of lining, to prevent wearing or tearing away the main part to which it may be attached; as to the rudder, bilgeways, &c.

SOLE is also a name sometimes given to the lower side of a gun-port, which, however, is more properly called the port-sill.

SOLE of a Horse, that plate of horn which, encompassing the fleshy sole, covers the whole bottom of the foot.

To SOLE, *v. a.* To furnish with soles: as, to sole a pair of shoes.—His feet were soled with a treble tuft of a close short tawney down. *Grew.*

SOLE, *adj.* [*sol*, old French; *solus*, Latin.] Single; only.

To me shall be the glory sole among
The infernal powers.

Milton.

[In Law.] Not married.—Some others are such as a man cannot make his wife, though he himself be sole and unmarried. *Ayliffe.*

SOLE, a small river of the Ecclesiastical states, in the duchy of Spoleto. It falls into the Tiber.

SOLEÆ, among the Romans, were a kind of sandals or slippers, which covered only the sole of the feet.

SOLEBURY, a township of the United States, in Berks county, Pennsylvania, on the Delaware, opposite Amwell, New Jersey Population 1669.

SOLEC, a town of Poland, on the Vistula; 35 miles north of Sandomir. Population 1300.

SOLECISM, *s.* [*σολοικισμος*, Gr. from *Σολοικοι*, Soloeci, coloni Attici, qui *Solis*, Ciliciae urbe, habitantes. (*σολοικισμος*) any thing incorrect or out of order; Fr. *solecism*.] Unfitness of one word to another; impropriety in language. A barbarism may be in one word, a solecism must be of more.—There is scarce a *solecism* in writing which the best author is not guilty of, if we be at liberty to read him in the words of some manuscript.—Any unfitness or impropriety.

To have one fair gentlewoman thus be made
The unkind instrument to wrong another,
And one she knows not, ay, and to persevere,
In my poor judgement is not warranted
From being a *solecism* in our sex,
If not in manners.

B. Jonson.

SOLEICIST, *s.* [*σολοικιστης*, Gr.] One who is guilty of impropriety in language.—Shall a noble writer, and an inspired noble writer, be called a *solecist*, and barbarian, for giving a new turn to a word so agreeable to the analogy and genius of the Greek tongue? *Blackwall.*

SOLEICISTICAL, *adj.* Not correct; barbarous.—He thought it made the language *solecistical* and absurd. *Blackwall.*

SOLEICISTICALLY, *adv.* In an incorrect way.—Which I had formerly for my own use set down, some of them briefly, and almost *solecistically*. *Wollaston.*

To SOLEICIZE, *v. n.* [*σολοικίζω*, Gr.] To be guilty of impropriety in language.—This being too loose a principle — to fancy the holy writers to *soleicize* in their language, when we do not like the sense. *More.*

SOLEICZNIK, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Wilna.

SOLEDA, a settlement of the island of Cuba; 56 miles south-south-east of Havannah.

SOLEDAD, the name of several inconsiderable settlements in different parts of Spanish America.

SOLEIL de Mer, a name given by the French writers, and by Rondeletius, to the star-fish.

SOLEISSEL (James de), a celebrated master of horsemanship, was born in 1617. He published a work, entitled "Le Parfait Marechal," which became very popular, and was translated into several languages.

SOLELELY, *adv.* Singly; only.

You knew my father well, and in him me,
Left solely heir to all his lands.

Shakspcare.

This night's great business
Shall to all our nights and days to come
Give solcly sovereign sway and masterdom. *Shakspcare.*

SOLEMN, *adj.* [*solemnel*, Fr.; *solemnis*, Lat.] Anniversary; observed once a year with religious ceremonies.—The worship of this image was advanced, with a *solemn* supplication observed every year. *Stillingfleet.*—Religiously grave; awful.—His holy rites and *solemn* feasts pro-

fan'd. *Milton.*—Formal; ritual; religiously regular.—The necessary business of a man's calling, with some, will not afford much time for set and *solemn* prayer. *Wh. Duty of Man.*—Striking with seriousness; sober; serious.

Then gan he loudly through the house to call,
But no one cared to answer to his cry;
There reigned a *solemn* silence over all.

Spenser.

To swage with *solemn* touches troubled thoughts. *Milton.*—Grave; affectedly serious.—When Steele reflects upon the many *solemn* strong barriers to our succession of laws and oaths, he thinks all fear vanisheth: so do I, provided the epithet *solemn* goes for nothing; because though I have heard of a *solemn* day, and a *solemn* coxcomb, yet I can conceive no idea of a *solemn* barrier. *Swift.*

SOLEMNNESS, or SOLEMNITY, *s.* [*solemnité*, French, from *solemn*.] Ceremony or rite annually performed.

Great was the cause; our old *solemnities*
From no blind zeal or fond tradition rise;
But, saved from death, our Argives yearly pay
These grateful honours to the god of day.

Pope.

Religious ceremony.—Honest men's words are Stygian oaths, and promises inviolable. These are not the men for whom the fetters of law were first forged; they needed not the *solemnness* of oaths; by keeping their faith they swear, and evacuate such confirmations. *Brown*—Awful ceremony or procession.

The Lady Constance,
Some speedy messenger bid repair
To our *solemnity*.

Shakspcare.

Manner of acting awfully serious.—With much more skilful cruelty, and horrible *solemnity*, he caused each thing to be prepared for his triumph of tyranny. *Sidney.*—Gravity; steady seriousness.—The stateliness and gravity of the Spaniards shews itself in the *solemnity* of their language. *Addison.*—Awful grandeur; grave stateliness; sober dignity.—A diligent decency was in Polycletus, above others; to whom though the highest praise be attributed by the most, yet some think he wanted *solemnness*. *Wotton.*—Affected gravity.—Pr'ythe, Virgilia, turn thy *solemnness* out o' door, and go along with us. *Shakspcare.*

SOLEMNIZA'TION, *s.* The act of solemnizing; celebration.—Soon followed the *solemnization* of the marriage between Charles and Anne dutchess of Bretagne, with whom he received the dutchy of Bretagne. *Bacon.*

To SOLEMNIZE, *v. a.* [*solemniser*, French.] To dignify by particular formalities; to celebrate.—Dorilaus in a great battle was deprived of life: his obsequies being no more *solemnized* by the tears of his partakers than the blood of his enemies. *Sidney.*—The multitude of the celestial host were heard to *solemnize* his miraculous birth. *Boyle.*—To perform religiously once a year.—What commandment the Jews had to celebrate their feast of dedication, is never spoken of in the law, yet *solemnized* even by our Saviour self. *Hooker.*

SOLEMNLY, *adv.* With annual religious ceremonies; with formal gravity and stateliness; with affected gravity.

The ministers of state, who gave us law,
In corners, with selected friends, withdraw;
There in deaf murmurs *solemnly* are wise,
Whisp'ring like winds, ere hurricanes arise.

Dryden.

With formal state.

Let him land,
And *solemnly* see him set on to London. *Shakspcare.*

With religious seriousness.—To demonstrate how much men are blinded by their own partiality, I do *solemnly* assure the reader, that he is the only person from whom I ever heard that objection. *Swift.*

SOLEN, the RAZOR-SHEATH, or SPOUT-FISH, in Natural History, a genus of the Vermes Testacea class and order, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—The animal is

an ascidia; its shield is bivalve, oblong and open at both ends; the hinge has a subulate reflected tooth; it is often double, and not inserted in the opposite valve. It had its name, *solen*, from the Greek, in which language that word expresses a pipe or tube: this fish, when the shells are closed, very aptly resembling a tube. The Latin writers have called it *unguis*, from its resemblance in colour and consistence to the human nail. The common people in many parts of France call it *coutelier*, and in Italy it is commonly called *cannolichio*. There are twenty-three species enumerated by Gmelin, which are as follow:—

1. *Solen vagina*.—The Specific Character of this is, that the shell is linear, straight, roundish, one end emarginated; the hinge is marked with a single opposite tooth in each valve. There is a variety that inhabits the European and Indian seas: it is six or seven inches broad, and only one inch long. The shell is yellowish, divided diagonally, into two triangles, one of which is striate longitudinally, the other transversely, and marked with curved bands. This species, and all the others that are found in this genus belonging to this country, are figured by Barbut, Lister, Donovan, and other naturalists.

2. *Solen siliqua*.—The shell of this species is linear, and straight; it has one hinge, which is two-toothed. There is a variety with rosy lunules. The former is found in most European seas, and on our own coasts. The latter is to be met with in the Indian seas. It is seven or eight inches broad and not more than one and a half inch long. The shell is equally broad and compressed, with a double tooth at the hinge, receiving another opposite, and on one side there is another sharp tooth directed downwards: the colour is of an olive-brown, with a limpid ash-coloured mark dividing the shells diagonally: one part is striate longitudinally, the other transversely.

3. *Solen ensis*.—Shell linear, a little bowed, like a scymitar: it has one hinge, which is two-toothed.—It inhabits European seas. The shell is coloured, and marked like that of the siliqua; it is rounded at both ends; the two teeth of one valve are inserted into a triangular hollow of the other.

4. *Solen pellucidus*.—Shell sub-arched, sub-oval, pellucid; one hinge two-toothed.—This is found on the shores of Anglesea; the shell is thin and pellucid, about an inch broad, with a double sharp tooth in one valve, receiving a single one from the opposite, with a process in each shell pointing towards the cartilage of the hinge.

5. *Solen legumen*.—Shell linear, oval, straight; hinges placed in the middle, and two-toothed; one of them bifid. It is found in the European and the Atlantic seas; is two inches and a half broad. The shell is sub-pellucid, radiate, from the hinge to the margin; it is rounded at both ends.

6. *Solen cultellus*.—The shell of this species is shaped something like a kidney, with a single tooth in one valve and two in the other.—It inhabits European and Indian seas, and is more than two inches broad. The shell is fragile, covered with a rough cuticle, under which it is dirty-white, with tawny marks; both ends are rounded.

7. *Solen radiatus*.—Shell oval, straight and smooth, with a transverse depressed rib growing on one side. This is found in India, and is very thin and brittle. The shell is of a violet colour, with four transverse white rays, growing larger towards the thinner margin; the depressed rib running nearly the length of the shell; the hinge is callous on each side; both valves are two-toothed.

8. *Solen strigilatus*.—Shell oval, obliquely striate. There is a variety which inhabits the Mediterranean, Atlantic, and Indian seas. The shell is rosy, with two white rays, strong and ventricose; the hinge is a little prominent at the margin, with a thin reflected tooth.

9. *Solen anatinus*.—The shell of this is ovate, membranaceous, and hairy, with a falcate rib at the hinge.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, on a sandy bottom. The shell is pellucid, white, thin, like paper; one end rounded and closed; the other gaping, like the beak of a bird: there is a tooth in each valve resembling an ear-picker.

10. *Solen macha*.—Shell oval, oblong, truncate before; one hinge is two-toothed.—It is found in the Pacific Ocean. It is about six or seven inches long; in colour it is brown varied with blue; it produces pearl.

11. *Solen bullatus*.—Shell roundish, inflated, sub-striate; the fore-part is gaping, in consequence of its crenatures.—This is found in the American and Indian seas; brittle, white spotted or clouded with purple, longitudinally striate, sub-pellucid; hinge with a single tooth, marginal ones remote, compressed, and inserted in a hollow of the other valve.

12. *Solen minutus*.—Shell oval, angles of the valves serrate.—It is found in the northern parts of Europe, among zoophytes; is the size of a cucumber-seed; longitudinally striate, truncate at the top, with acute serrate ridges, diverging from the hinge towards the top.

13. *Solen virens*.—The shell of this is ovate-oblong, with tumid bosses.—It inhabits Java; is very brittle, diaphanous, white, outwardly greenish, valves unequal, resembling in its shape the *Mya pictorum*; the tip and base hardly closed, with two approximate teeth in one hinge, and none in the opposite.

14. *Solen diphos*.—Shell oval, straight, smooth, with prominent membranes.—It inhabits the Indian Ocean, and resembles the *Solen radiatus*. It is two inches and a half long, and five broad; covered with a greenish cuticle, under which it is violet, with numerous rays; two of these are more distinct. The hinge has two teeth in one valve, and one in another.

15. *Solen minimus*.—Shell linear-oval, straight; the hinges are lateral and two-toothed; one of them is bifid.—It inhabits Tranquebar; resembles the *Solen legumen*, but is much less; the cuticle is yellowish, under which it is clear white; the inner rib runs down the whole shell.

16. *Solen maximus*.—Shell linear, oval, straight, with arched striæ; hinges lateral, two-toothed.—It inhabits the shores of Nicobar; it is a very rare species. The shell is thin and pellucid, white, covered with a yellowish cuticle; it is four inches broad, one and a half long, gaping at both ends; the teeth of the hinge not receiving one another.

17. *Solen coarctatus*.—The shell of this is transversely wrinkled, contracted in the middle, rounded at both ends; hinge in the middle, with sometimes one and sometimes two teeth in either valve.—This is found on the shores of Nicobar, is about three-fourths of an inch long, and two and a half broad. The shell is of a dirty white, and gaping at both ends.

18. *Solen roseus*.—Shell rosy, equivalve; the tooth of the hinge is sub-bifid, and inserted in a hollow of the opposite valve.—It inhabits the Red Sea, resembles the *Telina radiata*, but is open at both ends.

19. *Solen sanguinolentus*.—Shell oval, quite smooth; the hinge is callous, and two-toothed.—It inhabits Jamaica; the beaks are rosy without and within.

20. *Solen striatus*.—Shell equivalve, transversely striate; hinge with a single tooth.—It is also found near the shores of Nicobar, and is middle-sized. The shell is thin, rosy, with white rays.

21. *Solen occidens*.—The shell of this species is transversely striate, smooth at the protuberant parts, radiate with white and reddish; both the hinges are two-toothed, with a hollow in the middle.—Its residence is not known. The shell is marked with white and reddish spots scattered about; is more than four inches broad, and two long; both ends are gaping; the hinge is lateral.

22. *Solen crispus*.—The shell, in this species, is partly smooth, partly rough with undulate crimped lines; the hinge has a long narrow tooth.—It is found in the river Tees, and resembles the *Solen anatinus*, though it is thought by some naturalists not to be a distinct species.

23. *Solen spengleri*.—Protuberances or beaks of the shell two-parted; primary tooth of the hinge rounded, accessory ones long and narrow; one of them is curved. The shell is hardly an inch long, but two and a half broad; it is rounded at both ends.

Rondeletius observes, that there are, among the solens of the

the same species, males and females, which are easily distinguishable from one another; and that the females are larger, have no variegations on the shells, and are much better tasted than the males. Rumphius has described a very remarkable species of solen, which always remains buried in sand, and which is not properly a bivalve, consisting only of one piece, though of the shape of the solen; he calls this *solen arenarius*. Lister has called the crooked species *solenus curvi*, and some call them the *scymitar* solens.

We have several species of the straight solens, though but few of the crooked ones.

Of the crooked solens, two are the only known species.

1. The *scymitar* solen. 2. The *solen arenarius*, always found in sand.

The shell of this fish is composed of two pieces, which are the two halves of a hollowed cylinder, with an elliptic base, divided in a longitudinal direction. These two pieces are fastened together near one end by a ligament, like that which joins the shells of the muscle or the oyster. From the place where this ligament is fixed, quite to the other end of the shell, there is a membrane fastened to each edge of the shell, from the place of its origin; so that, viewed externally, it forms a sort of isosceles triangle, the base of which was about two lines in breadth. The colour and consistence of this membrane give it very much the appearance of a piece of parchment; it has a considerable spring in it, and serves on occasion to open, or draw together, the two-sides of the shell.

There is another membrane, of the same kind with this, fastened to the other side of the fish, there adhering to each shell, but this is of an equal breadth all the way down: this serves also to shut or open the edges of the shell. When the solen shuts its shell, it folds itself into several longitudinal wrinkles, which open again when the sides of the shells separate.

Hence it is to be observed, that though this shell has a power of opening and shutting, yet the body of the fish is always secured, and is no more exposed to sight at one time than at another, and there is no part where the fish can be seen but at the ends.

This fish lives in the sand on the sea-shore, where it buries itself often a foot and a half, or two feet deep; the length of the shell is, at this time, nearly in a vertical position, and the fish has a power of raising itself at pleasure up to the surface, and sinking down again, while the shell remains all the time buried in its place. Almost all other animals have a horizontal motion, and the shell-fish of the sea crawl along upon its bottom under water, as the common land animals do on dry ground; but this creature's progressive motion is only vertical, and that confined to a very small compass; all that it is able to do for itself being only to raise itself higher or lower, and sink deeper or rise higher in the sand, within the narrow compass of about two feet at the utmost, as the going beyond that must occasion its destruction. Where these shell-fish are buried in the sand, there is a hole reaching from every one of them to the surface, by means of which they have a free communication with the water: these holes generally are placed in great numbers near one another, and are easily distinguished at a time when the tide has left the shore uncovered. They are not round, but oblong, and somewhat resemble the key-hole of a lock, but that they have a roundness at each end, whereas that usually is rounded only at one.

When it has occasion to ascend out of its hole, nothing more is required than the putting out the end of the leg, swelling it, and thus thrusting itself up to the length of that leg; then retracting it into the shell again, and thrusting out and inflating its end for second movement of the same kind. These motions may be all perceived in the creature when out of the sand, particularly that by which it buries itself; for if held up in the fingers, it thrusts out the leg, and performs all the motions as if in the sand, making a fruitless attempt to save itself in its old way. *Mém. Acad. Par.* 1712.

Klein, and some others, have given the name Solen to the several species of *tubuli marini*.

SOLENA, in Botany, so called by Willdenow, from *σωληνη*, a *tube*, or *pipe*, in allusion to the long tube of the flower. For the same reason, Schreber had named this same genus *Cyrtanthus*, but the latter appellation is now bestowed on a very different one. See *CYRTANTHUS*.

SOLENESS, or SOLSHIP, *s.* State of being not connected or implicated with others; single state.—France has an advantage, over and above its abilities in the cabinet and the skill of its negotiators; which is (if I may use the expression) its *soleness*, contiguity of riches and power within itself, and the nature of its government. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

SELERO, a town of the Sardinian states, in the province of Alessandria, with 2900 inhabitants.

SOLESMES, a town of France, department of the North, with 3200 inhabitants; 9 miles east-north-east of Cambrai.

SOLEURE, a canton in the north-west of Switzerland, lying chiefly between the river Aar and the Jura mountains. Its shape is very irregular; its extent about 275 square miles; its population nearly 50,000. The Jura mountains, occupying a part of this canton, rise to the height of 3000 or 4000 feet above the level of the sea, but of not more than 2000 above the adjacent plains. The rest of the canton is level and fertile. The ground is thus partly arable, partly adapted to pastures. The inhabitants understand the art of irrigating and of laying out their fields in meadows: their cattle are reckoned the best in Switzerland. Their manufactures though on a small scale, embrace the spinning and weaving of woollen, linen, and cotton; but the only places deserving the name of towns are Soleure and Olten. In religion this canton is Catholic, the Protestants being comparatively few. The constitution is aristocratic; the criminal code is nearly the same as in France, but great part of the judicial decisions are regulated by unwritten laws founded on local usages.

SOLEURE, or SOLOTHURN, a town in the north of Switzerland, and the capital of the above canton. It stands at the foot of Mount Jura, on the Aar, which divides it into two parts. It is fortified with walls and bastions, and though irregular, and generally built in a bad taste, has several good edifices, such as the *hotel de ville*, the mint, the public library, the Jesuits' church, and that of St. Urse, a modern building, considered one of the best churches in Switzerland. Several Roman antiquities have been found at Soleure. There are here three churches and five convents, the Catholic being the established religion. The population being only 4200, the trade of the place is very limited: it consists partly in the manufacture of cotton and stuffs, partly in the transit business between Bale and Italy. The environs are pleasant and picturesque; 18 miles north-by-east of Bern, and 26 south of Bale.

SOLEUS, in Anatomy, a muscle of the calf of the leg. See *ANATOMY*.

SOLEUTINAN, a small island in the lake of Nicaragua, near the south coast, with a town. Lat. 11. 25. N. long. 85. 36. W.

SOL-FA-ING, in Music, the naming and pronouncing of the several notes of a song, by the syllables *sol, fa, la*, &c., in learning to sing it.

SOLFARINO, a town of Austrian Italy; 17 miles north-west of Mantua. Population 1500.

SOLFATARA, or LAGO DI BAGNI, a lake of Italy, in the Campagne di Roma, near Tivoli, formerly called Lacus Albulus. It is small, but remarkable for containing several floating islets, formed of matted sedge and herbage, with a soil of dust and sand blown from the adjacent country, and cemented by the bitumen and sulphur with which the water of the lake is impregnated. Some of these islets are 15 yards long, and will bear five or six people, who, by means of a pole, may move to different parts of the lake. From the lake issues a whitish stream, which emits a sulphureous vapour, until reaching the small river Teverone. The water of this rivulet has a petrifying quality, which increases in strength the farther it has flowed from the lake. Fish are found in the Teverone, till it receives the waters of this lake; after

after which, during the rest of its course to the Tiber, there are none.

SOLFATARA, a mountain of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, surrounded with other mountains extending in the form of a crescent. It has a kind of cavity, about a mile in diameter, the crater, doubtless, of a volcano now extinct. The soil is warm and white, and if opened to some depth, is insupportable from the heat and exhalations. The ground being in many parts hollow, it is supposed that there may be a subterraneous communication with Mount Vesuvius. It furnishes the materials for manufactures of sulphur, vitriol, and alum.

SOLFEGGIAMENTO, in the Italian Music, compositions, of which the syllables, *ut*, or *do*, *re*, *mi*, *fa*, &c., are the subject.

SOLFEGGIARE, [Ital., *Solfer*, Fr.] is what the vulgar in England call *sol-fa-ing*. All these expressions imply the same thing,—naming the intervals in the first lessons of singing; for which, among regular bred musicians, the proper term in English is *solmisation*.

SOLGALIZKAJA, a town of European Russia, in the government of Kostroma, with 2300 inhabitants, and large salt-works; 103 miles north-north-west of Macariev.

SOLLANOI, a fortress of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Kolivan, on the Irtysh. Lat. 54. 20. E. long. 75. 14. E.

SOLLANOI, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 20 miles north-north-west of Selenginsk.

SOLLANSKOI STANITZ, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, on the Lena; 16 miles north-east of Olexminsk.

To **SOLICIT**, *v. a.* [*solicito*, Lat.; *soliciter*, Fr.] To importune; to intreat.

If you bethink yourself of any crime,
Unreconcil'd as yet to heaven and grace,
Solicit for it straight.

Shakspeare.

To call to action; to summon; to awake; to excite.

Solicit Henry with her wondrous praise!
Bethink thee on her virtues that surmount
Her natural graces, that extinguish art.

Shakspeare.

To implore; to ask.—With that she wept again, till he again *soliciting* the conclusion of her story, "Then must you," said she, "know the story of Amphialus?" *Sidney*.—To attempt; to try to obtain.

I do not long

To go a-foot yet, and *solicit* causes.

Beaum. and Fl.

I have been detained all this morning *soliciting* some business between the Treasury and our office.

Sir R. Steele.

I view my crime, but kindle at the view,
Repent old pleasures, and *solicit* new.

Pope.

To disturb; to disquiet.

A Latinism.

I find your love, and would reward it too;
But anxious fears *solicit* my weak breast.

Dryden.

SOLICITATION, *s.* [*solicitation*, Fr. *Cotgrave.*] Importunity; act of importuning.

I can produce a man
Of female seed, far abler to resist
All his *solicitations*, and at length,
All his vast force, and drive him back to hell.

Milton.

Invitation; excitement.—Children are surrounded with new things, which, by a constant *solicitation* of their senses, draw the mind constantly to them.

Locke.

SOLICITOR, *s.* [*soliciteur*, Fr. *Cotgrave.*] One who importunes or entreats.—He became, of a *solicitor* to corrupt her, a most devout exhorter, and a most earnest persuader, that she should all her life-daies persiste in her most godlye profession of perpetuall virginitie.

Martin.—One who petitions for another.

Be merry, Cassio;
For thy *solicitor* shall rather die,
Than give thy cause away.

Shakspeare.

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One who does in Chancery the business which is done by attorneys in other courts.—For the king's attorney and *solicitor* general, their continual use for the king's service requires men every way fit.

SOLICITOR, or **SOLLICITOR**, *Solicitor*, a person employed to follow, and take care of, other persons' suits. This term was formerly allowed only to nobility, whose menial servants they were; but now regularly admitted to practice in the Court of Chancery.

The king has a Solicitor-general, who holds his office by patent, during the king's pleasure. The Attorney-general and he had anciently a right to their writs of summons, to sit in the lords' house on special occasions, till the 13 Car. II., since which time, they have almost constantly been chosen members of the House of Commons.

The Solicitor-general has the care and concern of managing the king's affairs, and hath fees for pleading, besides other fees arising by patents, &c. He hath his attendance on the privy-council; and the Attorney-general and he were anciently reckoned among the officers of the Exchequer: they have audience, and come within the bar in all other courts.

To the queen's household there belongs also an officer with this appellation.

SOLICITOUS, *adj.* [*solicitus*, Lat.] Anxious; careful; concerned. It has commonly *about* before that which causes anxiety; sometimes *for* or *of*. *For* is proper before something to be obtained.—Our hearts are pure, when we are not *solicitous* of the opinion and censures of men, but only that we do our duty. *Bp. Taylor.*—Enjoy the present, whatsoever it be, and be not *solicitous* for the future. *Bp. Taylor.*—No man is *solicitous* about the event of that which he has in his power to dispose of. *South.*

The tender dame, *solicitous* to know

Whether her child should reach old age or no,

Consults the sage Tiresias.

Addison.

SOLICITOUSLY, *adv.* Anxiously; carefully.—The medical art being conversant about the health and life of man, doctrinal errors in it are to be *solicitously* avoided.

Boyle.

SOLICITUDE, *s.* [*solicitude*, Fr.; *Cotgrave*; *solicitudo*, Lat.] Anxiety; carefulness.—If they would but provide for eternity with the same *solicitude*, and real care, as they do for this life, they could not fail of heaven. *Tillotson.*

SOLICITRESS, *s.* A woman who petitions for another.—I had the most earnest *solicitress*, as well as the fairest; and nothing could be refused to my lady Hyde.

Dryden.

SOLID, *adj.* [*solidus*, Lat.; *solide*, Fr.] Not liquid; not fluid.

Land that ever burn'd

With *solid*, as the lake with liquid fire.

Milton.

Not hollow; full of matter; compact; dense.

Thin airy things extend themselves in place,
Things *solid* take up little space.

Cowley.

I hear his thundering voice resound,

And trampling feet that shake the *solid* ground.

Dryden.

Having all the geometrical dimensions.—In a *solid* foot are 1728 *solid* inches, weighing 76 pounds of rain water. *Arbutnot.*—Strong; firm.—The duke's new palace is a noble pile built after this manner, which makes it look very *solid* and majestic. *Addison.*—Sound; not weakly.—If persons devote themselves to science, they should be well assured of a *solid* and strong constitution of body, to bear the fatigue. *Watts.*—Real; not empty; true; not fallacious.

The earth may of *solid* good contain

More plenty than the sun.

Milton.

Not light; not superficial; grave; profound.—These, wanting wit, affect gravity, and go by the name of *solid* men; and a *solid* man is, in plain English, a *solid* solemn fool. *Dryden.*

SOLID, *s.* The solid parts of the body.—The first and

most simple *solids* of our body are perhaps merely terrestrial, and incapable of change or disease. *Arbutnot.*

SOLIDAGO [from *solidare*, or *solidando vulnera*, from its supposed efficacy in healing wounds], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygama superflua, natural order of compositæ discoideæ, corymbifera (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common oblong, imbricate; scales oblong, narrow, acuminate, straight, converging. Corolla: compound radiate. Corollets hermaphrodite tubular, very many, in the disk: female ligulate, fewer than ten (commonly five) in the ray. Proper of the hermaphrodite funnel-form, with a five-cleft, patulous border: female ligulate, lanceolate, three-toothed. Stamina in the hermaphrodites: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anthers cylindrical, tubular. Pistil, in the hermaphrodites: germ oblong. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma bifid, spreading. In the females: germ oblong. Style filiform, length of the hermaphrodite. Stigmas two, revolute. Pericarp none. Calyx scarcely changed. Seeds in the hermaphrodites solitary, obovate-oblong. Seed-down capillary; in the females very like the others. Receptacle flattish, naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx: scale imbricate, closed. Corollets of the ray about five. Seed-down simple. Receptacle naked.

I.—With racemes directed one way.

1. *Solidago Canadensis*, or Canadian golden-rod.—Stem villose, erect; leaves lanceolate, serrate, triple-nerved, rugged; racemes paniced, recurved; ligules abbreviated.—The golden-rods are natives of North America, except two species which are found in Europe, and two others which were discovered by Houstoun in New Spain.

2. *Solidago procera*, or great golden-rod.—Stem villose, upright; leaves lanceolate, serrate, triple-nerved, rugged, villose underneath; racemes spike-shaped, erect, before they open nodding; ligules abbreviated.

3. *Solidago serotina*, or upright smooth golden-rod.—Stem upright, round, even; leaves linear-lanceolate, smooth, rough at the edge, serrate, triple-nerved; racemes paniced, directed one way.

4. *Solidago gigantea*, or gigantic golden-rod.—Stem upright, smooth; leaves lanceolate, smooth, serrate, rugged at the edge; racemes paniced; peduncles rough-haired; ligules abbreviated.

5. *Solidago altissima*, or tall golden rod.—Stem upright, rough-haired; leaves lanceolate, very rugged, wrinkled, serrate, nerveless, panicles directed one way.—There are besides in this section *Solidago reflexor*, *lateriflora*, *aspera*, *memoralis*, *arguta*, *juncea*, *elliptica*, *sempervirens*, and *odora*. Mr. Miller has made five species out of this. *Solidago altissima*, *pilosa*, *recurvata*, *Virginiana*, *rugosa*.

II.—With upright racemes.

6. *Solidago lanceolata*, or gross leaved golden-rod.—Stem smooth, very much branched; leaves linear-lanceolate, quite entire, three-nerved, smooth; corymbs terminating; ligules the height of the disk.

7. *Solidago lævigata*, or fleshy-leaved golden-rod.—Stem upright, even; leaves lanceolate, fleshy, quite entire, even all over; racemes paniced, upright; peduncles scaly, villose; ligules elongated.

8. *Solidago Mexicana*, or Mexican golden-rod.—Stem oblique, smooth; leaves lanceolate, somewhat fleshy, quite entire, even all over; racemes paniced, upright; peduncles scaly, smooth; ligules elongated.

9. *Solidago viminea*, or twiggly golden-rod.—Stem upright, subpubescent; leaves linear-lanceolate, membranaceous, attenuated at the base, smooth, except at the edge, which is rugged, the lowest subserrate; racemes upright; ligules elongated.

10. *Solidago virgaurea*, or common golden-rod.—Root perennial, of long simple fibres.—Native of Europe, Siberia and Japan, in woods, coppices, hedges and heaths. It has many varieties.—The others of this section are, *Solidago stricta*, *petiolaris*, *bicolor*, *rigida*, *cæsia*, *flexicaulis*, *ambigua*, *multiradiata*, *minuta*, *urticifolia*, and *fruticosa*.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are all hardy (except the two sorts last mentioned), and therefore will thrive in the open air in England. Many of them having spacious panicles of flowers, are great ornaments to the English gardens at the end of the summer, when there is a scarcity of other flowers, which renders them more valuable. When they are once obtained, they may be propagated in plenty by parting their roots; the best time for doing it is in autumn, as soon as their flowers are past.

To SO'LIDATE, *v. a.* [*solido*, Lat.] To make firm or solid.

This shining piece of ice,
Which melts so soon away
With the sun's ray,
Thy verse does *solidate* and crystallize.

Cowley.

SOLIDITY, *s.* [*solidité*, Fr.; *soliditas*, Lat.] Fullness of matter; not hollowness. Firmness; hardness; compactness; density; not fluidity.—That which hinders the approach of two bodies, when they are moving one towards another, I call *solidity*. *Locke.*—Truth; not fallaciousness; intellectual strength; certainty.—The most known rules are placed in so beautiful a light, that they have all the graces of novelty; and make the reader, who was before acquainted with them, still more convinced of their truth and *solidity*. *Addison.*

SOLIDLY, *adv.* Firmly; densely; compactly. Truly; on good grounds.—A complete brave man ought to know *solidly* the main end he is in the world for. *Digby.*

SOLIDNESS, *s.* Solidity; firmness; density.—It is built with that unusual *solidness*, that it seems he intended to make a sacrifice to perpetuity, and to contest with the iron teeth of time. *Howell.*

SOLIDUNGULOUS, *adj.* [*solidus* and *ungula*, Lat.] Whole-hoofed.—It is set down by Aristotle and Pliny, that an horse and all *solidungulous* or whole-hoofed animals have no gall, which we find repugnant unto reason. *Brown.*

SOLIDUS, in Ancient Coinage. According to Pliny's account, gold was coined at Rome sixty-two years after silver, i. e. 547 U. C. or B. C. 204; and then the scruple passed, as he informs us, for 20 sesterces. It was afterwards thought proper to coin 40 pieces out of the pound of gold; and, as he says, our princes have, by degrees, diminished their weight to 45 in the pound. The pieces that now remain confirm Pliny's account. In the first coinage, the auri were 48 in the pound; afterwards, as Pliny says, there were 40 in the pound, and the aureus was raised from 106 grains, the weight of the didrachm of this coinage, to 126 grains. From Pliny and the coins it appears, that in the first coinage, the scruple of gold passed for 20 sesterces; the drachm of three scruples was 60 sestertii, or 15 silver denarii; and the didrachm, or aureus, the common Roman gold coin, was worth 30 silver denarii, equal to 1*l.* sterling; gold being to silver as 17½ to 1. The aureus seems to have continued at 30 silver denarii till Sylla's time; but about the year of Rome 675, B. C. 77, the aureus fell to the rate of 40 in the pound, as Pliny informs us, and being reduced near the scale of the Greek χρυσος, passed for 20 denarii, as the latter for 20 drachmas, being in currency 13*s.* 4*d.* English. This is the more probable, because we know from Suetonius, that the great Cæsar brought so much gold from Gaul, that it sold at 3000 nummi a pound, that is, nine times its weight in silver; but the Gallic gold was of a very base sort. However, in the reign of Claudius, the aureus passed for 100 sestertii, or 25 silver denarii; at which rate it remained. This was 16*s.* 8*d.* in English currency; but valuing gold at 4*l.* an ounce, the intrinsic value of the aureus is about 1*l.* The aureus fell by degrees, as Pliny says, to 45 in the pound. From the coins it is clear, that it was in the time of the civil wars of Otho and Vitellius, that the aureus fell from 40 in the pound, or about 125 troy grains at a medium, to 45 in the pound, or about 110 grains of medial weight each. It continued of this standard till the time of Heliogabalus, when it fell to about 92 grains at an average, or near 55 in the pound. That the aureus passed for
25 silver

25 silver denarii down to Alexander Severus, is clear; and supposing that standard to remain, as we have no authority for a change till the time of Constantine I., the double aureus will have borne 50 silver denarii, and the aureus 25. The "triens" must have had eight silver denarii, and two denarii aurei; and the double triens, 16 silver denarii or argentei, and four denarii aurei. The denarius was not then worth above 14*s.* English. The only change Aurelian made in the money, was probably restricted to the gold; for it is certain that under him, and his successor Probus, the common gold piece, or aureus, is of 100 grains, a size confined to these two emperors. There are also halves of about 50 grains; and double aurei, commonly of very fine workmanship, of upward of 200 grains. Down to Constantine I., the aureus stands at between 80 and 70 grains. This prince, who seems not to have altered the size of the coin, instead of the "aureus," gave the "solidus" of six in the ounce of gold, and caused it to pass for 14 of his new silver coins, called "Milliarenses," and 25 denarii, as before; gold being to silver as about 14 to 1. The solidus, or chief gold coin, continued of the same standard to the very close of the Byzantine empire; for gold was common in Constantinople, while silver became more and more scarce. The solidus was worth 12*s.* sterling. In the days of the first emperors the aureus was worth 25 denarii, and gold to silver about 13½ to 1. The medial aureus was 110 grains, the denarius 60. That standard remained the same till the time of Alexander Severus, after which we have no data; but it is probable that Constantine took the value as he found it, and that from Alexander Severus to Constantine, if we except the short interval of the end of Aurelian's reign, and beginning of that of Probus, gold was rising in value till it exceeded 14 to 1. The gold coins, called "Bezants" in Europe, because they were sent from Byzantium, or Constantinople, were solidi of the old scale, six to the ounce. In Byzantine writers, the solidus is also called "Nomisma," or the coin; "Crysinos," because of gold; "Hyperperos," from its being refined with fire, or from its being of bright gold flaming like fire. The solidi also, like the aurei formerly, received names from the princes whose portraits they bore; as "Michelati," "Manuelati." Solidus is a term used for the aureus by Apuleius (*Met. lib. 10.*) who lived in the time of Antoninus the philosopher; nay, so early as in the Prætorian edicts of the time of Trajan; being thus distinguished from the semissis or half. In the time of Valerian, when aurei of different sizes had been introduced, it became necessary to distinguish the particular aurei that were meant.

In the first gold coinage at Rome, the aureus was divided into four inferior parts: the semissis, or half, of 60 sestertii; the tremissis, or third, of 40; the fourth, the name of which is not known, of 30; and the sixth, or scrupulum, of 20. But soon afterwards all these were dropped, except the semissis or half, which occurs in the times of the consuls, and of some emperors, but is extremely scarce, so that few must have been struck. This gold semissis, or half aureus, is termed "quinarius" by medallists with great propriety, and is very uncommon in all the consular and imperial times; but continued the only division of the aureus till the time of Alexander Severus. This prince, as Lampridius informs us, coined semisses and tremisses of gold; but none have yet been found. It is likely they were all recoined by his immediate successors, who again raised the tributes. He also proposed to issue quartarii, but did not live to accomplish his purpose. Trientes, or tremisses, of gold are, however, mentioned in rescripts of Valerian I., and actually exist, both of him and of his son Gallienus, weighing about 30 grains. The gold tremissis was the pattern of the early French and Spanish gold coins; as the silver denarius, in its diminished state, was that of the Gothic and Saxon penny. Pinkerton's *Medals*, vol. i.

SOLIEK ELSEID, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 10 miles south of Girge.

SOLIFI'DIAN, *s.* [*solus* and *fides*, Lat.] One who supposes only faith, not works, necessary to justification.—It may be justly feared, that the title of fundamentals, being ordinarily confined to the doctrines of faith, hath occasioned that great scandal in the church of God, at which so many myriads of *solifidians* have stumbled, and fallen irreversibly, by conceiving heaven a reward of true opinions. *Hammond*.

SOLIFI'DIAN, *adj.* Professing the tenets of a solifidian.

SOLIFI'DIANISM, *s.* The tenets of solifidians.

SOLIGNAC, a town in the south of France, department of the Upper Loire, with 900 inhabitants; 5 miles south of Le Puy.

SOLIGNY, a town in the north of France, department of the Orne, on the small river Cosne. Population nearly 900.

SOLIHULL, a parish, and formerly a market town of England; 7 miles south-east of Birmingham. Population 2581.

SOLIKAMSK, an old town of European Russia, in the government of Perm, with several salt springs and copper mines in the neighbourhood. Population 3800; 130 miles north of Perm.

To SOLILOQUIZE, *v. n.* To utter a soliloquy.

SOLILOQUY, *s.* [*soliloque*, Fr., *solus* and *loquor*, Lat.]

A discourse made by one in solitude to himself.—The whole poem is a *soliloquy*: Soloman is the person that speaks: he he is at once the hero and the author; but he tells us very often what others say to him. *Prior*.

SOLIMAGUE, a small island near the west coast of Lucon. Lat. 18. 3. N. long. 120. 36. E.

SOLIMAN, a seaport on the south-eastern coast of the bay of Tunis. The inhabitants consist of the Moors who were driven out of Spain, and still preserve their manners and language unaltered. They are accounted also more honest than the natives of Africa; 20 miles east-south-east of Tunis.

SOLIMANA, a high and mountainous district of interior Africa, in, or bordering on which, are the sources both of the Gambia and Senegal. It has Jallonkadoo on the north, and Foota Jallo on the west and south, but the interior is not at all known.

SOLIMENE (Francesco, called also L'Abate Ciccio), was born at Nocera de Pagani, near Naples, in 1637. He was the son of a painter, Angelo Solimene, who at first educated him in literary pursuits, in which he was exceedingly assiduous, and made considerable progress; whilst at the same time he indulged himself in cultivating an inherent taste for design. By the advice of Cardinal Orsini, Francesco was permitted by his father to change the object of his principal pursuit, and, instead of the law, to adopt the pencil, as the ground-work of his future fame. He became the disciple of Francesco Maria, and afterwards of Giacomo del Po; but soon left Naples, to go to Rome, where the freedom and brilliancy of Pietro da Cortona's execution and design attracted his admiration, and fixed his attention. To what he acquired of Cortona, he attempted to add the sweetness of Guido Rhani; and thus framed for himself a style remarkable for its ease and suavity, more than for its grace or truth. A very beautiful production of his is at Hampton Court, the Pool of Bethesda; but his most celebrated works are the sacristy of S. Paulo Maggiore, and the Last Supper, in the refectory of the conventuali at Assisi. Solimene possessed a vivid invention, and consequently a ready pencil; so much so, that his execution is always spirited and masterly, equally adapted to almost all kinds of subjects; and his colouring unites brilliancy and force. He died at Naples in 1747, aged 90.

SOLINGEN, a town of Prussian Westphalia, in the county of Berg, on the river Wipper. It has 4100 inhabitants, who are of mixed religion, Lutherans, Calvinists, Catholics, and Jews. Coal and iron ore being both found in the vicinity, the chief employment is the manufacturing of swords, knives, and, in time of war, of bayonets and other military equipments: the swords in particular, have long been in repute.

The

The quantity of steel manufactured yearly is about 13,000 cwt.; 16 miles east-south-east of Dusseldorf, and 20 east-north-east of Cologne.

SOLINUS (Caius Julius), a Latin grammarian, but of what particular period is not known, though he is generally referred to the third century. He appears to have resided chiefly at Rome, but is known only as the author of a work, which he first entitled "Collectanea Rerum Memorabilium," afterwards "Polyhistor." This is a collection of the remarkable things in different countries, partly transcribed, without acknowledgment, from Pliny's Natural History; whence the author has been called the ape of Pliny. The work however, of Solinus, contain some things not to be found in Pliny, and it contains likewise an elucidation of some difficulties in the original; and on these accounts it has been deemed worthy of the notice of the critics. The best modern editions are said to be the octavo of Salmasius, 2 vols., 1689; and Gesner's, printed at Leipsic, in 1777.

SOLIPACA, a town of Naples, in the Terra di Lavori. Population 3200

SOLIPEDE, *s.* [*solus* and *pedes*, Lat.] An animal whose feet are not cloven.—*Solipedes*, or firm footed animals, as horses, asses, and mules, are in mighty number. *Brown.*

SOLIS (Antonio de), a celebrated Spanish historian and poet, was born at Alcala de Henares. While he was very young, and a student, he wrote a comedy, which was extremely well received. It was followed by others, as well as by poems on different subjects, by which he raised a very high reputation. He was employed in the Secretary of State's Office, and the king, Philip IV., made him his own private secretary. In 1661 the queen nominated him historiographer for the Indies; and it was in this quality, that he composed his "History of the Conquest of Mexico," a work which placed him among the most approved of the Spanish prose writers, and was greatly applauded both at home and abroad. De Solis took priests' orders when he was in the 57th year of his age, after which he renounced all connection with the theatre, and adopted a regularity of life conformable to his character as a priest. He died in the year 1686. The comedies of De Solis, which were printed collectively in 4to., Madrid, in 1661, are said by critics to be perplexed in their story, and rather romantic than comic; but they have afforded the foundation of many French plays. His poems are said to display more imagination than correct taste. His history is written with spirit and elegance, but there are occasional displays of the bombast and false taste, and frequently are to be met with great deviations from the truth. The object of De Solis is to make a perfect hero of Cortes, and on this account the history terminates with the conquest of Mexico, and does not touch upon subsequent cruelties. It has been translated into the French and English languages.

SOLIS, or **AQUÆ**, in Ancient Geography, a town of Albion, in the 14th route of Antonina's Itinerary, between Isca or Caerleon and Calleva or Silchester. Aquæ Solis was unquestionably Bath, which was much frequented by the Romans for its warm and medicinal springs.

SOLIS, a river of South America, in the province of Buenos Ayres, which runs from north to south, and empties itself into the Plata, at its entrance between the islands of Flores and Maldonado.—There is another river of the same name in the same province, with the surname of Chico, to distinguish it, which terminates to the south-west of the former.

SOLITAIRE, *s.* [*solitaire*, Fr.] A recluse; a hermit.—Often have I been going to take possession of tranquillity, when your conversation has spoiled me for a *solitaire*. *Pope.*—An ornament for the neck.

Before a *solitaire*, behind
A twisted ribbon.

Shenstone.

She sees him now in sash and *solitaire*
March in review with Milo's strut and stare.

Neville.

SOLITAIRE ISLAND, a small island in the Southern

Pacific ocean; 25 miles south of Kerguelen's Land. Lat. 49. 49. S. long. 68. 6. E.

SOLITARIAN, *s.* A hermit; a solitary.—This man gathered together all the dispersed monks and other *solitarians* of Italy, so that in a short time he had no less than twelve monasteries about him. *Sir R. Twisden.*

SOLITARILY, *adv.* In solitude; with loneliness; without company.—How should that subst *solitarily* by itself, which hath no substance, but individually the very same whereby others subsist with it? *Hooker.*

SOLITARINESS, *s.* Solitude; forbearance of company; habitual retirement.—You subject yourself to *solitariness*, the sly enemy that doth most separate a man from well doing. *Sidney.*

SOLITARY, *adv.* [*solitaire*, Fr.; *solitarius*, Lat.] Living alone; not having company.—Those rare and *solitary*, these in flocks. *Milton.*—Retired; remote from company: done or passed without company.

Him fair Lavinia

Shall breed in groves to lead a *solitary* life. *Dryden*

Gloomy; dismal.—Let that night be *solitary*, let no joyful voice come therein. *Job.*—Single.—Relations alternately relieve each other, their mutual concurrences supporting their *solitary* instability. *Brown.*

SOLITARY, *s.* One that lives alone; a hermit.—You describe so well your hermitical state of life, that none of the ancient anchorites could go beyond you, for a cave, with a spring, or any of the accommodations that befit a *solitude*. *Pope.*

SOLITARY ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific ocean, discovered by Mendana in the year 1595. This island is low, round, and planted with trees; the coast surrounded with rocks. Lat. 10. 4. S. long. 178. 20. W.

SOLITARY ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands near the coast of New Holland. Lat. 30. 8. S.

SOLITUDE, *s.* [*solitude*, Fr.; *solitudo*, Lat.] Lonely life; state of being alone.—It had been hard to have put more truth and untruth together, in few words, than in that speech; whosoever is delighted with *solitude*, is either a wild beast or a god. *Bacon.*—Loneliness; remoteness from company.—The *solitude* of his little parish is become matter of great comfort to him, because he hopes that God has placed him and his flock there, to make it their way to heaven. *Law.*—A lonely place; a desert.

In these deep *solitudes* and awful cells,

Where heav'nly-pensive contemplation dwells. *Pope.*

SOLIVAGANT, *adv.* [*solivagus*, Lat.] Wandering about alone. *Unused.*—A description of the impure drudge; that is to say, a *solivagant* or solitary vagrant. *Granger.*

SOLI-VINOKOU, a river of Chili, in the province of Copiapo, which runs south, and enters the Biobio.

SOLLAR, *s.* [*soliarum*, low Latin; *sollier*, old Fr.] An upper room; a loft; a garret. Formerly also an open gallery, at the top of the house. See Tyrwhitt, Gloss. Chauc. in V. SOLER-HALL. It is a Cornish term for a ground-room, an entry, a gallery, a stage of boards in a mine.

Some skilfully drieth their hops on a kel,

And some on a *sollar*, oft turning them wel.

Tusser.

Stone steps that led to the *solar* or chamber. *A. Wood.*

SOLLER, a town of Spain, in the island of Majorca; 14 miles north of Palma. It stands in a delightful valley, full of orange, lemon, and other fruit trees, and surrounded by hills covered with clumps of fig, olive, and carob trees. Several small brooks run down from these hills, irrigate the valley, and unite near the town. The latter contains 5700 inhabitants, has a harbour defended by two forts, and derives its chief business from the sale of its oranges, most of which are sent to Barcelona, and afterwards to England.

SOLLEROE, a small island of Sweden, in the lake of Siljan. Population 1200.

SOLLERSHOPE, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 7 miles from Ross.

SOLLIES-

SOLLIES-LE-PONT, a town of France, department of the Var, on the Latay. Population 2800; 9 miles north-east of Toulon.

SOLMISATION, *s.* [from the musical term *sol, mi.*] A kind of solfaing. See *To SOL-FA.*—Shakspeare shows by the context, that he was well acquainted with the property of these syllables [fa, sol, la mi,] in *solmisation*, which imply a series of sounds so unnatural, that ancient musicians prohibited their use. *Burney.*

SOLMS, a district in the west of Germany, in Wetteravia, formerly a principality of the empire, but deprived of that rank in 1806, and subject at present in part to Hesse-Darmstadt, in part to Prussia. The products of this district are wheat, barley, oats, and flax. In the hilly tracks are mines of iron. The chief manufacture is linen. Population 36,000.

SOLNA, **SILEIN**, or **ZILINA**, a small town of Hungary, on the Waag; 120 miles north-by-west of Buda.

SOLNITZ, a town of Bohemia; 80 miles east of Prague, Population 1100.

SOLO, *s.* [Italian.] A tune played by a single instrument; an air sung by a single voice.—There is not a labourer or handicraftman that, in the cool of the evening, does not relieve himself with *solos* and *sonatas!* *Tatler.*

SOLO, in Italian Music, used substantively, implies a composition for a single instrument, with a quiet and subdued accompaniment, to display the talents of a great performer; as a solo for a violin, German flute, or violoncello. In full pieces, *concertate*, each part is informed when it becomes principal, by the word *solo*; and when subordinate, by *tutti*, which implies the chorus, or full band.

SOLO, or **SAURA-CORTA**, an inland town of Java, the capital of a district and residence of an emperor; this is a very large and populous town, intersected with broad and shaded avenues or streets, running at right angles. The Crattan, where the emperor resides with his court, is very spacious, and comprises several palaces in its area. The other chiefs and nobility live in villas, surrounded by high walls, interspersed through the town and neighbourhood. The European town and fort are very neat; the latter, which is not above 800 yards from the Crattan, contained a British garrison, when the island of Java was in possession of this country. Close to the fort is the resident's house, which is a large and very handsome building. The emperor has not a very shewy or populous court: his troops, though numerous are mostly of a motley description: he has but one regiment of mounted carabineers in his service which make any tolerable appearance. A fine river which flows near this town, and passing through the dominions of the sultan and emperor, falls into the harbour of Gressie, affords in the rainy season a ready conveyance for the various productions of a large track of country, in exchange for commodities which are sent up in boats from the coast.

SOLOFRA, a town of Naples, in the Principato Ultra, with 6100 inhabitants. It has several manufactures on a small scale; among others, leather, parchment, and gold and silver plate.

SOLOLA, province of Guatemala, in Spanish America, in the interior of the country. It is mostly inhabited by Indians, living in missions and villages. It is bounded on the north by the provinces of Quesaltenango and Totonicapan, south by the sea, west by the province of Suchitepeque, and east by the valley of Guatemala. It is of limited extent, but fertile in excellent wheat. The capital is of the same name. It is large, and contains, according to Alcedo, 4700 Indians.

SOLOMBO, GREAT, a small island in the Eastern seas. Lat. 5. 36. S. long. 114. 45. E. It is of a moderate height.

SOLOMBO, LITTLE, a small island a little to the north-east of Great Solombo.

SOLOMIAC, a town in the south of France, in the department of the Gers, on the river Gimone, with 800 inhabitants.

SOLOMON'S FORK, a branch of the river Kanzas, which falls into the Missouri.

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SOLOMON'S ISLANDS, a group in the South Pacific ocean, situated chiefly between Lat. 5. and 12. S. long. 155. and 160. E. but neither their precise site nor number seem completely ascertained. The largest are Ysabel, Guadalcanar, San Cristoval, and an island called New Georgia by lieutenant Shorland. Probably Bougainville's islands on the west, belong to this group. The Spaniards affirm that Ysabel and Guadalcanar are very large islands: the extent of the former is uncertain; that of the latter is probably near 70 miles; Georgia is still larger; and San Cristoval is not less than 60. Great variety of vegetables grow on these islands; and the wild boar is common in the woods. Prodigious numbers of birds are also seen, as loories, cockatoes, and aquatic fowl of all kinds. Snakes are among the animals of the Solomon islands: ants of great size, and many uncommon insects. The inhabitants are apparently of different races, some being perfectly black, others copper coloured. The former have woolly hair, very soft to the touch: the nose is not so flat, nor are the lips so thick as in negroes. Those who are copper coloured have black hair; and most of them cut their hair short around the crown, powdering both it and their eye-brows with lime. The men tattoo their bodies, or paint a white line over the eye brows, from one temple to the other, and it appears that this latter ornament is used by the women also. The ears are pierced; and the hole, in which rings of different kinds are inserted, is dilated to a great size; and an ornament is likewise wore in the septum of the nose, and others about different parts of the body. Both sexes go entirely naked, except a scanty girdle around the waist. Their arms are the bow and arrow, spears and clubs; and in defence they use shields of wicker-work. From the mode in which the arrows are pointed with a fish bone, they are rendered exceedingly dangerous. Their canoes are skilfully and neatly constructed of pieces joined together, unlike those of most savage nations: the head and stern are very high, and in general ornamented with pieces of mother of pearl. One of the larger measured 56 feet long, by 3½ feet broad. It is affirmed that voyages of 10 or 12 days' duration are made in these vessels. These people are said to be in a state of constant warfare, which is not improbable, considering the vicinity of other islands; but nothing is known with certainty of their government, religion, or customs. They have conducted themselves treacherously towards European navigators, and seem to be averse to visits by them in their territories, and view them with much distrust. It appears that Alvaro de Mendina discovered these islands in 1567, at which time it is affirmed the natives were cannibals. The islands were computed at eighteen in number, and some of them of large size. Scarcely any remembrance of them was preserved, until M. de Surville's voyage in 1767, who had an unfortunate encounter with them, which terminated in his entrapping a young islander into his possession, and carrying him off. They were called by him the Land of Arsacides. They have been recognized, but not completely surveyed, by later navigators.

SOLOMON'S LOAF, *s.* A plant.

SOLOMON'S SEAL, *s.* [*polygonatum*. Lat.] A plant.

SOLOMON'S TOWN, an Indian settlement of the United States, in Ohio, near the head of the great Miami; 17 miles south of Fort M'Arthur.

SOLON, the Grecian lawgiver. See GREECE.

SOLON, a township of the United States, in Somerset county, Maine, on the Kennebeck. Population 312.—2d. Of Courtland county, New York; 132 miles west of Albany. Population 12k0.

SOLOON, a small island in the Eastern seas, 25 miles from the island of Samar. Lat. 10. 55. N. long. 125. 42. E.

SOLOR, an island in the Eastern seas, situated to the south of the island of Celebes, about 70 miles in circumference, separated from the east coast of the island of Flores, by a narrow channel called the Straits of Flores. Lat. 1. 33. S. long. 123. 17. E.

SOLOS, [Σολος, Gr.] in Antiquity, an instrument with which the exercise of the quoit was performed.

SOLOTSCHEV, a town of European Russia, in the government of Slobodsk Ukrain, on the river Uda, with two churches. Population 4800.

SLOTWINA, a small town of Austrian Poland, circle of Stanislawow, on the Bistriza.

SLOVETZKOI, an island in the White Sea, belonging to the government of Archangel, in European Russia. It has a very large monastery, to which the superstitious Russians are in the habit of making pilgrimages. Lat. 64. 55. N. long. 30. 14. E.

SOLPORT, a township of England, in Cumberland; 8 miles from Carlisle.

SOLRE LE CHATEAU, a town in French Flanders, with 1600 inhabitants. It has manufactures of lace and leather; also some traffic in linen; 7 miles south-east of Maubeuge.

SOLSOGAN BAY, a bay on the south coast of the island of Lucon. Lat. 13. 12. N. long. 123. 50. E.

SOLSONA, or **SALSONA**, a town of the east of Spain, in Catalonia. It is fortified, is a bishop's see, has 3000 inhabitants, and some hardware manufactures; but it is ill built; 51 miles north-north-west of Barcelona.

SOLSTICE, *s.* [*solstice*, Fr., *solstitium*, Lat.] The point beyond which the sun does not go; the tropical point; the point at which the day is longest in Summer, or shortest in Winter.—It is taken of itself commonly for the Summer solstice.

Let the plowmen's prayer
Be for moist *solstices*, and Winter's fair.

May.

SOLSTITIAL, *adj.* [*solsticial*, Fr., from *solstice*.] Belonging to the solstice.—Observing the dog-days ten days before and after the equinoctial and *solstitial* points, by this observation alone, are exempted a hundred days. *Brown*.—Happening at the solstice, or at Midsummer.

From the North to call
Decrepit Winter; from the south to bring
Solstitial Summer's heat.

Milton.

SOLTA, a small island in the Adriatic, on the coast of Austrian Dalmatia.

SOLTAU, a town of Germany, in Hanover, duchy of Luenbng. Population 900; 26 miles north-north-west of Zell.

SOLTCAMP, a town and fort of the Netherlands in the province of Groningen; 13 miles north-west of Groningen.

SOLTH, a small town of Hungary; 47 miles south of Pest, inhabited by Hungarians of the Calvinist faith.

SOLTHOLM, a small island of Denmark, in the Sound, between Zealand and Schonen, near Amak.

SOLVABLE, *adj.* [*solvable*, Fr. Cotgrave.] Possible to be cleared by inquiry or reason; capable of being paid. The latter is the French meaning. *Solvable* seems a more correct spelling than *solvable*, so *resolvable*.—For *solvable* and colourable we might say solvent and apparent. *Tooke*.

SOLVATH, a small harbour or cove in Pembrokeshire, Wales, near St. David's.

SOLUBLE, *adj.* [*solubilis*, Lat.] Capable of dissolution or separation of parts.—Sugar is a *sal oleosum*, being *soluble* in water and fusible in fire. *Arbuthnot*.—Producing laxity; relaxing.

SOLUBILITY, *s.* Susceptiveness of separation of parts.—This cannot account for the indissoluble coherence of some bodies, and the fragility and *solubility* of others. *Glanville*.

SOLUE, a small sea-port of Barca, in Northern Africa; 10 miles south-west of Curen.

To **SOLVE**, *v. a.* [*solvo*, Latin.] To clear; to explain; to untie an intellectual knot.

He would *solve* high dispute
With conjugal caresses.

Milton.

SOLVENCY, *s.* Ability to pay.—They see the debtor prescribing at the point of the bayonet the medium of his *solvency* to the creditor. *Burke*.

SOLVENT, *adj.* [*solvens*, Lat.] Having the power to cause dissolution.—When dissolved in water, it is not by the eye distinguishable from the *solvent* body, and appears as fluid. *Boyle*.—Able to pay debts contracted.

SOLVER, *s.* Whoever or whatever explains or clears.

SOLVIBLE, *adj.* Possible to be cleared by reason or inquiry.—Intellective memory I call an act of the intellective faculty, because it is wrought by it, though I do not inquire how or where, because it is not *solvable*. *Hale*.

SOL'UND-GOOSE, **SOLAND-GOOSE**, *s.* [Scotch.] A fowl.—A *solund-goose* is in bigness and feather very like a tame goose, but his bill longer, and somewhat pointed; his wings also much longer, being two yards over. *Grew*.

SOLUTION, *s.* [*solution*, Fr. *solutio*, Lat.] Disruption; breach; disjunction; separation.—In all bodies there is an appetite of union, and evitiation of *solution* of continuity. *Bacon*.—Matter dissolved; that which contains any thing dissolved.—Aretæus, to procure sleep, recommends a *solution* of opium in water to foment the forehead. *Arbuthnot*.—Resolution of a doubt; removal of an intellectual difficulty.

Something yet of doubt remains,
Which only thy *solution* can resolve.

Milton.

This will instruct you to give a plainer *solution* of any difficulties that may attend the theme, and refute objections. *Watts*.—Release: deliverance; discharge.—A deliverance out of any state or power is called *solution*. *Barrow*.

SOL'UTIVE, *adj.* [*solutif*, Fr. Cotgrave; from *solvo*, Lat.] Laxative; causing relaxation.—Though it would not be so abstersive, opening, and *solutive* as mead, yet it will be more lenitive in sharp diseases. *Bacon*.

SOLVYTSCHEGODSK, a town of European Russia, on the Dwina. Population 2000; 250 miles east-by north of Voloda.

SOLWAY FRITH, or **BOONESS WATH**, a navigable arm of the sea, which extends eastward from the Irish sea, forming the boundary between England and Scotland for upwards of 50 miles. The shore, particularly on the Scottish coast, is flat and sandy, with a few sunk rocks; but almost every part affords safe landing-places for small vessels. The frith is navigable for vessels of 100 tons burden within six miles of its extremity; but the sea is gradually retiring from the land, so that many places are now covered with verdure, over which, even in the memory of those alive, the tide was wont to flow. Spring tides rise 20 feet, and ordinary tides about 10 or 12. A number of rivers pour into this arm of the sea on the Scottish side, where it receives the Dee, the Urr, the Nith, the Annan, and the Kirtle; while the Sark, the Esk, and the Liddel, united, form its eastern extremity. It contains various kinds of fish, especially salmon, which are here caught in great numbers by various methods. Great quantities of herrings are taken and cured in some seasons. The navigation of the Solway frith is, however, greatly impeded of late years by the number of sand-banks, which have greatly increased on the Scottish side, so that at Boulness, 10 miles from its eastern extremity, it is fordable at low water, and not more than two miles over at high water. However, it has two channels, one for the Eden, and another for the Esk, in which vessels navigate to Sandsfield, Sarkfoot, &c.

SOLWAY MOSS, an extensive morass in Scotland, near the river Esk, at the head of the Solway frith, which, when the rivers were swollen with rain, burst out on the 13th November 1771, and covered a great extent of the neighbouring country. Near this the Scots were defeated by a small party of the English in 1542.

SOLYMANIA, called also **SHEHR ZOUR**, a town of the territory of Kurdistan, but included within the nominal limits of the pachalic of Bagdad. It is the residence of Solyman, pacha of Kerdistan, a distinguished warrior, who in 1810, at the instigation of the Porte, took arms against his master, the pacha of Bagdad, whom he defeated and put to death. He rebuilt Shehr Zour, which had fallen into decay, and gave it his own name. It is situated in a delightful country, close

to

to the foot of Mount Zagros, and contains about 6000 inhabitants; 54 miles east of Kerkook.

SOMA, a small river of the Caraccas, in the province of Cumana, which enters the Cuyuni by the north side.

SOMALPET, a town of Hindostan, province of Berar, district of Nandere, belonging to the Nizam. Lat. 19. 49. N. long. 78. E.

SOMASCA, a small town of Austrian Italy; 9 miles north-west of Bergamo.

SOMA'TICAL, or SOMA'TIC, *adj.* [*σωματικός*, Gr.] Corporeal; belonging to the body. *Scott.*

SOMATIST, *s.* [from *σωμα*, Gr. the body.] One who denies all spiritual substances. *Unused.*

SOMATOLOGY, *s.* [*σωμα* and *λογία*, Gr.] The doctrine of bodies.

SOMAULIES, or SAMAULIES, a people of Africa, inhabiting the territory that extends westwards from Cape Guardiafui, opposite to the southern coast of Arabia. By Mr. Bruce and others they have been represented as a savage race, with whom it would be dangerous to have any connection; but Lord Valentia and Mr. Salt found them a peacable and inoffensive, as well as industrious and commercial race. This last quality is proved by the extent of their inland trade, their great fairs, and extensive export trade carried on in their own vessels. They have a kind of navigation act, by which they exclude the Arab vessels from their ports, and bring the produce of their country either to Aden or Mocha, in small vessels called dows. These commodities are of considerable value, as their country is the most productive in the world in gums, myrrh, and frankincense; and the fame of Arabia for these valuable aromatics is derived entirely from its being the channel by which they are conveyed to other parts of the world. In their persons, the Somaulies are neither negroes nor Arabs. Their noses are not flat, though their hair is woolly, drawn out into points in every direction. They are finely limbed, with a very dark skin, and beautifully white teeth. The expression of their countenance is neither fierce nor unpleasing. The principal place in their country is Berbera, which is the seat of a great annual fair, and from whence their caravans penetrate deep into the interior of Africa.

SOMBAR, a village of Irak, in Persia; 114 miles south-west of Hamadan.

SOMBERNON, a town of France, in Burgundy. In the neighbourhood are mines of coal. Population 800; 16 miles west of Dijon.

SOMBORNE, KING'S, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 3 miles south-by-west of Stockbridge. Population 849.

SOMBORNE, LITTLE, a hamlet in the above county, about a mile distant from King's Somborne.

SOM'BRE, or SOMBROUS, *adj.* [*sombre*, Fr.] Dark; gloomy.

In Hagley you were seen
With bloodshed eyes and *sombre* mien.

Grainger.

A *sombrous* rankness of expression. *Warburton.*

SOMBREF, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Namur, with 1000 inhabitants; 10 miles north-west of Namur.

SOMBRERE CHANNEL, a channel between the Nicobar islands. Lat. 7. 32. to 7. 50. N. long. 94. E.

SOMBRERETE, a small town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Zacatecas, and about 80 miles north-west of Zacatecas. It is in the centre of the mining district, and was formerly one of the richest stations in the whole province.

SOMBRERO, a river of Benin, in Western Africa, which falls into the sea, about 20 miles to the westward of the river of New Calabar. Lat. 4. 40. N. long. 5. 52. E.

SOMBRERO, a rock in the sea of Mindoro. Lat. 10. 45. N. long. 121. 27. E.

SOMBRERO, a small island in the West Indies, about 3 miles long, and as many broad, entirely desert. It was on this island that the unfortunate seaman Jeffery was so inhu-

manly left by order of his captain, for the offence of having tapped a barrel of beer when the water of his Britannic majesty's brig ran short, and the crew were put on allowance. After eight days suffering from thirst and hunger, supporting life by a few limpets that he picked up on the shore, and a little rain water he found in the crevices of the rocks, he was providentially delivered from his distressing situation by the schooner Adam, of Marble Head, John Dennis, which touched at the isle, took him off, and landed him in the county of Essex. Sombrero is in lat. 18. 37. 40. N. long. 63. 28. 30. W.

SOMBRERO, a settlement of the Caraccas, in the province of Venezuela. Population 2182 Spaniards, Indians, mulattoes, &c.—There is another settlement of the same name in the same province, and on the shore of the river Guarico.

SOMBRERO, a river of South America, in the province Buenos Ayres, which runs west, and enters the Plata near the city of Corrientes.

SOME. A termination of many adjectives, which denote quality or property of any thing. It is generally joined with a substantive: as *gamesome*. [*saam*, Dutch.]

SOME, *adj.* [from *sum*, Saxon; *sums*, Gothic; *sum*, Germ. *som*, Danish; *som*, *sommig*, Dutch.] More or less, noting an indeterminate quantity.—We landed some hundred men, where we found *some* fresh water. *Raleigh.*—More or fewer, noting an indeterminate number.—First go with me *some* few of you, and see the place and how it may be made convenient for you; and then send for your sick. *Bacon.*—Certain persons. *Some* is often used absolutely for some people; part.

Some to the shores do fly,

Some to the woods, or whither fear advis'd;
But running from, all to destruction hie.

Daniel.

Some is opposed to *some*, or to *others*.—It may be that the queen's treasure, in so great occasions of disbursements, is not always so ready; but being paid as it is, now *some*, and then *some*, it is no great impoverishment to her coffers. *Spenser.*—It is added to a number, to show that the number is uncertain and conjectural.—Being encountered with a strong storm *some* eight leagues to the westward of Sicily, I held it the office of a commander to make a port. *Raleigh.*—One; any without determining which.—The pilot of *some* small nightfounder'd skiff. *Milton.*

SOMEBODY, *s.* One; not nobody; a person indiscriminate and undetermined.—Jesus said, *Somebody* hath touched me; for I perceive that virtue is gone out of me. *St. Luke.*—O that Sir John were come, he would make this a bloody day to *somebody*. *Shakspeare.*—A person of consideration.—Theudas rose up, boasting himself to be *somebody*. *Acts.*

SOMEBODY KNOWS WHAT, a name given to the extremity of the arm of Dusky bay, which Captain Cook called Nobody Knows What. This name was given by Captain Vancouver, who examined and found two inlets, or at least a large branch, divided by a ridge of land in its whole length.

SOMEDEAL, *adv.* [*sumdeal*, Saxon.] In some degree. *Obsolete.*

Silker now I see thou speak'st of spite.

All for thou lackest *some* their delight.

Spenser.

SOMEGILL, a small river of Wales, in Radnorshire, which runs into the Lug, a little below Presteign.

SOMEHOW, *adv.* One way or other; I know not how.—The vesicular cells may be for receiving the arterial and nervous juices, that by their action upon one another they may be swelled *somehow*, so as to shorten the length of every fibril. *Cheyne.*

SOMERBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 6 miles south-by-east of Melton Mowbray.

SOMERBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4½ miles south-east of Grantham.—Also a parish in the same county, 4 miles east of Glandford Bridge.

SOMERCOATS, NORTH and SOUTH, two adjoining parishes

parishes of England, in Lincolnshire; about 10 miles north-east of Louth. Population of the first 623, of the latter 290.

SOMEREN, an inland town of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, with 2500 inhabitants; 12 miles east-south-east of Eindhoven.

SOMERFORD, a village of England, in Staffordshire, situated on the Penk.

SOMERFORD, GREAT and LITTLE, two adjoining parishes of England, in Wiltshire, about 4 miles south-east of Malmesbury.

SOMERFORD BOOTH, a hamlet of England in Cheshire, near Congleton.

SOMERFORD KEYNES, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-by-north of Crickdale.

SOMERIDER, a cape on the north-west part of the island of Minorca, in the Mediterranean.

SOMERLEYTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Lowestoft.

SOMERS (John, Lord), a distinguished lawyer and statesman, born at Worcester, in 1652, was the son of a respectable attorney of that city. He received his early education at the public school of his native city; and, at a proper age, he was entered a gentleman-commoner of Trinity College, Oxford. He quitted the university without a degree, but he had attained a good taste for polite literature, and being destined by his father for the legal profession, he spent some time as a clerk to Sir Francis Winnington, an eminent lawyer, after which he removed to the Middle Temple. When called to the bar, he displayed those talents which ensured his arriving at professional distinction; at the same time, though extremely diligent in his legal studies, he did not abandon his classical pursuits, but translated the history of the life of Alcibiades, and Ovid's Epistle of Ariadne to Theseus.

He was an ardent friend of liberty, and in the latter part of the reign of Charles II., he wrote some political tracts; which, though they appeared without his name, were ascertained to be from his pen.

A piece entitled "The Security of Englishmen's Lives; or the Trust, Power and Duty of the Grand Juries of England, explained according to the Fundamentals of the English Government," was attributed to him by Mr. Walpole, and is thought to be the same with one alluded to by Bishop Burnet, written in consequence of the grand juries' return of *ignoramus* to the bill against Lord Shaftesbury. He was moreover the reputed author of "A brief History of the Succession of the Crown of England, collected out of the Records," the object of which was to prove the right of parliament to regulate the descent of the crown, with the view of supporting the intended exclusion of the Duke of York, on account of his religion. In 1681 he took part in publishing "A just and modest Vindication of the Proceedings of the two last Parliaments," originally written by Algernon Sidney, but new-modelled by him. He was counsel, in 1683, for the Sheriffs of London, and for other persons who were prosecuted for a riot in the city at the Election of Sheriffs. After the accession of James II., he continued the firm opposer of the arbitrary measures of the court, and obtained great credit as one of the counsel for the seven bishops. He most heartily concurred in the event of the revolution; and was one of the confidential advisers of the measure for bringing over the Prince of Orange. He sat as representative of his native city in the convention-parliament, and was appointed one of the managers for the House of Commons, in the conference held with the Lords concerning the word *abdicate*, and his acute and sensible observations on the subject were greatly admired. In 1689 he was knighted, and made Solicitor-General, and while he held that high post, delivered a spirited and reasonable speech in favour of the act of convention for recognizing William and Mary, the legality of which had been called in question by a member of the House of Commons. In 1692, the office of Attorney-General was conferred upon him, and in the following year that of Lord-Keeper of the great Seal.

When advanced to the bench, his behaviour was that of an able and upright Magistrate, whose love of justice was tempered with singular mildness and condescension. At the same time he was in the highest credit with the sovereign, and he made use of his influence to serve persons of merit. He was a patron to Mr. Addison, and obtained for him an allowance to enable him to make that tour in Italy, of which he has printed an account. In 1695 he was advanced to the Lord Chancellorship of England, and was raised to the peerage by the title of Lord Somers, Baron Evesham. At the same time he obtained certain grants from the crown, a circumstance which has drawn upon him some censure; though, without this addition, his advancement to the peerage would have been a punishment instead of reward, inasmuch as it would have been impossible for him to have maintained his rank in the peerage.

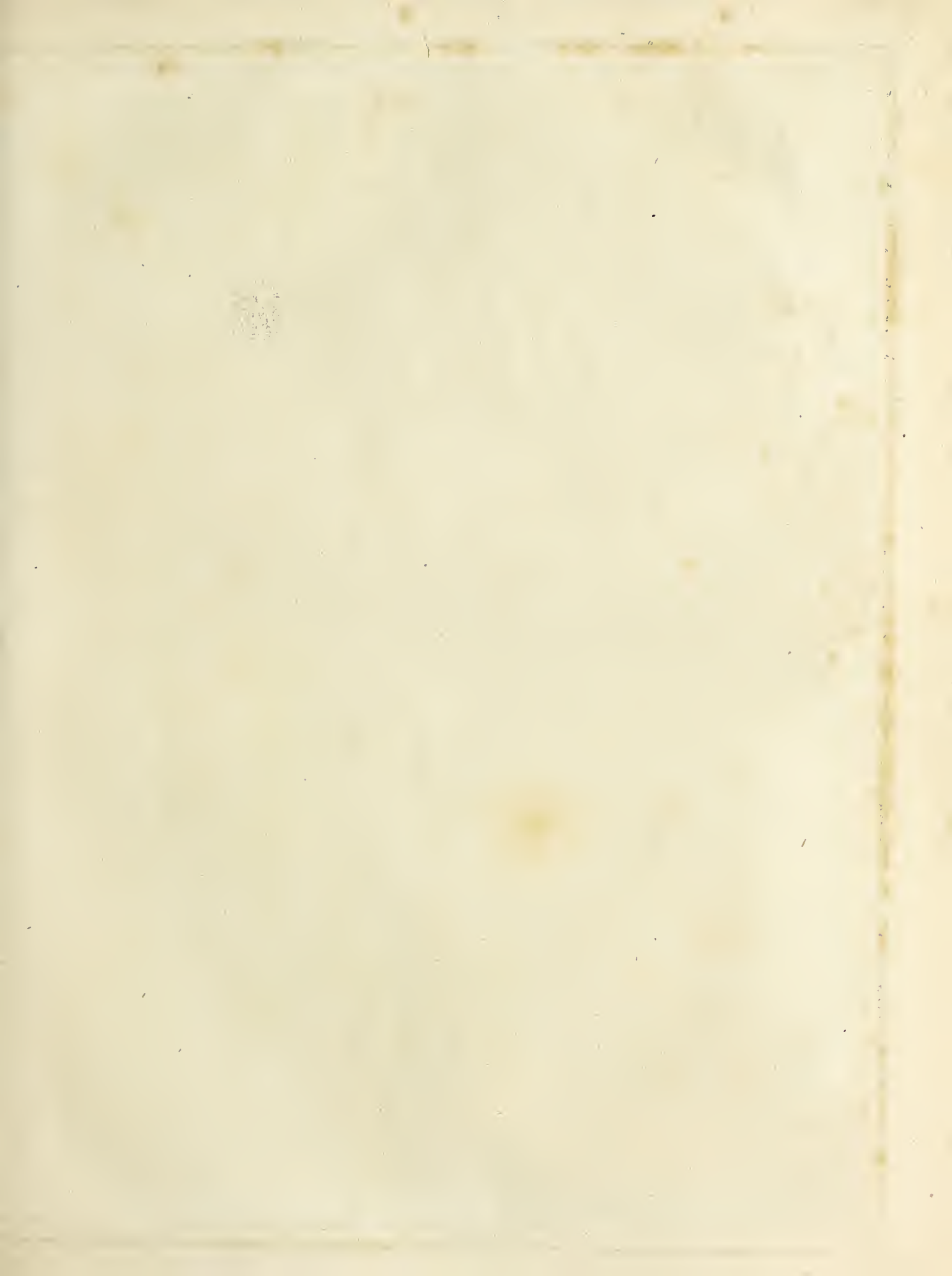
Lord Somers was now regarded as the head of the Whigs, and it was his aim to moderate the heat and jealousy of that party, and conciliate to it both the king and nation; hence it has been averred that he was too compliant in some points to the royal pleasure; which, however, did not prevent his being made a sacrifice when the Tories came into power. His acquiescence in the first partition treaty in 1699, with other ministerial measures, produced great complaints against him in parliament, and an address was moved in the House of Commons, praying the king that Lord Somers might for ever be removed from his Majesty's presence and council. This motion was, however, defeated by a large majority; but the king, soon after, to quiet the discontents, desired him voluntarily to resign his seals. This he refused; and he was accordingly dismissed from his office. In 1701 the House of Commons sent up to the Lords an impeachment of Lord Somers, which, however, was dismissed by the peers, and the prosecution was not resumed. Very shortly after this the king died, and the new reign not being favourable to the principles of Lord Somers, he spent his time in literary retirement, and during this period of leisure he was elected president of the Royal Society. He was not, however, inattentive to public concerns, and vigorously opposed the bill brought into parliament by the high church party, to prevent occasional conformity. In 1706 he drew up a plan for effecting an union between England and Scotland, which was so much approved, that Queen Anne nominated him one of the managers for carrying that measure into execution. He is also said to have had a considerable share in the bill of regency, by which the Protestant succession to the crown was extended and secured. Upon a change of ministry in 1708, Lord Somers was nominated to the post of president of the council, from which he was dismissed in 1710; and though he continued for some time to take an active part in the business of the House of Peers, it was not very long before a decline in the state of his health and faculties rendered him unfit for public business. He died in 1716, at the age of 64. The memory of Lord Somers is still held in high veneration by the friends of constitutional liberty; to the establishment of which, by means of the revolution and Protestant succession, no individual contributed more than he. His abilities were very considerable, his manners highly ingratiating, and, notwithstanding the opposition which he had occasionally to encounter, few statesmen have passed through life with a purer character. He made a large collection of scarce and curious pamphlets, of which there has been published a selection in four parts, each consisting of four volumes 4to. His collection of original papers and letters was unfortunately destroyed by a fire, which happened in the chambers of the Hon. Charles Yorke, on the 27th of Jan. 1752. *Biog. Brit.*

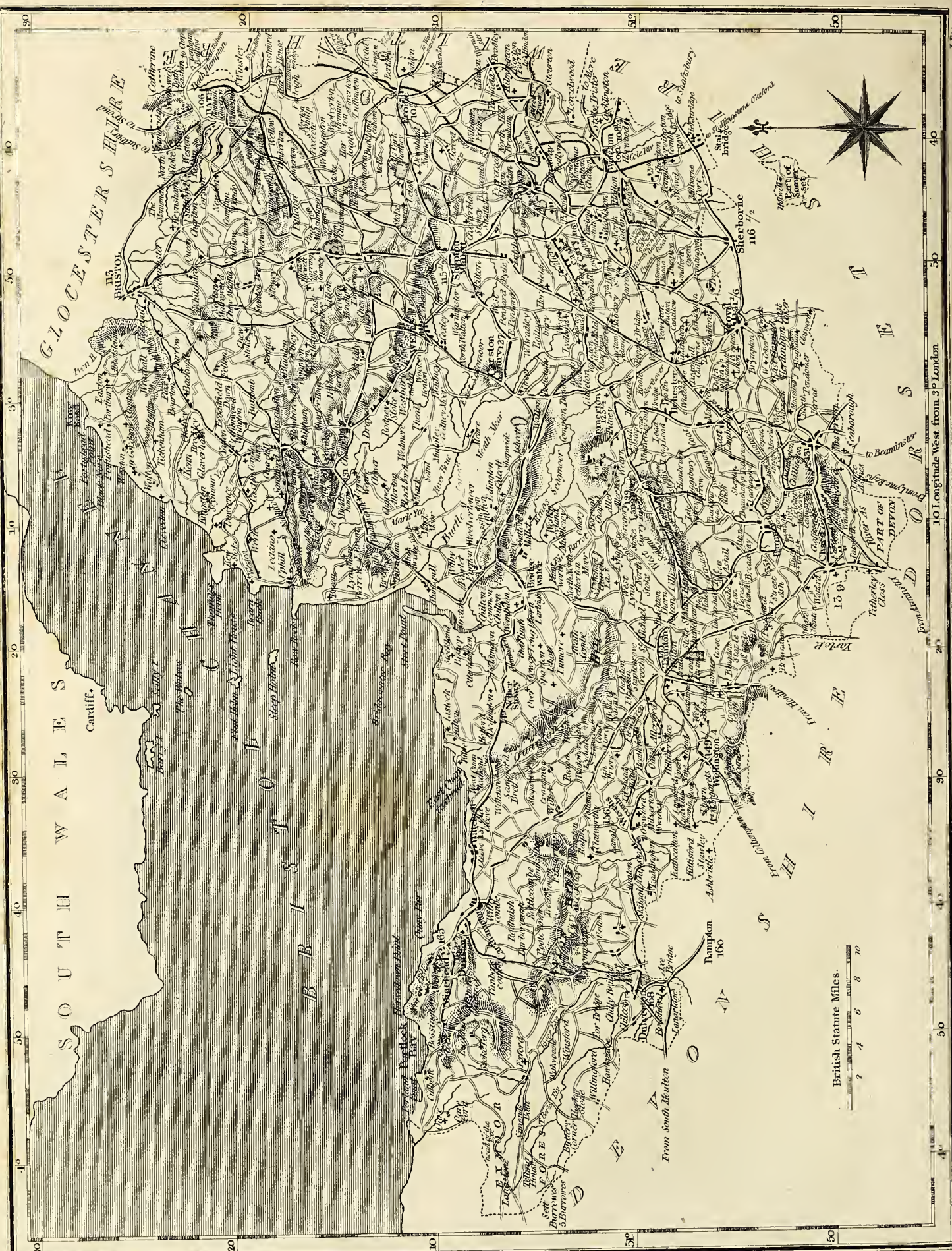
SOMERS, a township of the United States, in Tolland county, Connecticut; 24 miles east-north of Hartford. Population 1210.

SOMERS, formerly STEPHENSTOWN, a post township of the United States, in West Chester county, New York. It has a pleasant village, with some trade.

SOMERSALL, HERBERT, a parish of England in Derbyshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-by-north of Uttoxeter.

SOMERSAULT,





S O U T H W A L E S
Cartiff.

G L O C E S T E R S H I R E

10 Longitude West from 2° London

S O M E R S E T S H I R E.
Prepared for the Ordnance Survey by...

British Statute Miles.



SOMERSAULT, or SOMERSET, *s.* [*somerset* is the corruption: *soprasalto*, *sopra* and *salto*, Ital.] A leap by which a jumper throws himself from a height, and turns over his head.

He could doe
The vaulter's sombersalts.

Donne.

As when some boy, trying the *somersault*,
Stands on his head and feet, as he did lie
To kick against earth's spangled canopy.

Browne.

I will only make him break his neck in doing a *sommer-*
set. Beaum. and Fl.

SOMERSBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-west of Spilsby.

SOMERSET, a maritime county of England, bounded on the north-west by the Bristol channel; on the north by Gloucestershire and the county and city of Bristol; on the east and south-east by Wiltshire and Dorsetshire; and on the south and west by Devonshire. Its figure is irregular, somewhat resembling a crescent, with its concavity towards the Bristol channel, and its northern horn cut off by the county of Gloucester. It may also be viewed as an oblong, stretching from Bristol south-westwards to Devonshire, with a smaller additional portion or narrow neck projecting westwards along the Bristol channel, and terminating in the Exmoor forest. From Bristol to the north-western border, beyond Taunton, the length is 40 miles, and the average breadth 30 miles; from Taunton to Exmoor the length is 30 miles, and the average breadth 10 miles; and from Exmoor to Bath, the extreme length of the county is 70 miles. The sea-coast along the channel is very irregular, projecting in some places into rocky promontories, and in others forming fine bays, with flat and level shores. From Start point northwards, the coast is flat, and composed of vast sandbanks, which serve to keep off the inundations of the sea. Somersetshire lies within the parallels of 50. 49. and 51. 30. N. lat. and between the meridians of 2. 15. and 3. 50. W. long. It contains 1549 square miles, or 990,000 acres, with 200 inhabitants to each square mile. It is divided into 43 hundreds, 7 liberties, and 482 parishes; and contains two cities, Bath and Wells, and part also of Bristol; five boroughs, Bridgewater, Ilchester, Milborne Port, Minehead, and Taunton; and 27 other market towns, viz., Axbridge, Bruton, Milverton, Castle Cary, Chard, Crewkerne, Dulverton, Dunster, Frome Selwood, Glastonbury, Ilminster, Keynsham, Langport, North Cary, Pensford, South Pether-ton, Porlock, Stogumber, Shepton Mallet, Somerton, Stowey, Watchet, Wellington, Wincanton, Wiveliscomb, Wrington, and Yeovil. It sends 16 members to Parliament, two for each of the cities and boroughs.

Few districts of the kingdom present greater diversities of surface than Somersetshire. It possesses every gradation from the lofty mountain and barren moor, to the rich and highly cultivated vale, and thence descending to the unimproved and unimprovable marsh and fen. From Taunton in the south-western part of the county, to the coast, extends northwards a range of high hills, called the Quantock hills, which slope on the east very gently towards Bridgewater and the river Parret, but descend rapidly on the west, into a cultivated vale of some extent. Westwards of this vale, and only terminating in the wild district of Exmoor forest, the county is entirely mountainous and hilly. It is divided into various ranges, running from east to west, and from which numerous lateral branches are detached. Between these occur steep valleys called here Combes, which form, when richly wooded, some of the most striking features of the beautiful scenery for which this coast is celebrated. The most conspicuous of these ranges of hills are Dunkery Beacon, Brendon hill, Croydon hill, Grubbist hill, and North hill. From the town of Frome, again, on the north-east, another remarkable chain of hills, called the Mendip hills, stretch westwards to Axbridge and the coast; and between the Quantock and the Mendip hills lies a vast tract of low vale, and in many parts marsh land, extending from the coast

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nearly to the south-western borders of the county, and terminating in a range of high ground, which runs from Frome south-westwards, and with a bending line by Bruton, Yeovil, and Crewkerne, to Chard, and from Chard northwards to Taunton. Along the slope and skirts of the hills, this low land is dry and well cultivated, but from thence towards the coast it forms a vast and wide spreading district of water flooded lands, known by the name of the Marshes; in the middle of which, and separating them into two great divisions, rises boldly to view a range of high ground, called the Polden hills and Ham hill, which stretch from Langport and Somerton westwards, to the mouth of the Parret. From the Mendip hills, near the city of Wells, a track of high ground runs north-eastwards towards Bath, and on the east of this the land is again comparatively low level, except on the south of Bristol, where a range of downs extends southwards towards Wrington, and of which Broadfield Down and Dundry Down are the chief. The following heights have been measured in the trigonometrical survey:—Dunkery Beacon, in Exmoor, and the highest land in the county, or almost in the west of England, 1668 feet; Bradley Knoll, 973 feet; Lansdown hill, near Bath, 813 feet; Dundry Beacon, 700 feet; Ash Beacon, 655 feet; Dundun Beacon, 360 feet. The highest point of Quantock hills is elevated 1270 feet, and Grubbist hill 906 feet. The names of several other more detached hills are Leigh Down, near Bristol; White Down, near Chard; and black Down, on the borders of Devonshire. The rivers of Somersetshire rise chiefly in these high grounds within the county, and are none of them of any great magnitude except the Avon, which rises in Wiltshire, and divides the county from Gloucestershire. The principal others are the Parret, the Brue, and the Ax. Somersetshire, as might be expected from so favourable a climate and soil, stands high in reputation for its agricultural and rural produce. The plains are remarkable for their luxuriant herbage, which furnishes not only a sufficiency for its own consumption, but also a considerable surplus for other markets. London, Bristol, Salisbury, and other parts of the kingdom, are annually supplied with fat oxen, sheep, and hogs, together with many other articles in great abundance. Nor are the hills by any means deficient in their arable productions. But grazing and the dairy form the great objects of the husbandry of this district; grain not being raised to such an extent as to supply its own consumption, so that vast quantities are imported from the adjacent counties of Wilts and Dorset. The oxen of this county are scarcely inferior in size to those of Lincolnshire; and the grain of the flesh is thought finer. The best goose feathers for beds come from the marshes here. Much cheese is made in the lower parts of the county; and that of the Cheddar district is said to exceed any in the kingdom. According to Mr. Billingsley, the extent of the various descriptions of land in the county is—

	Acres.
Towns, roads, and rivers	20,500
Woods and plantations	20,000
Meadows and pasture land inclosed	584,500
Marsh and fen land uninclosed	30,000
Arable and convertible land inclosed	260,000
Common fields	20,000
Uncultivated wastes	65,000

Since the above account, however, was drawn up, no less than 30,000 or 40,000 acres of marsh and fen land, and of common fields, have been divided, drained and inclosed.

In the district of the county north of the Mendip hills grass land greatly preponderates over arable, and if not chilled by too much moisture, it may boast almost a perpetual verdure. On the rich marsh land here, along the Bristol channel, the grazing system entirely prevails: in the vicinity of Bristol and Bath, the scythe is in constant use; at a greater distance, nothing almost is seen but the milking pail; and to whichever of these purposes it is devoted, the land yields abundantly. Towards the coast, however, and along the

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river

river Yeo, vast tracks are exposed to the inundations of the sea, and the injurious effects of land floods and stagnant waters; an evil which might be greatly remedied by the judicious application of drains and sluices. The high lands in this district are either devoted to sheep pasture, or inclosed and cultivated. Wood is raised of excellent quality near Keynsham; much garden produce is raised for the supply of Bristol and Bath; and the whole district abounds with orchards. Besides the ordinary stock, hogs are fattened in vast numbers. Farms are not large, seldom exceeding 200*l.* a-year of rent: there are many proprietors having from 2000*l.* to 6000*l.* a-year; but most of the land is possessed by the middling class, holding from 50*l.* to 500*l.* per annum. The district is but partially wooded, and systematic plantation is little studied. On the northern side of the Mendip hills are some good coppices, which have a very romantic and picturesque appearance. In the eastern part of the district are also some large and productive woods, which form a great ornament to the county, as well as a source of profit to the proprietors, from the demands of the coal-works. The ancient forest of Selwood, on the verge of which stands the town of Frome, appears to have comprised a woody vale of 20,000 acres, most of which are now arable and pasture land. The middle district of the county between the Mendip and Quantock hills, comprises an extent of between 300,000 and 400,000 acres. The lands here on the borders of Wilts and Dorset are high, and partake of the soil and management of these counties; sheep walks and corn constituting the principal branches of husbandry. The farms are large, and the corn produced is of good quality, and finds a ready sale at Wincanton, Bruton, and other markets. Lower down the county, about Alepton, Bruton, Castle Cary, Ilchester, Somerton, Langport, Petherton, and Ilminster, the land is exceedingly fertile, both in corn and pasture, abounds with good orchards and fine luxuriant meadows, and is altogether as well cultivated and as productive as most parts of the kingdom. The vale of Ilchester, for extent and richness combined, is scarcely to be equalled in the island. In some parts flax and hemp are produced in great abundance, which, together with wool, furnish the raw materials for extensive manufactures. Westward of this track, and still descending towards the coasts, lies the great range of marsh lands, which the Polden and Ham hills, stretching westwards to the coast, separate into two great divisions, viz. Brent marsh on the north, and Bridgewater, South marsh, or Parret marshes, on the south. Polden and Ham hills are mostly disposed in common fields, and under this system scarcely admit of much improvement. Brent marsh extends from Polden hill, northwards to Mendip hills, and from Wells and Glastonbury, westwards to the coast. Vast improvements have been made in this marsh, by draining and embanking; so that many thousand acres formerly overflowed for months together, are now become fine grazing and dairy lands. The South or Parret marshes, which comprise no less than 100 square miles, or 64,000 acres, lie between the Polden hills and the foot of the Quantock hills on the one hand, and between Ham hill and Taunton, and the coast, on the other. Great improvements have been also effected here by extensive drainages, more especially in the track called King Sedge Moor, where an immense cut, 15 feet deep, 10 feet wide at the bottom, and 55 feet at the top, was carried a distance of 2½ miles. Great tracks of marsh land, however, on the rivers Tone and Yeo, remain unimproved, to the amount perhaps of 10,000 acres, independent of many thousand acres of low flooded inclosed lands. The low lands in this middle district are badly wooded, and planting much neglected. In the western division of the county, westward of the Quantock hills, the finest and most cultivated district is the vale of Taunton Dean, through which flows the river Tone. Here the climate is peculiarly mild and serene, and the soil highly fertile and productive. The eye is relieved by a judicious mixture of arable land with the pasture. Excepting the intervening valleys, which have a good soil, and are well

cultivated, the other part of this division of the county, consisting of hills and forests, are mostly in a state of nature, and used for the pasture of sheep. The great forest of Exmoor, which extends 8 miles from north to south, and 10 or 12 from east to west, contains now scarcely a tree or bush, except a small track in the centre, which has been inclosed as an estate. The minerals of Somersetshire constitute an important article of its produce. The great mining district is the Mendip hills, which afford lead, calamine, and coal, the latter of which is also found in great abundance, and in various parts to the north of these hills. The lead is said to be of a harder quality than that of other countries, and is mostly exported for making bullets and shot. The calamine is carried in great quantities to Bristol and other places, to be used in the making of brass. Copper, manganese, bole, and red ochre, are also found in these hills. The most considerable collieries are in the northern part of the district, in the parishes of High Littleton, Timsbury, Paulton, Radstock, &c. The coal field here includes 19 seams, varying in thickness from 10 inches to upwards of 3 feet, and dipping 9 inches in the yard. The workings are now in many places upwards of 80 fathoms deep, and by the aid of machinery, may be carried still deeper. The coal is of excellent quality, pure and durable in burning, firm, large, and of a strong grain. The principal market is Bath, the western parts of Wiltshire, and the adjacent parts of the county itself. The quantity raised is from 1500 to 2000 tons weekly. A canal has been formed to connect these collieries with the rivers Kennet and Avon. The southern collieries, next the Mendip hills, are on a more limited scale; from 800 to 1000 tons are raised weekly; and a canal has also been formed to the Avon. Besides these minerals, limestone, of which there are extensive quarries in the Quantock hills, paving stone, tiling stone, freestone, marl, and fuller's earth, are found in different parts of the county. The whole of the mountainous county west of the Quantock hills, is composed of a series of rocks, differing in mineralogical characters, but passing insensibly into each other, and connecting, on the whole, into one common formation of what has been termed greywacke. A great proportion of them have the structure of sandstone of different grains. They have all an internal stratified structure, which varies and becomes more sensible with the fineness of the grain, and at last assumes the appearance of clay slate. In many places great beds of limestone full of madreporas, are contained in the slate, and in these, copper in the state of sulphuret and of malachite, and veins of hematite, are frequently found, and nests of copper ore, of considerable magnitude, have been sometimes found. The manufactures of Somersetshire, which are considerable, consist chiefly in articles of clothing. At Frome and Shepton Mallet there are some manufactures of woollen cloth and knit stockings, and of narrow cloth at Ilminster, Chard, Crewkerne, &c. In the middle district of the county are many manufactures of coarse linen, such as dowlas, tick, &c.; also gloves, girtweb, &c. The woollen manufactures are also carried on at Taunton and Wellington. The trade of Somersetshire consists in the exportation of its various kinds of produce, and the importation of commodities for its domestic consumption. Several canals have been formed to facilitate its intercourse with the adjacent districts. The Dorset and Somerset canal, commencing near Nettlebridge, extends to Frome, and thence to Dorsetshire. The Ilchester canal joins Ilchester with the Parret, and the Grand Western canal opens a direct communication with the English channel, proceeding from Taunton and by Wellington, through Devonshire, to Exmouth.

Among the Britons, Somersetshire was inhabited by the Belgæ; the Romans annexed it to the province of Britannia Prima, and during the Saxon Heptarchy, it belonged to the kingdom of the West Saxons. During the civil wars of Charles I., various skirmishes were fought here between the royal and parliamentary armies, and a general engagement at Lansdown; and this was the principal theatre of the duke of

of Monmouth's rebellion, and of the cruelties subsequently committed by Jeffries and others. Population returns:—

Houses.....	54,787
Inhabitants.....	303,180
Families employed in agriculture.....	27,472
In trade and manufactures.....	23,732
Other families.....	11,739

SOMERSET, a county of the United States, in Maine, bounded east by Penobscot county, south by Kennebeck county, and west by Oxford. Population 12,910. Chief town, Norridgewock.

SOMERSET, a county of the United States, in New Jersey, bounded north by Morris county, east by Essex and Middlesex counties, south-east by Middlesex county, and west by Hunterdon county. Population 14,728. Chief towns, Boundbrook and Somerset.

SOMERSET, a county of the United States, on the south side of Pennsylvania, bounded north by Cambria county, east by Bedford county, south by Maryland and west by Fayette and Westmoreland counties. Population 11,284.

SOMERSET, a county of the United States, in Maryland, bounded north by Delaware, east by Worcester county, south by Pocomoke-bay, west by the Chesapeake, and north-west by Dorchester county. Population 17,195, including 6975 slaves. Chief town, Princess Anne.

SOMERSET, a borough and post town of the United States, and capital of Somerset county, Pennsylvania. It is remarkable as being the most eastern town of any consequence in West Pennsylvania, and, except Hamilton, in the Ohio valley. It is the seat of justice for Somerset county, and stands near the head streams of both the Youghiogheny and Conemaugh rivers, but upon those of the latter. This town stands upon the south road from Pittsburg to Bedford and contains about 100 dwelling-houses, many of them elegant, and about 500 inhabitants. The mountain valley in which this town is situated, is the abode of health, and pure, though often keen air. Population of the township, 1548; 35 miles west of Bedford, and 61 east-south-east of Pittsburg.

SOMERSET, a township of the United States, in Windham county, Vermont, Population 199.—2d. Of Bristol county, Massachusetts; 42 miles south of Boston. Population 1192.—3d. Of Somerset county, New Jersey, on the Millstone; 72 miles north-east of Philadelphia.—4th. A township of Washington county, Pennsylvania. Population 1500.

SOMERSET, a post town of the United States, and capital of Perry county, Ohio. It has an elevated situation, and contained in 1817, about 70 houses.

SOMERSET, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham.

SOMERSET, a post town of the United States, and capital of Pulaski county, Kentucky. It is situated in a fertile country, and contained in 1817 about 70 houses.

SOMERSET, a river of the United States, in Maine, which joins the Kennebeck at Alna.

SOMERSET FORGE, a post town of the United States, in Somerset county, Pennsylvania.

SOMERSHAM, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire, where there is a fine medicinal spring; 5½ miles north-east of St. Ives.

SOMERSHAM, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 6 miles north-west of Ipswich.

SOMERSWORTH, a township of the United States, in Strafford county, New Hampshire; 15 miles north-north-west of Portsmouth. Population 878.

SOMERTON, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Somerset. It is situated in the centre of the county, on a rising ground on a branch of the river Parret. It is a place of great antiquity, and is said to have originally given name to the county. The town now consists principally of five streets, containing nearly 300 houses. The church is an ancient building, consisting of a nave, chancel and side aisles. At the south end of it is an octangular em-

battled tower 63 feet high. Near the church is an excellent free school, and a well endowed alms-house for eight poor women. In the centre of the town is a hall for holding the petty sessions; and here is also one of the county jails, the other being at Ilchester. Somerton is governed by a bailiff and constables, chosen annually by the inhabitants. It is supposed to have been a Roman citadel, but there is no authentic account of it previous to the heptarchy, when it appears to have been a town of considerable extent, and strongly fortified. It was at one time a royal residence, Ina, and several other West Saxon kings, holding their courts here. In the year 877 it was plundered and laid waste by the Danes under Inguar and Ubba. John, king of France, was confined in the castle here, after his removal from that of Hertford; and other prisoners of high rank and consideration were committed to it. In the time of Leland, this castle was converted into a prison. The town was walled round by the West Saxons, and part of the walls and a round tower still remain. Population of the parish in 1811, 1478, and 338 houses. Market on Tuesday; 13 miles south-by-west of Wells, and 123 west-by-south of London. Lat. 51. 4. N. long. 2. 42.

SOMERTON, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3½ miles south-east of Deddington.

SOMERTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles north-east of Clare.

SOMERTON, WEST, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles north-north west of Caistor.

SOMERTON, EAST, a hamlet in the above county; 6 miles north-by-west of Caistor.

SOMERVILLE (William), son of Robert Somerville, was born at his father's house, at Edston, in Warwickshire. He was educated at Winchester school, from which he was elected to New College, Oxford. Here he made a good proficiency in classical literature, and cultivated a talent for poetry. His first piece, as far as is known to the public, was an ode to the duke of Marlborough, on his dismissal from his posts in 1710. He was strongly attached to the Whig party; and when Addison purchased an estate in Warwickshire, Somerville addressed a poem to him.

Mr. Somerville inherited a considerable paternal estate, on which he chiefly lived, acting as a magistrate, and pursuing with vigour the amusements of a sportsman, varied by the studies of a man of letters. He was courteous and hospitable, but too much addicted to conviviality, and careless of economy. His mode of living threw him into embarrassments, which so preyed on his mind, that for the sake of relief, he fell into habits that shortened his life.

Somerville is chiefly known, as a poet, by his piece entitled "The Chace," which is written in blank verse, and which maintains a high rank in the didactic and descriptive class. It has the advantage of being composed by one who was perfectly acquainted with the sports which are its subject, and who entered into them with all the enthusiasm which they are calculated to inspire; hence his pictures, in exactness and animation, greatly excel the draughts of the same kind, attempted by poets by profession. Its language is free and nervous, and its versification generally denotes a nice and practised ear.

SOMERVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Fauquier county, Virginia.

SOMETHING, *s.* [jumðing, Saxon.] A thing existing, though it appears not what; a thing or matter indeterminate.

When fierce Bavar

Did from afar the British chief behold,
Betwixt despair and rage, and hope and pain,
Something within his warring bosom roll'd.

Prior.

More or less; not nothing. *Something* yet of doubt remains. *Milton*.—A thing wanting a fixed denomination. *Something* between a cottage and a cell—
Yet virtue here could sleep, and peace could dwell. *Hart.*

Part.—*Something* of it arises from our infant state. *Watts*.—Distance not great.—I will acquaint you with the perfect spy o' the time: for't must be done to-night, and *something* from the palace. *Shakspeare*.

SOMETHING,

SOMETHING, *adv.* In some degree.—The pain went away upon it; but he was *something* discouraged by a new pain falling some days after upon his elbow, on the other side. *Temple.*

SOMETIME, *adv.* Once; formerly.

What art thou that usurp'st this time of night,
Together with that fair and warlike form,
In which the majesty of buried Denmark
Did *sometime* march? *Shakspeare.*

At one time or other hereafter.

SOMETIMES, *adv.* Not never; now and then; at one time or other.—It is good that we *sometimes* be contradicted, and that we always bear it well; for perfect peace cannot be had in this world. *Bp. Taylor.*—At one time: opposed to *sometimes*, or to *another time.*—He writes not always of a piece, but *sometimes* mixes trivial things with those of greater moment: *sometimes* also, though not often, he runs riot, and knows not when he has said enough. *Dryden.*

SOMEWHAT, *s.* Something; not nothing, though it be uncertain what.

Upon the sea *somewhat* methought did rise,
Like blueish mists. *Dryden.*

More or less.—These salts have *somewhat* of a nitrous taste, but mixt with a smatch of vitriolic. *Grew.*—Part greater or less.—*Somewhat* of his good sense will suffer in this transfusion, and much of the beauty of his thoughts will be lost. *Dryden.*

SOMEWHAT, *adv.* In some degree.—Holding of the breath doth help *somewhat* to cease the hiccough. *Bacon.*

SOMEWHERE, *adv.* In one place or other; not nowhere.—Compressing two prisms hard together, that their sides, which by chance were a very little convex, might *somewhere* touch one another, I found the place in which they touched to become absolutely transparent, as if they had there been one continued piece of glass. *Newton.*

SOMEWHILE, *s.* [Sax. *rom-hpyle.*] Once; for a time. *Out of use.*

Though under colour of the shepherds *somewhile*,
There crept in wolves full of fraud and guile,
That often devoured their own sheep,
And after the shepherd that did 'em keep. *Spenser.*

SOMINO, a village of Bambarra, in Central Africa, situated on the Niger; 80 miles north-west of Yamina.

SOMLYO, a small town of Transylvania, and the chief place of the county of Kraszna; 42 miles north-west of Clausenburg.

SOMMA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, near where the Ticino issues from the Lago Maggiore; 25 miles north-west of Milan.

SOMMA, a town of Italy, situated at the foot of Vesuvius. It has a castle, and contains 6800 inhabitants. Wine of good quality is made in the neighbourhood; 12 miles east of Naples.

SOMMA, MONTE, a mountain of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical State, two miles from Spoleto. The mountain, which is about 5000 feet in height, is fertile, and shaded with olives and forest trees.

SOMMARIVA DEL BOSCO, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Alba, near the Naviglio. Population 5100; 5 miles south east of Carmagnola.

SOMMARIVA DI PERNO, a small town of Piedmont, near Sommariva del Bosco.

SOMME, a river of France, which rises in the department of the Aisne; 6 miles north-east of St. Quentin. It has a westward course of about 120 miles in length, and falls into the English channel between Crotoy and St. Vallery. It is navigable to Bray; 10 miles above Amiens, and passes both that town and Abbeville.

SOMME, a department in the north of France, comprising the western part of Picardy, and bounded on the west by the English channel, on the north by the department of the Pas de Calais. Its area is about 2380 square miles; its population 495,000, of whom a small proportion

are Protestants. This is, on the whole, one of the best of the French departments. The coast is low and sandy, but the interior consists of a fertile loam, generally level, except towards the east, where the prolongation of a part of the Ardennes produces considerable elevations, and the corn culture gives place to plantations and pasture. Throughout the rest, tillage and the breeding of cattle are followed up on the plan adopted in Flanders; and stall feeding, which is little known, even in Normandy, is practised on a large scale. The raising of green crops is also favoured by the climate, which is as moist, and as subject to sudden variations as in Britain. Besides corn, pasturage, fruit and vegetables, a large quantity of coleseed and oleaginous grains, are raised, as well as flax and hemp. The manufactures are numerous, comprising woollens, coarse and fine linens, lawns, cambrics, soap, leather and hardware. This department is divided into the five arrondissements of Amiens (the capital), Abbeville, Douvens, Peronne and Montdidier.

SOMMEANY, the principal sea-port of Lus, in the eastern part of the Persian province of Mekran. It is situated on an elevated bank at the mouth of the river Pooralee, which forms a bar about a mile from the town, of three fathoms deep at low water, and boats can anchor close to the shore. The place is inconsiderable, and the inhabitants, with the exception of a few Hindoo merchants, live chiefly by fishing. Fresh water is procured by digging in the sand; and it is necessary that the well be immediately filled up; for if suffered to remain open, the water becomes salt.

SOMMEE, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, district of Werrear, belonging to the nabob of Radumpore. It is large, and inclosed with a wall, situated on an extensive plain, abounding with antelopes, but in the rainy season is frequently under water. Latitude not ascertained.

SOMMELSDYK, a town of the Netherlands, in South Holland, on the island of Overflakee, with 1600 inhabitants: 20 miles south-east of Rotterdam.

SOMERDA, a town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Erfurt, near the Unstrut, with 1900 inhabitants; 15 miles north-north-west of Weimar.

SOMMEREIN, or **SZAMARJA**, a town of Hungary, in the isle of Schutt. Population 2700; 11 miles south-east of Presburg. Lat. 48. 1. 30. N. long. 17. 17. 15. E.

SOMMERFELD, a town of the Prussian states, in Lower Lusatia, on the Leipa. Population 1800; 84 miles south-east of Berlin.

SOMMERGEM, or **SOMERGHEN**, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of East Flanders. Population 6400. It has manufactures of lace; 8 miles north-west of Ghent.

SOMMERHAUSEN, a town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia. Population 1000; 4 miles south of Wurzburg. **SOMMERING**, a lofty mountain of Germany, which separates Styria from Lower Austria. Height 5000 feet.

SOMMEVOIR, a town of France, department of the Upper Marne, on the river Lavivoir, with 1200 inhabitants; 9 miles south-west of Vassy.

SOMMIERES, a town of France, in the department of the Gard, on the Vidourle. Population 3400. It has some woollen manufactures; 22 miles south of Potiers.

SOMNAMBULISM, in Medicine, from *somnus*, sleep, and *ambulo*, I walk; sometimes also called *noctambulism*, or *night-walking*. See **PATHOLOGY**.

SOMNAMBULIST, *s.* [*somnus* and *ambulo*, Lat.] One who walks in his sleep.—The *somnambulist* directs himself with unerring certainty through the most intricate windings and over the most dangerous precipices; and, without any apparent assistance from the organs of sense, has been known to read, write and compose. *Bp. Porteus.*

SOMNER, *s.* [See **SUMMONER**.] One who cites or summons.—We are desirous to redress such abuses and aggressions as are said to grow by *somners* or apparitors. *Const. and Canon's Eccles.*

SOMNER (William), an able antiquary, was born at Canterbury, in the year 1606. He received a good com-

non education, after which he was taken as clerk by his father, who was registrar of the court of Canterbury. He was afterwards promoted by archbishop Laud to an office in the ecclesiastical court of that diocese, which naturally engaged him in the study of national antiquities. To pursue this to advantage, he applied with great diligence to the Saxon tongue, and having made himself master of that language, he drew up copious notes, and a glossary, to Sir Roger Twisden's publication of the laws of Henry I. The antiquities of his own county engaged his particular attention, and he composed "A Treatise of the Roman Posts and Forts in Kent," left by himself in MS. but which was printed at Oxford in 1693; and "A Treatise on Gavel-kind," completed in 1647, and published in 1660. He also wrote "A Discourse of Portus Iccius," which was afterwards translated into Latin by bishop Gibson, and published with some other tracts. Having studied all the kindred dialects to the Saxon, he wrote observations on some old German words, collected by Lipsius, which were published by Meric Casaubon, and he drew up the Glossary annexed to the ten writers of English history, published by Twisden. This glossary being a key to reclude and antiquated words, improved whatever of this nature had been done before. It is, indeed, a work of that extent as may serve as a key to all other historians, and to all records: "nevertheless," says the writer of the life in the Biographia Britannica, "it might be greatly improved from our author's subsequent collections, which remain in the archives of Canterbury; from Junius's "Etymologicum Anglicanum;" and from Dr. Wilkin's Glossary, at the end of his edition of the Saxon laws. Mr. Somner assisted Dugdale in compiling the "Monasticon." In 1659 he published a Saxon dictionary, in folio, which has been styled the true and lasting monument of his praise; a work of incredible labour to himself, and of singular benefit to the world. The previous assistance of the like kind which came into Mr. Somner's hands, were—1. Ælfric's Glossary, transcribed by Fr. Junius, from a very ancient copy in the library of Sir Peter Paul Rubens, of Brussels; 2. The two ancient glossaries in the Cotton library; 3. Nowell's Saxon Vocabulary; 4. Joceline's Collections. From these and some other Saxon books then extant, Mr. Somner made immense collections, in two large volumes, for the compiling his dictionary. When it was finished, he sent it to Oxford, where it was printed, and it came out in the year already mentioned. During the composition of this dictionary, he was chiefly supported by the salary settled on the Saxon lecture, founded by Sir Henry Spelman. Somner being a zealous royalist, he was arrested and imprisoned on account of the Kentish petition for a free parliament, in the same year that his dictionary was published; but was liberated on the restoration, and promoted to the mastership of St. John's Hospital, in Canterbury. He died in 1669, and his books and manuscripts were purchased by the dean and chapter of Canterbury, and deposited in the cathedral library. *Biog. Brit.*

SOMNIFEROUS, *adj.* [*somnifere*, Fr., *somnifer*, Lat.] Causing sleep; procuring sleep; soporiferous; dormitive.—They ascribe all this redundant melancholy to *somniferous* potions. *Burton.*

SOMNIFIC, *adj.* [*somnus* and *facio*, Lat.] Causing sleep.

SOMNOLENCE, or **SOMNOLENCY**, *s.* [*somnolentia*, Lat.] Sleepiness; inclination to sleep. *Cockeram.*—I no *somnolence* have used. *Gower.*

SOMNOLENT, *adj.* [*somnolentus*, Lat.] Sleepy; drowsy. *Bullokar* and *Cockeram.*

SOMONDOCO, a settlement of South America, in New Granada, and in the province of Tunja. Population 200 housekeepers and 100 Indians; 29 miles south-east of Tunja, and 61 north-east of Santa Fe.

SOMORROSTRO, a small town of Spain, in the province of Biscay. In the neighbourhood is an iron mine, one of the oldest and most productive in the world: 40,000 tons of iron are annually shipped here for the surrounding provinces, besides what is used in the iron works in the

neighbourhood. Arms, great and small, are made at these works, and among others, cannon for export; 13 miles north-west of Bilboa.

SOMOS, or **DRINOW**, a small town in the north-east of Hungary, on the river Torissa; 9 miles south of Eperies.

SOMOSIERRA, a small town of Spain, on the borders of New and Old Castile. An action took place here between the French and Spaniards, in 1808, in which the latter were defeated, and the road was thus laid open to the capital; 52 miles north of Madrid.

SOMPRES, a town of Hindostan, province of Cashmere, situated on the Jhyllum river. Lat. 34. 17. N. long. 73. 35. E.

SOMPTING, a parish of England, in Sussex; 1½ mile north-by-east of Worthing. Population 441.

SON, *s.* [*sunus*, Gothic; *juna*, Sax.; *sohn*, German; *son*, Swedish; *soone*, Dutch; *syn*, Sclavonian. A male born of one or begotten by one; correlative to father or mother.—She had a *son* for her cradle, ere she had a husband for her bed. *Shakspeare.*—Descendant, however distant; as the *sons* of Adam.—I am the *son* of the wise, the *son* of ancient kings. *Isa.*—Compellation of an old to a young man, or of a confessor to his penitent.

Be plain good *son*, and homely in thy drift;
Riddling confession finds but riddling shrift. *Shakspeare.*

Native of a country.

Britain then

Sees arts her savage *sons* controul.

Pope.

The second person of the Trinity.—If thou be the *Son* of God, come down. *St. Matt.*—Product of any thing.

Earth's tall *sons*, the cedar, oak and pine,
Their parents undecaying strength declare. *Blackmore.*

In scripture, *sons* of pride and *sons* of light, denoting some quality. 'Tis a Hebraism.

This new favourite

Of heaven, this mass of clay, *son* of despite. *Milton.*

SON-IN-LAW, *s.* One married to one's daughter.

A foreign *son-in-law* shall come from far,
Whose race shall bear aloft the Latin name. *Dryden.*

SONATA, *s.* [Ital.] A tune.—He whistled a Scotch tune, and an Italian *sonata*. *Addison.*

Could Pedro, think you, make no trial

Of a *sonata* on his viol,

Unless he had the total gut,

Whence every string at first was cut? *Prior.*

SONATA [Ital. from *suonare*, to sound, or play on an instrument.] Its use at present, in Music, is confined to solos for a single instrument: as Corelli's solos for the violin, Martini's solos for the German flute.

SONCHUS [*Σογγος* of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia, æqualis, natural order of compositæ, semiflosculosæ, cichoraceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common imbricate, ventricose: scales very many, linear, unequal. Corolla: compound imbricate, uniform. Corollets hermaphrodite, numerous, equal. Proper one petalled, ligulate, linear, truncate, five-toothed. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil: germ subovate. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, reflexed. Pericarp none. Calyx converging into a depressed acuminate globe. Seeds solitary, oblong. Down capillary, sessile. Receptacle naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate, ventricose. Down hairy. Receptacle naked.

1. *Sonchus maritimus*, or sea sow thistle.—Peduncle naked; leaves lanceolate, embracing, undivided, sharply toothed, backwards. Sometimes the stem has only one or two flowers.—Native of the South of Europe, and of Barbary, in sandy wet places.

2. *Sonchus cæruleus*, or blue sow thistle.—Peduncles and calyxes hispid and racemed; leaves sublyrate, terminating

lobe deltoid and very large. Root perennial, fleshy, branched in tufts. Stems upright, three feet high, simple, leafy. Raceme terminating, solitary upright, hispid with red glandular viscid hairs. Bractes linear. Calyx hispid, red. Corolla blue-purple, twice as long as the calyx. Anthers red. Seeds compressed. Seed-down rugged, not feathered.—Native of Canada and the European Alps. Found on the borders of corn fields about Willington and Howden-Pans in Northumberland.

3. *Sonchus palustris*, or marsh sow-thistle.—Peduncles and calyxes hispid, subumbelled; leaves runcinate, sagittate at the base, rugged at the edge.—Native of Germany, Flanders, France, Italy, Hungary, Denmark and England.

4. *Sonchus arvensis*, or corn sow-thistle.—Peduncles and calyxes hispid, subumbelled; leaves runcinate, toothletted, cordate at the base, root creeping.

5. *Sonchus oleraceus*, or common sow-thistle.—Peduncles tomentose; calyxes even; leaves runcinate, toothed.—This has six varieties. Root annual, fusiform, whitish, milky. There are also in this genus, *Sonchus agrestis*, *tenerrimus*, *plumieri*, *alpinus*, *fruticosus*, *pinnatus*, *radicatus*, *floridanus*, *sibiricus*, *tataricus*, *tuberosus*, *quercifolius*, *angustifolius* and *chondrilloides*.

Propagation and Culture.—Many of these are weeds and therefore not to be planted in gardens, but extirpated continually, not only in the garden itself, but in all the parts near it; their winged seeds being wafted to a considerable distance.

The foreign sorts may be propagated by seeds; and those which are shrubby, by cuttings also.

SONCINO, a town of Austrian Italy, in the duchy of Milan, in the Cremonese, on the Oglio, containing 3900 inhabitants. In 1705, it was taken by prince Eugene, but retaken soon after by the Duke de Vendome; 20 miles north of Cremona.

SONDERBORG, a town of Denmark, in the island of Alsen, on the coast of Sleswick. It has a good harbour, with a brisk trade. Population 2700; 21 miles west-south-west of Faaborg.

SONDERSHAUSEN, a town of Upper Saxony, and the chief place of the principality of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. It stands on the Wipper, and contains 3100 inhabitants. It has a castle, with a collection of natural curiosities, in which is a bronze image of the Vandal deity Pustich. On an eminence outside of the town, is the prince's palace, with its magnificent gardens; about half a mile thence is a sulphureous spring, called the Gunthersbad; 27 miles north of Erfurt. Lat. 51. 22. 33. N. long. 10. 45. 21. E.

SONDOR, an Indian settlement of Peru, in the province of Piura, on the north shore of the river Huancabamba. Lat. 5. S.

SONDRE GRUNC, or BOTTOMLESS, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, discovered by La Maire and Schouten in 1616, about 20 leagues in circumference, long, but not broad. It appeared covered with trees, among which were palmetoes and cocoa-nut trees. No anchoring ground could be met with. The inhabitants were naked, except a piece of mat round the middle, of a yellowish or reddish brown colour, and black hair; their skin marked with many figures. They were thieves, and exceedingly covetous of iron. Lat. 15. S. long. 148. W.

SONDRIO, a town of Austrian Italy, the capital of a province of the same name, consisting of the *ci-devant* Valteline, and containing a population of 81,000. The town stands on the small river Muller. Population 3500; 16 miles south-east of Chiavenna.

SONEGUERO, a town of Spanish America, in the province of Honduras; 32 miles north of St. Jorge de Olancho. Lat. 15. 5. N. long. 86. 5. W.

SONEHUT, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwannah, and capital of the Corair rajah, one of the numerous mountain chiefs who are tributary to the Nagpore Mahrattas. It is an extensive place, and has a strong mud fort or citadel. Lat. 23. 33. N. long. 82. 33. E.

SONEPOUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Orissa,

situated on the west bank of the Mahanuddy, at its junction with the Taile river. It belongs to the rajah of Nagpore. Lat. 20. 47. N. long. 83. 30. E.

SONG, *s.* [ʒɒŋ, re-jun-ŋen, Sax.] Any thing modulated in the utterance.—Noise other than the sound of dance and *song*. *Milton*.

He first thinks fit no sonnetter advance

His censure farther than the *song* or dance.

Dryden.

A poem to be modulated by the voice; a ballad.

Pardon, goddess of the night,

Those that slew thy virgin knight;

For the which, with *songs* of woe,

Round about this tomb they go!

Shakspeare.

A poem; lay; strain.

The bard that first adorn'd our native tongue,

Tun'd to his British lyre this ancient *song*.

Dryden.

Poetry; poesy.—This subject for heroic *song* pleas'd me. *Milton*.

Names memorable long,

If there be force in virtue or in *song*.

Pope.

Notes of birds.

The lark, the messenger of day,

Saluted in her *song* the morning grey.

Dryden.

An old *SONG*. A trifle.—I do not intend to be thus put off with an *old song*. *More*.

SONG, a small village of Bambarra, in Central Africa, on the Niger; 65 miles west of Sego.

SONG, a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan.

SONGARI, a river of Chinese Tartary, which falls into the Amour or Saghalien, with a town of the same name upon it.

SONGEONS, a town of France, department of the Oise, on the river Therain. Here are manufactured mirrors, lenses, and other optical glasses. Population 1000; 12 miles north-west of Beauvais.

SONGHUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, district of Wankaneer. It is situated in a very wild and uncultivated country, but has in its vicinity a very ancient temple, dedicated to the sun, and ornamented with a variety of Hindoo sculptures. There are also two other temples, one of which contains the figure of Bhovane standing on a tortoise. The whole is called Suraje Dewul, but there is no record by whom the temples were built. Latitude not ascertained.

SONGI, a small river which falls into the Chinese sea, on the eastern coast of Malacca. Lat. 2. 10. N.

SONGI TANJANG, a town on the west coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 2. 35. N. long. 97. 10. E.

SONGISH, *adj.* Containing songs; consisting of songs. A *low word*.—The *songish* part must abound in the softness and variety of numbers, its intention being to please the hearing. *Dryden*.

SONGKI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Fokien.

SONGKIANG, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Kiangnan, situated on the great canal. The stream is here intersected by other rivers and canals, by means of which barks approach it in every direction. It is thus enabled to carry on a considerable trade, particularly in calicoes and other cotton cloths, which they dye with peculiar skill. It has four large cities under its jurisdiction; 560 miles south of Peking. Lat. 31. N. long. 120. 44. E.

SONG-MEN-CHAN, a small island near the coast of China, in the province of Tchekiang. Lat. 31. N. long. 121. 21. E.

SONGOA, an island in the straits of Malacca, about 50 miles in circumference. Lat. 2. 18. N. long. 100. 30. E.

SONGOO, a small island in the Indian sea, near the eastern coast of Africa. Lat. 7. 20. S.

SONG SONG, a small island in the Indian sea, near the eastern coast of Africa. Lat. 8. 12. S.

SONGSTER, *s.* A singer. Used of human singers, it is a word

a word of slight contempt.—The pretty *songsters* of the Spring with their various notes did seem to welcome him as he passed. *Howell*.

SONGSTRESS, *s.* A female singer.

Through the soft silence of the listening night,
The sober-suited *songstress* trills her lay. *Thomson*.

SONG-TCHOUI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Houquang.

SONG-TSI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Houquang.

SONG-YANG, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tchekiang.

SONHO, the name given by the Portuguese to the province of Congo, in Africa, situated on the southern bank of the Zayre, bounded on the west by the Atlantic, and reaching southward to the river Ambriz. It is described by them as governed by a count or earl, subject to the general sovereignty of Congo, and represented as populous and well cultivated. The chief town is said to be on a creek, on the south side of the Zayre, and to contain 400 houses. The late English expedition appears to have heard nothing of this name, and found the country almost uncultivated, with only a few scattered villages.

SON-HOIT, a port of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Mongols. Lat. 42. 48. N. long. 114. 27. E.

SONIFEROUS, *adj.* [*sonus*, and *fero*, Lat.] Giving or bringing sound.—This will appear, let the subject matter of sounds be what it will; either the atmosphere, or the ethereal part thereof, or *soniferous* particles of bodies. *Derham*.

SONNA, a book, or collection of the Mahometan traditions, or of the sayings and actions of their prophet, which all the orthodox Mussulmen are required to believe. This is a kind of supplement to the Koran, directing the observance of several things omitted in that book, and in sense, as well as design, corresponding to the Mishna of the Jews.

The word signifies, in Arabic, the same with *mishna* in the Hebrew, that is, *second law*; or, as the Jews call it, *oral law*.

The adherents to the Sonna are called *Sonnites*, or *Traditionaries*; and as, among the Jews, there is a sect of Caraites, who reject the traditions as fables invented by the rabbins; there are also sectaries among the Mahometans, called *Schiites*, [see that article] who reject the traditions of the Somnites, as being founded on the authority of an apocryphal book, and not derived to them from their legislator.

There is the same enmity between the Somnites and Schiites, as between the rabbinist Jews and the Caraites. The Schiites reproach the Somnites with obtruding the dreams of their doctors for the word of God; and the Somnites, in their turn treat the Schiites as heretics, who refuse to admit the divine precepts, and who have corrupted the Koran, &c.

SONNEBURG, a town of the Prussian states, in the New Mark of Brandenburg; 11 miles east-south-east of Custrin. Population 1700.

SONNENBERG, a town of Germany, in the principality of Saxe-Meinungen. It contains 1900 inhabitants, who manufacture a number of miscellaneous articles, such as mirror frames, wooden wares, whet stones, slates for writing, &c.; 12 miles north-north-east of Coburg, and 40 south of Weimar.

SONNENBERG, a small town of the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau; 2 miles north-east of Wisbaden.

SONNENBERG, a town in the west of Bohemia; 58 miles west-north-west of Prague. Population 900.

SONNERATIA [so named by the younger Linnæus, in memory of Mons Sonnerat, who travelled into New Guinea, the East Indies and China, and communicated many new plants to the botanists in Europe], in Botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order monogynia, natural order of hesperideæ, myrti (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, bell-shaped, flat, six-cleft, permanent: segments ovate. Corolla: petals six, awl-shaped, spreading, inserted into the base of the calyx, and scarcely longer than

it. Stamina: filaments very many, filiform, inserted into the base of the calyx, long. Anthers globular. Pistil: germ superior, globular. Style filiform. Stigma simple. Pericarp: berry placed upon the permanent patulous calyx, subglobular, acuminate, smooth, with a bladdery pulp, many-celled. Seeds, some in each cell.—*Essential Character.* Calyx six-cleft. Petals six, lanceolate. Berry many-celled, with several seeds in each cell.

Sonneratia acida.—This is a tree. The leaves are opposite, subsessile, oblong, quite entire, like those of Hypericum. Flowers terminating, solitary, large. Petals red. Fruit resembling that of Mesembryanthemum, with an acid bladdery juice.—Native of the Molucca islands, and the bogs of New Guinea; also of Cochiu-china, on the banks of rivers.

SON'NET, *s.* [*sonnet*, Fr.; *sonnetto*, Ital.] A short poem consisting of fourteen lines, of which the rhymes are adjusted by a particular rule. The sonnet owes its origin to the poets of Italy.—A small poem.

Let us into the city presently,
To sort some gentlemen well skill'd in music;
I have a *sonnet* that will serve the turn. *Shakspeare*.

To SON'NET, *v. n.* To compose sonnets. *Not in use*.

Nor lady's wanton love, nor wandering knight,
Legend I out in rhimes all richly dight;—
Nor list I *sonnet* of my mistress' face,
To paint some blowesse with a borrowed grace. *Bp. Hall*.

SONNETTE'ER, SO'NNETER, SO'NNETIST, or SO'NNETWRITER, *s.* [*sonnetier*, Fr.] A small poet in contempt.—Assist me, some extemporal god of rhyme; for I am sure I shall turn *sonneter*. *Shakspeare*.

The prophet of the heavenly lyre,
Great Solomon sings in the heavenly quire,
And is become a new-found *sonnetist*! *Bp. Hall*.

There are as many kinds of gardening as of poetry: your makers of parterres and flower-gardens are epigrammatists and *sonnetteers* in his art. *Spectator*.—A suite of tales was published by George Whetstone, a *sonnet-writer* of some rank, and one of the most passionate among us to bewail the perplexities of love. *Warton*.

SONNEWALD, a town of the Prussian states, province of Brandenburg. Population 800; 42 miles north of Dved.

SONNING, or SUNNING-UPON-THAMES, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 3½ miles north-east of Reading. Population 1534.

SONNINO, a small town of Italy, in the States of the Church, in the Campagua di Roma; 6 miles north of Terracina.

SONNO, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 18 miles north-east of Iwatata.

SONO, a river of Brazil, which runs north-north-west, and enters the Paratinga, just before it joins the Toccantides.

SONOKI, a village of Mingrelia; 45 miles south-east of Anarghia.

SONORA, an intendancy or province of Mexico, which is very thinly peopled, and extends along the gulf of California, for more than 280 leagues from the great bay of Bayona, or the Rio del Rosaria, to the mouth of the Rio Colorado. The breadth of the intendancy is by no means uniform. From the tropic of Cancer to the 27th degree, the breadth scarcely extends 50 leagues; but farther north, towards the Rio Gila, it increases so considerably, that on the parallel of Arispe, it is more than 128 leagues.

The intendancy of Sonora comprehends an extent of hilly country, of greater surface than the half of France; but its absolute population is not equal to the fourth of the worst peopled department of that empire. The intendant, who resides in the town of Arispe, has the charge of several provinces, which have retained the particular names they had before their union. The intendancy of Sonora comprehends the three provinces of Cinaloa, Ostimury, and Sonora proper. The first extends from the Rio del Rosaria to the Rio del Fuerto; the second from the Rio del Fuerto to the Rio del Mayo;

Mayo; and the province of Sonora includes all the northern extremity of the intendency.

The intendency of Sonora is bounded on the west by the sea, on the south by the intendency of Guadalupe, and on the east by a very uncultivated part of New Biscay. Its northern limits are very uncertain. The villages de la Pimeria Alta are separated from the banks of the Rio Gila, by a region inhabited by independent Indians, of which neither the soldiers stationed on the military fort in that quarter, nor the monks of the neighbouring missions, have been hitherto able to make any conquest.

The three most considerable rivers of Sonora are Culiacan Mayo, and Yaqui or Sonora. The most northern part of the intendency bears the name of Pimeria, from a numerous tribe of Pimas Indians who inhabit it; and in all the ravines, and even the plains of the hilly country; the precious metals are found. Pieces of pure gold, of the weight from 5 to 8 lbs. have sometimes been discovered. They are however, by no means diligently sought after on account of the frequent incursions of the independent Indians, and especially on account of the high price of provisions, which must be brought from a great distance, in this uncultivated country. Farther north, on the Rio de la Ascension, live a very warlike race of Indians.

No permanent communication has hitherto been established between Sonora, New Mexico, and New California, although the court of Madrid has frequently given orders for the formation of military posts and missions between the Rio Gila and the Rio Colorado. Two courageous and enterprising monks, however, were able to go across the continent by land, through the countries inhabited by independent Indians, from the missions of Le Pimeria Alta to Monterey, and even to the Port of San Francisco. After a journey of eleven days, they arrived at a vast and beautiful plain, one league's distance from the southern bank of the Rio Gila. They then discovered the ruins of an ancient Mexican city, in the midst of which is the singular edifice called La Casa Grande. These ruins occupy a space of ground of more than a square league. Casa Grande is exactly laid down according to the four cardinal points, having from north to south 445 feet in length, and from east to west, 276 feet in breadth. It is constructed of clay. The walls are three feet eleven inches in thickness; and it is plain that the edifice had three stories and a terrace. The stair was on the outside, and probably of wood. There were five apartments, of which each is about 27 by 10 feet, and in height 11½ feet. A wall, surmounted by large towers, surrounds the principal edifice, and appears to have defended it. The vestiges of an artificial canal, which brought the water of the Rio Gila to the town, were also visible; and the whole surrounding plain is also covered with broken earthen pitchers and pots, prettily painted in white, red, and blue.

The Indians who live in the plains adjoining the Casa Grande of the Rio Gila, have never had the smallest communication with the inhabitants of Sonora, although they are by no means their inferiors in civilization. In point of social habits, they form a singular contrast with the savages who wander along the banks of the Missouri, and other parts of Canada. The two missionary fathers already mentioned, when they penetrated to the south of Rio Gila, found the Indians there assembled to the number of 2000 or 3000, in villages, where they peaceably cultivate the soil.

In the province of Sonora there are reckoned one city, Arispe; two towns, Sonora and Hostemuri; 46 villages, 15 parishes, 43 missions' 20 farms, and 25 cottages. In 1793, the number of tributary Indians in the province of Sonora, amounted only to 251, while in the province of Cinaloa, they amounted to 1851. This last province was more anciently peopled than the former. In the intendency of Sonora there are 121,000 inhabitants. The extent of its surface is 19,143 square leagues; and there are six inhabitants to each.

SONORA, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Sonora; 35 miles south of Arispe. Its population amounts to 6400. It trades with New Mexico and New Biscay, for the productions of those provinces; and with Old Mexico,

both by land and sea, through the gulph of California. It is celebrated for cheese, horses, and sheep.

SONORIFIC, *adj.* [*sonorus* and *facio*, Lat.] Producing sound.—If he should ask me why a clock strikes, and points to the hour; and I should say, it is by an indicating form and *sonorific* quality, this would be unsatisfactory. *Watts.*

SONOROUS, *adj.* [*sonoreux*, Fr., *sonorus*, Lat.] Loud sounding; giving loud or shrill sound. Bodies are distinguished as *sonorous* or *unsonorous*.

All the while

Sonorous metal blowing martial sounds;
At which the universal host up-sent
A shout that tore hell's concave.

Milton.

High sounding; magnificent of sound.—The Italian opera amidst all the meanness and familiarity of the thoughts, has something beautiful and *sonorous* in the expression. *Addison.*

SONOROUSLY, *adv.* With high sound; with magnificence of sound.

SONOROUSNESS, *s.* The quality of giving sound.—Enquiring of a maker of viols and lutes of what age he thought lutes ought to be, to attain their full and best seasoning for *sonorousness*, he replied, that in some twenty years would be requisite, and in others forty. *Boyle.*—Magnificence of sound.

SONSBECK, a town of the Prussian province of Cleves and Berg, situated near the river Wesel. Population 1500.

SONSFELD, a small town in the duchy of Cleves. Population 1200.

SONSHIP, *s.* Filiation; the character of a son.—The Apostle to the Hebrews makes afflictions not only incident but necessary to Christianity, the badge and cognizance of *sonship*. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

SONSONATE, or TRINIDAD, the capital of a district of the same name, in Guatemala, situated near a bay on the coast of the Pacific Ocean. It contains 450 families of Spaniards, exclusive of mulattoes, Indians, and people of colour, who may amount to 1900. Lat. 13. 46. N. long. 89. 45. W.

SONTHEIM, a town of Germany, in Wirtemberg. Population 800.

SONTHOFEN, a town of Bavaria, on the Iller; 4 miles east-south-east of Immenstadt. Population 2500.

SONTRA, a town of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, on the Gunter; 24 miles south-east of Cassel. Population 1400.

SOOBOO, a Foulah village of Bambarra, in Central Africa; 10 miles west of Segou.

SOBRUDOOKI, a town of Bondou, in Central Africa; 20 miles south-west of Fatteconda.

SOOHA, a village of Bambarra, in Central Africa, situated at a little distance from the Niger; 70 miles north-east of Pammakoo.

SOOLA, a village of Kasson, in Central Africa, situated in a country so populous, that the king can raise 4000 men by beat of drum.

SOOLOO ISLES, a chain of islands, about 60 in number, deriving their name from Sooloo, the principal island in the group. They extend in a north-east and south-west direction, from the north-eastern extremity of Borneo, to the western extremity of Magindano, and are comprehended between the 4th and 7th degrees of north lat. There are several good harbours among these islands, particularly at Bewabewa, Tavitate, Tappool, Secassee, between Boobooan and Tappantana, south of Basselan. The harbour before Bewan, the Sooloo capital, is not good, except during the south-west monsoon. The island of Sooloo is situated in lat. 6. N. and long. 119. E. from Greenwich. It is 30 miles long, 12 broad, and may contain 60,000 inhabitants. This island, lying about midway between the islands of Borneo and Magindano, is well cultivated, affording a fine prospect from the sea, on every side, far superior to that of Malay countries in general. Sooloo being an island not very large, and the hills on it not being very high, nor consequently the clouds stopt by them, it has no certain rainy season, as have the large Malay islands. It enjoys a perpetual summer. Up the country it is always cool especially under the shade of the teak trees, which are numerous,

merous, as on Java. There is no such difference in the wetness of the seasons or monsoons, as on continents or very large islands; but the south-west monsoon brings most rain. Much falls at the change of the monsoons, especially of the autumnal. The capital of the island Bewan, or, as others call it, Sooloo or Soong, is situated on the sea coast, on the north-west part of the island. It is of considerable size: the houses are built after the manner of the Malays, elevated about four feet from the ground with bamboos, of which the floors are also made. It contains about 6000 inhabitants. A hill near the town is pretty high, and at night generally capt with a cloud. Other hills, of inferior height, are sometimes also covered in the evening. These clouds feed the rivulets which run from the hills; the land wind here is faint, and reaches not far: the island being rather small for its number of inhabitants, they study agriculture more than do those of the adjacent islands, already mentioned, where land may be deemed of no value. The Sooloos plant rice; but the crop cannot be depended on, as they are not surc of rain. They therefore cultivate many roots, the Spanish or sweet potatoe, the clody or St. Hillano yam, the China yam, both red and white; sending to Mindano for what rice they consume. They have great variety of fine tropical fruits; their oranges are full as good as those of China. They have also a variety of the fruit called jack or nanka, durians, a kind of large custard apple named madang, mangoes, mangustines, rambustines, and a fruit they call bolona, like a large plum or mangoe, white inside. In great abundance do they enjoy a very innocent and delicious fruit, by Malays called lancey. The trees in the woods are loaded with this fruit, which is large, and ripens well: this it does not on the island of Sumatra, where perhaps it finds too much moisture. The Sooloos having great connection with China, and many Chinese being settled amongst them, they have learned the art of ingrafting and improving their fruits, while the fruits at Magindano have remained indifferent. The Sooloos have a very good breed of horses, which they train to trot fast, seldom suffering them to gallop. At Sooloo are none of those beautiful birds called loories; but there is abundance of diminutive cocatoes and small green parrots. There is no spice tree but the cinnamon. Here are wild elephants, the offspring, doubtless, of those sent in former days from the continent of India, as presents to the kings of Sooloo. Those animals avoid meeting with horned cattle; though they are not shy of horses. Sooloo has spotted deer, abundance of goats and black cattle; but the people seldom milk their cows. They have no sheep, except a very few from Samboangan. The wild hogs are numerous, and do much mischief, by breaking down fences. After harvest, the Sooloos hunt the elephants and wild hogs, endeavouring to destroy them.

In former times, a very extensive trade centered in this island. It was frequented by ships from Japan, which brought silver, amber, silks, chests, cabinets, and other curiosities, made of fragrant woods, besides great quantities of silks and porcelain from China. Sooloo was also visited by vessels from Java, Sumatra, Ceylon, and the coast of Coromandel, with valuable cargoes. At present two Chinese junks arrive annually from Amoy. Their cargoes consist of the following articles, namely, brass salvers, iron, sugar candy, raw silk, black nankeen, white linen of a strong fabric, kangans, quallis, a thin iron pan three feet in diameter, china-ware, flowered silks, besides tea, cutlery and other hardware, brass wire, gongs, beads of all colours, little swan shot, fireworks, &c. &c. In return they bring back to China biche de mer, black and white wax, pearl oyster-shells, bird-nests, and tortoiseshell; also agal, a sea weed used as gum or glue, and many other articles, such as Carooang oil, clove bark, black wood, ratans, sago, various barks for dyeing, cassia, pepper, native camphire, sandal-wood, curious shells for grottos, pearls, and spices. The Portuguese formerly traded to a considerable extent with those islands: but from the dangers attending it, they abandoned it to the Chinese. Country ships from India occasionally visit these islands, notwithstanding the risk they run of being cut off. They import the

following articles, which find a ready sale to a small extent: —Brasery, cutlery, cloth, gupowder, glass ware, guns of various sizes, hardware, iron in bars, ironmongery, looking-glasses, opium, piece-goods, saltpetre, shot of all sorts, swords, tin-ware, tobacco, sugar, vermilion, and watches. From the north-east coast of Borneo, the inhabitants of Sooloo also import sago, biche de mer, cowries, and tortoiseshell. From Magindano they receive rice, for which they usually pay with Chinese goods. The Buggesses also trade with these islands, and chiefly bring cotton manufactures from Celebes.

At Sooloo and the neighbouring islands, is a famous pearl fishery, which is a source both of wealth and of maritime power, being a nursery for seamen, with which they can man their prows on any emergency. The dredges for the pearl oyster are generally made of bamboo, very slight, and sunk with a stone. The large pearls are the property of the nobility on whose estates they are found; they also extend their claim to the pearls found on the banks, as well as on the dry land. The Chinese merchants, however, contrive, by their underhand dealing with the fishermen, to purchase from them pearls of great value.

The sovereignty of the island is hereditary in the eldest son of the sultan; but the government is partly monarchical, and partly aristocratical. The legislative power resides in an assembly composed of 15 dateos or nobles, and of the sultan, who has two votes. The heir apparent has also two votes, if he sides with the sultan; but if he takes part against him, he has only one. There are two representatives of the people, called Manteries, like the military tribunes of the Romans. The common people, it is said, owing to these institutions, enjoy great freedom; but the vassals are often used in a tyrannical manner by their chiefs. The manners of the nobles are remarkably dissolute, for which they have ample opportunity, as the women here have as much liberty as in Europe. The Sooloos seldom go in their vessels to foreign parts, except on predatory excursions to make slaves among the Philippines. They are not much accustomed to the use of fire-arms, but depend on the lance, sword, and dagger, at the use of which they are very dexterous; and being of a martial disposition, at an early period they had subdued not only all the adjacent small isles, but a great part of the coast of Borneo. They have the character of being sanguinary and treacherous, on which account their alliance has frequently proved much more dangerous than their open hostility. They are said to be fond of music; and captain Forrest relates that in 1773, he saw the sultan dance a minuett with his neice, and the nobles go through a country dance; but according to his account, the nobles performed ill, owing to their heavy slippers. The men generally go dressed in white waistcoats buttoned down to the waist, and white breeches. The ladies wear a fine white waistcoat fitted close, and a petticoat over drawers which reach down to the knee. The early history of the Sooloos is involved in obscurity. They assert on the authority of tradition, that their island once formed part of an ancient Bornean empire, founded by the Chinese. The inhabitants of the island of Magindano assert, on the other hand, that the Sooloos were formerly subject to them. The Sooloos have been accustomed to carry on an unceasing warfare with the Spanish colonies planted in the Philippines, and generally with advantage. Prior to the year 1746, the Spaniards attacked them with a fleet of 30 ships, and obtained possession of Bewan, the capital. In 1775, they attacked a settlement belonging to the East India Company on the island of Balambangan, and drove the settlers on board their vessels. They are in the practice of attacking the vessels which visit them, and of plundering them if they are successful.

SOOMA, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 45 miles east of Jedo.

SOOMOO, a village of Kasson, in Central Africa, near the frontier of Kaarta.

SOON, *adv.* [*suns*, Gothic; *rona*, Sax.; *saen*, Dutch.] Before long time be past; shortly after any time assigned or supposed.

Nor did they not perceive their evil plight,
Yet to their general's voice—they *soon* obey'd. *Milton.*

Early; before any time supposed: opposed to *late*.

O boy! thy father gave thee life too *soon*,
And hath bereft thee of thy life too late. *Shakspeare.*

Readily; willingly.—I would as *soon* see a river winding through woods and meadows, as when it is tossed up in so many whimsical figures at Versailles. *Addison.*—It has the signification of an adjective: speedy, quick.—He hath preserved Argalus alive, under pretence of having him publicly executed after these wars, of which they hope for a *soon* and prosperous issue. *Sidney.*

SOON as. Immediately; at the very time

Nor was his virtue poison'd, *soon as* born,
With the too early thoughts of being king. *Dryden.*

SOONAM, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, belonging to one of the British tributaries. Lat. 29. 57. N. long. 75. 31. E.

SOONAMOOKY, a town of Bengal, district of Bissunpore. The East India Company have here a factory for white cotton cloths. Lat. 23. 18. N. long. 87. 33. E.

SOONDA, a district of Hindostan, province of North Canara, situated between the 14th and 15th degrees of northern latitude. Formerly the country was well cultivated, and produced fine timber and pepper; but it was laid waste by Hyder Aly in 1763, and its rajah compelled to flee for protection to Goa; on which occasion he made over to the Portuguese all the country between the sea and the mountains, for a stipulated pension. In 1799, the Soonda district became the property of the British.

SOONDA, the capital of the above-mentioned district. It was formerly an extensive and populous town, and was defended by three lines of fortifications, but was taken by Hyder Aly in the year 1763, the fortifications levelled, and the town nearly destroyed. It will probably now recover its population under the British protection. Lat. 14. 34. N. long. 74. 58. E.

SOONDLIA, a town of Hindostan, province of Sinde. It is a flourishing place, and is situated on the eastern side of the Indus, on the route from Tattah to Hyderabad. Lat. 24. 53. N. long. not ascertained.

SOONERGONG, or **SUNERGONG**, a town of Bengal, situated between the Luckia and one of the branches of the Brahmapootra river. It is the capital of a district of the same name. At a period when Dacca was scarcely, if at all known, Soonerong was a large and flourishing city, famous for its manufactures of muslin and other fine cottons. In the commencement of the 13th century, the Afghan emperor of Delhi, Alla, jealous of the governors of Bengal, divided that province into two portions. The westward one, denominated Lucknowty, he allowed to remain under the control of the former governor, Nassir Addeen, but appointed a chief named Behadur Khan, to govern the eastern division, and fixed his residence at Soonerong, which place having a direct communication with the strong fortress of Ekdala, and being itself protected by rivers on all sides, seems to have been judiciously selected for a new capital. In the year 1317, this person rebelled, and having assumed the white umbrella, the symbol of sovereignty, took the title of Behadur Shah; and the court of Delhi being then too much occupied with other affairs, allowed him to retain his usurped authority for seven years. At length the emperor Tughlik marched with a numerous army to Bengal, and the usurper finding himself unable to contend, submitted to the clemency of his master, and was pardoned, on condition of giving up all his treasure, arms, and elephants, and attending the imperial stirrup to Delhi. In the year 1325, Bhiram Khan took charge of the government of Soonerong, and died there in the year 1338. It was on this occasion that Fakher Addeen, the armour-bearer of the deceased, having brought over the army to support him, not only usurped the government, but declaring himself independent of the court of Delhi, assumed the lofty

title of sultan Sekunder. He fixed his own residence at Soonerong, and sent an army to take possession of the western division; but in this scheme he was foiled; for Aly Mubarick, the governor of Lucknowty, not only defeated the invader, but having advanced in the year 1342 towards Soonerong, fought with the sultan, and having taken him prisoner, put him to death, after which event he assumed the royal title of Ala Addeen, but fixed his residence at Gour. It therefore follows, by the above extract from the history of Bengal, that the time in which Soonerong was at the height of its prosperity was during the first 42 years of the 13th century, and that the numerous mosques and other buildings of which the ruins are still remaining, were constructed during that period. The city of Dacca having risen on the downfall of Soonerong, the latter is now reduced to a mere village, principally inhabited by weavers, and scarcely known to the Europeans who reside in the former city. Lat. 23. 39. N. long. 90. 43. E.

SOONGEY PESANG BAY, a bay on the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 0. 57. S. long. 99. 50. E.

SOONGHUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, district of Surat. Lat. 21. 8. N. long. 73. 33. E.

SOONLY, *adv.* Quickly; speedily. This word I remember in no other place; but if *soon* be, as it seems once to have been, an adjective, *soonly* is proper.—A mason meets with a stone that wants no cutting, and *soonly* approving of it, places it in his work. *More.*

SOONPUT, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi. The country adjacent to this town formerly derived great benefit from the canal dug by Aly Merdan Khan; and as orders have been recently given by the British government, to repair the canals, it is hoped it will soon recover from the hapless state in which it has been for many years past. To the north of the town is a handsome mausoleum of Khizer Khan, an Afghan nobleman of the family of Shere Shah. This place formerly possessed a very magnificent Hindoo temple, which was destroyed by sultan Musaoud of Ghizne, in the year 1034. Lat. 29. N. long. 76. 53. E.

SOOFUL, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. It is a place of considerable extent, and regularly built. Lat. 24. 21. N. long. 76. 5. E.

SOO'PBERRY, *s.* [*sapindus*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*
SOOPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer. It is the capital of a small district of the same name, and belongs to a relation of the rajah of Jyenagur. Lat. 25. 43. N. long. 76. 45. E.—There are other places in Hindostan of this name, but none of consequence.

SOORANGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Orissa, situated near the Mahanuddy river, principally known by its containing a monument erected by the government of Bengal to Mr. Elliot, a civil servant, who died there in the year 1778 on an embassy to the Nagpore rajah. Lat. not ascertained.

SOORJEW RIVER. See **GOGRAH.**

SOOROOTOO, a small island in the Eastern seas, situated off the west coast of Borneo, and west-south-west from Carimata. It is separated from this latter island by a narrow strait through which a ship might run, if compelled by necessity. Wood and water are to be had in great plenty on the west side of this island; and there is also plenty of fowls, buffaloes, &c. It is about 15 miles in circumference. Lat. 1. 45. S. long. 108. 40. E.

SOOROPPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapore belonging to the Nizam, situated on the north side of the Krishna, or Kistnah rivcr. Lat. 16. 15. N. long. 77. E.

SOORY, a town of Bengal, district of Birbhoom. It is also called Hyderabad. Lat. 23. 54. N. long. 87. 32. E.

SOOSETA, a small village of Jallonkadoo, in the district of Kullo, being the first at which the traveller arrives after passing through the Jallonka wilderness.

SOOSNEER, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. It is of considerable extent, and a flourishing place. Lat. 23. 55. N. long. 76. 10. E.

SOOSOO,

SOOSOO, a small town of Sumatra, on the west coast, situated at the bottom of a bay, of which Cape Felix forms the western extremity. The anchorage is about 3 miles from the town, in 18 or 20 fathoms, Cape Felix being west-by-north, and the town north-east-by-east. There is much foul ground, with a rocky bottom in the bay. The inhabitants exchange pepper for gold dust. Lat. 3. 45. N. long. 97. 10. E.

SOOSOOHOONAN, a district of Java, on the south side of the island, formerly extending to the north coast, and including the territories of Cheribon, and the greatest part of the island, under the title of the empire of Java; but it is much fallen from its ancient grandeur, and in the last century was divided into two parts. Embarrassed by the rebellion of Manko Boeni, a prince of the blood, the emperor made a cession of his dominions to the Dutch, who, in return, granted him half back again as their vassal, under the title of sultan; and the other half, including the city of Mataram, and its district, to Manko Boeni, on the same terms. Prior to 1740, this sovereign was still proprietor of all the territory to the east of Cheribon; but he lost part of his dominions in another contest with the Dutch. The dynasty, however, still continues; and in December 1813, Soerakarta, his capital, was visited by Mr. Raffles, the British governor of Java, who was graciously received; and his account of the entertainment which took place, indicates a degree of civilization greater than could have been expected in the centre of Java.

SOOT, *s.* [ʃot, root, Saxon; soot, Icelandic; soet, Dutch.] Condensed or embodied smoke.—*Soot*, though thin spread in a field, is a very good compost. *Bacon.*

SOOTA, a town of Japan, on the northern coast of the island of Sado.

SOOTE, or SOTE, *adj.* Sweet. *Obsolete.* See SWEET. SOO'TED, *adj.* Smear'd, manur'd, or covered with soot.—The land was sooted before. *Mortimer.*

SOO'TERKIN, *s.* A kind of false birth fabled to be produced by the Dutch women from sitting over their stoves.

When Jove was, from his teeming head,
Of wit's fair goddess brought to bed,
There follow'd at his lying-in,
For after-birth a sooterkin.

Swift.

SOOTH, *s.* [ʃoð, Sax.] Truth; reality. *Obsolete.*

Sir, understand you this of me in sooth,
The youngest daughter, whom you hearken for,
Her father keeps from all access of suitors,
Until the elder sister first be wed.

Shakspeare.

Prognostication.

Tried time yet taught me greater things;
The sodain rising of the raging seas,
The sooth of byrdes by beating of their winges.

Spenser.

Sweetness; kindness. This seems to be the meaning here.
That 'ere this tongue of mine,
That laid the sentence of dread banishment
On you proud man, should take it off again
With words of sooth.

Shakspeare.

SOOTH, *adj.* [ʃoð, Sax.] True; faithful; that may be relied on.

If thou speak'st false,
Upon the next tree shalt thou hang alive,
Till famine cling thee: if thy speech be sooth,
I care not if thou dost for me as much.

Shakspeare.

To SOOTHE, *v. a.* [ʒe-ʃoðian, Sax.] This word is better written with the final *e*, to distinguish it from *sooth*.
To flatter; to please with blandishments.

In soothing them, we nourish 'gainst our senate
The cockle of rebellion, insolence, sedition.

Shakspeare.

Can I soothe tyranny!
Seem pleas'd to see my royal master murder'd,
His crown usurp'd, a distaff in the throne?

Dryden.

To calm; to soften; to mollify.

The beldame

Soothes her with blandishments, and frights with threats.

Dryden.

To gratify; to please.

This calm'd his cars; *sooth'd* with his future fame,
And pleas'd to hear his propagated name.

Dryden.

SOO'THER, *s.* A flatterer; one who gains by blandishments.

I cannot flatter: I defy

The tongues of soothers.

Shakspeare.

SOOTHILL, or SOUTHILL, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-west of Wakefield. Population 2609.

SOO'THINGLY, *adv.* With blandishments; with flattery.—Herewithal Anselmo rested the most *soothingly* and contentedly deceived—that could be found in the world.

Shelton.

SOO'THLY, *adv.* [ʃoðlice, Sax. Spenser uses the Saxon form, *soothlich*.] In truth; really.—He was fain to use his wits, and *soothly* to tell them, I have seen your face.

Hales.
To SOO'THSAY, *v. n.* To predict; to foretell.—A damsel, possessed with a spirit of divination, met us, which brought her masters much gain by *soothsaying*.

Acts.
SOO'THSAY, or SOO'THSAYING, *s.* [ʃoð-ʃaʒa, Saxon. Spenser sometimes writes it *southsay*; which see.] True saying; veracity: the Saxon meaning.

Thou must discover all thy working,
How thou servest, and of what thing,
Though that thou shouldest for thy soth-saw
Ben all to betin.

Chaucer.

Prediction.

Well seen in every science that mote be,
And every secret worke of nature's wayes,
In wittie riddles, and in wise soothsayes.

Spenser.

SOO'THSAYER, *s.* A foreteller; a predictor; a prognosticator.

SOO'TINESS, *s.* The quality of being sooty; fuliginousness.

SOO'TY, *adj.* [Sax. ʃoʦiʒ.] Breeding soot.

By fire of sooty coal the alchymist turns
Metals to gold.

Milton.

Consisting of soot; fuliginous.—There may be some chymical way so to defecate this oil, that it shall not spend into a sooty matter. *Wilkins.*—Black; dark; dusky.—All hell run out, and sooty flags display. *P. Fletcher.*

To SOO'TY, *v. a.* To make black with soot.

Then (for his own weeds) shirt and coat all rent,
Tann'd and all sootied with noisome smoke,
She put him on and over all her cloke.

Chapman.

SOOTY, a town of Bengal, situated near the head of the Bhagarutty or Cossimbazar river. The nabob Seraje Addowlah caused, in the year 1757, piles to be driven into the river, to prevent the British flotilla from passing up that way, which has of course much injured the navigation. Here an action was fought in the year 1763, between the British and the troops of Cossim Aly Khan, in which the latter were defeated. Lat. 24. 26. N. long. 88. 2. E.—There are several other towns of this name in Hindostan, but none of consequence.

SOP, *s.* [ʃop, Sax.; *soppe*, Teut.; *suppe*, Germ. from ʃypan, *soppen*, *supen*, macerare, humectare, intingere panem in jus. See Wachter, and Kilian.] Any thing steeped in liquor, commonly to be eaten.—*Sops* in wine, quantity for quantity, inebriate more than wine of itself. *Bacon.*—Any thing given to pacify, from the *sop* given to Cerberus.

The prudent sibyl had before prepar'd
A sop, in honey steep'd, to charm the guard,
Which mix'd with powerful drugs, she cast before
His greedy grinning jaws, just op'd to roar.

Dryden.

To SOP, *v. a.* To steep in liquor.

SOP-

SOP-*in-wine*, *s.* A kind of pink.

Bring in coronations, and *sops-in-wine*,
Worn of paramours.

Spenser.

Sops-in-wine, a flower in colour much like a carnation, but differing in smell and quantitie. *Notes on the Shep. Cal.*

SOPE, *s.* See SOAP.

SOPH, *s.* [from *sophista*, Lat.] A young man who has been two years at the university.

Three Cambridge *sophs*, and three pert templars came,
The same their talents, and their tastes the same;
Each prompt to query, answer and debate,
And smit with love of poesy and prate.

Pope.

SOPHI, or SOFI, a title of quality, given to the emperor of Persia; importing as much as wise, sage or philosopher.

The title is by some said to have taken its rise from a young shepherd thus named, who attained to the crown of Persia in 1370; others derive it from the *sophoi*, or sages, anciently called *magi*. Vossius gives a different account of the word: *sophi*, in Arabic, he observes, signifies *wool*; and he adds, that it was applied by the Turks out of derision to the kings of Persia, ever since Ishmael's time; because, according to their scheme of religion, he is to wear no other covering on his head, but an ordinary, red, woollen stuff; whence the Persians are also called *hazlebasches*, *q. d.* *red-heads*. But Bochart assures us, that *sophi*, in the original Persian language, signifies one that is *pure in his religion*, and who prefers the service of God in all things: and derives it from an order of religious called by the same name.

SOPHIA, a town of Russia; 15 miles south of St. Petersburg. It has a magnificent church, built on the plan of the church of St. Sophia at Constantinople. Population 600.

SOPHIA POINT, the north-east point of entrance into Port Frederick, on the north shore of King George's archipelago. Lat. 53. 12. N. long. 224. 42. E.

SOPHIANA, a village of Aderbijan, in Persia; 24 miles north-west of Tauris.

SOPHICAL, *adj.* [from *σοφία*, Gr.; wisdom.] Teaching wisdom.—All those books which are called *sophical*, such as the wisdom of Sirach, &c., tend to teach the Jews the true spiritual meaning of God's economy. *Harris.*

SOPHIS, or SOFEES, denote a kind of order of religious among the Mahometans in Persia, answering to what are otherwise called *dervises*; and among the Arabs and Indians, *faquirs*.

SOPHIS, is the denomination of a sect of modern philosophers among the Persians, whose name is derived either from the Greek word for a sage, or from the mantle which they used to wear in some provinces of Persia. Their fundamental tenets are, that nothing exists absolutely but God: that the human soul is an emanation from his essence; and, though separated for a time from its heavenly source, will be finally reunited with it: that the highest possible happiness will arise from its reunion; and that the chief good of mankind, in this transitory world, consists in as perfect an union with the eternal Spirit, as the incumbrances of a mortal frame will allow: that, for this purpose, they should break all connection with extrinsic objects, and pass through life without attachments, as a swimmer in the ocean strikes freely without the impediment of clothes: that they should be straight and free as the cypress; whose fruit is hardly perceptible; and not sink under a load, like fruit-trees attached to a trellis: that, if mere earthly charms have power to influence the soul, the idea of celestial beauty must overwhelm it in extatic delight: that, for want of apt words to express the divine perfections with the ardour of devotion, we must borrow such expressions as approach the nearest to our ideas, and speak of *beauty* and *love* in a transcendent and mystical sense: that, like a reed torn from its native bank, like *war* separated from its delicious honey, the soul of

man bewails its disunion with *melancholy music*, and sheds burning tears like the lighted taper, waiting passionately for the moment of its extinction, as a disengagement from earthly trammels, and the means of returning to its only beloved.

SO'PHISM, *s.* [*sophisme*, Fr.; *sophisma*, Lat.] A fallacious argument; an unsound subtilty; a fallacy.—When a false argument puts on the appearance of a true one, then it is properly called a *sophism* or fallacy. *Watts.*

SO'PHIST, *s.* [*sophiste*, Fr.; *sophista*, Lat.] A professor of philosophy.—The court of Croesus is said to have been much resorted to by the *sophists* of Greece in the happy beginning of his reign. *Temple.*

The term *sophist*, which is now reproachful, was anciently honourable, and carried a very innocent idea. St. Augustine observes, it signifies a rhetor, or professor of eloquence: such as were Lucian, Athenæus, Libanus, &c. Suidas, and after him Olar. Celsius, in an express dissertation on the Greek *sophists*, tells us, that the appellation was applied indifferently to all who excelled in any art or science: whether divines, lawyers, physicians, poets, orators or musicians.

Solon is the first who appears to have ever borne the appellation of *sophist*, which is given him by Isocrates; afterwards, it was scarcely ever given, except to philosophers and declaimers.

In the time of Socrates, there was in Athens a large body of professional preceptors of eloquence, distinguished by the appellation of *sophists*. By the mere pomp of words, these men made a magnificent display of wisdom, upon a slight foundation of real knowledge; and they taught an artificial structure of language, and a false method of reasoning; by means of which they were able, in argument, to make the worse appear the better cause. Whilst they arrogated to themselves the merit of every kind of learning, they publicly practised the art of disputing with plausibility on either side of any question, and professed to teach this art to the Athenian youth. By these imposing pretensions, they collected, in their schools, a numerous train of young men, who followed them in hope of acquiring those talents, which would give them influence and authority in popular assemblies. In such high repute were these *sophists*, that they were literally supported, not only by contributions from their pupils, but by a regular salary from the state; and were in many instances distinguished by public honours, and employed in offices of magistracy. Of their enmity to Socrates, we have given an account under his biographical article.

The title *sophista* was in great credit among the Latins in the twelfth century, and in the time of St. Bernard; but it began to lose ground in Greece as early as Plato's time; on account of Protagoras and Gorgias, who made a sordid traffic of it, by selling eloquence for money. Hence Seneca calls the *sophists* quacks, or empirics.

Cicero says, that the title *sophisti* was in his time given to such as professed philosophy with too much ostentation, in order to make a trade of it, by running from town to town, to retail their deceitful science. A *sophist*, therefore, was then, as now, a rhetor, or logician, who makes it his business to ensnare and perplex people, by frivolous distinctions; vain reasonings, and captious discourses.

SOPHISTER, *s.* [*sophiste*, Fr.; *sophista*, Lat.] A disputant fallaciously subtle; an artful but insidious logician.—Not all the subtle objections of *sophisters* and rabbies, against the gospel, so much prejudiced the reception of it, as the reproach of those crimes with which they aspersed the assemblies of christians. *Rogers.*—A professor of philosophy; a *sophist*. *This sense is antiquated.*—Alcidimus the *sophister* hath arguments to prove, that voluntary and extemporal far excelleth premeditated speech. *Hooker.*

To SOPHISTER, *v. a.* To maintain by a fallacious argument. *Obsolete.*—It is well *sophistered* of you both; preposterous are your judgments evermore: ye judge evil good, and good evil. *Ld. Cobham in 1413.*

SOPHISTICAL, or SOPHISTIC, *adj.* [*sophistique*, Fr., from

from *sophist*.] Fallaciously subtle; logically deceitful.—The subtil persuaſions and *sophistical* cavillations of the papistes. *Cränmer*.—That may seem a demonstration for the present, which to posterity will appear a mere *sophistical* knot. *More*.

SOPHISTICALLY, *adv.* With fallacious subtilty.—Bollingbroke argues most *sophistically*. *Swift*.

SOPHISTICATE, *v. a.* [*sophistiquer*, French; from *sophist*.] To adulterate; to corrupt with something spurious.—If the passions of the mind be strong, they easily *sophisticate* the understanding; they make it apt to believe upon every slender warrant, and to imagine infallible truth, where scarce any probable shew appeareth. *Hooker*.

SOPHISTICATE, *part. adj.* Adulterate; not genuine.

Wine sparkles brighter far than she,
'Tis pure and right without deceit,
And such no woman e'er will be;
No, they are all *sophisticate*.

Cowley.

SOPHISTICATION, *s.* [*sophistication*, Fr.] Adulteration; not genuineness.—Besides easy submissions to *sophistications* of sense, we have inability to prevent the mis-carriages of our junior reasons. *Glanville*.—The drugs and simples sold in shops, generally are adulterated by the fraudulent avarice of the sellers, especially if the preciousness may make their *sophistication* very beneficial. *Boyle*.

SOPHISTICATOR, *s.* Adulterator; one that makes things not genuine.—I cordially commend, that the *sophisticators* of wine may suffer punishment above any ordinary thief. *Whitaker*.

SOPHISTRY, *s.* Fallacious ratiocination.—His *sophistry* prevailed; his father believed. *Sidney*.—Logical exercise.—The more youthful exercises of *sophistry*, themes, and declamations. *Pelton*.

SOPHOCLES, a famous tragic poet, was born at Athens about B. C. 497. He was of a condition that allowed of his being educated in the accomplishments most valued at that time; and it is related, that being a youth when the monuments of the victory over Xerxes were fixed up at Salamis, he appeared at the head of a chorus of noble birth, whose song of triumph he led by the strains of his lyre. He first applied himself to lyric poetry; but the fame acquired by Æschylus, the celebrated reformer or author of Grecian tragedy, induced him to try his powers in that species of composition, and in his 28th year he ventured to contend with that veteran for the theatrical prize. The result was, a victory on his part, which was followed by the retreat of his rival, and left him undisputed master of the tragic stage. The improvements he introduced into the drama were so considerable that he may be regarded almost as the father of regular tragedy. He brought a third interlocutor to the two who before alone appeared on the scene at once; he interested the chorus in the subject of the piece; he reduced the turgid and unnatural diction of Æschylus to the proper standard of heroic dignity; and invented that artful construction of fablé and development of incidents which contributes so much to the interest of a dramatic performance. In these points he was superior to his younger competitor Euripides; and upon the whole, he appears to have stood at the head of his class in the judgment both of the Greek and Roman critics. Cicero terms him "a divine poet;" and in a line of Virgil the "Sophoclean buskin" is made an appellation for tragedy in general. Dionysius of Halicarnassus commends him particularly for preserving the dignity of his characters, and dwelling rather on the more noble and generous affections, than on the mean and debasing passions. These praises show that his works were regarded as the most perfect example of tragedy in the highest sense of the word. As at Athens the theatre was an important public concern, we need not wonder to find a tragedian so eminent as Sophocles entrusted with civil and military employments, and joined with Pericles in a commission against the revolted Samians. He retained his faculties, and continued to write tragedies, to an advanced age; and when his sons, on account

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of neglect of his domestic affairs, applied to the magistrates to put him under their guardianship, as having outlived his understanding; he appeared in court, and reciting his Ædipus at Colonus, which he had just finished, asked, if that were the work of a dotard? The judges, convinced by such an appeal, pronounced in his favour, and the audience conducted him home in triumph. The benignity of his character acquired him a number of friends, his attachment to whom, and his moderate wishes, caused him to decline the invitations of the kings who were desirous of drawing him to their courts. It is related to his honour, that at the death of his great rival Euripides, instead of displaying satisfaction, he put on mourning, and would not suffer the actors in a new piece of his to wear crowns. Sophocles is said to have passed his 90th year, and to have died of joy on obtaining the prize for his last tragedy. Above a hundred pieces have been attributed to him by some ancient writers, of which only seven have reached our times.

SOPHORA [Linnæus's derivation of the name of this genus will be best given in his own words.—"Sophora vel Sophera est verbum antiquum plantæ, huic proximæ, impositum, quo utor ad designandum hocce genus quod Sophorum est sive sapientiam et admonitionem fert staminum filamenta in papilionaceis, si separata inter se sint, vix classe naturali conjungendas esse plantas, si unquam limites classis reperiundi sint." Hort. Cliff. p. 156.], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of papilionacæ or leguminosæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, short, bell-shaped, gibbous at the base above; mouth five-toothed, oblique, obtuse. Corolla: papilionaceous, five-petalled. Standard oblong, gradually wider, straight, reflexed at the sides. Wings two, oblong-appendicled at the base, length of the standard. Keel two, petalled, with the petals conformable to the wings, the lower margins approximating and boat-shaped. Stamina: filaments ten, distinct, parallel, awl-shaped, length of the corolla within the keel. Anthers very small, rising. Pistil: germ oblong, cylindrical. Style, size and situation of the stamens. Stigma obtuse. Pericarp: legume very long, slender, one-celled, knobbed at the seeds. Seeds very many, roundish. It agrees in every thing with the plants of the class diadelphia, except in having all the filaments separate.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-toothed, gibbous above. Corolla papilionaceous, with the wings of the same length with the standard. Legume.

1. *Sophora tetraptera*, or wing-podded sophora.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets numerous, lanceolate-oblong; somewhat villose; legumes quadrangular-membranaceous; stem arborescent.—This magnificent tree is a native of New Zealand. It displays its pendulous branches of large golden flowers in May and June.

2. *Sophora microphylla*, or small-leaved shrubby sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets very numerous, obovate, somewhat villose; legumes quadrangular-membranaceous. This is a smooth tree. Flowers large and yellow.—Native of New Zealand.

3. *Sophora flavescens*, or Siberian sophora.—This resembles the next species, but is smooth all over.—Native of Siberia.

4. *Sophora alopecuroides*, or fox-tail sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets numerous, oblong-villose; stem herbaceous. Root perennial. Flowers pale blue and small, in long axillary spikes standing erect close to the stalk.—Native of the Levant.

5. *Sophora tomentosa*, or downy sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets numerous, roundish, tomentose. Stem downy, six or seven feet high.—Native of Ceylon.

6. *Sophora occidentalis*, or occidental sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets numerous, roundish, hoary, subtomentose. This is a shrub, with a round, hoary-pubescent stem; and round, spreading, subtomentose branches.—Native of the West Indies.

7. *Sophora monosperma*, or one-seeded sophora.—Leaves unequally pinnate, pinnae five-paired, legumes one-seeded. This is a small tree, ten feet high, with a whitish bark, and

a hard wood: branches ferruginous, tomentose.—Native of Jamaica and other islands of the West Indies.

8. *Sophora Japonica*, or shining-leaved sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets many, ovate, smooth; stem arboreous. Branches round, even, purplish.—Native of Japan.

9. *Sophora heptaphylla*, or seven-leaved sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets seven, smooth.—Native of the East Indies.

Podalirias.

10. *Sophora Capensis*, or vetch-leaved sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets numerous, lanceolate, hoary beneath, pointed; legumes tomentose; stem shrubby.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

11. *Sophora aurea*, or golden-flowered sophora.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets numerous, elliptic, sharpish, very smooth above, almost naked beneath; legumes smooth; stem shrubby. This is a shrub, the height of a man.—Native of Africa.

12. *Sophora argentea*, or silvery-leaved sophora.—Petioles two-leaved, spinescent; leaflets silky-tomentose, oblong, acute at both ends.—Native of Siberia, on sandy hills, in the Songarian desert, by the river Bekun.

13. *Sophora genistoides*, or broom-leaved sophora.—Leaves ternate, sessile; leaflets linear, mucronate, revolute at the edge.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

14. *Sophora ternata*, or ternate-leaved sophora.—Leaves sessile; leaflets lanceolate, silky.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

15. *Sophora australis*, or blue sophora.—Leaves ternate, petioled; leaflets obovate-lanceolate, obtuse; stipules lanceolate, acute, twice as long as the petiole.—Native of Carolina.

16. *Sophora tinctoria*, or Dyer's sophora.—Leaves ternate, petioled; leaflets roundish-obovate, obtuse, mucronate; stipules obsolete, oblong, acute, many times shorter than the petiole.—Native of Barbadoes and Virginia.

17. *Sophora alba*, or white sophora.—Leaves ternate, petioled; leaflets oblong, obtuse; stipules filiform, shorter than the petiole.—Native of Virginia and Carolina.

18. *Sophora lupinoides*, or lupin leaved sophora.—Leaves ternate, petioled; leaflets elliptic-lanceolate, obtuse, pubescent; stipules lanceolate, longer than the petiole.—Native of Kamtschatka.

19. *Sophora trifoliata*, or three-leaved sophora.—Leaves ternate, petioled; leaflets ovate, silky.—This and all that follow are found at the Cape of Good Hope.

20. *Sophora calyptata*, or veiled sophora.—Leaves simple, elliptic, somewhat rugged above, beneath villous and netted-veined; peduncles one-flowered; calyxes villose, having a deciduous veil at the base.

21. *Sophora biflora*, or two flowered sophora.—Leaves simple, ovate, subtomentose; peduncles two-flowered; calyxes thrust in at the base, tomentose, coloured.

22. *Sophora myrtillifolia*, or round-leaved sophora.—Leaves simple, elliptic-obovate, obtuse, cusped, silky on both sides; peduncles one-flowered.

23. *Sophora hirsuta*, or hairy sophora.—Leaves simple, hirsute, the upper ones ovate, the lower roundish; branches round; segments of the calyx lanceolate, and length of the wings.

24. *Sophora buxifolia*, or box-leaved sophora.—Leaves simple, oval, smooth above, silky beneath; peduncles one-flowered; calyxes thrust in at the base, tomentose, coloured.

25. *Sophora cordata*, or heart-leaved sophora.—Leaves simple, ovate, hirsute.

Propagation and Culture.—The two first species may be raised from seeds, which sometimes ripen in this country. They may also be increased by cuttings and layers. They will bear our climate, if planted against a wall, where they may be covered with mats, to protect them from severe frost.

The 4th increases fast enough by its creeping root.

The 5th, 6th and 7th must have the protection of a stove; and may be propagated by seeds, when they can be procured from the countries where they grow naturally.

The 15th, 16th and 17th may be propagated by seeds

sown on a warm border, at the beginning of April, in shallow drills. All the others are dry stove plants.

SOPHRONISTÆ, [*Σοφρονισται*, Gr.] among the Athenians, were ten officers, appointed to take care that the young men behaved themselves with sobriety and moderation.

SOPHRONISTERIUM, [*Σοφρονιστηριον*, Gr.] among the Athenians, a house of correction, like our Bridewell.

SOPING, a district or principality of the island of Celebes, and anciently one of the most powerful in the country. It extends partly along the western shore of the bays of Boni and Tolo. To the north it is bounded by a great lake, and on the south it borders on Lamoeroe, and is partly mountainous. Its chief production is rice. The natives are very warlike, and were always set on to dissensions by the crooked policy of the Dutch. In 1775, Soping was governed by its own king.

SOPLEY, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-west of Christ Church. Population 589.

To **SOPORATE**, *v. n.* [*soporo*, Lat.] To lay asleep.

SOPORIFEROUS, *adj.* [*soporifere*, Fr. Cotgrave; *soporifer*, Lat. from *sopor* and *fero*.] Productive of sleep; causing sleep; narcotic; opiate; dormitive; somniferous; anodyne; sleepy.—The particular ingredients of those magical ointments are opiate and *soporiferous*: for anointing of the forehead, neck, feet, and back-bone, procures dead sleeps. *Bacon*.

SOPORIFEROUSNESS, *s.* The quality of causing sleep.

SOPORIFIC, *adj.* Causing sleep; opiate; narcotic.—The colour and taste of opium are, as well as its *soporifick* or anodyne virtues, mere powers depending on its primary qualities. *Locke*.

SOPOROUS, *adj.* [*soporus*, Lat.] Sleepy; causing sleep.—In small synopses it may perhaps rouse the spirits a little, but in *soporous* diseases it is commonly an uncertain and ineffectual remedy. *Greenhill*.

SOPPER, *s.* One that steeps any thing in liquor.

SOPRA, a river of Hindostan, which rises in the province of Malwah, and falls into the Chumbul.

SOPWORTH, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-by-south of Malmesbury.

SORA, a town of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, on the Gorigliano, with 7200 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop; 60 miles north-west of Naples. Lat. 41. 47. N. long. 13. 36. E.

SORACA, a river of South America, in New Granada, and province of Tunja. There is a settlement of the same name on its shores.

SORAGNA, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, on the river Strone; 13 miles north-north-west of Parma.

SORALA, a small town of Sweden, in Helsingland, on the river Luisna.

SORANUS, one of the most able of the physicians of the *methodic* sect, according to the opinion of Cælius Aurelianus, and the one who put the finishing hand to that system, was a native of Ephesus. His father's name was Menander, and that of his mother Phœbe. He studied medicine, and afterwards practised it at Alexandria, but at length he settled at Rome, and was in considerable repute in that metropolis in the reigns of Trajan and Adrian. His character, indeed, seems to have been highly estimated; for he was in favour with all parties. Even Galen, who was violent in his opposition to the *Methodists*, and abused Thessalus with some acrimony, speaks favourably of the knowledge of Soranus; and bears his testimony, from experience, to the efficacy of some of his remedies. Soranus composed several works, none of which have come down to us in their proper form; but as Cælius Aurelianus, in his treatise "De Morbis Acutis et Chronicis," every where acknowledges himself to be a translator from the Greek of Soranus, that work may be considered as in substance the production of the latter.

Some confusion prevails among medical writers, who mistake

take Soranus the Methodist for two other physicians of the same name. The first of these was also a native of Ephesus, but posterior to the Methodist. He was the author of a good treatise on the diseases and organs of generation of women, which was printed at Paris in 1556, under the title of "De Utero et Muliebri pudendo libellus," together with some pieces of Rufus, the Ephesian. This fragment is so accurate in point of anatomical description, as to leave a regret that the other writings of this physician are lost. The third of these physicians of the name of Soranus, was surnamed *Melotas*, from the town in Cilicia, where he was born. There is, however, no very authentic record of him extant; and the only work ascribed to him, which is entitled "Isagoge saluberrima in Artem medendi," and was printed at Basle, 1528, and Venice, 1547, is maintained by Vossius to be the work of a posterior Latin writer, and not of any of the three persons named Soranus. See *Le Clerc, Hist. de la Med. Eloy Dict. Hist.*

SORAU, or **ZAROWE**, a neat town of the Prussian States, in Lower Lusatia; 49 miles south-south east of Frankfort on the Oder. It contains a palace, four Protestant churches, an orphan house, with a free school, two hospitals, and 3800 inhabitants. They carry on a variety of petty manufactures.

SORAU, or **ZVORY**, a town of Prussian Silesia; 20 miles east of Ratibor, and 54 south-south-east of Oppeln. Population 1700.

SORB, *s.* [*sorbum*, Lat.] The service-tree.—The timber of the *sorb* is useful to the joiner. *Evelyn*.—The berry of the tree.

SORBAIT (Paul de), a physician of eminence, was a native of Hainault, in the Low Countries. Having finished his courses of classical and philosophical studies, he commenced that of medicine, which he appears to have concluded by taking the degree of doctor in that faculty at Vienna, where he ultimately settled. He obtained a high reputation for medical skill and erudition; and, in 1655, was appointed to the principal professorship of medicine in the university of that metropolis, the duties of which he executed with considerable celebrity, until the year 1679. While he was engaged in his course of this year, he was honoured with the appointment of physician to the dowager empress Eleanor, and at the conclusion of it, relinquished altogether his academical avocations. His merits were still farther rewarded by the office of counsellor and superintendant of the public health, and by his elevation to the dignity of a knight of the kingdom of Hungary. He died in April 1691, at an advanced age. He left several works, namely, a-body of medical practise, first published at Nuremberg, in 1672, folio, with the title of "Universa Medicina, tam Theorica quam Practica, nempe Isagoge Institutionum Medicarum et Anatomicarum, &c." This work was republished at Vienna in 1680, and again after his death, in 1701, with the new title of "Praxeos Medicæ auctæ, et a plurimis typi mendis ab ipso Auctore castigatæ Tractatus VII. &c." "Nova et aucta Institutionum Medicarum Isagoge," 1678, 4to. "Commentaria et Controuersiæ in omnes Libros Aphorismorum Hippocratis," 1680. In the preceding year he published an account of the plague, which had committed dreadful ravages in Vienna, having destroyed, he affirms, not less than 76,921 persons. Its title was "Consilium Medicum, sive Dialogus Loimicus de Peste Viennensi," 1697; and he published the same work, in German, in 1680. He was author also of "A Treatise on Midwifery," in the German language. *Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Med.*

SORBIE, a parish of Scotland, in Wigtonshire, lying on the coast of the bay of Wigton. It is nearly 6 miles in length, and the same in breadth. Population 1265.

SORBIERE (Samuel), was born in 1615, at St. Ambroix, in the diocese of Usex. He was educated by his maternal uncle, an eminent Calvinist minister at Nismes. He came to Paris in 1639, and being disgusted, for some reasons not now known, with the study of the theology, he took up that of medicine. In 1642 he went to Holland, where, besides pursuing his medical studies, he materially assisted in the transla-

tion of Camden's *Britannia*, and also More's *Utopia*. He married, in Holland, the daughter of one of his townsmen, and went to Leyden, with the intention of settling in his profession. In 1648 he published, under his own name, a French version of a treatise of Gassendi, entitling it "Discours sceptique sur le Passage du Chyle, et le Mouvement du Cœur." Returning to France in 1650, he was made principal of the college of Orange, and there printed a Discourse on the true cause of the troubles of England, and a letter on the designs of Cromwell. He conformed to the Catholic religion in 1653, after which his life was chiefly spent as an author, with a view, it is said, of attempting to obtain pensions, in which he was very successful, having laid under contribution Cardinal Mazarin, Lewis XIV., and the popes Alexander VII. and Clement IX. He visited England in 1664, and on his return he published an account of what he had observed, which was so free in its strictures, that he was for a time exiled by a *lettre de cachet*. Sorbriere was likewise author of a work entitled "Lettres et Discours sur divers Matières curieuses," which contributed to his temporary reputation. He died in 1670, and a *Sorberiana* was published after his death, containing sentiments supposed to have dropt from him in conversation. His writings exhibit a caustic and satirical spirit, and the learning which they display is neither original nor solid. He was intimately connected with Hobbes and Gassendi, on whom he imposed himself as a profound thinker.

SORBILE, *adj.* [from *sorbeo*, Lat.] That may be drunk or sipped.

SORBITION, *s.* [*sorbitio*, Fr. Cotgrave; *sorbitio*, Lat.] The act of drinking or sipping.

SORBO'NICAL, *adj.* Of or belonging to a Sorbonist. See **SORBONIST**.

SOR'BONIST, *s.* A doctor of theological house of *Sorbon*, or *Sorbonne*, in the university of Paris: the *Sorbonne* was also a term used in general for the whole faculty of the theology there.

In school-divinity as able
As he that hight Irrefragable:—
Profound in all the nominal
And real ways beyond them all;
For he a rope of sand could twist
As tough as learned *Sorbonist*.

Hudibras.

SORBONNE (Robert de), founder of the famous theological college which bears his name, was born in 1201, of an obscure family at Sorbon, in the diocese of Rhims. Being educated at Paris, and having taken his degree of doctor, he devoted himself to preaching, in which he became so celebrated, that the king made him his chaplain and confessor. Having become a canon of Cambray in 1251, the recollection of the difficulties which he had experienced in the course of his own studies, suggested to him a plan for facilitating to poor scholars the means of proceeding to graduation. This was to form a society of secular ecclesiastics, who, living in common, and provided with a regular maintenance, should read lectures gratuitously. With the assistance of his friends, he founded the college called the Sorbonne, which was particularly consecrated to the study of theology, and its constitution has served as a model for that of all colleges since erected in that country. Sorbonne afterwards added to this foundation a college for the languages and philosophy, under the name of the College of Calvi, or the Little Sorbonne. He was made canon of Paris in 1258, and rose to such a height of reputation, that princes looked to him on many important occasions as the arbitrator of their disputes. He died in 1274, at the age of 73, and left considerable property to his college. He was author of several works on theological subjects, which are preserved in MS. in the library of the great college of which he was the liberal founder.

SORBONNE, or **SORBON**, the house or college of the faculty of theology, established in the university of Paris.

It was founded in 1256, by St. Louis, or rather by Robert de Sorbonne, his confessor and almoner; first canon of Cambray, and afterwards of the church of Paris; who gave his

his own name to it, which he himself took from the village of Sorbon, or Serbon, in the department of the Ardennes, near Sens, six miles north of Rethel, where he was born.

The foundation was laid in 1250, afterwards the king gave him all the houses he had in the same place, in exchange for some others in another.

The college has been since magnificently rebuilt by the Cardinal de Richelieu. The design of its institution was for the use of poor students in divinity.

There were lodgings in it for thirty-six doctors and bachelors of the house; who were said to be of the *society of the Sorbonne*. Those admitted into it without being doctors were said to be of the *hospitality of the Sorbonne*. Six regent doctors held lectures every day, for an hour and half each, three in the morning, and three in the afternoon.

Sorbonne has been also used in the general for the whole faculty of theology at Paris, because the assemblies of the whole body were held in the house of the Sorbonne: and because the bachelors of the other houses of the faculty, as the house of Navarre, &c., came thither to hold their *forbonnique*, or act, for being admitted doctors of divinity.

SORBUS [of Pliny, &c., a *sorbendo*, *quia caro matura sorbetur*: the pulp being supped or sucked in], in Botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order trigynia, natural order of pomaceæ; rosaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, concave-spreading, five-cleft, permanent. Corolla: petals five, roundish, concave, inserted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments twenty, awl-shaped, inserted into the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ inferior. Styles three, filiform, erect. Stigmas headed. Pericarp: Berry soft, globular, umbilicate. Seeds three, somewhat oblong, distinct, cartilaginous.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-cleft. Petals five. Berry inferior, three-seeded.

1. *Sorbus aucuparia*, mountain service, mountain ash, quicken tree, or roan tree.—Leaves pinnate, smooth on both sides. The mountain ash is an elegant tree, of slow growth; the wood tough and close-grained; not very hard; the bark smooth and gray; the young branches purplish, brown. Leaves unequally pinnate; leaflets (five, six, seven or eight pairs,) serrate, except at the base.—Native of the colder parts of Europe, Mount Libanus, Siberia, &c. Woods and hedges on mountainous and boggy situations in the north of England, in Wales, Scotland and Ireland: flowering in May.

2. *Sorbus hybrida*, bastard service or mountain ash.—Leaves semipinnate, tomentose beneath. This is a middle-sized tree. Leaves lobed in front, pinnate at the base, serrate, without any stipules, smooth above, white-tomentose beneath. Corymbs terminating, tomentose, many-flowered. Flowers white. Styles three, or sometimes two only. Fruit as in the preceding, but a little larger.—Native of Europe.

3. *Sorbus domestica*, true service or sorb.—Leaves pinnate, villose underneath. The true service is a tree of middle size, not unlike the mountain ash, of very slow growth, not flowering till it arrives at a great age; the wood is very hard.—The true service is a native of the warmer parts of Europe, where it becomes a large and lofty tree.

Propagation and Culture.—All these sorts may be propagated by sowing their seeds in pots soon after the fruit is ripe, sheltering them under a common frame in winter, and plunging the pots into a moderate hot-bed in the spring, which will soon bring up the plants.

SORCERER, *s.* [*sorcier*, Fr., *sortarius*]; low Latin; from *sortes*, Lat. lots; implying a diviner by lots.] A conjurer; an enchanter; magician.

He saw a sable *sorcerer* arise,
All sudden gorgons hiss, and dragons glare,
And ten-hord'd fiends.

Pope.

SORCERESS, *s.* A female magician; an enchantress.

The snaky *sorceress* that sat
Just by hell-gate, and kept the fatal key.

Milton.

SORCEROUS, *adj.* Not used.

Th'art ent'ring Circe's house,
Where by her med'cines, black and *sorcerous*,
Thy souldiers all are shut in well arm'd sties,
And turn'd to swine.

Chapman.

The wine being consecrated, it is carried home, that therewith they may sprinkle their houses, to preserve them from witchcraft and *sorcerous* incantations. *L. Addison.*

SORCERY, *s.* Magic; enchantment; conjuration; witchcraft; charms.

This witch Sycorax,
For mischiefs manifold, and *sorceries* terrible,
Was banish'd

Shakspeare.

SORCERY, the crime of witchcraft, or divination, by the assistance of evil spirits. See **MAGIC** and **MAGICIAN**.

SORCY, a town in the north-east of France, department of the Meuse, with 1800 inhabitants. It has manufactures of leather; 4 miles south-east of Commercy.

SORD, *s.* Turf; grassy ground.

This is the prettiest low-born lass that ever
Ran on the green *sord*.

Shakspeare.

SORDE, a town in the south-west of France, department of the Landes, near the river called Gave d'Oleron, with 1300 inhabitants; 11 miles south of Dax.

SORDES, *s.* [Latin.] Foulness; dregs.—The sea washes off the soil and *sordes* wherein mineral masses were involved and concealed, and thereby renders them more conspicuous. *Woodward.*

SORDET; or **SORLINE**, *s.* [*sourdine*, Fr. *sordina*, Italian.] A small pipe put into the mouth of a trumpet to make it sound lower or shriller. *Bailey.*

SORDI, a small island of Greece, in the Mediterranean, about 6 miles west of Candia.

SORRID, *adj.* [*sordide*, Fr. in all its senses; *sordidus*, Lat.] Foul; gross; filthy; dirty.

There Charon stands
A *sordid* god, down from his hoary chin
A length of beard descends, uncomb'd, unclean.

Dryden.

Intellectually dirty; mean; vile; base.
Thou can'st not those exceptions make,
Which vulgar *sordid* mortals take.

Cowley.

Covetous; niggardly.

He may be old,
And yet not *sordid*, who refuses gold.

Denham.

SORRIDLY, *adv.* Meanly; poorly; covetously.
SORRIDNESS, *s.* Meanness; baseness.—I omit the madnesses of Caligula's delights, and the execrable *sordidness* of those of Tiberius. *Cowley.*—Nastiness; not neatness.—Providence deters people from sluttishness and *sordidness*, and provokes them to cleanliness. *Ray.*

SORDUN, a town of France, department of the Seine and Marne. Population 800.

SORE, *s.* [*jar*, Saxon; *saur*, Danish.] A place tender and painful; a place excoriated; an ulcer. It is not used of a wound, but of a breach of continuity, either long continued or from internal cause: to be a *sore*, there must be an excoriation; a tumour or bruise is not called a *sore* before some disruption happen.

Let us hence provide
A salve for any *sore* that may betide.

Shakspeare.

By these all festring *sores* her councils heal,
Which time or has disclos'd, or shall reveal.

Dryden.

SORE, *adj.* [*jar*, Sax. *gravis*, *molestus*; *sar*, Goth. *tener*. *Serenius.*] Tender to the touch. It has sometimes of before the causal noun.—It was a right answer of the physician to his patient, that had *sore* eyes, If you have more pleasure in the taste of wine than in the use of your sight, wine is good; but if the pleasure of seeing be greater to you than that of drinking, wine is naught. *Locke.*—Tender in the mind; easily vexed.—Malice and hatred are very fretting and vexatious, and apt to make our minds *sore* and uneasy; but he that can moderate these affections will ease in his mind. *Tillotson.*

—Violent

—Violent with pain; afflictively vehement. See SORE, adverb.

Threescore and ten I can remember well,
Within the volume of which time I've seen
Hours dreadful, and things strange; but this *sore* night
Hath trifled former knowings. *Shakespeare.*

Criminal. *Out of use.*

To lapse in fulness
Is *sorer* than to lie for need; and falsehood
Is worse in kings than beggars. *Shakespeare.*

SORE, *adv.* [This the etymologists derive from *seer*, Teut. Germ. *ser* or *sehr*.] Intensely; in a great degree.

This worthy Jason *sore* alongeth
To see the strange regions. *Gower.*

Good men delight *sore* when they hear of virtuous men.
Thorpe.—With painful or dangerous vehemence; a very painful degree; with afflictive violence or pertinacity. *It is now little Used.*

The knight, then lightly leaping to the prey,
With mortal steel him smote again so *sore*,
That headless his unwieldy body lay. *Spenser.*

To SORE, *v. a.* To wound; to make sore. The following is the reading of Spenser's first edition in 1590, and no doubt the true one. Others read *bor'd*.

The wyde wound—
Was closed up, as it had not been *sor'd*. *Spenser.*

SORE, *s.* [*sor-falcon*, Fr. a *soare*-hawk, Cotgrave; from *saur*, brown.] A hawk of the first year.—The distinction of eyes and ramage hawks, of *sores* and enter-mewers. *Sir T. Brown.*—A buck of the fourth year [from *saur*, Fr.]—A buck is the first year a fawn; the second year, a pricket, the third year, a sorrell; and the fourth year, a *soare*. *Return from Parnassus.*

SORE, a town of France, department of the Landes. Population 1500.

SORECABA, a river of Brazil, which empties itself, in Lat. 23. 31. S. into the Tiete, which carries its waters to the great river Parana. There is a town of the same name on its banks; and in the neighbourhood are several mountains, abounding in rich oxide of iron, which, on smelting, has been found of good quality.

SO'REHON, or SO'RN, *s.* [Irish and Scottish.] A kind of arbitrary exaction or servile tenure, formerly in Scotland, as likewise in Ireland. Whenever a chieftain had a mind to revel, he come down among the tenants with his followers, by way of contempt called in the lowlands *giliwitfitts*, and lived on free quarters; so that ever since, when a person obtrudes himself upon another, stays at his house, and hangs upon him for bed and board, he is said to *sorn*, or be a *sorner*. *Macbean.*—They exact upon them all kinds of services; yea, and the very wild exactions, coignie, livery, and *sorehon*; by which they poll and utterly undo the poor tenants and freeholders under them. *Spenser.*

SO'REL, or SO'RREL, *adj.* [*saur*, Fr.] Reddish; inclining to a red colour: as a *sorrel* horse.—To redden herrings, lay them on hurdles in a close room, and there smoke them with the dried leaves of elm or oak, or with tanner's bark, until they have gotten their *sorrel* hue. *Cotgrave.*

SO'REL, or SO'RREL, *s.* [dimin. of *sore*, from *saur*, Fr.] A buck of the third year. See SORE.—I am but a mere *sorell*, my head's not hardened yet. *A Christian turned Turk.*

SOREL, a seigniori of Lower Canada, in the south side of the St. Lawrence, in the county of Richlieu and Surry.

SOREL, or WILLIAM HENRY, a town of Lower Canada, pleasantly situated at the confluence of the Richlieu, Chambly, or Sorel river, with the St. Lawrence. It stands on the site of a fort, built in the year 1665, by order of M. de Tracy, similar to those erected in the neighbourhood of Montreal, &c., as a defence against the incursions of the Indians, and which received its name from Sorel, a captain

of engineers, who superintended its construction. The plan of it covers about 120 acres of ground, although at present the number of houses does not much exceed 150, exclusive of stores, barracks, and government buildings. It is laid out with regularity, the streets intersecting each other at right angles, and having in the centre a square 170 yards on each side. The dwelling-houses are of wood, substantially and well constructed, but the Protestant and the Catholic churches are both stone buildings. There are eight principal streets, that, like the town itself, are named after different branches of the royal family. The whole population is about 1500. Before the town, the bank of the Richlieu is from ten to twelve feet high, having near the point two small wharfs or landing places. The river is here two hundred and fifty yards broad, with from two and a half to five and a half fathoms of water. On the opposite shore there are convenient places for building vessels, and where some of large tonnage have been constructed; but latterly, this branch of trade has not been so much attended to here as it used to be. A small distance from a little rivulet, to the southward of the place, is a blockhouse and an hospital; and a little further on, a good wooden building, with out-houses, gardens, &c., called the government-house, serving as a residence for the commanding officer of the troops stationed here, usually one or two companies of infantry. The present town of Sorel was begun about the year 1785, when some loyalists and disbanded soldiers settled at it; and it still continues to be the residence of many old military servants of the crown, who exist upon pensions allowed them by government. Some trade is carried on here; but not so much as it might be supposed its situation at the junction of two navigable rivers would command. Lat. 46. 5. N. long. 72. 55. W.

SOREL RIVER. See RICHLIEU.

SO'RELY, *adv.* With a great degree of pain or distress.—Here's the smell of the blood still; all the perfumes of Arabia will not sweeten this little hand. Oh! oh! oh!—What a sigh is there? the heart is *sorely* overcharged. *Shakespeare.*—With vehemence dangerous or afflictive.

I have done ill,
Of which I do accuse myself so *sorely*,
That I will enjoy no more. *Shakespeare.*

SO'RENESS, *s.* [ʃæpnýʃe, Sax.] Tenderness of a hurt.—My foot began to swell, and the pain asswaged, though it left such a *soreness*, that I could hardly suffer the clothes of my bed. *Temple.*

SOREX, or SHREW, in Natural History, a genus of the Mammalia Feræ class and order, of which the following is the Generic Character: there are two upper fore-teeth, which are long and bifid; the lower fore-teeth are from two to four, the intermediate ones are shorter; there are several tusks on each side; the grinders cuspidate. Seventeen species are enumerated in Gmelin's last edition of the Linnæan genera, which are as follow:—

1. *Sorex cristatus*, or crested shrew.—The nostrils in this species are carunculate: the tail is short.—It inhabits North America.—The whole animal is four inches long, and the tail an inch and a quarter: it feeds on roots, and resembles the mole in its face and snout.

2. *Sorex minutus*, or minute shrew.—The snout of this species is very long, and it has no tail.—It inhabits Siberia, in moist woods, under the roots of trees; it makes its nest of lichen, collects seeds, runs and burrows quickly; it bites, has the voice of a bat, and weighs about a drachm.

3. *Sorex aquaticus*, or aquatic shrew.—In this species, the hind-feet are palmate; fore feet are white; the tail is short and white.—It is an inhabitant of North America, and is the size of a mole.

4. *Sorex moschatus*. Feet palmate, tail flattened, thickest in the middle.—This is called the musky shrew; it inhabits about the lakes of Volga and Tanais; burrows under the banks, with an entrance into the water; feeds on flags and fish; the body of the animal is seven inches long, and the tail is eight.

5. *Sorex bicolor*, or water shrew. The tail of this species is of the mean length; it is naked; the body is blackish, beneath it is cinereous; the toes are fringed.—It inhabits Europe and Siberia, near swamps and rivers; swims easily, often under water; the female has ten teats, and brings forth nine young at a time; it makes a noise like the chirp of a grasshopper; the body of the animal is four inches long, and the tail two.

6. *Sorex murinus*, or murine shrew. The tail is of a middle length; the body is brown, feet and tail cinereous.—It inhabits Java, and is the size of a mouse.

7. *Sorex araneus*, or fetid shrew.—The tail of this species is of the middle length; the body beneath is whitish.—It inhabits almost every part of Europe, and in the northern climates of Asia; it lives in old walls, stables, yards, granaries, out-houses, swamps, and pools; it feeds on corn and insects; it smells of musk; is killed, but not eaten, by cats; the voice is shrill; it runs much slower than a mouse; brings five or six young ones in spring and summer; it is seldom so long as three inches. There are two varieties: 1. Head, and upper parts, dusky; sides brownish rusty.—This is found in Hudson's Bay and Labrador. 2. The upper parts are of a dusky grey, and underneath the animal is of a yellowish white.

8. *Sorex Surinamensis*, or Surinam shrew.—The tail of this species is half as long as the body; the body above is chestnut, beneath white and yellowish grey.—It is found, as its specific name denotes, at Surinam.

9. *Sorex pusillus*, or timid shrew.—Ears rounded; tail short, a little fringed at the sides. It inhabits the northern parts of Persia, in holes which it burrows, it is three inches and a half long; the body is of a dark grey above, and the belly is paler.

10. *Sorex Brasiliensis*.—The body of this species is brown, the back is black, with three stripes.—It inhabits Brasil, is about five inches long, with a tail of two inches in length.

11. *Sorex exilis*.—The tail of this is very thick in the middle, tapering to each end.—It inhabits Siberia; it is the smallest of quadrupeds, scarcely weighing half a drachm; it is like, though of a darker colour, the *sorex araneus*.

12. *Sorex cæruleus*, or blue shrew.—The tail is of a mean length; the upper parts are of a pale blue; the belly is lighter; the legs and feet are white.—It inhabits Java, and the other East Indian islands, feeds on rice, smells strongly of musk, is eight inches long; with a tail about half that length.

13. *Sorex Mexicanus*, or Mexican shrew.—The tail is short; the fore-feet are three-toed; the hind-feet have four toes.—It is found in New Spain; burrows in vast numbers, feeds on roots and seeds; the flesh is good; it is about nine inches long.

14. *Sorex albipes*, or white-footed shrew.—Tail slender, hairy; upper parts dusky-ash; feet, belly, and teeth, white.

15. *Sorex quadri-caudatus*, or square-tailed shrew. The tail, as its specific name denotes, is squarish; the head and upper parts are of a dusky-ash; the belly is paler; the fore-teeth are brown.

16. *Sorex luri-caudatus*, or carinate shrew.—The tail is taper, keeled underneath; head and upper parts dusky-ash, belly whitish; fore-teeth brown, a white spot behind each eye.

17. *Sorex unicolor*.—The tail is compressed at the base; the body is of an uniform dusky ash.—It is observed by Gmelin, that the last four, described as distinct species, are probably only varieties of the *sorex araneus*.—They are all found near Strasburg.

SOREZE, a town of France, department of the Tarn. Population 2700. It has a large provincial school, with about 500 pupils; 33 miles south of Albi.

SOREZE, a town of France, department of the Tarn; 14 miles south-west of Castres, with a public school. Population 2700.

SORGHUM, a name of oriental or barbarous origin. See HOLCUS.

SORGUES, a large river of France, in Provence, which

issues from the well known *Fontaine de Vaucluse*, becomes navigable at 300 paces from its source, and falls into the Rhone near Avignon.

SORGUES, a town of France, department of the Vaucluse, situated at the junction of the Sorgues and the Louveze. Population 1400; 6 miles north-east of Avignon.

SORIA, a province in the interior of Spain, in Old Castile, lying to the west of Navarre and Arragon. Its area is 4300 square miles; its population about 200,000. It is hilly almost throughout, being intersected by the Sierras or chains called respectively *Ministra*, *Moncayo*, and *Paredes*. Even its plains are elevated, narrow, and by no means fertile, with the exception of a track along the Ebro, called *Rioja*. The climate is mild in the valleys, but bleak on the hills. The products are of considerable variety; but the elevation of the surface, together with the neglect of tillage, render the breeding of sheep the most profitable employment, and the sale of the wool and lambs the principal object of traffic. A good deal of wine and fruit is raised in this province, and a small quantity of hemp and flax. There are a few manufactures of woollen, linen, paper, and leather, all confined to home consumption. The Ebro flows through the north-east corner, and the Douro has its source in this high district, in which it is joined by the *Tajuna* and *Ucero*. The other rivers of the province are the *Jalon*, the *Cidacos*, and the *Alamo*. It has several small lakes.

SORIA, the chief town of the above district, is situated on the Douro, not far from its source. It contains 6000 inhabitants, has fifteen churches and chapels, eleven monasteries, and four hospitals. It has also a few manufactures of silk stockings, leather, soap, and woollens, with some trade in wool. It is, however, a dull and gloomy place. Near this was the site of the ancient *Numantia*; 110 miles north-east of Madrid, and 49 west-north-west of *Calatayud*.

SORIANG, a river on the west coast of the island of Celebes, which runs into the sea. Lat. 3. 9. S. long. 119. 48. E.

SORIANO, a town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, with 3600 inhabitants; 6 miles east-south-east of *Mileto*.

SORIASCO, a town of the Sardinian states, in the Milanese, with 1200 inhabitants.

SORIGO, a small town of Austrian Italy, on the west bank of the lake of Como.

SORITES, *s.* [σωρητης.] Properly an heap. An argument where one proposition is accumulated on another.—*Chrysippus* the Stoick invented a kind of argument, consisting of more than three propositions, which is called *sortes* or a heap *Dryden*.—More properly *Sortes* is defined a kind of argument, in which several middle terms are chosen to connect one another successively in several propositions, till the last proposition connects its predicate with the first subject. Whence *Cicero* calls it *sylogismus acervatus*, an accumulative syllogism.

Such was that merry argument of *Themistocles*, to prove, that his little son, under ten years old, governed the whole world. Thus: "My son governs his mother; his mother me; I the Athenians; the Athenians the Greeks; Greece commands Europe; Europe the whole world: therefore my son commands the whole world."

This method of disputing prevailed much among the Stoics; especially with *Zeno* and *Chrysippus*.

SORLIN, St., a town of France, department of the Ain, near the Rhone. Population 1000.

SORN, a parish of Scotland, in Ayrshire, of nearly a square form, and about 6½ miles long on each side. Population 3348.

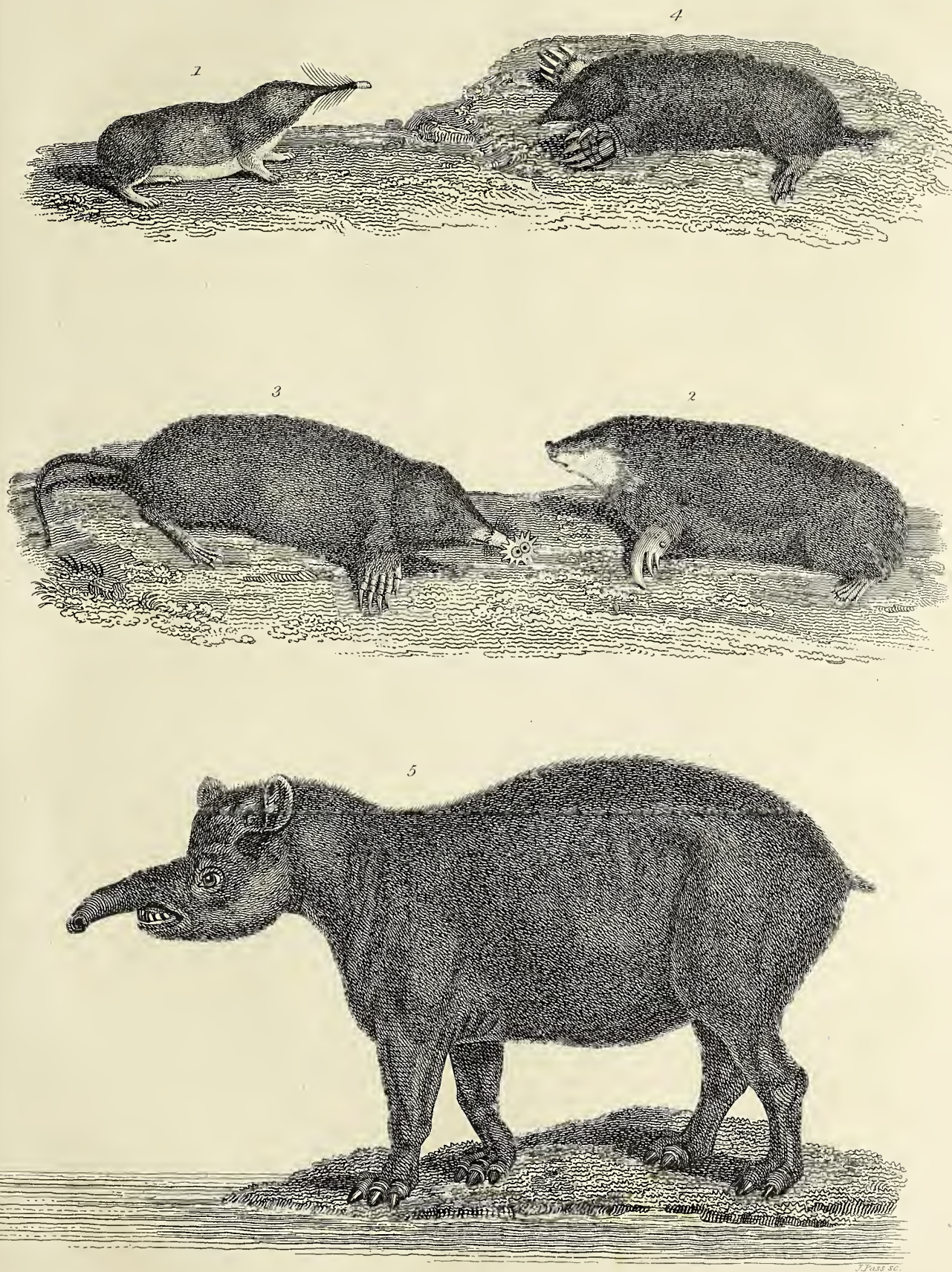
SORNAC, a town of France, department of the Correze, near the river *Diegc*. Population 1500; 36 miles north-east of *Tulle*.

SORO, a river of Estremadura, which runs into the *Tagus*, near *Salvaterra*.

SOROCEPHALUS, in Botany, so named by *Mr. Brown*, from *σωρος*, a heap, and *κεφαλη*, the head, alluding to the aggregate, or crowded, heads of flowers. See *PROTEA*.

SOROE,

SOREX, TALPA, TAPIR.



1. *S. minutus*. 2. *T. asiaticus*. 3. *T. longicaudata*. 4. *T. europaea*. 5. *T. americana*.

SOROE, a town of Denmark, in the island of Zealand, situated on a lake. Population 500; 35 miles south-west of Copenhagen.

SORO'RICIDE, *s.* [*soror* and *cædo*.] The murder of a sister.

SORR, a village of Bohemia, in the circle of Konigingratz.

SOR'RAGE, *s.* The blades of green wheat or barley.

SO'R'RANCES, *s.* [In Farriery.] Any disease or sore in horses. *Dict.*

SORRAYA, a river of Portugal, in Alentejo, which falls into the Tagus,

SOR'REL, *s.* [*rube*, Saxon; *sorel*, French; *oxalis*, Lat.] This plant agrees with the dock in all its characters, and only differs in having an acid taste. *Miller*.—Of all roots of herbs the root of *sorrel* goeth the farthest into the earth. It is a cold and acid herb that loveth the earth, and is not much drawn by the sun. *Bacon*.

SO'REL, *adj.* See SOREL.

SORRENTO, a town of Italy, built on a peninsula, on the south side of the gulf of Naples, between the mountains of Vico and Massa, which shelter it from the west and south winds. Its situation is delightful, being surrounded with gardens. It contains only 4200 inhabitants, although the number of ancient marbles, and of the ruins of edifices, shew it to have been formerly much more extensive. Of its temples those of Juno, Diana, and Hercules, were the most magnificent. Its wines were in former ages accounted little inferior to the most renowned of Italy. At present, though not in so high repute, they are raised in large quantities; also olives, oranges, silk, all in the adjacent plain, which is beautiful and well cultivated. Part of the silk is manufactured in the town. Sorrento is the see of an archbishop, and gave birth to Tasso, the celebrated poet; 15 miles south-south-east of Naples.

SO'RRIPLY, *adv.* Meanly; poorly; despicably; wretchedly; pitifully.—How does this hero in buskins perform; so wretchedly and *sorriply*, so exactly to the same tune and his wonted pitch, that he has not struck one right stroke. *Bentley*.

SO'R'RINESS *s.* Meanness; wretchedness; pitiableness; despicableness.

SORROKA, a small town of European Russia, in Moldavia, on the Dniester.

To SO'RROW, *v. n.* [*saurgan*, Gothic; *rorzian*, Sax.] To grieve; to be sad; to be dejected.

The miserable change, now at my end,
Lament, nor *sorrow* at. *Shakspeare*.

S'O'RROW, *s.* [*rorz*, Saxon, from *rorzran*; *saurgan*, M. Goth. *sorga*, Su. Goth. to grieve. *Serenius*.] Grief; pain for something past; sadness; mourning. Sorrow is not commonly understood as the effect of present evil, but of lost good.

Sorrow on thee, and all the pack of you;
That triumph thus upon my misery! *Shakspeare*.

SO'RROWED, *adj.* Accompanied with sorrow. *Out of use*.

Now the public body, which doth seldom
Play the recanter, feeling in itself
A lack of Timon's aid, hath sense withal
Of its own fall, restraining aid to Timon:
And sends forth us to make their *sorrowed* tender. *Shakspeare*.

SO'RROWFUL, *adj.* [Sax. *rorzfull*.] Sad for something past; mournful; grieving.—Blessed are they which have been *sorrowful* for all thy scourges; for they shall rejoice for thee, when they have seen all the glory. *Tob*.—Deeply serious. *Not in use*.—Hannah said, No, my lord, I am a woman of a *sorrowful* spirit: I have poured out my soul before the Lord. *1 Sam*.—Expressing grief; accompanied with grief.—The things that my soul refuseth to touch are as my *sorrowful* meat. *Job*.

S'ORROWFULLY, *adv.* In a sorrowful manner. *Barret*.—The matter he hath *sorrowfully* lamented. *Ld. Herbert*.

SO'RROWFULNESS, *s.* [Sax. *rorzfulneſſe*.] State of being sorrowful.

SO'RROWING, *s.* [*rorzgunz*, Sax. lamentatio.] Expression of sorrow.

Marina, hearing sighs, to him drew near;
And did entreat his cause of grief to hear;

————— Her beauty was the sting,
That caused all this instant *sorrowing*. *Browne*.

SORROWLESS, *adj.* [Sax. *rorzleaf*.] Without sorrow. *Huloet*.—If their repentance be *sorrowless*, it will prove but a sorry one. *Hewyt. Serm*.

SO'R'RY, *adj.* [*rapuz 'raru, ræru* Sax.] Grieved for something past. It is generally used of slight or casual mis-carriages or vexations, but sometimes of greater things. It does not imply any long continuance of grief.—I'm *sorry* for thee, friend; 'tis the duke's pleasure. *Shakspeare*.—Melancholy; dismal.

They espied

A *sorie* sight as ever seen with eye;
A heedless ladie lying him beside,
In her own blood all swallow'd woefully. *Spenser*.

[From *saur*, filth, Icelandic. Dr. Johnson.—Hence our word was at first *sowry*, in this sense. "Sowry or defiled." Prompt. Parv. in *V. Soure*, or *Filth*.] Vile; worthless; vexatious.

How now, why do you keep alone?
Of *sorricst* fancies your companions making,
Using those thoughts which should, indeed, have died
With them they think on. *Shakspeare*.

SORT, *s.* [*sorte*, French.] A kind; a species.—To Adam in what *sort* shall I appear? *Milton*.—A degree of any quality.—I shall not be wholly without praise, if in some *sort* I have copied his style. *Dryden*.—A class, or order of persons.

I have bought

Golden opinions from all *sorts* of people. *Shakspeare*.

A company; a knot of people.
Mine eyes are full of tears: I cannot see;
And yet salt water blinds them not so much,
But they can see a *sort* of traitors here. *Shakspeare*.

Rank; condition above the vulgar.—Is signior Montanto returned from the wars?—I know none of that name, lady; there was none such in the army of any *sort*. *Shakspeare*.
[*Sortes*, Lat.] A lot. *Out of use*.

Make a lott'ry,
And by decree, let blockish Ajax
Draw the *sort* to fight with Hector. *Shakspeare*.

A pair; a set; a suit.
To SORT, *v. a.* [*sortiri*, Lat.] To separate into distinct and proper classes.

I come to thee for charitable licence,
To *sort* our nobles from our common men. *Shakspeare*.

To reduce to order from a state of confusion,

Let me not be light;
For a light wife doth make a heavy husband;
And never be Bassanio so from me;
But God *sort* all! *Shakspeare*.

To conjoin; to put together in distribution.
The swain perceiving by her words ill *sorted*,
That she was wholly from herself transported. *Brown*.

To cull; to choose; to select.

Send his mother to his father's house,
That he may *sort* her out a worthy spouse. *Chapman*.

To SORT, *v. n.* To be joined with others of the same species.—Nor do metals only *sort* and herd with metals in the

the earth, and minerals with minerals; but both in common together. *Woodward*.—To consort; to join.—The illiberality of parents towards their children, makes them base, and *sort* with any company. *Bacon*.—To suit; to fit.

The Creator calling forth by name
His mighty angels, gave them several charge,
As *sorted* best with present things.

Milton.

[*Sortir*, to issue, French.] To determine; to issue.—It *sorted* not to any fight, but to a retreat. *Bacon*.—Princes cannot gather this fruit, except they raise some persons to be companions; which many times *sorteth* to inconvenience. *Bacon*.—To have success; to terminate in the effect desired.—The slips of their vines have been brought into Spain, but they have not *sorted* to the same purpose as in their native country. *Abbot*.—To fall out. [from *sort*, a lot. French.]

And so far am I glad it did so *sort*,
As this their jangling I esteem a sport.

Shakespeare.

SORT, a seaport town of Tripoli, in Africa, situated in the gulf of Sidra or Syrtis. Lat. 30. 28. N. long. 16. 55. E.

SORTABLE, *adj.* [sortable, Fr.] Suitable; befitting; *Cotgrave* and *Sherwood*.—The flourishing state of learning, *sortable* to so excellent a princess. *Bacon*.

SORTABLY, *adv.* Suitably; fitly. *Cotgrave* and *Sherwood*.

SORTAL, *adj.* A word formed by Locke, but not yet received.—As things are ranked under names, into sorts or species only as they agree to certain abstract ideas, the essence of each sort comes to be nothing but that idea which the *sortal*, if I may so call it from *sort*, as I do general from *genus*, name stands for. *Locke*.

SORTANCE, *s.* Suitableness; agreement.
Here doth he wish his person, with such power
As might hold *sortance* with his quality,
The which he could not levy

Shakespeare.

SORTASCH, a village of European Russia, in the Crimea, near Bachiserai.

SORTES, Lots, in Antiquity, a method of deciding dubious cases, where there appeared no ground for a preference; by referring the decision to chance; as in casting of dice, drawing of tickets, &c.

SORTILEGE, *s.* [sortilegium, Lat.] The act or practice of drawing lots.

SORTILEGIUS, *adj.* Relating to sortilege.—Horace makes the blood of frogs an ingredient in *sortilegious* charms. *Daubuz*.

SORTINO, a town of Sicily in the quarter called Val di Noto. Population 6000. It is an inland place, of little commercial intercourse, and seldom visited by travellers.

SORTINSKOI, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia; 72 miles south-south-west of Beresof.

SORTITION, *s.* [sortitio, Lat.] Selection or appointment by lot. *Cockeram*.—The soldiers have parted thy garments, and cast lots upon thy seamless coat: those poor spoils cannot so much enrich them as glorify thee, whose Scriptures are fulfilled by their barbarous *sortitions*. *Bp. Hall*.

SORTMENT, *s.* The act of sorting; distribution.—A parcel sorted or distributed.

SORUT, a district of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, the proper name of which is *Cottiar*.

SOS, a town of Spain, in Arragon, with 2400 inhabitants; 4 miles south-south-east of Sanguesa.

SOSA, a large village of Germany, in Saxony, where there is a considerable manufacture and export of tin; 25 miles south-south-west of Chemnitz.

SOSHA, a large river of European Russia, in the government of Orel. It falls into the Wolga.

SOSIGENES, a Peripatetic philosopher, and skilful astronomer, was brought from Egypt by Julius Cæsar, with the view expressly of assisting him in reforming the calendar. The philosopher, by tolerably accurate observations, disco-

vered that the year was 365 days and 6 hours; and to make allowance for the odd hours, he invented the intercalation of one day in four years; and the duplication of the sixth day before the calends of March was the intercalary day; and hence the year in which this took place was called *Bissextile*. This was called the Julian year, the reckoning by which commenced in the 45th year B. C. and continued till it gave place to something more accurate, and a still farther reformation under Pope Gregory XIII. Sosigenes was author of a commentary upon Aristotle's book "De Cælo."

SOSNITZA, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Czernigov; 50 miles east-by-north of Czernigov.

SOSNOVOI, an island in the river Angara, in Asiatic Russia; 96 miles north-north-west of Ilmsk.

SOSNOUSKOL, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Kolivan. Lat. 55. 50. N. long. 85. 44. E.

SOSPELLO, a domain or district of the Sardinian states, formed of part of the county of Nice, and containing nearly 40,000 inhabitants.

SOSPELLO, a town of the Sardinian states, in Piedmont, on the river Bevara. Population 3200; 10 miles north-east of Nice.

TO SOSS, *v. n.* [A cant word. *Dr. Johnson*.—Perhaps a corruption of *To souse*, from the Fr. *sous*, down.] To sit lazily on a chair; to fall at once into a chair.

The winter sky began to frown,
Poor Stella must pack off to town;
From wholesome exercise and air,
To *soassing* in an easy chair.

Swift.

SOSS, *s.* A lazy fellow; a lusk. *Cotgrave* and *Sherwood*.

SOSTE, a navigable river of Westphalia, which rises in the principality of Osnabruck, flows through Lower Munster and East Friesland, and falls into the Ems near Leer.

SOSTRATUS, the most eminent architect of his time, was a native of Gnidos, in Lesser Asia, and flourished in the third century before the Christian era. The patronage which he met with, caused him to be denominated the friend of kings; and he was particularly in favour with Ptolemy Philadelphus, sovereign of Egypt. He is celebrated in history likewise for the *terraces*, supported on arcades, which adorned his native city; and the famous *Pharos*, the light-house of Alexandria, which was reckoned one of the wonders of the world. He transmitted his name to posterity by an inscription on this light-house, in the Greek language, of which the translation is, "Sostratus of Gnidos, the son of Dexiphanes, dedicates this to the gods, the protectors of navigators."

SOSVA, the name of two considerable rivers of the government of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia. The first rises in the Urals, about the 65th degree of north lat., and running almost due east, falls into the Obi, near Beresof, after a course of about 160 miles. It receives a smaller river of the same name, called the Little Sosva. The other river rises in the same chain of mountains, but somewhat farther to the south; and after running southwards about 200 miles, joins the Sosva, when the united streams take the name of Tauda.

SOT, *s.* [ȝot, Norm. Sax. ȝot-ȝeipe, a state of folly; *sot*, Fr. *sot*, Teut. The word is old in our language: "as it were a *sote*, I stood astonished." Chaucer, Flower and Leaf. Serenius refers the word to the Icel. *saud*, pecus, bestia.] A blockhead; a dull ignorant stupid fellow; a dolt.

Of the loyal service of his son,
When I inform'd him, then he call'd me *sot*;
And told me I had turn'd the wrong side out.

Shakespeare.

A wretch stupified by drinking.
To **SOT**, *v. a.* To stupify; to besot; to infatuate.—The *soted* priest, who was gladder than he? *Chaucer*.

I am *sotted*,
Utterly lost; my virgin's faith has fled me.

Beaum. and Fl.
To **SOT**, *v. n.* To tittle to stupidity.

SOTA

SOTA DE PALANA, a town of the island of Cuba; 100 miles south-west of Havannah.

SOTBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5 miles east of Wragby.

SOTCHEOU, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chan-si, bordering immediately on Chinese Tartary. Lat. 39. 38. N. long. 98. 44. E.

SOTCHEOU, a town of Corea; 403 miles east of Peking.

SOTER, a small town in Sweden, in the province of Dalecarlia. Near it is an old and productive iron mine.

SOTERIA, [formed from σωτηρ, Saviour,] in Antiquity, sacrifices offered to the gods, in gratitude for their having delivered a person from danger.

The term is also applied to poetical pieces composed for the same end.

SOTHERTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles east-north-east of Halesworth.

SOTRAN, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 44 miles south-south-west of Saada.

SOTTEGHEM, an inland town of the Netherlands, in East Flanders, with 1700 inhabitants; 9 miles east of Audenarde.

SOTTERLY, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles south-south-east of Beccles.

SOTTISH, *adj.* Dull; stupid; senseless; infatuate; doltish.

All's but nought:
Patience is *sottish*, and impatience does
Become a dog that's mad.

Shakspeare.

Dull with intemperance.

SOTTISHLY, *adv.* Stupidly; dully; senselessly. — Northumberland, *sottishly* mad with over-great fortune, procured the king, by his letters patent under the great seal, to appoint the lady Jane to succeed him in the inheritance of the crown. *Hayward.*

SOTTISHNESS, *s.* Dullness; stupidity; insensibility. — Few consider what a degree of *sottishness* and confirmed ignorance men may sin themselves into. *South.* — Drunken stupidity. — No sober temperate person can look with any complacency upon the drunkenness and *sottishness* of his neighbour. *South.*

SOTWELL, or SATWELL, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 2 miles west-north-west of Wallingford.

SOUADY, a small island in the Indian sea, near the coast of Ommon, in Arabia. Lat. 24. 14. N.

SOUKIN. See SUAKIN.

SOUALLY, a village of Upper Egypt, on the eastern coast of the Nile; 23 miles south of Abu-Girge.

SOVANA, SUANA, or SOANA, a small town of Italy, in the grand duchy of Tuscany. Its atmosphere is unhealthy. It is the see of a bishop; 43 miles north-north-west of Rome.

SOVAR. See SALZBURG.

SOUBANDIE, a small town of Asia Minor, situated on a small lake near the river Sikaria; 25 miles south-east of Is Nikmid.

SOUCE, *s.* See SOUSE.

SOUCEYRAC, a town of France, department of the Lot, with 1600 inhabitants.

SOUCHONG, *s.* A kind of tea.

SOUDAH, a rocky desert track on the route from Tripoli to Fezzan, requiring four days to cross. It yields no water; and produces no vegetable of any use.

SUDAN, the name given by the Moors of Northern Africa to a vast track of territory in the interior of that continent. The term signifies properly the Country of the Negroes, but is in great measure restricted to part of it situated on the banks of the Niger, being that chiefly with which the Moors maintain a commercial intercourse. Their caravans, crossing the vast desert which intervenes, carry into Soudan the manufactures of Europe and of the East Indies, and bring in return gold, ivory, and slaves. The tracks comprehended under the

name of Soudan are among the most imperfectly known of any in Africa, or indeed in the globe, and the efforts made by Europeans to explore them have been attended hitherto with very little success. As the name, however, is not native, and is vaguely applied to an indefinite extent of country, the measure of information possessed by us respecting Soudan will be best given under the general head of Africa, and under those of Tombuctoo, Houssa, Cassina, and other regions into which it is divided.

SODANG, a village of the island of Celebes, at the south end of it, situated at the foot of a mountain bordering on Maros river. Saltpetre is procured at this village.

SOUE SOUA, a small village of the peninsula of Caboceiro, near Mosambique, in Eastern Africa.

SOUEIB, a village of Irak Arabi, in the Euphrates; 20 miles north-west of Bassora.

SOUEICH, a town of France, department of the Upper Garonne. Population 1100.

SOUEKI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Quang-tong.

SOVEL, a small island in the Chinese sea, near the coast of Tonquin.

SOVENANCE, *s.* [See SOUVENANCE.] Remembrance — To dwell in darkness without *sovenance*. *Spenser.*

SOVEREIGN, *adj.* [soverain, French: *sovrano*, Italian, according to which form Milton wrote this word, *sovrán*.] — Supreme in power; having no superior.

You, my *sovereign* lady,
Causeless have laid disgraces on my head. *Shakspeare.*

None of us who now thy grace implore,
But held the rank of *sovereign* queen before,
Till giddy chance, whose malice never bears
That mortal bliss should last for length of years,
Cast us down headlong from our high estate. *Dryden.*

Supremely efficacious; predominant over diseases.

Love wounded Protheus,
My bosom, as a bed,
Shall lodge thee, till thy wound be throughly heal'd,
And thus I search it with a *sovereign* kiss. *Shakspeare.*

SOVEREIGN, *s.* Supreme lord.

O, let my *sovereign* turn away his face,
And bid his ears a little while be deaf. *Shakspeare.*

SOVEREIGN, a gold coin of 20s. value, equal to the double ryal, which was coined by order of Henry VII. in the year 1485; and this was accompanied by the double sovereign of 40s. Henry VIII., in 1527, added to the gold denominations sovereigns of 22s. 6d., and ryals of 11s. 3d., angels of 7s. 6d., and nobles at their old value of 6s. 8d. In 1546 the same prince, after raising the value of silver, and making it to gold as 1 to 5, struck sovereigns of the former value of 20s., and half-sovereigns in proportion. Upon the union of the crowns, James I. of England gave the sovereign the name of unite, it being then of 20s. value. The sovereign, which had been commonly termed the "broad-piece," under the Commonwealth assumed the univindious name of the twenty-shilling piece, which it retained till supplanted by that of the guinea, which was proclaimed in 1663, and to pass for 20s. But it never went for less than 21s. by tacit and universal consent. *Pinkerton's Ess. on Medals.*

This coin has been resumed in the present reign, and passes, as we presume all our readers know, for 20s.

To SOVEREIGNIZE, *v. n.* To exercise supreme power. — Her royalties were spacious, as *sovereignizing* over many towns and provinces. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SOVEREIGNLY, *adv.* Supremely; in the highest degree. He was *sovereignly* lovely in himself. *Boyle.*

SOVEREIGNTY, *s.* [soveraineté, French.] Supremacy; highest place; supreme power; highest degree of excellence.

Give me pardon,
That I, your vassal, have employed and pain'd
Your unknown *sovereignty*. *Shakspeare.*

SOUERICK, a town of Armenia, in the pachalic of Ourfa, and on the road from Ourfa to Diarbekir. It contains about 500 inhabitants, with three mosques and a strong castle; 60 miles north-east of Ourfa.

SOUFFLOT (James-Germain), an eminent architect, was born in 1714 at Irancy, near Auxerre. It being resolved that several public buildings should be erected at Lyons, he was recommended to undertake a part of the work, by the director of the French academy at Rome; and the construction especially of the exchange and the hospital was committed to him. The noble simplicity of the hospital, together with its excellent adaptation to the object for which it was intended, were universally admired, and raised him to high reputation as an artist. He was, after this, employed to build the concert-room and theatre of the same city. In 1757 he laid the foundation of the church of St. Genevieve, of which he was able only to finish the portal, the nave, and the towers. In this business he subjected himself to some severe criticism, especially with respect to the possibility of erecting the intended dome upon the bases designed to bear it; though some exact calculations justified his plan. The criticisms and unfriendly remarks of his rivals were more than his temper, naturally irritable, could bear; and he died, partly of chagrin in the year 1780, at the age of 67. Besides the public works already mentioned, he executed many others, which display the powers of a great artist; and after his death, M. Dumont, professor of architecture, published a book of Designs, which he had left behind him, under the title of "Elevations et Coupes de quelques Edifices de France et d'Italie, designées par feu M. Soufflot, Architecte du Roi, et gravées par ses Ordres."

SOUFFRIER MOUNTAIN, the most northerly of the lofty chain running through the centre of the island St. Vincent, and the highest of the whole, as computed by the most accurate survey that has yet been taken. For some time previous to the 30th April, 1812, this memorable mountain had indicated much disquietude; and from the extraordinary frequency and violence of earthquakes (which are calculated to have exceeded 200 within the preceding year), had portended some great movement or eruption. A century had elapsed since the last convulsion of this mountain; it seemed to have settled into permanent tranquillity, and the luxuriant vegetation and growth of the forest which covered its sides, from the base nearly to the summit, appeared even to discountenance the fact that it had once been a volcano. The crater of the volcano was, however, still to be seen.

On Monday 27th April, 1812, an abrupt and dreadful crash from the mountain, with a severe concussion of the earth, and tremulous noise in the air, alarmed all around it. The resurrection of this fiery furnace was proclaimed in a moment by a vast column of thick, black, ropy smoke, like hat of an immense glass-house, bursting forth at once, and mounting to the sky; showering down sand, with gritty alced particles of earth and favilla mixed, on all below. This driven before the wind towards Wallibon and Morne Ronde, darkened the air like a cataract of rain, and covered the ridges, woods, and cane-pieces, with light grey coloured ashes, resembling snow when slightly covered by dust. As the eruption increased, this continual shower expanded destroying every appearance of vegetation. At night a very considerable degree of ignition was observed on the lips of the crater; but it is not asserted that there was as yet any visible ascension of flame. The same awful scene presented itself on Tuesday; the fall of favilla and calcined pebbles still increasing, and the compact pitchy column from the crater rising perpendicularly to an immense height, with a noise, at intervals, like the muttering of distant thunder. On Wednesday the 29th, all these menacing symptoms of horror and combustion became more thick and terrific. The prodigious column shot up with quicker motion, dilata-

ting as it rose like a balloon. The sun appeared in total eclipse, and shed a meridian twilight over the island, that aggravated the gloom of the scene, now completely powdered over with falling particles. It was evident that the crisis was yet to come; that the burning fluid was struggling for a vent, and labouring to throw off the superincumbent strata and obstructions, which suppressed the ignivomous torrent. At night, it was manifest that it had greatly disengaged itself from its burden, by the appearance of fire flashing now and then, flaking above the mouth of the crater. On Thursday 30th April, the noise from the mountain had increased, and at times was incessant. About four o'clock it became still more alarming, and just before sunset, the clouds reflected a bright copper colour, suffused with fire. Scarcely had the day closed, when the flame burst at length pyramidically from the crater, through the mass of smoke; the rolling of the thunder became more awful and deafening; electric flashes quickly succeeded, attended with loud claps. Shortly after seven P. M. the mighty cauldron was seen to simmer, and the ebullition of lava to break out on the north-west side. This, immediately after boiling over the orifice, and flowing a short way, was opposed by the acclivity of a higher point of land, over which it was impelled by the immense tide of liquified fire that drove it on, forming the figure V in grand illumination. Sometimes, when the ebullition slackened, or was insufficient to urge it over the obstructing hill, it recoiled back, like a reflux billow from the rock, and then again rushed forward, impelled by fresh supplies, and scaling every obstacle, carrying rocks and woods together in its course down the slope of the mountain, until it precipitated itself down some vast ravine, concealed from the view by the intervening ridges of Morne Ronde. Vast globular bodies of fire were seen projected from the fiery furnace, and bursting, fell back into it, or over it, on the surrounding bushes, which were instantly set in flames. About four hours from the lava boiling over the crater, it reached the sea, as could be observed from the reflection of the fire and the electric flashes attending it. About half-past one, another stream of lava was seen descending to the east, towards Rabacca. At this time the first earthquake was felt: this was followed by showers of cinders, that fell with the hissing noise of hail during two hours. At three o'clock, a rolling on the roofs of the houses indicated a fall of stones, which soon thickened, and at length descended in a rain of intermingled fire, that threatened at once the fate of Pompeii or Herculaneum. The crackling and coruscations from the crater at this period exceeded all that had yet passed. The eyes were struck with momentary blindness, and the ears stunned with the glomeration of sounds. People sought shelter in cellars, under rocks, or anywhere, for everywhere was nearly the same; and the miserable negroes, flying from their huts, were knocked down or wounded, and many killed in the open air. Several houses were set on fire. The estates situate in the immediate vicinity seemed doomed to destruction. Had the stones that fell been heavy in proportion to their size, not a living creature could have escaped. This dreadful rain of stones and fire lasted upwards of an hour, and was again succeeded by cinders from three till six o'clock in the morning. Earthquake followed earthquake almost momentarily, or rather the whole of this part of the island was in a state of continued oscillation.

At break of day, if such it could be called, darkness enveloped the mountain, and an impenetrable haze hung over the sea, with black sluggish clouds of a sulphureous cast. The whole island was covered with favilla, cinders, scoria, and broken masses of volcanic matter. It was not until the afternoon that the muttering noise of the mountain sunk gradually into silence.

SOUFFRIERE BAY, a bay on the east coast of the island of Dominica. Lat. 15. 31. N. long. 61. 17. W.

SOUGH, *s.* [from *sous*, French.] A subterraneous drain. — Yet could not such mines, without great pains and charges, if

if at all, be wrought; the delis would be so flown with waters it being impossible to make any addits or *soughs* to drain them, that no gins or machines could suffice to lay and keep them dry. *Ray*.

SOUGHT. The pret. and participle pass. of *seek*.—I am *sought* of them that asketh not for me: I am found of them that *sought* me not. *Isa*.

SOUHAGE, a large village of Upper Egypt; 7 leagues south of Tahta.

SOUILLAC, a town of France, department of the Lot, on the Dordogne, with 1300 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of linen, and a considerable trade in leather and salt. Lat. 44. 53. N. long. 1. 34. E.

SOULLY, a town of France, department of the Meuse, with 800 inhabitants: 7 miles south-south-west of Verdun.

SOUL-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, situated at the confluence of the rivers Yan and Kincha. The country round is fertile, though mountainous, and the place carries on a considerable trade. Lat. 28. 40. N. long. 104. 23. E.

SOU-TE, a city of China, of the second rank, in the province of Chan-si. Lat. 37. 38. N. long. 109. 34. E.

SOUKENE, a small sea-port of Tripoli, in Africa; 130 miles south of Tripoli.

SOUL, *s.* [jaul, Saxon; *saal*, Icel. *seele*, Germ. *saiwala*, Goth. consent. *aliis ling. et dialect. bene multis*. Serenius. The old form of our word was *saul*. "By Christe's *saule*." Chaucer.]—The immaterial and immortal spirit of man.

Perhaps for want of food the *soul* may pine;
But that were strange, since all things bad and good;
Since all God's creatures, mortal and divine;
Since God himself is her eternal food. *Davies*.

Intellectual principle.—Eloquence the *soul*, song charms the sense. *Milton*.—Vital principle.

Thou almost mak'st me waver in my faith;
To hold opinion with Pythagoras,
That *souls* of animals infuse themselves
Into the trunks of men. *Shakspeare*.

Spirit; essence; quintessence; principal part.—He has the very *soul* of bounty. *Shakspeare*.—Interior power.

There is some *soul* of goodness in things evil,
Would men observingly distil it out. *Shakspeare*.

A familiar appellation expressing the qualities of the mind.

Three wenchs where I stood cry'd
"Alas, good *soul*!" *Shakspeare*.

Human being.
My state of health none care to learn;
My life is here no *soul's* concern. *Swift*.

Active power.

Earth, air and seas, through empty space would rowl,
And heaven would fly before the driving *soul*. *Dryden*.

Spirit; fire; grandeur of mind.

That he wants caution, he must needs confess;
But not a *soul* to give our arms success. *Young*.

Intelligent being in general.—Every *soul* in heaven shall bend the knee. *Milton*.

To **SOUL**, *v. a.* To endure with a soul: an old verb. We still use *souled*; as, narrow-*souled*, largely-*souled*, and the like.

That Padre's Sonne which alle thinges wrought;
And all that wrought is with a skilful thought,
The Gost, that from the Fader gan procede,
Hath *souled* them withouten any drede. *Chaucer*.

To **SOUL**, or **SOWL**, *v. n.* [jupl, Saxon, obsonium. Northumb. Gloss. at the end of Ray, in V. *SOOL*. *Sool* or *sowle*, any thing eaten with bread. North. *Grosc*.] To afford suitable sustenance.

I have, sweet wench, a piece of cheese, as good as tooth may chawe,
And bread and wildings *souling* well. *Warner*.

SOUL-BELL, *s.* The passing-bell. *Obsolete*: See

PASSING-BELL.—We call them *soul-bells*, for that they signify the departure of the soul, not for that they help the passage of the soul. *Bp. Hall*.

SOUL-DISEASED, *adj.* Diseased in mind; soul-sick.
[He] had great insight
In that disease of grieved conscience,
And well could cure the same; his name was Patience:
Who, coming to that *soul-diseased* knight,
Could hardly him intereat to tell his grief. *Spenser*.

SOULAINES, a town of France, in Burgundy, in the department of the Aube. Population 800; 27 miles east of Troyes.

SOULANGE, a seignior of Lower Canada, which stretches four leagues on the north bank of the St. Lawrence.

SOULBURY, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 4½ miles south of Fenny Stratford. Population 515.

SOULBY, a township of England, in Westmoreland; 2½ miles north-west of Kirkby Stephen.

SOULDERN, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire. Population 449.

SO'ULDIER. See **SOLDIER**.
SOULDROP, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 10½ miles north-north-west of Bedford.

SO'ULED, *adj.* Furnished with mind.
Gripping, and still tenacious of thy hold,
Wou'd'st thou the Grecian chiefs, though largely *soul'd*,
Shou'd give the prizes they had gain'd before. *Dryden*.

SOULI. See **SULI**.
SOULIERS, a small town of France, department of the Var; 9 miles from Toulon.

SO'ULLESS, *adj.* [jaul-lear, Saxon.] Without soul, without life.—Their holiness is the very outward work itself, being a brainless head and *soulless* body. *Sir E. Sandys*. Mean; low; spiritless.—Slave, *soulless* villain, dog, O rarely base! *Shakspeare*.

SOUL-SHOT, *s.* Something paid for a soul's requiem among the Romanists.—In the Saxon times there was a funeral duty to be paid, called *pecunia sepulchralis et symbolum anime*, and in Saxon *soul-shot*. *Ayliffe*.

SOUL-SICK, *adj.* Diseased in mind: a forcible expression.—Mankind is mortally *soul-sick*. *Bp. Hall*.

I am *soul-sick*,
And wither with the fear of one condemn'd,
Till I have got your pardon. *Beaum. and Fl*.

SOULTZ, or **SULZ**, a town of France, in Alsace, with 1300 inhabitants.

SOULTZMATT, a village of France, department of the Upper Rhine, on the Ombach, with 2100 inhabitants. Near it are salt and mineral springs; 9 miles south of Colmar.

SOUSENSAC, a town of France, department of the Lot and Garonne. Population 1500; 16 miles north-east of Marmande.

SOUND, *adj.* [jumb, Sax.] Healthy; hearty; not morbid; not diseased; not hurt.

I am fall'n out with my more headier will;
To take the indispos'd and sickly fit
For the *sound* man. *Shakspeare*.

Right; not erroneous; orthodox.—Whom although to know be life, and joy to make mention of his name; yet our *soundest* knowledge is to know that we know him not as indeed he is, neither can know him: and our safest eloquence concerning him is silence. *Hooker*.—Stout; strong; lusty.—The men are very strong and able of body; and therefore either give *sound* strokes with their clubs wherewith they fight, or else shoot strong shots with their bows. *Abbot*.—Valid; not failing.—They reserved their titles, tenures and signiories whole and *sound* to themselves. *Spenser*.—Fast; hearty. It is applied to sleep.

New wak'd from *soundest* sleep,
Soft on the flow'ry herb I found me laid
In balmy sweat. *Milton*.

SOUND, *adv.* Soundly; heartily; completely fast.—
The

The messenger approaching to him spake,
But his waste words return'd to him in vain;
So *sound* he slept that nought might him awake. *Spenser.*

SOUND, *s.* [*sund*, high Dutch, from the ancient Saxon *runð*, as Killian hath noted: *sond* or *sund*, saith he, Vet. Sax. fretum. Gregory, Posthum. *Sund*, Su. Goth. fretum, vadum angustius, ut transnatarum queat, ab Icel. *synda*, natere. *Serenius*. Wachter is of the same opinion. Gloss. Germ. in V. **SUND**.] A shallow sea, such as may be sounded.

Wake,
Behold I come, sent from the Stygian *sound*,
As a dire vapour that had cleft the ground,
To ingender with the night, and blast the day. *B. Jonson.*

Him young Thoosa bore, the bright increase
Of Phorcys, dreaded in the *sounds* and seas. *Pope.*

SOUND, *s.* [*sonde*, Fr.] A probe, an instrument used by chirurgeons to feel what is out of reach of the fingers.—The patient being laid on a table, pass the *sound* till it meet with some resistance. *Sharp.*

To **SOUND**, *v. a.* [Alem. *sondan*, maris profunditatem explorare, à *sund*. V. **SOUND**. *Serenius*.] To search with a plummet; to try depth.

You are, Hastings, much too shallow
To *sound* the bottom of the after-times. *Shakspeare.*

To try; to examine.

To **SOUND**, *v. n.* To try with the sounding line.—Beyond this we have no more a positive distinct notion of infinite space than a mariner has of the depth of the sea, where having let down a large portion of his *sounding*-line, he reaches no bottom. *Locke.*

SOUND, *s.* [*sepia*, Lat.] The cuttle-fish. *Ainsworth.*

SOUND, *s.* [*sonus*, Lat.] Any thing audible; a noise; that which is perceived by the ear.

Come, sisters, cheer we up his sprights,
And shew the best of our delights;
I'll charm the air to give a *sound*,
While you perform your antick round. *Shakspeare.*

Mere empty noise opposed to meaning.—He contented himself with doubtful and general terms, which might make no ill *sound* in men's ears. *Locke.*—Let us consider this proposition as to its meaning; for it is the sense and not the *sound* that must be the principle. *Locke.*

O lavish land! for *sound* at such expence?
But then, she saves it in her bills for sense. *Young.*

To **SOUND**, *v. n.* To make a noise; to emit a noise.—Trumpet once more to *sound* at general doom. *Milton.*—To exhibit by *sound*, or likeness of *sound*.

Why do you start and seem to fear
Things that do *sound* so fair? *Shakspeare.*

To be conveyed in *sound*.—From you *sounded* out the word of the Lord. 1 *Thess.*

To **SOUND**, *v. a.* To cause to make a noise; to play on.

Michael bid *sound*
The archangel trumpet. *Milton.*

To be token or direct by a *sound*.
Once Jove from Ida did both hosts survey,
And, when he pleas'd to thunder, part the fray;
Here heav'n in vain that kind retreat should *sound*,
The louder cannon had the thunder drown'd. *Waller.*

To celebrate by *sound*.—Sun, *sound* his praise. *Milton.*

SOUND is the effect produced on our ear by the vibrations of matter. It is usually said that this phenomenon results from the motion of elastic bodies; but all bodies are elastic, and moreover those which have the greatest elasticity, as wool, feathers and the like, emit no sounds; so that we may fairly leave elasticity out of the calculation. To understand the theory of vibrations, it is necessary to observe that all bodies in nature are capable of undergoing two movements,

one whereby its situation is permanently changed, another in which its parts appear to yield, and then suddenly retaliate on the moving force, or, in other words, rebound. This is called vibration, and it is guessed that it arises from the motion of the atoms, or minute particles of the matter upon each other. It is suspected that the impressing force alters the sphere of attraction of these particles respectively for one another, and that on the removal of this they return to their natural state. Always observing that in this return the approach or recession of the particles is carried at first too far, and that a succession of rebounds takes place until the equilibrium is re-established. Now, since bodies vary in their density, or, in other words, in the contiguity or remoteness of their atoms, it follows that the vibrations they are subject to must also vary.

Though these vibrations are only perceptible to the ear when they are so minute as to be imperceptible to the other senses, it is obvious that they must be of the same nature as the slow undulations and reflexions of a wave, or the courses and recourses of a pendulum, and thus for clearness sake, and in consonance with the usual practice, we shall here consider them. Now the courses of the pendulum can only undergo these conditions—it may move faster or slower; it may take a short or a long swing; ergo, a vibratory body can either undergo large or little vibrations, or slow or quick ones, and all other variations are impossible.

The matter in which we always hear the vibrations is air; but fishes have a fine sense of hearing in water, and we perceive the vibration of a body held between our teeth, in which case the *sound* travels through bone.

The ear distinguishes in sounds, first, its *tone*, i. e. gravity or acuteness is approach to the treble or the bass:—2dly. Its *loudness*. The ear also takes note of the *source* and the *distance* of sounds.

As to *tone* it is easily observable, that to grave sounds belong very large and distinct vibrations. We may actually see the vibration of the larger strings of the harp or piano-forte, feel that which arises from the great bass pipes of an organ, and hear the alternate movements of rest and action in the fading *sound* of a large bell. Here the vibrations are obviously slow; but the question to be decided is, whether the bulk or the slowness of these vibrations causes the gravity of the *tone*. Now, if it were its slowness, how would it happen, that a string when first twanged should give a grave *sound*, and that it should afterwards ascend three successive notes in the scale; the vibratory motion must (according to this theory) be more rapid in proportion as the moving powers are expended; whereas it is a known law of a pendulum, that it is as long performing its smaller as its larger swings; ergo, the string which is a double pendulum, should in its latter swings or vibrations get graver, if gravity depended on slowness of vibrations, which is contrary to experience.

If, on the other hand, *tone* be produced by the largeness or smallness of vibrations, every thing is explained.

The string at first gives a large vibration a grave *tone*, and, as its vibratory motion diminishes, acuter *tones*. Now, be it observed, that however forcibly you strike a bell or twang a string, you cannot alter the *tone*, because no force so applied would enable the bell to expand itself beyond the natural limit of its elasticity, whereas it is easy to conclude that velocity of motion should result from excessive force, and accordingly the harder the blow, the louder the *sound*.

This view explains also why bass notes are louder, other things being equal, than treble strings, for the former having the largest space to travel in a given time, must move the most rapidly; according to that law of the pendulum before laid down, it is louder than the treble.

It has been erroneously supposed, that the velocity of every mass of *sound* depends on the velocity of its vibrations. If this were the case, it would overturn the preceding theory, but it is not consequential. It is obviously one thing to impress on a particle of air an impulse which its resistance suddenly repels, and to impress on the general mass such an impulse as may be swiftest communicated to its extremities. Were these motions identical, we should be unable to account for

for the production of different tones by any hypothesis; it being clear that if the velocity of vibration was the cause of particular tones; and if velocity of vibration was synonymous with velocity of transmission, treble sounds should travel farther in a given time than bass, which is contrary to experiment.

It cannot be asserted that sound is propagated in different bodies with a velocity proportionate to their density, but it is certain that this propagation is more rapid through solids than fluids. Nor can it be shewn that in all instances the loudness of a sound is exactly in a direct ratio to the density of its medium. But Priestley's experiments shew, that as far as regards gaseous bodies, the lighter the medium the feebler the sound, and that the denser this medium (whether from its original constitution or from mechanical pressure) the louder the sound emitted. In inflammable air the sound of the bell he used was hardly to be distinguished from the same in a pretty good vacuum; and this air is ten times rarer than common air. In fixed air the sound was much louder than in common air, so as to be heard about half as far again; and this air is in about the same proportion, denser than common air. In dephlogisticated air the sound was also sensibly louder than in common air.—*Experiments and Observations, &c.*, vol. v. p. 296, &c.

According to the experiments of Dr. Derham, it does not appear that the temperature, luminousness or other state of composition in the atmosphere alters the velocity of the transmission of sound: that the direction of the sounding body (as whether the muzzle or butt of a discharged gun be turned towards the hearer) has no such influence. That in cases where the earth forms the medium of vibration, no difference is apparent whether its surface be acclivous or declivous: the loudness of the sound has no influence in the rapidity of its transmission, nor does the composition of the sounding body whether metal or wood or what not, make any difference. The blowing of the wind only was found to retard the velocity of the sound slightly.

As to the direction whence sounds arrive, it is obvious that if the particular vibration began first to excite the hinder part of an auditory nerve, and afterwards to be propagated to its anterior, or *vice versa*, that to apprehend the *direction* of a sound, would be easy without any reference either to its tone or loudness. The tympanum is, however, so small a part, that one can scarcely believe any nerve could exist with so fine a sense as to ascertain whether this membrane was impinged from behind forwards or from before backwards, from above downwards, &c. It would, we say, be next to impossible to believe such minute impressions capable of being perceived. Hence it would be far more rational to suppose, (and there are numerous circumstances rendering it probable) that the portio dura stretched over the face and side of the head, performs the office of acknowledging the direction of a sound. At all events it is manifest that the only way in which a nerve can ascertain the direction of an impinging sound, is by considering whether it first impinged on this side or the other.

There is much difficulty in explaining how we calculate the distance whence a sound is transmitted to us. As in the eye, so in the ear, we are no doubt helped in this respect by the other senses. Still it is impossible to overlook the fact that we can to a degree distinguish a remote from a near sound, even without reference to their loudness. It would seem that vibrations become less frequent by distance (consequently the loudness of a peculiar sound is declared), and that along with this their vibrations become clearer. Thus we find, that in the organ the stops pulled out to produce the illusion of distant music, cause two effects. They lower the loudness of the sound, and they also render it extremely clear and melodious. On this point, however, there is room for reflexion and experiment.

With regard to the properties of sound, these facts are established.—The gravity of a string is in direct proportion to its length. 2d. A string sounded near several others will cause in those others or parts of them, a sound identical, as to tone,

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with itself, or else one bearing a mathematical ratio to it, and this effect is produced without any regard to the usual sound of the strings in question. 3d. As the sound of a string or other body dies away, it is heard to make ascents, each of which bear the same ratio to the primitive sounds. They run into octave 12th and 17th. These very curious circumstances can be accounted for with difficulty.

The last circumstance is, especially, difficult of explanation, since it cannot be shewn why the intermediate or discordant vibrations are not heard equally with those which are in tune with the primitive sound. Otherwise a string double the length of another, is twice as grave, because its vibrations must be twice as large; and as to the second point, a vibrating string may naturally be supposed to excite its *own* vibration only in other bodies the same as we know it does in the air.

The apparatus of the ear is very complicated: we shall not insist on anatomical details, but confine ourselves to such a description as is necessary for understanding the use of the different parts which constitute this organ. The external ear is composed of a cartilaginous conch, which is usually supposed to collect and reflect inwards the waves of sound. Its removal does not, however, impair hearing, until some days after the operation. An opening of an elliptical form, lined with hairs, at first gradually contracting, and about its middle beginning to dilate again, passes into the head from this conch, until it is stopped by a membrane called the tympanum, which completely closes it. This canal is of course for the transmission of sound.

The middle ear comprehends the cavity of the tympanum, the little auditory bones, the mastoid cells and Eustachian tube. The cavity of the tympanum has opening into it internally the foramen rotundum closed by a membrane; the foramen ovale also closed by a membrane; posteriorly the mastoid cells (irregular cavities filled with air); anteriorly the Eustachian tube communicating with the pharynx. The cavity of the tympanum is occupied by four small bones connected with the membrane of the tympanum on the one hand, and the membrane of the fenestra ovalis on the other, so as to form a bony chain between the two. These bones are capable of being pulled in various directions by small muscles, so as to stretch or relax the membranes.

The internal ear, or labyrinth, is composed of the cochlea, the semicircular canals and the vestibule. The cochlea is a bony canal lined with a membrane of a spiral form; it is divided into two turns of the spiral by an osseo-cartilaginous partition. The outer spiral communicates with the tympanum by the closed fenestra rotundum; the inner with the vestibule.

The semicircular canals are three cylindric cavities, curved in a half circle, of which two are divided horizontally, while the third is vertical: these canals terminate at their extremities in the vestibule; they contain bodies of a grey colour which terminate at their extremities by enlargements. The vestibule is a central cavity, the point of union of the other cavities. It communicates with the drum through the fenestra ovale; with the internal spiral of the cochlea, with the semicircular canals, and with the internal auditory passage, by a great number of small holes. All the cavities of the internal ear are contained in the petrous portion of the temporal bone, and are lined with a membrane extremely thin, and filled with a limpid liquid, called the liquid of Cotunnus, of which a little flows by two passages, known by the name of aqueducts of the cochlea and vestibule; moreover the ear contains the auditory nerves. The auditory nerves arise from the fourth ventricle; they enter into the labyrinth by the foramen, which is seen at the bottom of the internal auditory canal; arriving at the vestibule, they divide into many branches, one of which remains in the vestibule, another in the cochlea, and two are destined for the semicircular canals.

In *cray-fish*, and the *sepia*, the organ is most simple, consisting of a small cavity or vestibule and a single mem-

branous tube, and in the latter genus the sac includes a small solid body or lapillus: in the interior of this receptacle the auditory nerve is expanded. The *spinous fishes*; in addition to the hollow of the vestibule and membranous bag containing the lapilli, are provided with semicircular canals. The *cartilaginous fishes* have the vestibule, the sacculus for the lapilli, semicircular canals, and a fenestra ovalis, defended by an operculum composed of a membrane and the skin, whilst in the osseous fishes the whole organ is enclosed by bone. To the labyrinth of the *serpent* tribe, which is very similar to the internal ear of the cartilaginous fishes, there is added an ossiculum closing the fenestra ovalis. In one of this order, the genus *cæcilia*, and in almost the whole of the four-footed *reptiles*, a membrana tympani is connected with this ossiculum. In the other classes of *birds* and *mammalia*, we find an external passage leading to the membrane, and in the last of these an external cartilaginous auricle is annexed.

The obvious inference drawn from this view will be, that the whole of the apparatus, external to the labyrinth, is not absolutely necessary to the perceiving of sounds, because many creatures we know are susceptible of the impression, who are entirely destitute of these parts of the organ.

As to the uses therefore, of the different parts of the ear, we may conjecture that the portio dura, or facial nerve, is a nerve of touch, which perceives the *violence* of vibrations without having the power of distinguishing accurately, variations of tone. That from its extensive expansion of the face, it also takes cognizance of the direction of sound. 3dly. That it excites the muscles of the little bones of the labyrinth, so as to relax the membrana tympanum. It is clear that the effect of this must be to deaden the intensity of the impression on the auditory nerve. This is most important and necessary; a sudden and violent sound, such as we know is extremely painful to our nerves takes place; the portio dura relaxes the tympanum, and thus deadens its force, and saves the portio mollis from injury.

The nervous expansions in the semicircular canals, cochlea, &c., have been supposed to take cognizance of the differences of tones. This opinion has been objected to, because these parts are found in the inferior animals, who cannot be supposed to require any such power. This objection appears to us of no force, because it is clear that the power of distinguishing one noise from another, involves more than a mere perception of loudness. The fish could only distinguish the noise produced by its enemy, from that produced by its prey, by an ear uniting perception of loudness and tone. The same is equally clear of reptiles, and still more of the mammalia. The power of distinguishing the geometrical proportions of sounds, and of deriving pleasure from the perception, constitutes another, the musical sense which requires organs more delicate, perhaps, but not of a different nature. This sense is enjoyed by man, and a few animals only.

SOUND, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 3 miles from Nantwich.

SOUND, or ORESOUND, the strait or narrow sea between the island of Zealand, in Denmark, and the continent of Sweden, through which vessels pass from the North sea into the Baltic. It is about four miles across, and the Danes exact a toll on all ships that pass through the strait. The English, Dutch, French, and Swedes, pay one per cent.; all other nations one and a quarter. Out of this toll the king of Denmark maintains all the light-houses on the coast, from Copenhagen to the extremity of North Jutland.

SO'UNDBOARD, *s.* Board which propagates the sound in organs.—Try it without any *soundboard* along, only harpwise at one end of the string. *Bacon.*

As in an organ, from one blast of wind,
To many a row of pipes the *soundboard* breathes. *Milton.*

SO'UNDING, *adj.* Sonorous; having a magnificent sound.—Obsolete words may then be revived, when more

sounding or more significant than those in practice. *Dryden.*

SO'UNDING, *s.* [from *To sound*, to try depth.] Act of trying the depth of the water with a plummet. [from *sound*, a noise.] Act of emitting a sound; the sound emitted.—The *sounding* again of the mountains, [in the margin, the echo.] *Ezek.*

SO'UNDLESS, *adj.* Too deep to be reached by the plummet; not to be fathomed.

Your shallowest help will hold me up afloat,
While he upon your *soundless* deep doth ride. *Shakspeare.*
Without sound.

They rob the Hybla bees,
And leave them honeyless.—Not stingless too?—
O yes, and *soundless* too;
For you have stol'n their buzzing. *Shakspeare.*

SO'UNDLY, *adv.* Healthily; heartily; lustily; stoutly; strongly.

When Duncan is asleep,
Whereto the rather shall this hard day's journey
Soundly invite him. *Shakspeare.*

Truly; rightly.—The wisest are always the readiest to acknowledge, that *soundly* to judge the law is the weightiest thing which any man can take upon him. *Hooker.*—Fast; closely: it is used of sleeping.

Now when that idle dream was to him brought,
Unto that elien knight he bad him fly,
Where he slept *soundly*, void of evil thought. *Spenser.*

SO'UNDNESS, *s.* Health; heartiness.

I would I had that corporal *soundness* now,
As when thy father and myself in friendship
First tried our soldiership. *Shakspeare.*

Truth: rectitude; incorrupt state.—In the end very few excepted, all became subject to the sway of time; other odds there was none amongst them, saving only that some fell sooner away, and some later from the *soundness* of belief. *Hooker.*—Strength; solidity.—This presupposed, it may stand then very well with strength and *soundness* of reason, even thus to answer. *Hooker.*

To SOUP, *v. a.* [rupan, Sax. sorbere; *supa*, Su. Goth. the same.] To sup; to swallow.—Death is *sopun* up in victorie. *Wicliffe.*—To breathe out; to draw out. [rpeopan, Sax. exhaurire.]—We pronounce, by the confession of strangers, as sweetly, smoothly, and moderately, as any of the northern nations of the world, who are noted to *soupe* their words out of the throat with fat and full spirits. *Camden.*

To SOUP, *v. n.* [rpeopan, Sax. verrere.] To sweep; to pass with pomp.

He vaunts his voice upon an hired stage,
With high-set steps and princely carriage,
Now *souping* in side robes of royalty. *Bp. Hall.*

Methinks I hear swart Martius cry,
Souping along in war's fein'd maskerie,
By *Lais* starrie front he'll forthwith die! *Marston.*

SOUP, *s.* [from rupan, Sax. to soup. See *To SOUP.*] Strong decoction of flesh for the table.

Spongy morells in strong ragousts are found,
And in the *soup* the slimy snail is drown'd. *Gay.*

SOUR, *adj.* [rup, rupun, Sax.; *sur*, Welsh.] Acid; austere; pungent on the palate with astringency, as vinegar, or unripe fruit.—All *sour* things, as vinegar, provoke appetite. *Bacon.*—Harsh of temper; crabbed; peevish; morose; severe.

He was a scholar,
Lofty and *sour* to them that lov'd him not. *Shakspeare.*

Afflictive; painful.
Let me embrace these *sour* adversities;
For wise men say it is the wisest course. *Shakspeare.*
Expressing

Expressing discontent.

Sullen and *sour*, with discontented mien
Jocasta frown'd.

Pope.

SOUR, *s.* Acid substance.

A thousand *sours* to temper with one sweet,
To make it seem more dear and dainty.

Spenser.

To SOUR, *v. a.* To make acid.

Thus kneaded up with milk, the new made man,
His kingdom o'er his kindred world began;
Till knowledge misapplied, misunderstood,
And pride of empire, *sour'd* his balmy blood.

Dryden.

To make harsh, or unkindly.—Tufts of grass *sour* land.
Mortimer.—To make uneasy; to make less pleasing.

Hail, great king!

To *sour* your happiness, I must report
The queen is dead.

Shakspeare.

To make discontented.

Not my own disgrace

Hath ever made me *sour* my patient cheek,
Or bend one wrinkle on my sovereign's face.

Shakspeare.

To SOUR, *v. n.* To become acid.—Asses milk, when it
sours in the stomach, and whey, turned sour, will purge
strongly. *Arbutnot*.—To grow peevish or crabbed.—They
keep out melancholy from the virtuous, and hinder the
hatred of vice from *souring* into severity. *Addison*.

SOURA, a village of Irak Arabi, on the Euphrates; 153
miles north-west of Bassora.

SOURABAYA, a large and flourishing town of Java, on
the north-eastern coast, and capital of a district of the same
name, situated at the mouth of a navigable river, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile
from the sea shore. The river once emptied itself into a
marsh close to the town; but of late years, a bank nearly a
mile in length, on which is a path-way for tracking boats,
confines its course, and greatly adds to its depth and current.
The river separates the European part of the town from that
of the Chinese and the native quarter. A fine bridge, with
draw-chains to raise it up for the passage of vessels, connects
the European town with that of the natives. The houses are
very good, and some are elegant, particularly the newly
erected country seats of private individuals. The house at
Simpang, where the British resident dwells, is a fine large
building, close to the river; and near to it the general hospi-
tal is an attracting object. This structure is about two
miles from the town, situated on the banks of the river; and
for elegance, extent, and commodiousness, has scarcely its
equal. In proportion as the neighbouring town of Gressie
has fallen into decay, the new town of Sourabaya has risen
rapidly in population and prosperity; and the improvement
which it has experienced within these few years is astonish-
ing. A fine arsenal, and other extensive works, calculated
for equipments on a very large scale, were formed by General
Daendels at this place. Here guns are cast, and carriages of
all descriptions constructed. Vessels also, with their various
appointments, are built and equipped at Sourabaya, in the
neighbourhood of which are considerable forests, from
whence plenty of timber is easily procured, which is floated
down the river Calimas, that takes its rise, as it is said, from
a large inland lake encircled with high mountains. A mint
is likewise at work here, on a new silver and copper coinage.
The new government house at Sourabaya, begun by Daendels,
was designed to be a splendid edifice, and, like that of Wel-
tervreden, was to have contained the various public offices
collectively, instead of being scattered, as hitherto, all over a
sickly town; but the foundation of the front range having
sunk, and endangered the building, it has been abandoned,
and that part which continues firm has been converted into
store-rooms.

Sourabaya is situated within that narrow strait which is
formed by the islands of Java and Madura, approaching each
other to within a very short distance, in some places not

above 83 fathoms, for a space of about 10 or 15 miles.
The channel of this strait is not of easy navigation, and is
marked with buoys; and it is besides defended by batteries.
The mouth of the river on which Sourabaya is situated, is
defended by Fort Calimas, a circular battery mounting 40
guns, placed on a rising spot, on the east side of the river.
This battery has a commanding sweep across the strait of
Madura, which is narrowest here, being opposite to the
south-west end of the island of that name. It was intended,
under the Dutch government, to have erected Sourabaya into
a port of consequence, for their trade to the eastward of Java;
and with this view General Daendels expended large sums
in the construction of works for the defence of the harbour.
The eastern entrance into the straits of Madura being im-
passable for very large ships, the batteries there are still
incomplete; but the north-western entrance is defended by
Fort Ludowyk, standing at the extremity of an island or
mud bank projecting into the channel, about 1400 yards
from the island of Manarie; but the bank is not visible, even
at low water. Fort Ludowyk is distant from Gressie about
six, and from Point Panka five miles, and is situated im-
mediately on the narrow winding channel, by which alone
large ships can enter. It presents, low on the water, a very
formidable battery, a hundred pieces of the finest ordnance,
mounted on traversing carriages, besides some heavy mortars.
The foundation for the fort was formed by sinking rocks,
and raised to its present elevation by means of stones and
earth brought from the neighbouring land, and kept in by
large piles of wood driven round. The approach is defended
by rows of strong piles driven into the bottom of the sea,
at the distance of 60 or 70 feet from the ramparts, and form-
ing a close palisade all round, which prevents the passage
of boats, and effectually guards against a *coup-de-main*, or
escalade. The barracks, which are built of bamboo, plas-
tered over and white-washed, may lodge 800 men. The
ordnance stores, however, are greatly exposed, having no
bomb-proof magazines; and the water required for the gar-
rison is brought from Sourabaya, nearly 20 miles distant, by
means of floating tanks, which, being often delayed by
contrary winds in the western monsoon, the garrison is
sometimes put to great distress. General Daendels intended
to have connected Fort Ludowyk with the island of Manarie
by a causeway, which was to have been erected on the inter-
mediate ocean. The principal depôt for the garrison was to
have been established on Manarie; and difficult as the
undertaking might have been, the marshal felt the importance
of this post so much, as affording an effectual security against
the attacks of the British navy, especially after the destruction
of the Dutch shipping in the harbour of Gressie, by Sir
Edward Pellew, in 1806, that he resolved to spare no efforts
in rendering this passage impenetrable by an enemy, and
thus making the straits of Madura the grand port and naval
depôt of his nation in the east. The anchorage for large
ships is off the town of Gressie, till within one mile to the
north-west of the mouth of the Calimas river, which runs
through Sourabaya; but vessels going to that place require
pilots to carry them through the straits.

The roads and avenues round Sourabaya are delightful.
The ground is rather low, being chiefly cultivated with rice,
interspersed with cocoa-nut and other fruit trees. The
country about Sourabaya is considered much healthier than
most other parts of the sea coast; and the district through-
out is exceedingly populous, and highly productive. The
land rental of the district of Sourabaya, while it was in the
possession of the British, amounted to about 97,558*l.* ster-
ling. The ships destined for the Philippine islands and
China usually touch at Sourabaya, where every refreshment
except good vegetables is to be procured in abundance.
Lat. 7. 14*l.* S. long. 112. 55. E.

SOURAN, a village of Korassan, in Persia; 255 miles
north of Herat.

SOURATAN HOUTCHIN, a town of Chinese Tartary,
in the country of the Mongols. Lat. 43. 54. N. long. 114.
34. E.

SOURCE, *s.* [*source*, Fr.] Spring; fountain; head.—
King

Kings that rule
Behind the hidden *sources* of the Nile.

Original; first cause.

Of himself is none;
But that eternal Infinite, and One,
Who never did begin, who ne'er can end,
On Him all beings, as their *source*, depend.

First producer.

Famous Greece,
That *source* of art and cultivated thought,
Which they to Rome, and Romans hither brought. *Waller.*

SO'URDET, *s.* [from *sourd*, Fr.] The little pipe of a trumpet.

SOURDON, the local name of a bivalve shell-fish found on the coast of Poitou.

SOURDEVAL DE LA BARRE, a town of France, department of La Manche, with 4000 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of paper; 6 miles north of Mortain.

SOURE, a town of Estremadura; 12 miles south-west of Coimbra. Population 3200.

SOURERA, a town of Hindostan, province of the Circars, and district of Ganjam. Lat. 19. 53. N. long. 84. 37. E.

SOURGOUTE, a small town of Asiatic Russia, situated on the northern bank of the Obi. The climate is so severe that no grain can be raised in the neighbourhood; but the river abounds in fish, and the territory in fur-bearing animals, particularly white and black foxes. The place is surrounded with palisades, and contains 2 churches and 168 houses. It is the residence of a commissary, who has the collecting of the annual tribute of furs paid by the Ostiaks, the sole inhabitants of this country. Opposite to this town a small branch separates and then unites with the Obi, called by the Russians Sourgoutka.

SOURGOUTE, a river of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia, which falls into the Obi, close to the town of the same name, after a course of upwards of 100 miles.

SOUR GUSLAN, a village in the interior of Algiers, near the foot of mount Jurgura.

SOURI, a village of Laristan, in Persia, on the Persian gulf; 38 miles south-west of Ormus.

SO'URISH, *adj.* Somewhat sour.—By distillation we obtain a *sourish* spirit, which will dissolve coral. *Boyle.*

SO'URLY, *adv.* With acidity. With acrimony.

To this reply'd the stern Athenian prince,
And *sourly* smil'd.

Dryden.

Painfully; discontentedly.—As bad dispositions run into worse habits, the evening doth not crown but *sourly* conclude the day. *Brown.*

SO'URNNESS, *s.* Acidity; austereness of taste.—Has life no *sourness*, drawn so near its end? *Pope.*—Asperity; harshness of temper.—Pelagius carped at the curious neatness of men's apparel in those days, and, through the *sourness* of his disposition, spoke somewhat too hardly thereof. *Hooker.*

SOURNIA, a town of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees. Population 800; 21 miles west of Perpignan.

SO'URSOP, *s.* [*guanabanus*, Lat.] Custard-apple.—It grows in several parts of the Spanish West Indies, where it is cultivated for its fruits. *Miller.*

SOURTON, a hamlet of England, in Devonshire; 4½ miles south-west of Oakhampton. Population 484.

SOUS, *s.* [*sol*, Fr.] A French penny.

SOSA, a town of Portugal, in the province of Beira; 16 miles west of Oporto. Population 4000.

SOUSE, *s.* [*soute*, salt, Dutch.] Pickle made of salt. Any thing kept parboiled in salt-pickle.

I am sent to lay
An imposition upon *souse* and puddings,
Pasties and penny custards!

Beaum. and Fl.

The ear; most properly that of a hog, from its being frequently pickled or *soused*.

Addison. To SOUSE, *v. a.* To parboil, or steep in pickle.—If I be not ashamed of my soldiers, I am a *soused* gurnet! *Shakspeare.*—To throw into water. *A ludicrous sense.*—They *soused* me into the Thames with as little remorse as they drown blind puppies. *Shakspeare.*

To SOUSE, *v. n.* [from *sous*, or *dessous*, down, Fr.] To fall as a bird on its prey; to fall with violence.

Jove's bird will *souse* upon the timorous hare,
And tender kids with his sharp talons tear. *Dryden, jun.*

To SOUSE, *v. a.* To strike with sudden violence, as a bird strikes his prey.

The gallant monarch is in arms;
And like an eagle o'er his airy tow'r's,
To *souse* annoyance that comes near his nest. *Shakspeare.*

SOUSE, *s.* Violent attack, as of a bird striking his prey.

With that his murd'rous mace he up did reare,
That seemed nought the *souse* thereof could beare,
And therewith smote at him with all his might. *Spenser.*

SOUSE, *adv.* With sudden violence. *A low word.*

Such make a private study of the street,
And looking full at every man they meet,
Run *souse* against his chaps, who stands amaz'd,
To find they did not see, but only gaz'd. *Young.*

SOUSOU, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 24 miles north of Satalia.

SOUSOUGHERIC, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 20 miles south-east of Balikesri.

SOUSSA-KEVI, a small town of Greece, on the isthmus of Corinth, corresponding to the ancient Sidus.

SOUSTON, a town of France, in the department of the Landes, on a lake of the same name, with 2600 inhabitants; 14 miles north-west of Dax.

SOUSTONS, ETANG DE, a saltwater bay nearly inclosed by the land, in the south-west of France, near the Atlantic, department of the Landes. Lat. 43. 56. N. long. 1. 16. W.

SOUTCHEOUFOU, a large city of China, capital of the eastern part of the province of Kiangnan. It is situated on the great canal, not far from its southern termination at Hangtcheoufou. Its site is so intersected by rivers and canals, that Europeans compare it to Venice. It is one of the most beautiful and delightful cities of the empire, and the surrounding country is almost unequalled in point of fertility. In this happy situation the inhabitants seem to have devoted themselves almost entirely to the enjoyment of life. All the arts which minister to pleasure are carried here to the highest perfection. From Soutcheoufou the rest of China is supplied with the best actors, rope dancers, and jugglers. It is particularly famed for the beauty of its females, and for the care with which their charms are embellished. In consequence of these attractions, it has become the residence of great numbers of the rich and voluptuous Chinese. It is a common saying in the empire, that paradise is in heaven, and Soutcheoufou is on earth. The walls are more than four leagues in compass, and the suburbs extend a great way along the canal, which is everywhere covered with large barks, like floating houses, affording a permanent abode to numerous inhabitants. There is an extensive manufacture here of brocade and embroidery. The continual motion of its immense number of inhabitants, and the crowd of strangers passing and repassing, gives the impression as if the trade of all the provinces centred in this city. Lat. 31. 22. N. long. 120. E.

SOUT EL TELL, a mountain in the western part of Algiers; 30 miles north-east of Tlemsan.

SO'UTER, *s.* [ꝛutepe, Sax.; *sutor*, Lat.] A shoemaker; a cobbler.

I should be at least a senator.—A *sowter*,
For that's a place more fitted to thy nature. *Beaum. and Fl.*

A conqueror! a cobbler; hang him, *sowter*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SO'UTERLY, *adj.* Like a cobbler; low; vulgar.—
You

You *sowterly* knaves, shew ye all your manners at once? Like well to Like.—The burden-bearing porter, *sowterly* cobbler, and toilful labourer. *Florio.*

SOUTERRAIN, *s.* [*souterrain*, Fr.] A grotto or cavern in the ground. *Not English.*—Defences against extremities of heat, as shade, grottoes, or *souterrains*, are necessary preservatives of health. *Arbuthnot.*

SOUTERRAINE, a town of France, department of La Creuse, with 2900 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of linen and hemp; 19 miles north-west of Gueret.

SOUTH, *s.* [juð, Saxon; *suyd*, Dutch; *sud*, Fr.] The part where the sun is to us at noon: opposed to *north*.—East and west have no certain points of heaven, but north and *south* are fixed; and seldom the far southern people have invaded the northern, but contrariwise. *Bacon.*—The southern regions of the globe.

From the north to call
Decrepit winter, from the *south* to bring
Solstitial summer's heat.

Milton.

The wind that blows from the south.

All the contagion of the *south* light on you,
You shames of Rome, you.

Shakspeare.

SOUTH, *adj.* Southern; meridional.

Meanwhile the *south* wind rose, and with black wings
Wide hovering, all the clouds together drove.

Milton.

SOUTH, *adv.* Towards the south.

His regiment lies half a mile
South from the mighty power of the king.

Shakspeare.

From the south.—Such fruits as you appoint for long keeping, gather in a fair and dry day, and when the wind bloweth not *south*. *Bacon.*

SOUTH (Robert), a divine of the church of England, eminent for learning, talents, and wit, was the son of a London merchant, and was born at Hackney in 1633. He was educated at Westminster School by the celebrated Busby from whence he was elected to Christchurch, Oxford. Here he was soon distinguished for his classical attainments, of which one of the products was an elegant Latin poem addressed to Oliver Cromwell, on the conclusion of the Dutch war. Another poem of his, which was much read and applauded, was entitled "Musica Incantans," which was afterwards printed separately, at Dr. Fell's request. In 1657 he commenced M. A., and in the following year he received holy orders from one of the deprived bishops, and being soon after chosen to preach the assize sermon before the judges, he made a violent attack upon the Independents, which ingratiated him with the Presbyterians. Soon after the Restoration, he was chosen public orator of the university. In this office he acquitted himself so much to the satisfaction of Lord Clarendon, when complimenting him at his investiture as chancellor of the university, that he was taken under the protection of that eminent man, and appointed his domestic chaplain. He was promoted to a prebend of Westminster in 1663, and was in the same year admitted to the degree of D. D. He soon succeeded to a canonry of Christchurch, and in 1673, he attended as chaplain to the younger son of the Earl of Clarendon, in an embassy to Poland. On his return he was presented to the rectory of Islip, in Oxfordshire, and became greatly distinguished by his turn for humorous sarcasm, in which he indulged even in the pulpit. During the reign of Charles II., Dr. South was a strenuous asserter of the royal prerogative, as he was also during the following reign, though he was fully sensible of the dangers to which the established religion was exposed under James II. He nevertheless refused to join in an invitation to the Prince of Orange to come to its rescue; and after the arrival of that prince, he declined subscription to the association for his support which was signed by the vice-chancellor, and several heads of colleges in Oxford. When William was seated on the throne he did not scruple taking the oath of allegiance to the new government, but he is said to have rejected the offer of some persons in power to place

him in one of the sees vacated by the nonjuring bishops. His political conduct continued the same: he was a violent enemy to toleration, and to any concessions for conciliating the separatists. In 1693, he engaged in the controversy respecting the doctrine of the Trinity with Dr. Sherlock, and is said to have displayed as great a want of Christian charity, as abundance of learning and orthodox zeal. He now began to decline in health; and though his mind was active, yet his bodily powers failed him, and he passed the greater part of Queen Anne's reign in a state of inaction; but on Sacheverel's trial, he exerted himself vigorously to procure a lenient sentence from the judges. When his friends came into power towards the close of that reign, he was solicited to accept the bishopric of Rochester and deanery of Westminster, but he replied, such a chair would be too uneasy for an old infirm man to sit in. The queen's decease was considered by him as a signal of his own approaching dissolution, "since," he said, "that all that was good and gracious, and the very breath of his nostrils, had made its departure to the regions of bliss and eternal happiness." He died in July, 1716, at the age of 83, and was interred with much solemnity in Westminster Abbey.

Dr. South cannot be regarded as a proper pattern of a Christian minister, the follower of the meek and holy Jesus; though his sincerity as a true believer of the doctrines of revealed religion has never been doubted. His temper was harsh and unamiable, irascible and unforgiving, and his talents for wit and humour led him too frequently to indulge in ill-natured sarcasm. His talents were considerable, and he is usually reckoned among the good writers of the time, though he frequently manifested a want of taste in not adapting his wit to subjects suited to it. He is author of Sermons, in six volumes, which have passed through many editions. After his decease there appeared his "Opera Posthuma Latina," and his English posthumous works, which consisted of three additional sermons; Travels into Poland, and Memoirs of his Life, in 2 vols. 8vo. *Biog. Brit.*

SOUTH AMERICA, is a vast continent of an irregularly oblong form, which divides the Pacific and Atlantic Oceans. It is united with North America by the Isthmus of Darien. The mountains of the Andes run about north and south through the whole of its extent, and they are, consequently, nearly parallel to the two shores of the Pacific and the Atlantic Oceans, dividing the country between into two equal parts, each bounded by an ocean and by the Cordillera. It would, at first, be expected, that these twin countries, separated only by a range of mountains, should bear a great resemblance to each other: but variety is the attribute of Omnipotence, and nature has granted to these two countries a difference of climate and geological construction, which is very remarkable.

From the tops of the Andes, she supplies both of them with water; by the gradual melting of the snow, they are both irrigated exactly in proportion to their wants; and vegetation, instead of being exhausted by the burning sun of summer, is thus nourished and supported by the heat which threatened to destroy it. The water, however, which flows from Chili towards the Pacific, is confined in its whole course, and forces its way through a country as mountainous as the highlands of Scotland or Switzerland.

At present, South America is divided into the republics of Columbia, Chili, Peru, the united provinces of Buenos Ayres, the empire of Brazil, and the province of Paraguay, besides some other parts, of which the exact destination is not settled.

Under the words Quito, Peru, Venezuela, Brazil, &c., the general situation and natural features of South America, as well as its history, have been fully dwelt upon. It remains, therefore, in this place, only to give a brief but connected account of the recent events that have occurred, and introduce such remarks of an interesting nature as modern travellers have left.

The causes that led to the revolution of South America, are tolerably well known. The tyranny and oppression of the court of Spain has been so much experienced, even in

Europe, that it seemed a matter of certainty that a distant province, peopled by degraded and despised Indians, should be miserably and cruelly governed. Recently, this supposition has been converted into the fullest certainty. The report of some Spanish gentlemen sent over by the court of Spain, to examine into the state of the country, though secreted at the time, has recently been brought to light and published; and the scenes it exhibits of barbarity and licentiousness on the part of the Spaniards is, perhaps, without parallel in ancient or modern history. The sale of justice by the viceroy and the judges, who did not even keep faith with those they had taken bribes from—the levying of taxes by inferior officers in the most arbitrary manner—the raising imposts several times over, by asserting they had not been received—priests living in open concubinage with several women of the same family, and their whole lives occupied with drunkenness and debauchery, and not a few instances of the most systematic seduction achieved by the united labours of these reverend brethren.—These are the matters disclosed by the chosen servants of the crown, who had every opportunity for knowing the truth, and whose natural inclination must rather have been to palliate than exaggerate the crimes of their fellow-countrymen. After long and wretched endurance of this galling slavery, Venezuela set the example to the other provinces, by forming a supreme junta in Caracas, the capital, which assumed the reins of government. A similar proceeding took place at Buenos Ayres, and at the several capitals of Santa Fé de Bogota, Carthagena, and Quito. So soon as intelligence of these proceedings reached the regency at Cadiz, a proclamation was issued by them, declaring the provinces in a state of insurrection. Irritated by these severe measures, the provinces resolved to renounce at once their allegiance to the mother country; and in this also, Venezuela took the lead, having issued a declaration of independence in July, 1811, after having arranged its future government somewhat after the fashion of the United States of America. Declarations of a similar nature were issued in Mexico, among all the states which constituted the federation of New Granada, and, shortly after, by the congress which met at Buenos Ayres.

The congress of Venezuela met with some opposition to their views; but the malcontents were not formidable, and in general the new government, after having issued the declaration of independence in 1811, may be said to have prospered in all its undertakings; when unforeseen events happened, which involved those ill-fated countries in new troubles. As the first act of the Venezuelan revolution had occurred on Holy Thursday in 1811, the whole inhabitants were engaged in 1812 in celebrating this festival with peculiar solemnities, when the country was shaken by a terrible earthquake, which destroyed five of the chief cities of the confederacy; and among these, Caracas itself, the capital, was nearly ruined, and an immense number of soldiers and inhabitants lost their lives. The superstitious people immediately considered this as a signal of the displeasure of Providence with the revolution, which sentiment was zealously enforced by the priests, who were the decided enemies of independence. In the mean time, the Spanish commander Monte Verde, who was in the interior with a military force, seized the opportunity to advance to Caracas; and though he was forced ultimately to retreat, he got possession of Porto Cabello, and thus secured to the Spaniards a communication with the sea. The Venezuelans were so dispirited by this misfortune, and the general aspect of their affairs, that they concluded a treaty with Monte Verde, the Spanish general, by which the sovereign authority of the Cortes was once more established throughout Venezuela. This treaty was, however, broken by the Spanish commander, and in violation of it, several of the independent leaders were apprehended and thrown into prison. These events took place before the end of the year 1812.

About 18 months after this, the Caracas were again delivered from the tyranny of the Spanish governor, by the renowned Bolivar, who, having retired to the state of New Granada, after the successes of Monte Verde, and now

thinking the opportunity favourable for his enterprise, landed with a small force, which was soon increased by numerous recruits, and with which he made his triumphal entry into the Caracas.

The violence of the two parties had now proceeded to the atrocious extreme of giving no quarter; and the royalists, reduced to the last extremity, resolved to arm the slaves in their favour. After ravaging the country with a degree of ferocity hitherto unparalleled, this force was encountered by Bolivar at Calaboso, the 28th May, 1814, and totally defeated. The Spaniards retreated into the interior, whither Bolivar dispatched a force to disperse them. Having by this means, however, too much divided his strength, he was himself attacked and defeated, and finally obliged to quit the country. He retired with a few tried companions to Carthagena. He returned at the end of 1815, and having entered into an agreement with one Brion, who undertook to defray the expences of a maritime expedition, they landed at the island of Margaritta, which they soon reduced; after which Bolivar landed on the continent 6th June, 1816, and immediately issued a proclamation offering freedom to the slaves, and announcing his resolution in future to spare all prisoners of war. He marched in the direction of the city of Caracas, his vanguard under the command of a Scots adventurer, Gregor M'Gregor, who had served during the Spanish war in the British army, and who was valuable to Bolivar from his experience of war. The main body of Bolivar's army was in the meantime defeated by the royalist general Morales, and he was compelled hastily to re-embark, M'Gregor not being able to effect his retreat, was compelled to fight two battles with Morales, in the last of which he was completely triumphant, and immediately after made his entrance into Barcelona, where he was joined by Bolivar, with reinforcements, in December.

From this period, the contest seems to have been maintained with greater equality on both sides, and many bloody and indecisive battles appear to have been fought, of which it would be useless to enter into the details, which are imperfect and contradictory, both parties claiming the victory in most of the actions which have been fought. The royalists had been materially aided by reinforcements brought by Morillo from Granada; but the independents had so far prevailed, that on the 8th May, 1817, they revived their former constitution. General Bolivar and Don Fernando Toro were placed at the head of the executive power. Judges and other functionaries were also chosen, and generals Bolivar and Marino were reinstated in the command of the armies. A decree was at the same time issued, confirming Brion as admiral in chief of the Venezuelan squadron. The independent troops had received reinforcements of disbanded officers and soldiers from Europe, where they had agents to recruit for them. By their successes in 1817, the Spaniards under Morillo were chiefly confined to the towns of Barcelona and Cumana, on the coast; while on the side of the Caracas they held possession of the level country to the northward of the immense plains which stretch into the interior. The fortresses of Angostura and Guyana surrendered to the patriot forces, which were thus enabled to occupy all the country watered by the Orinoco. Their commanders were at this time Bolivar, Piar, Arismendi, Bermudes, and Cedeno. In addition to this force, Marino was at Cumanacoa with 2000 men, and Roxas at Maturin; Monagas and Zaraza, with their cavalry, were in the plains of Barcelona; while Paez, the Santa Fé chieftain, occupied all the country from Varinas to Calaboso. In the course of this year, Morillo was repulsed in his attempts on the island of Margaritta, which had been previously occupied by the patriots. Early in the year 1818, several severe engagements appear to have been fought between Bolivar and Morillo, in the neighbourhood of Calaboso, in which they both claim the victory, and which appear therefore to have been indecisive; and in August, we find both parties again preparing for a renewal of the bloody struggle. Our subsequent accounts of the operations which took place are extremely imperfect; but in 1819, we find that Bolivar had proceeded

on an expedition to deliver New Granada from the Spanish yoke. In this he had completely succeeded, the Creoles having everywhere seconded his exertions, by rising on the Spanish authorities. He fought several battles, in which he was victorious, and finally made his triumphal entry into Santa Fé de Bogota, where he found a large treasure belonging to the government.

In the course of the year 1820, the oppressions of Ferdinand gave rise to a revolution in the mother country; and from this period, the war in the colonies seems to have languished; and in November 1820, it was happily terminated by an armistice for six months, signed by Bolivar and Morillo.

In the viceroyalty of New Granada a declaration of independence was in like manner issued; but the different provinces never seem to have concurred with each other in any general plan for the conduct of their affairs. The city of Santa Fé refused to join the general congress of New Granada, and the province of Cartagena preferred to conduct its affairs separately from the other members of the confederation. For a long time complete success attended the independent cause. But general Morillo arriving from Spain with a force of 12,000 men, of which he left 2000 at Porto Cabello, to aid the Spanish commanders in Venezuela, succeeded in taking the town of Cartagena after a long siege, and in finally establishing the authority of Ferdinand over the whole territory of the confederation. The successes of the independent troops in Venezuela had enabled them subsequently to march a body of troops into New Granada, who were received in many places as deliverers, and finally succeeded in taking Santa Fé de Bogota, and in re-establishing the independent cause through great part of the country.

In the viceroyalty of La Plata, the revolution triumphed over all resistance, after a long struggle with the royalist troops under Liniers, the ex-viceroy, in the course of which the infant republic was exposed to many perilous vicissitudes. Domestic factions have since arisen, and the city and territory of Monte Video is governed by a junta of its own, in strict alliance with the government of Buenos Ayres. The Portuguese under general Lecor entered the Spanish territory in 1817, with a pompous proclamation that they came as deliverers. Their movements were, however, watched by Artigas, the general of Monte Video, who checked every attempt they made to extend their dominion in the neighbourhood.

In Chili, the ancient Spanish authority was peaceably superseded by the aristocracy of the country in 1810, and a new government was established in its stead. But the royalists from Peru having invaded Chili in great force, the authority of Ferdinand was fairly re-established throughout the whole of this extensive country. When the Buenos Ayres government, however, had completely prevailed over all opposition, they naturally bethought themselves of sending assistance to those who, like themselves, were struggling for independence. In pursuance of these views, a considerable force was dispatched towards Chili, under the command of General San Martin, who having encountered the royalist troops in the course of his march, totally defeated them in several battles; and following up his successes, liberated the whole of Chili from the royal authority. The Chilian government, now made great exertions for the cause of independence, and fitted out a naval force, the command of which was given to Lord Cochrane, renowned for his brilliant exploits in the British service. With this force the Spanish trade in that quarter was greatly harassed; and Callao, the port of Lima, placed under blockade. See the article PERU, wherein the exploits of this hero, and, indeed, a portion of the general history of South America, is brought up to the year 1822. From this period, the events that have occurred will be most conveniently entered into in the following separate accounts of the main divisions of the country.

In the article BRAZIL, the early history of the country so named, has been given; and in the article PORTUGAL, its

separation from Portugal and the establishment of its government under the emperor, related. It was there stated, that after having acceded to a constitution in 1822, this potentate had peremptorily abrogated and dismissed the House of Assembly. However, on the 25th of March 1824, the emperor, together with his empress and ministers, solemnly accepted and swore to observe a constitution, of which the following is a sketch:—

The monarchy is hereditary; but, in another place, it is said, that the business of the general assembly is to elect the regent or regency, and mark the limits of its authority.

All Brazilian citizens (that is nearly every body born abroad of Brazilian parents, or of foreign parents on Brazilian land), vote for their representatives.

In the first place, the citizens meet in *parochial* assemblies, and choose *provincial* deputies. These again meet and elect the national representatives or general assembly. They appear, also, to have some magisterial powers in their peculiar provinces, being termed “ Councils General of the Provinces.”

Of the General Assembly, some are called *senators*; of these, thrice the necessary number are proposed by the provincial deputies, and the emperor selects from them one-third. They are chosen for life—must be upwards of 40, and have an income of 800 milreas. The deputies chosen every four years, must have 400 milreas income. The provincial deputies, 200.

From the Parochial Assemblies, monks, soldiers of all grades, servants and paupers, are excluded.

All religions are tolerated, but none must have an external form of temple, save the Catholics.

On most other points, the framers of this constitution have copied closely the English. Thus, pardoning, declaring peace or war, the nomination of judges, ministers and magistrates, rest with the sovereign: thus they have jurors to try the fact, and judges to expound and apply the law; and they hold the king's ministers *personally* responsible. They have much improved upon our system, by making their representative real, by fixing, at a moderate income, the qualification of their deputies, by paying them their expenses for their time; and lastly, by fixing what is to be done in the event of the imbecility, abdication, &c., of the sovereign.

The few events that have taken place since the article above referred to was published, may properly come in here.

The very general prevalence of republican principles which has taken place over the whole of South America, rendered the government, by an emperor, no very easy task; but no great or general movement of the people against the imperial power, has yet taken place. In the early part of 1825, the government felt itself sufficiently strong, in the public estimation, to promulgate a Royal Decree, granting an amnesty to all Portuguese banished or imprisoned for political crimes. This was a very bold, just and sensible measure, and could not fail of tranquillizing the country and restoring, in some degree, its capital.

The boundary of the Brazilian territory not having been very amicably settled, some disputes arose between this government and the United Provinces, which led to a very disastrous war in the beginning of last year. At first, the advantage seemed entirely on the side of the republicans, whom the natives joined and assumed the title of Patriots. Soon after, however, we find the Buenos Ayreans in a most desperate condition; their fleet destroyed, and the Brazilian vessels blockading the entrance of the river Plata, and all the roads and rivers in their hands, and thereby so completely cutting off supplies and commerce that the inhabitants were reduced to extreme privations.

Recently, the attention of the emperor of the Brazils has been called to Portugal, and he has dispatched commissioners to announce to the Portuguese, that his abdication was only conditional; and that if the conditions were not fulfilled on the part of the Queen Regent, he should resume the government: and he further appointed these commissioners members of the Queen Regent's council. The government have not,

not, however, admitted these councillors, nor published Don Pedro's manifesto.

To return to Brazil.—The clergy of this country are paid by the government which collects the tithes on all articles exposed to sale, and disburses such salaries as may be deemed proper. No priest has less than 200*l.* per annum, except the conventual clergy, who, being maintained by old grants of land, are some very poor, others (as the Benedictines) very rich.

The chief sources of revenue are the customs, inward and outward; the fifth on gold; duties on negroes, on importation, paid by the seller, and another duty on farther sale paid by the purchaser. The amounts of English imports in 1821 was about 2,300,000*l.*, which would pay fifteen per cent. From the other European powers to the extent of a million sterling, at twenty-four per cent. From the United States, under 350,000*l.* From the River Plate and Pacific, and from Portugal, India and China, it would amount together to a sum of 800,000*l.* To this must be added the one-fifth on gold, which, taken on 600,000*l.* gives 120,000*l.* Duty on 40,000 slaves imported, at a doblon each, 120,000*l.* The produce of the diamond mines, after deducting 50,000*l.* expenses, will scarcely amount to as much more. The duty on exports to all quarters, 260,000*l.*; to this must be added duty on goods brought from the interior, tobacco and whale farms, taxes on the mintage, and other taxes, as equal to 1,200,000*l.* more; forming a grand sum total of 2,500,000*l.* of annual revenue. This is, however, merely an approximation.

A regiment of foreigners, a battalion of artillery, formed of free blacks, 600 cavalry from the province of Minas Geraes, and about 1000 native infantry, the whole amounting to above 2,500 effective men, constitute all the standing army of Brazil. But as every citizen who votes is liable to be called on for the defence of his country, a very formidable militia will soon be framed.

The navy (under the dominion of the Portuguese, in so enviable a condition), amounted in 1823 only to one line-of-battle ship, three frigates, three corvettes and some brigs and schooners. The government were, however, at that time engaged in constructing six frigates and otherwise improving their navy.

With regard to the society at Brazil there is of course nothing worth the name except at Rio de Janeiro; and here the old Portuguese and the Brazilians seem to be on very cold terms of acquaintance. The former wishing to retain a superiority from their old hereditary habits, and the latter, as well educated and richer, not being at all inclined to cede it. Literature is at a low ebb, but enough exists to keep up a taste for it, and some feeble attempts are made from time to time to interest the people in the study of botany, natural history and the sciences in general. The whole population of the empire no one is accurately informed about. Caldwell, a very intelligent writer, reckons it at three millions thus divided:—blacks 1,800,000; whites 600,000; Indians 600,000.

Land is, about the metropolis, valuable, but further in the country may be had for clearing, which is an operation of very little trouble. The trees are felled and their boughs set on fire; soon after the coarsest Indian corn is sown in the ashes.

So universally is gold disseminated over the central parts of the Brazils, that even in the streets of Rio, children may be seen, after heavy rains, picking up pieces of this metal. In the mountains gold is found in a red heavy loam, in beds of clay-slate, quartz mica-slate or in veins of quartz and red ironstone. It usually assumes its most beautiful form in the large foliated iron mica-slate; it is also found in arsenical iron pyrites. All the numerous streams that trickle down the sides of the mountains, but more especially those at their feet which assume a slow and muddy character, are auriferous, not only in their beds but their banks also. Nor is gold the only treasure that the Minas Geraes possesses. We are assured by Von Spix and Martius, that almost every kind of metal is to be found here, with the exception of silver; iron-

stone, which may be considered to form the chief component part of the long chain, is so rich as to produce ninety per cent. of metal; lead is found beyond the Rio de S. Francisco; copper in S. Domingos; manganese in Paraopeba; platina in several of the mountain streams; quick-silver, arsenic, bismuth, antimony and red-lead ore, about Villa Rica; diamonds in Tejuco and Abaité; yellow, blue and white topazes, grass and bluish green aqua-marines, red and green tourmalins, chrysoberyls, garnets and amethysts; in Minas Novas. To which may be added that which is, or ought to be, the greatest of all treasures, yet the most neglected, a very fertile soil covered with a luxuriant vegetation, capable of producing every luxury and necessary of life, under a climate which, from the elevation of the surface, is temperate and agreeable. But here, as elsewhere, the *auri sacra fames* has exerted a baleful influence over the infatuated inhabitants. Neglecting agricultural pursuits, their whole attention has till very lately been drawn to the mines; a lottery in which the great prize generally remains in the wheel. It is a curious circumstance, stated by the Bavarian travellers, that at the first place they entered in the gold district, the only currency was a depreciated paper-money, with a large number of forged notes.

The English have long enjoyed a monopoly, first established by the Portuguese government, in supplying Brazil with cotton manufactures. The restriction that first gave us this monopoly will shortly expire, but it is said that without it we shall still be enabled to undersell other competitors. In 1820 the extents of British manufactures amounted to 1,860,000*l.*; in 1821 to 2,230,000*l.* The imports of 1820, were 950,000*l.*; in 1821, 1,300,000*l.* Thus, then, the trade with England is very great. Every thing is supplied to Brazil from this country except wine from Portugal, a few articles of dress and fashions from France, a little iron from Sweden, and flour and fish from the United States. Nearly the only trade kept in the hands of the Brazilians is that of Slaves. This is carried on with the usual horrid sacrifice of life. For example—see the following table:

An Account of the Number of Slaves imported into Rio de Janeiro in the Year 1823.

In fifty-two vessels	20,610	landed.
Died at sea	1,437	

22,047 shipped.

In 1824, to the 6th March.

In seventeen vessels	5,626	landed.
Died at sea	840	

6,466 shipped.

Though much has been done for Brazil by its emperor, and though her finances, long distressed by the expenses of war, are fast recovering, and her trade of mining in a state of improvement, this country cannot be considered either flourishing or tranquil. The contiguity and example of the republican states, tends to excite in the minds of the people an impatience of the sovereign rule by no means favourable to the present state of things, and it is to be feared that from the immense distance between the cities and the difficulty of communication, the self consequence that all insulated bodies of men are prone to feel, will cause a multitude of independent states to spring up. The existence of this feeling in the governed must necessarily excite asperity in the governors; but the clergy, a class likely to aid these dissensions by exciting, as they have generally done, the ruling powers to despotic measures, are fortunately so vicious and debased, that they are utterly contemned by all ranks of people.

The climate of Brazil is fine, and the formidable diseases found in parallel latitudes are nearly unknown. The situation of the capital is peculiarly healthy. Of vegetable productions Brazil has to boast the *banana* or *plantain*, which grows almost every where with little cultivation and bears a fruit extremely nutritious and wholesome; the finest oranges in the world; abundance of pine apples (though unfortunately

nately they are not allowed to ripen perfectly on account of the ants); the *maracuja*, or fruit of the popiflora, estimated by the Spaniards the finest of fruits, the mango, the guava, the tamarind, &c. Cocoa, coffee, and sugar are also plentifully produced. The tea tree grows, but from some unknown circumstances the article is not good. Every kind of wood necessary for ship-building, dyeing, or carpentry is found, and multitudes of the most gorgeous flowers: these, however, want the rich odour that attends the blossoms of more temperate climes. The horses in the colder parts of Brazil are strong, but lose so much of their strength and vivacity in warmer parts, that mules are chiefly used. Large oxen are occasionally found for draught; but the breed that is kept for eating, is peculiarly lean and small. A multitude of wild dogs infest the streets of the capital; but hydrophobia is unknown. The tapir, the sloth, the jaquar, huge bats that suck the blood of the cattle, many venomous serpents, enormous toads, scorpions and spiders; voracious ants so large that, when fried, they are eaten; mosquitoes, *jaggers* who get under one's toe nails, and ticks who burrow into one's flesh, fill up the catalogue of animated nature. Much honey would be raised from bees, if the ants did not destroy the cells. The silk-worm does not exist, but its place is partly supplied by another insect. Rio de Janeiro is well supplied with fish: sharks and small crocodiles are met with in its bay.

To the west of Brazil lies the comparatively small state of PARAGUAY. This so long and prosperously managed by the Portuguese Jesuits, was early revolutionized, and at present is under the absolute dominion of a despot. When first it threw off the yoke of the mother country, the king's governor, Velasco, for some time joined in the administration of affairs with the revolutionary chief Francia, a native of Paraguay; and who, having taken a degree at Cordova, was better known by the name of Doctor Francia. This administration lasted but a short time; Francia getting rid of his colleague, declaring himself dictator of Paraguay, and making two nephews his secretaries.

In 1810, an expedition, under the command of Belgrano, left Buenos Ayres to attack Francia; and, having advanced for some days through the thick woods of Paraguay without seeing an enemy, concluded that they should reach the capital Asumpcion without any obstacle. But the following night, soon after their encampment, they discovered fires on all sides of them, and a trumpet arrived with a notification from Francia, that he had no wish to shed blood, and would therefore grant a free retreat to the Buenos Ayreans; but that, if they advanced, they must take all the consequences of such an indiscretion. On this, Belgrano, after some hesitation, seeing that his resources were cut off, and being ignorant of the number of the enemy, he thought it prudent to retire. Every night, while he remained on the territory of Francia, he found himself surrounded in a similar way, and was glad to escape from the danger with which he was menaced.

From 1810, when Velasco was deposed, until 1816, the yerba, or tea tree, came down in the usual large quantities. According to M. Bonpland, it is produced by a new species of ilex. In 1814, no less a quantity than twenty thousand bales reached Buenos Ayres; but since 1816, the dictator has scarcely permitted any to leave the country, excepting now and then in exchange for gunpowder, arms, and in one or two instances, philosophical instruments. The tea brought from Paraguay is said to be as superior to that manufactured by the Brazilians as possible; a difference solely to be attributed to the process used in the manufacture. For this species of ilex, being the growth of a warmer climate, is more likely to vegetate well in Brazil than in Paraguay; in the north of which it only flourishes. Owing to the prohibition on the part of Francia, the Brazilians have found a great source of wealth in the preparation of this article. They supply the Buenos Ayrean states and Chili; for the last they furnish a stronger description of yerba, as it is supposed that the great cold of the Cordillera destroys the

flavour of the common kind. The Brazilians consume little themselves.

From these circumstances the price of the tea is high, about twelve reals, or 6s. 6d. the pound; but such is the predilection for it that it must be procured at any price. Foreigners, as well as the natives, get accustomed to the flavour, and as readily subscribe to its good effects.

The Dictator has certain political views of his own, the bias of which it is not so easy to discover. He carefully abstains from participating in the disputes of the other provinces, although invited to do so, but strictly preserves an armed neutrality. Some maintain that he is one of the old Jesuits, others that he is holding the country for the king of Spain, but all vilify him for not allowing the tea to leave the country. Whether he is determined that the lives of none of his subjects shall be lost while collecting the leaves, which, from the swampy nature of the places where the trees abound, is a most unhealthy pursuit, or whether he fears that trade will introduce foreigners and new ideas, is not at all certain, but he persists in his plan.

Under such circumstances little is with certainty known of the interior of Paraguay. It is said, however, that the people are satisfied with the order of things, and that the population is increasing and wealthy. It is computed at 200,000 whites, exclusive of Indians. The Dictator is perfectly despotic, never punishes with death, but with perpetual prison.

A few years ago the Dictator settled some disputes in the country in a novel way. He decreed that the government of the country should be of the most popular nature; that there should be a congress of a thousand members, chosen from all classes of the people, to arrange the affairs of the country, &c., and settle a new form of government. The members were accordingly chosen from all parts, and obliged to assemble at Asumpcion, where, after an address from the dictator, they were set to business. At the end of three days, passed without pay or allowances, and with the certainty of the ruin of their farms and families, they came in a body to the Dictator, and, replacing the sovereign power in his hands, declared that they were perfectly satisfied with his plan of government, and concluded by begging permission to retire to their homes. His excellency, disguising his satisfaction at the success of the plan, replied, that he should reserve to himself the power of calling them together again; and if he heard of any more complaints or murmurs, he should avail himself of it, and in that case the deputies must make up their minds to a session of at least six months' duration.

By means of the philosophical instruments, Francia has been able to strengthen his power considerably over the people. Every night he sallies out from his dictatorial palace, attended by a crowd of persons, and, examining the stars, he makes his calculations, and then retires amidst the admiration of the multitude.

M. Bonpland, who accompanied Humboldt over the equinoctial parts of the New World, and who, by his botanical researches, added so considerably to the value of the travels of the great Prussian, had subsequently settled at Buenos Ayres. In 1820, he received an invitation from Francia, who affects to encourage science, to follow his favourite pursuit in Paraguay. The offer of facilities in examining botanically a country scarcely known in this particular, but from the descriptions of Azara, was too tempting not to be accepted, although the friends of M. Bonpland made him fully comprehend the risk that he incurred by putting himself in the power of Francia: for previously to this, several Europeans, among whom were a Dr. Powlett, a physician, and a master shipwright, British subjects, had gone to Asumpcion, and had never been permitted to leave the country.

In spite of these sad instances of a want of faith on the part of Francia, Bonpland left Buenos Ayres, and proceeded, in the first instance, to the Entre Rios, the province to the south-south-east of Paraguay, and between the Parana and

Uruguay. It is said that he here received orders from the Dictator not to advance, as he had heard that, Frenchman-like, he had dabbled in the politics of Buenos Ayres: he then proceeded into the country of the missions, to the west of Corrientes, where he made large collections in every branch of natural history. He subsequently returned to the Entre Rios, and there, finding the tea tree, he, in conjunction with a Scotchman, entered into the manufacture of this commodity, and at once set up an opposition to the Dictator of Paraguay.

This manufacture did not go on long before Francia sent a party down the river to seize the offenders; the more wary Scotchman escaped, but unfortunately M. Boaplant was taken. Whether the details of the capture are quite correct, is not with accuracy known; but it is certain that the botanist was taken, and is still a prisoner at large, and permitted to make researches in the country.

To the south of and around Paraguay, are situated the UNITED PROVINCES of La Plata, and according to some authors the United Provinces include Paraguay; but we depart from this arrangement, because it is obvious that the Director holds no strong federation with the republicans. If we include Paraguay in these parts, the United Provinces stretch from 12° and 45° south latitude, and 51° 10' and 69° 55' west longitude. They are bounded on the north by Peru and Brazil, east by Brazil, south by the straits of Magellan, and the Atlantic Ocean, and west by Chili, the Pacific Ocean and Peru. Their area includes about 1,440,000 square miles.

The province of Buenos Ayres is bounded on the east by the river Parana, and its continuation the Rio de la Plata; on the north the small stream of Arroyo de en Medio divides it from the province of Santa Fé; and on the south and west, the Salado, which empties itself into the bay of Somborombon, may be considered as its limit in that direction. Latterly, however, some attempts have been made to extend the boundaries farther to the southward, and in fact, at different periods, the grazing grounds of the Europeans have stretched as far as 37° south latitude.

Nothing can exceed the fineness of the climate; the general range of the thermometer during the summer is from 75° to 84° of Faht. On the 21st February, 1821, the mercury stood for many hours at 91° in the shade. The mean temperature of the three summer months of 1822, was 71° 9'.

The Spaniards have at all times considered this country to be healthy in a singular degree, and the various instances of longevity given in the monthly obituary afford excellent proof of the general correctness of the remark. The more usual diseases are consumption, produced, it is imagined, by the sudden chills before spoken of, and bowel complaints, caused by drinking the water of the Rio de la Plata. It must be understood that these remarks are confined to the city and its immediate neighbourhood; for at a short distance, the *Gauchos*, or country people, seem perfectly free from disease of any kind.

The upper soil round Buenos Ayres is chiefly of a light nature, approaching to marl, and covering a stiff clay subsoil, called by the inhabitants, *tosca*. As far as modern observations go, this appearance does not extend many miles from the city.

The birds of this district are in proportion more numerous than the quadrupeds. The swan of the Rio de la Plata is a most elegant bird; the body is perfectly white, and the head and a portion of the neck black.

The South American ostrich (*nandu*) is met with in considerable numbers in the Pampas. It is about half the size of the African species, and the plumage is of little use. It is said that several females lay eggs of a yellowish colour in one nest, and that they are hatched by the male. There are two kinds of partridges in the Pampas; the one small, and similar to the quail of Europe, and the other considerably larger. On the banks of the rivers great variety of water-fowl subsist on the fish, which are most abundant.

The mosquito is common in the city, but not so troublesome as at Rio de Janeiro. Fleas abound; and they appear to live in the grass, for on lying down in some places, the body becomes covered with them. Reptiles are by no means common.

The only dependancy that Buenos Ayres can be said to possess, is that of Patagonia. See PATAGONIA.

The grain which flourishes best is wheat; and enough is raised, not only to supply the country, but to send considerable quantities to Brazil and up the Parana; formerly it derived a large portion from Chili. The wheat is small grained, bearded, and contains much flour.

The large farms are almost entirely taken up with the breeding of cattle. The numbers of horned cattle, and the consequent cheapness of meat, is an object of astonishment to all travellers. It is scarcely possible to say what a pound of meat is worth, when the whole ox, with the skin, tallow and horns, the only valuable parts, may be purchased for five or six dollars, and that considered a high price.

There are no manufactures of moment carried on in Buenos Ayres. The Indians bring in a few trifling articles, made from hides and ostrich feathers; and a few manufactured goods, such as ponchos and coarse woollen cloths, are brought in from the interior. It is not unlikely, that, in a few years, an English manufacture will supersede the use of the poncho; although, up to this time, we have not been able to fabricate any thing equal to it.

The trade between England and Buenos Ayres has become of much importance to both countries. In the year ending the 5th January, 1827, we shipped to Buenos Ayres, goods to the value of 388,487*l.*; while in the year ending 5th January, 1823, their value was 1,164,745*l.*, shewing an unprecedented increase. During the year 1822, one hundred and sixty-seven English vessels sailed from various ports for Buenos Ayres, carrying thither every description of manufactured goods, beer, &c.

The chief exports are hides, tallow, horns, hair, jerked beef, wool, Vicuna wool, (used for hat making), Chinchilli and Neutre skins, brought from the upper provinces. Of horse and cow hides, the number of 957,600 arrived in England in the year 1822; and when those which have gone direct to Antwerp and other continental ports are added to the account, some idea may be formed of the immense quantity produced in this part of the world.

In the year 1821, three hundred and twenty-two vessels were cleared outwards at Buenos Ayres, of which one hundred and fourteen were British; and in 1822, three hundred and four vessels, of which one hundred and sixty-seven were British.

This trade is chiefly carried on by an exchange of productions, very little coin having been sent of late years from the Rio de la Plata, perhaps not 100,000 dollars during the last five years. The other foreign trade carried on, appears of small amount after that of the British. The North Americans participate in it, as well as the Brazilians, who bring their sugars and spirits to exchange them for corn and jerked beef. Some trade is carried on with France, chiefly in oil made from horses and mules. A few mules are exported to the Isle of France.

The inhabitants are very much attached to social happiness. The theatre is a favourite resort; and latterly a new one has been built, to which particular privileges have been granted.

The bull fights were for some time totally abolished; but it would appear that the government has now reserved to itself the right of permitting them; but an express license must be procured for every exhibition, and the bull must be previously deprived of its horns. It seems rather an anomaly that this should be the case, when it is seen in what way these animals are usually treated by the country-people.

Every family of respectability has its *terulia*, or evening party, which includes a certain number of persons in the habit

habit of frequenting the house, and at which strangers are received with the greatest kindness and cordiality. The female part of the family is alone seen, or sometimes the gentleman of the house, but generally both the fathers and brothers are either forming part of another *tertulia*, or talking politics in the coffee-house. The general amusements are Spanish country-dances, of a superior kind to those known by the name in England; waltzing, minuets, and a dance accompanied with words, in which the lady first advances, and sings, "Cielito, mi Cielito," thence termed Cielito, or little heaven. Music also forms a part of the entertainment, and many of the ladies are no despicable performers. Refreshments are abundant, and about 11 o'clock the party breaks up. This takes place night after night. Nothing can exceed the politeness and elegance of the ladies: and a stranger generally would conclude that it was produced by the most finished education instead of proceeding from innate goodness of disposition.

Since the separation of the provinces, in February, 1820, the style of the Chief became necessarily altered: that of General Rodriguez, who was appointed on the 6th October, 1820, for three years is, Governor and Captain General of the Province of Buenos Ayres. There is little to be said respecting this officer, excepting that he possesses in an eminent degree the greatest of all virtues for a commander—firmness; and to this must be attributed the great ameliorations which have taken place in the province since the commencement of his rule. His conduct through life has always been marked with great patriotism, and he was one of the first who declared for the freedom of the country and the downfall of the Spanish yoke. He was one of the sixteen who planned the revolution in 1810, and who named the first junta of government to supersede that of the Viceroy Cisneros. His known character for firmness has had a strong tendency to keep the people quiet. When he took charge of the government, after the rising of the *Civicos*, many lives were lost in the streets of Buenos Ayres. Alluding to that event, he told the people on one occasion, when there was the probability of a tumult, that by blood he entered, and by blood he should go out. Perhaps no disposition could have been found better suited for the times and the people; and it appears the general wish that, on the expiration of the period of his command, it should be renewed for another term. The prerogatives in the republic are very limited; the governor has the power of promoting officers to the rank of *Coronel Maior*, and of rewarding them with grants of land; but there is no order of nobility or knighthood in his gift.

After the Director Pueyrredon went out of power, towards the end of 1819, and the separation of the provinces took place, the legislative power was very irregularly conducted. Sometimes it vested in the *cabildo* or municipal authorities, sometimes it was perfectly dormant, and the various changes in the executive annihilated for the time its exercise.—After the defeat of the *Civicos*, the Junta de Representantes again exercised its rights, and after a lapse of some months was regularly organized. The election is indirect. Each of the primary or parochial assemblies votes for twelve representatives, and of the whole number those who have most votes are chosen. For the parishes and villages in the province eleven are chosen in a similar way. Scrutineers are named to examine the votes, which are verbally given. At the commencement of August, 1821, the Chamber of Representatives was declared extraordinary and constituent, and various regulations were made. First, it was decreed that the number of representatives for the city and the country should be doubled, and that one should be added for Patagonia, thus making the number forty-seven, which, taking the amount of population into account, is sufficiently popular. Secondly, That at the commencement of each session, half of the members should go out, and fresh elections take place. Thirdly, That no members should receive pay from government. And lastly, That a president and vice-president should be chosen in turn annually. At first the

distinction of deputy was not an honour much sought for by the people: it was elevating them to what appeared a dangerous height, from which they might be precipitated, they knew not how soon; for little confidence could then be put in the stability of the government. At the last election this feeling had very properly worn away, and the electors and candidates seemed aware of that distinction which, in all countries, where a proper feeling exists, is viewed with eager eyes. The sessions of the chamber commence about May or June, and last until December, when it is prorogued on account of the summer heats.

The very improved state of the country in every branch, but particularly in the finances and police, must be attributed to the appointment of D. Bernadino Rivadavia to the secretaryship of state. This nomination took place in July, 1821, when the country, from intestine disturbances and misrule, was reduced to the lowest ebb. From that period, every thing has put on a renovated appearance; confidence has been restored, and old and dangerous prejudices combated and eradicated. Rivadavia had been for some time the agent of Buenos Ayres in London, and while there, he watched all our admirable institutions, and, in his mind, saw what could with advantage be transplanted to his native country, and what was as yet too refined, or not adapted to its sphere. He appears to have used, whenever it was possible, England as his model; and his public spirit has certainly been well seconded by the most thinking part of the community.

Garcia, the secretary of the treasury, was long the agent in Rio de Janeiro; and his appointment also reflects great credit on the governor.

One subject, which appears to have received much of Rivadavia's attention, is the state of the church and its discipline. It is well known that, while the Spanish power existed in South America, the quantity of property held by ecclesiastics and monastic institutions was immense. The king was the head of the church; that power having, at the conquest, been delegated to him, with the sovereignty of the country, by the Pope. In right of this, the tithes of the country fell into the royal treasury, as well as the first fruits, and other ecclesiastical resources; to which, in the mother country, he could lay no claim. In all the cities, the number of convents for monks and nuns was numerous; and, excepting the Jesuits, and since their extinction, the Franciscans, who were charged with the care of public instruction, these were all so many drones and useless members of a rising state.

At the commencement of the revolution, the country was deprived of the services of the bishop of Buenos Ayres, who was a suffragan of the see of Lima. The government then made itself the head of the church, after much curious reasoning on the part of the ecclesiastics, to whom the question was proposed. Whether any scruples were, after all, entertained of the correctness of this decision, does not appear; but, in 1815, the Pope was solicited to arrange the affairs of the church, an office which his holiness declined: he could not indeed act otherwise.

The first thing which occurred to Dr. Bernadino Rivadavia, on his coming into power, was to clip the wings and every way curtail the influence of the cloistered clergy. He considered that all his plans would be frustrated by this body, which have been in all catholic countries famous for their powers of intrigue and illiberal principles. He first put a stop to the importation, by expressly forbidding any to enter the province without an order from government; and by degrees passed through the chambers a variety of decrees, by which he accomplished his purposes; and at the same time, by excellent articles in the periodical papers, he prepared the minds of the people for the change, and even contrived to cast an odium on the reputation of the cloister. On the other hand, every thing was done to raise the secular clergy in the eyes of the people. A board was named to take possession of the rents of all the convents, and to examine the number of the inmates, their ages and dispositions. Shortly

after

after this, the titles were abolished, and the regulation for the church published; the dignitaries of which were to be composed of a dean, with a salary of two thousand dollars, and four presbyters, with sixteen hundred dollars of salary. Every difficulty was thrown in the way of seclusion: no one was to be permitted to take the vows until twenty-five years of age; and even then an express license from government was required. Towards the end of the year 1822, Rivadavia proposed to the Chamber that no convent which contained more than thirty, or less than sixteen inmates, should be permitted to remain; this proposition was received and several convents fell by it. It was ordered that the members of the suppressed houses should receive two hundred and fifty dollars annually, if under forty-five, and three hundred dollars, if more, with the permission of proceeding wherever they might think fit. The chapels of the suppressed houses were converted into parish churches, which were served with a splendour hitherto unseen. The only monasteries now left belong to the Franciscans, Mercedarios and Predicadores; and the only convents, that of Santa Catalina, limited to thirty, and that of the Capucins. The names of those persons who secularized were published, with every encomium, in the gazette. Many were literally reasoned out of their convents; and this measure, which, taking into account the state of the country and the strength of the party to be humbled, was one of the boldest ever undertaken, has been carried into effect with little disturbance; and the example has been followed by almost all the other states. In March, 1824, an attempt was made to overturn the government, and from the cries of *Viva le Religion, Mueren los Hereses!* with which the rebels galloped into the town, it might be supposed that it proceeded from a party who had viewed this measure with discontent; but the disturbance was soon put down.

Rivadavia has remodelled, in a great measure, the various courts of justice. Leaving the law as it stood in the time of the Spaniards, he has raised the salaries of the judges, to render them less open to temptation; and has caused them to furnish monthly lists of all the cases, criminal and civil, which have been decided, or are in progress. By these means, justice is much expedited. The establishment at present consists of four Counsellors of Justice, at a salary of 2,500 dollars, and five judges of the high court, at a salary of 2,000 dollars. The Consulado takes cognizance of questions purely commercial, and of the enforcement of debts. The Cabildo, or municipal body, has a certain charge over the city; and one of the Alcaldes of it is termed the defender of the poor. Juries have not yet been introduced, and perhaps it would not be easy to find a sufficiency of persons fit for the office. In all cases, parties pay their own costs. The only crimes that are punished with death are high treason, murder and robbery; and of late, the military have been rendered amenable to civil law, like the rest of the community.

From the year 1776, when the provinces of the Rio de la Plata were first formed into a distinct viceroyalty, until the attempt made by the English in 1806, the revenue derived by Spain seldom exceeded 700,000 dollars. The amount in 1821, was little more than 1,000,000 = £343,743 15s. 1822, it increased to 2,519,094 = £566,793 3s. 1823, 3,000,000 = £675,000 0s.

By a decree which proceeded from the late Spanish Cortes in June, 1822, the government was authorized to send out commissioners to the various colonies of South America, to endeavour to settle matters and arrange the disputes in the best manner under the existing circumstances of each. When the accounts of this reviving liberality on the part of the mother country arrived in Buenos Ayres, the Chamber of Representatives authorised the executive to enter into a negotiation for the cessation of the war in Peru, and made a grant of 30,000 dollars to carry the plan into effect. The other provinces were invited to become parties to this measure.

The subsequent events that have occurred in Spain, and the entire annihilation of the body which felt liberally inclined

towards the Americans, have however set the question at rest for ever.

In March, 1820, Ramirez, the chief of the Entre Rios, with Lopez, the governor of Santa Fé, marched against Buenos Ayres; and D. Manuel de Sarratea became governor. From that moment, the changes in the head of the province were almost weekly. On the 6th October, however, D. Martin Rodriguez was finally confirmed governor, and remains in power at present.

CHILE.—Modern Chile comprises that portion of country on the west of the Andes, which, bounded on the north by the desert of Atacama, extends to the banks of the river Biobio on the south. It lies, therefore, between 26 and 37 degrees of south latitude. Its breadth, from the great Cordillera to the Pacific Ocean, varies considerably; but its average may be considered about two degrees, lying between 69 and 71½ degrees of west longitude. Its extent may be taken at a superficies of 23,000 square leagues, a calculation, however, from which large deductions must be taken from the mountainous and rugged nature of the country.

The district to the south of the Biobio, and which is laid down in the old charts as forming a part of Chile and belonging to the Spaniards, is left out of this calculation, and should bear, in fact, a different name. It is inhabited by that brave nation, the Araucanos, who, of all those forming the New World, have alone resisted the arms and blandishments of Europeans.

The climate of Chile has been described in the most favourable terms by all those who have visited or written on the country. The temperature is moderate, the heat of summer being lessened by the cool breezes of the Cordillera, or the refreshing ones of the Pacific. The summer commences in the month of December, and a shower seldom falls during its continuance. The dews are extremely heavy and supply the deficiency of rain.

In examining the surface, it must be kept in view that Chile is a small tract of ground between the Great Cordillera and the sea, and that three small ranges extend in parallel lines between these two boundaries. A variety of streams have poured down in torrents from the Andes, torn up the country into many ravines, and have now ceased to flow; many others pursue their short course to the ocean and partake of the character of mountain streams: none of them are navigable, and vessels can scarcely lie in their estuaries. This is generally the face of the country, and the same features extend to Peru, and in both countries the agriculture is mostly carried on in ravines. The soil is a stiff clay, abounding in waterworn pebbles, and is of little depth, but of singular fertility.

A great natural advantage to the country is the extent of sea coast. The riches of the whole line of the Andes and of the intermediate hills, are with ease carried down to the coast, where a number of excellent harbours are ready to shelter vessels for their reception. The trade wind constantly blows down the coast to the equator, and for one half of the voyage at least renders the passage certain.

The rivers are of little import; the shortness of their course and the rapidity of the torrent during the season when the snow melts in the Cordillera, and at the other period, the shallowness of the water, prevent their being of any utility to commerce.

The inhabitants of Chile are chiefly taken up with agriculture and mining. The manufactures are of trifling importance, and they possess neither sufficient capital nor enterprise to enter into commercial speculations.

The agriculture in this happy climate requires little attention. The smaller trees (chiefly mimosas) are cut low, and the plough, of simple construction, passes once between them. The sowing time is in June, and the corn is cut in December.

The wheat is small grained but excellent, and worth two and a half dollars per fanega (two and a half English bushels). Hemp is an object of care; it appears of very excellent quality, but hitherto it has not been raised in any quantity.

The grape has been always cultivated with success, but the wine is generally of indifferent quality. That kind which is made near Concepcion, and called *vino de penco*, is considered the best; it approaches more nearly to Malaga than to any other wine known in Europe. The fig and the olive are of superior flavour and most abundant; peaches, melons, water-melons, and strawberries, are among the variety of fruits which abound.

By far the largest proportion of the gold found in Chile, where it is much more abundant than silver, is procured by means of washing the beds of rivers. It is of a very pure quality, in large flattened grains of a peculiarly bright colour. Some of these beds have produced extraordinary quantities of metal; and if agriculture were more extended, they would be met with more frequently.

The silver mines of the Chilian Cordillera are almost entirely worked in veins running through a clay-slate, very similar to that in which the celebrated mine of Potosi exists. Those mines, which are situate near the Pacific, such as Huasco and some others, are worked through a mountain lime-stone. Huasco produces extraordinary rich specimens of native silver, with the muriate and carbonate of lime. The two metals, lead and silver, do not appear so much united in this country as in others.

It is a well known fact that none of the South American mines produce, at the present day, that vast quantity of metal which they used to do in former times. When first discovered, the metal was in great abundance, and within a few feet of, and in some instance on, the surface of the earth. All this has been removed, and the great excavations subsequently made have become full of water, from which the proprietors have not a sufficiency of capital to clear them. From this cause many of the mines which yielded a large proportion of silver have become entirely unproductive and closed up. Molina states that the value of the gold and silver raised in his time (1780) was not under four millions, exclusive of what was smuggled. In 1821, the produce of the mines, including an allowance for contraband, according to D. Manuel de Salas, did not exceed a million and a half of dollars.

The taxes paid to government on the precious metals being moderate, about 8 per cent., it is supposed that little contraband is carried on.

It is from the mines of Coquimbo and Copiapo that the large quantities of Chilian copper are imported. The tax paid upon copper is five per cent.

The trade of Chile, considering the size and limited population, is of an extended nature, and its produce is sent to very different and remote corners of the globe. To begin with the ancient commerce of Chile. From the circumstance of this country extending so far to the southward, and producing corn and other articles of food in greater abundance than to the north, it has at all times furnished provisions in large quantities to Peru, of which, in fact, it has always been the granary. Since the expeditions have left Valparaiso to expel the viceroy, severe prohibitions have been laid on the exportation; and the natural trade of the country has become very much disordered. When, however, affairs are settled, it must resume its old form. In return for hemp, wheat, salted provisions, and other articles of subsistence, it takes from Peru, sugar, cocoa, and coffee.

The traffic across the Cordillera is of a very varying nature, although goods of some description or other are always passing. When the Paraguay tea was to be obtained, Chile sent 400,000 dollars annually to purchase it; but as that traffic has been of late years confined to the Portuguese manufacture, and not sent from Paraguay by the way of Tucuman, as it used formerly, it has been generally shipped at Montevideo and landed at Valparaiso.

The direct commerce between England and Chile, consists of cargoes of every description of manufactured goods; and in return gold, silver, copper, tallow and hides, are the usual remittances. The value of exports to Valparaiso in the year ending January 5, 1818, was 32,000*l.*; and

that of the year ending January, 1823, was 162,850*l.*, showing an immense increase. But it must be understood that a proportion of this sum was only exported and not consumed there, but remained until circumstances might open other ports. The direct British trade has a competitor of no small weight in the Indian trade carried on across the Pacific. Although, hitherto, this trade has not put on a regular form, which may be chiefly owing to the novelty of it, yet large quantities of Indian cottons, nankeens, and Chinese goods are met with in Valparaiso. Rice and sugar are also brought from the East Indies, and sold at a lower rate than the Peruvian. In return, the precious metals and copper are very acceptable articles in the eastern markets; and should any appearance of a scarcity present itself in India or New South Wales, Chile can always afford an abundance of corn to supply their wants. It is not easy to see what the trade will consist of when the affairs of Peru are settled, and the amount which Chile can produce of staple articles better ascertained. The consumption of the country must increase as the home manufactures disappear; which, purchased at a high price, are made to last a considerable time. The number of ships under the Chilian flag is very limited; and foreigners have all the coasting trade in their hands. Every article of English produce is retailed at a most inordinate profit by the shopkeepers, who proceed on the same prices they obtained twenty years ago, when the ports were closed and the value of money very different. There are no native merchants, and the foreigners sell only wholesale; otherwise the shopkeepers would be ruined. The duties on manufactured goods were for some time so high, that it was scarcely possible to sell any large quantity; but in 1822, they were lowered to 26½ per cent. *ad valorem*, which is not made too high by the importers. Gold and silver in coin are permitted to be exported, on payment of five per cent. duty; but as the authorities have not yet been able to view these articles as common merchandise, the exportation in the rough (pina, or pasta,) is still prohibited. There is no duty on the exportation of corn, but there is a small demand on exported provisions.

From this statement it will be seen, that no great wealth has been accumulated by the Creoles. The mining part of the community here, as in all countries, is generally the poorest, from that disposition to lavish which it always possesses: and although many, more particularly the old Spaniards, have large territories in various parts of the country, yet they are not of any great value. Even near the town, the value of a quadra, equal to nearly four English acres, did not exceed 100 dollars; and at a distance from it, the price was comparatively less.

Torn as this country has been by wars and factions for the last ten years, the individual happiness of the people has been as much abridged as the fineness of the climate and their few wants would permit. The huts of the lower classes are formed of wood and reeds; and those of a better description, of large unburnt bricks (adobe). The doors are frequently formed of hides. The furniture varies little. It is generally comprised in one bed, two stools and an old table. The bed, which is scarcely deserving the name, is occupied by the oldest of the family, and may be called the dying place of whole family; for, in turn, all occupy it.

The language of the Chilians is far superior in pronunciation and elegance to the Spanish spoken on the eastern shore.

The only public library is that in the institute, under the immediate care of Don Manuel de Salas, a man of much information, which he liberally communicates to others. It consists of several thousand volumes, a proportion of which belongs to the College of the Jesuits, and some MSS.; many of which, relating to the early history of the country, are of a curious and interesting nature.

In the month of May, 1818, the late Supreme Director, D. Bernardo O'Higgins, appointed a committee of the best informed and most patriotic men, to form a Provisional Constitution for the State. Two months afterwards, a project was submitted for his approbation, and subsequently

sent to all the districts of the State, where books were opened to receive the assents and dissents of the whole population. It was generally well received.

The rights of the citizens occupy the first seventeen articles; and man, in a social state, takes up five more. The Roman Catholic religion is declared that of the State, and any other, contrary to the doctrines of Christianity, illegal. The next subject is the legislative power. It commences with stating, that the Chilians have the right to choose their own government, and to enact the laws by which they will be ruled, which can only be accomplished by deputies assembled in Congress; but such election being likely to occupy much time, and as the business was pressing, a Senate would make such provisional regulations as the urgency of the matters would require. It then provides, that five senators are to be named by the Director, one of whom in turn is to be President for the space of four months. Five other senators are also named in like manner by the Director, who are to act in the place of the former, if from illness, or any other cause, they should be forced to absent themselves. The senators are to enjoy salaries of 2000 dollars each, and have the style of Excellency. They are to have the privilege of appointing the officers of their chamber; their persons to be inviolate; and a Commission, named by themselves, is to examine any cause of complaint which may be made against them. The duration of the sessions is to be regulated by the President. The qualifications of the senators are to be, the attainment of thirty years of age, and a character distinguished for talents, patriotism, and integrity.

The Proyecto next recapitulates the attributes of the Senate. It is specially to watch over the Constitution, and the notice of any infraction of it is to be laid before the Supreme Director, who is responsible for attending to it. In every city or town, there is to be a Censor appointed to see that the Constitution is properly attended to. Without the consent of the Senate, no great affairs can be undertaken; no imposts can be laid, loans contracted, or war declared; no treaties of peace, alliance, or commerce; no ministers, agents, or consuls, can be sent to foreign powers; no levies of troops can be ordered, or, when raised, permitted to leave the country; and no public works can be undertaken, or new authorities or employments created.

The Senate is empowered to limit, add to, and amend the Constitution, as circumstances shall appear to warrant. All new laws made by the Senate, all abolition of laws which may be found to militate against the independence of the country, all reforms in the various departments of state, and all additions or corrections of existing laws, must be submitted, before their publication, to the Supreme Director, who, in the space of eight days, must assent or object to their promulgation; and in case of dissent, he must state the reasons of his opposition. In case of his assent, the law is to be published under a certain form. Should he refuse his assent to the law, and it be brought a third time for his approval, it will be published, and enforced, but in a different form. In any cases of laws badly understood, or in any case of doubt or flaw, the Director may, *de proprio motu*, explain them. The Senate has the privilege of calling together, at proper time, a National Congress, to be elected in such way as they shall direct. In case of the death, resignation, or crime of any of the senators, his successor is to be named by the Senate.

The executive power exists in the Supreme Director, who is to continue to receive the salary he actually enjoys, but which the Senate may increase or diminish at their pleasure. He is to enjoy no other emoluments. His style is to be Excellency, and his military honour that of Captain-General of the army. The command and regulation of the armies, the fleet and militia, the public tranquillity, the collection, distribution, and management of the public funds, are under the charge of the Director. He is to have the nomination of the various ministers, consuls, or agents to foreign states, and may through them open discussions relating to treaties of peace and preliminary negotiations; but nothing can be concluded without the consent of the Senate. He is to main-

tain the strictest alliance with the provinces of the Rio de la Plata, and to watch over the increase of population, agriculture, industry, commerce, and the mines. The care of the roads and posts is also entrusted to him. It is his peculiar privilege to name the secretaries of state; and he is responsible for them, as they are for their respective employes. The Director is to take especial care to extinguish those intestine divisions which ruin states, and to endeavour to render the union as firm as possible. He is to uphold public credit, and, as far as it may be possible, pay off the existing debts of the state. He is to make a monthly report to the Senate of the state of the treasury. He has the power of confirming or annulling the proceedings of courts-martial, and may at his pleasure remit the punishment of capital crimes. And the Proyecto farther provides, that in case of resignation or death, the new Director is to be named by the Senate.

The limitations to the executive power are as follow:—The Director cannot interfere in any civil or criminal process, nor in any way alter the system of the administration of justice. In case of the arrest of any one, he must be brought, within the space of twenty-four hours, before a magistrate. No high ecclesiastical offices are to be filled up by any persons who have not been rectors of parishes for six years. He is to employ no foreigners in any department of state. And lastly, he is to allow the correspondence of citizens to pass unopened.

The three Ministers or Secretaries of State are to conduct their respective departments with that fidelity, intelligence, and prudence, which the good of the state requires. They are to issue no orders, or make communications of any kind, without the express concurrence of the Director; and any orders or decrees made by them contrary to the Constitution, will subject them to responsibility. The appointments of these officers of state to rest entirely with the Director.

With respect to the provincial governors and lieutenants, the Constitution provides, first, that Chile is divided into three provinces, the Capital, Concepcion, and Coquimbo; secondly, that each governor-intendant is charged with the jurisdiction of the district, and is a judge in ordinary cases. All matters relating to the police and revenue are to be under their immediate care. The military governors of Valparaiso, Talcahuano, and Valdivia, are to be chosen by the Director, and continue in office for three years.

Such are the heads of the Constitution. The Supreme Director, being well aware that the country was not sufficiently advanced in constitutional views, or enough enlightened, to admit of a very popular form of government, when elections by ballot or otherwise should take place throughout the state, freed himself from this difficulty by naming a senate himself, of a few men devoted, as he thought, to his interests and those of the nation.

The senate, on the other side, discovering their power, and finding that they could not be displaced without a trial before a tribunal of their own nomination, soon disagreed with the Director on measures which he brought forward for the interest of the country. Forming a junction with the secretaries of the departments, the senate bid defiance to the Director, and carried on their own contracted plan of government, without attending to the more enlightened views of O'Higgins. Heavy duties were laid on foreign merchandize, and the senators were alike regardless of the proper administration of justice, and of the various other complaints which the people were inclined to vent latterly on the publications of the day. Could the Director have quitted this government, his power would have remained with his popularity undiminished; for his patriotic feelings were never impugned. But thinking that he could not turn round on the constitution which he had sanctioned, or that, perhaps, by doing so, a civil war would be the result, he chose to remain to the last, and endeavour, as much as it was possible, to correct the badness of the system.

The finances of the state were so much reduced that the troops left in the country, and those filling public employes, were many months in arrear of pay. Under these circumstances it became necessary to raise a loan in Europe, which

was

was accomplished in May, 1822, to the amount of a million sterling. It does not appear that the proceeds of this transaction were dedicated to the payment of the troops. The discontent among them was strongly excited, and an event which happened soon afterwards produced an open rupture between them and the government of St. Jago. An English merchant, who had resided many years in various parts of South America under difficult circumstances, and was well known for his talents and enterprize, proceeded by sea to Concepcion. On his arrival there he naturally fell into the company of General Freire, who was previously acquainted with him, and on hearing his grievances, and the distressed state of his army for want of their pay and allowances, the merchant suggested to the chief the grant of a license from him to load a cargo of wheat; a measure strictly forbidden by the government, in order to harass the Spanish force under La Serna, at that moment greatly suffering in Peru for want of provisions. The general was pleased with the idea, and unwilling that his troops should undergo farther sufferings while he had the means of relieving them. Accordingly, he gave the necessary license to embark a large cargo, upon which of course a handsome profit was realized. This transaction, as might be supposed, excited the greatest indignation in the government, and Freire was accused of assisting the enemy; in reply, he declared that the state of the army was such that he could not avoid the expedient of paying them; and on some farther correspondence of a warmer nature, O'Higgins on the 10th of December put some troops in march towards the southward. Two days after, General Freire issued a proclamation complaining of the proceedings of the secretaries of state, who, he declared, intended to starve the army; he made no complaint against the Director, with whom, it is said, he was in correspondence. He instantly commenced his march against the capital, and demanded judgment on the secretaries, the deposition of the government, and the installation of a sovereign congress. On the 19th January, 1823, while O'Higgins assembled what forces were near the capital, General Freire obtained possession of the country between the Biobio and the Maule, and the provinces of Concepcion and Coquimbo declared for the new order of things. After these events it was unlikely that the remaining province would hold out, or that the Director could longer stifle the murmurs of discontent which prevailed in the city. On the 28th January, the people assembled in groups in the Consulado, and loudly called for the appearance of the Director, who refused to present himself, and to whom they subsequently sent deputies; these he threatened with the force of his power, which was nearly reduced to a name, and afterwards harangued the few troops he had collected with much warmth and eloquence; finding, however, the troops lukewarm in his cause, and the people anxious for a change, at ten o'clock at night he resigned the command. As soon as this event was notified, a junta of governors was formed, to which the ex-director gave his sanction; General Freire, a few days after, entered the capital, and being declared commander-in-chief, took upon himself the government.

The last revolutionary movement of which we have an account, took place in September, 1823, when the royal standard was hoisted near Concepcion, but it was soon put down. Under whose command or by what force this attempt was made is unknown; but it is more than probable that the governor of the island of Chiloe was concerned in the plot. The time for making such attempts has long since passed by, and nothing short of independence will ever satisfy the inhabitants of this country.

Between Buenos Ayres and Chili, stretches the boundless plain of the Pampas—the habitation of the *Gauchos*, or wild Spaniards, and of the still wilder Indians. These races, fed by their vast herds of cattle, and provided with swift horses, lead a life half hunters, half graziers, and present all the vices and virtues of savage life—independence and hospitality, with ferocity and pride. We have already described this region under the article PAMPAS; but Heade's descrip-

tion is so characteristic, that we must insert it here. He says, that this plain varies with the four seasons of the year, in a most extraordinary manner. "In winter, the leaves of the thistles are large and luxuriant; and the whole surface of the country has the rough appearance of a turnip-field. The clover, in this season, is extremely rich and strong; and the sight of the wild cattle, grazing in full liberty on such pasture, is beautiful. In spring, the clover has vanished, the leaves of the thistles have extended along the ground, and the country still looks like a rough crop of turnips. In less than a month, the change is most extraordinary; the whole region becomes a luxuriant wood of enormous thistles, which have suddenly shot up to a height of 10 or 11 feet, and are all in full bloom. The road or path is hemmed in on both sides; the view is completely obstructed; not an animal is to be seen; and the stems of the thistles are so close to each other, and so strong that, independent of the prickles with which they are armed, they form an impenetrable barrier. The sudden growth of these plants is quite astonishing; and though it would be an unusual misfortune in military history, yet it is really possible, that an invading army, unacquainted with this country, might be imprisoned by these thistles before they had time to escape from them. The summer is not over before the season undergoes another rapid change: the thistles suddenly lose their sap and verdure, their heads droop, the leaves shrink and fade, the stems become black and dead, and they remain rattling with the breeze one against another, until the violence of the pampero, or hurricane, levels them to the ground, where they rapidly decompose and disappear—the clover rushes up, and the scene is again verdant."

Columbia is perhaps the most firmly established of all the South American States. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean sea; on the north-east by the Atlantic; east by Guiana; south by Brazil and Peru; west by the Pacific. Its area is about 350,000 square miles, and it is situated between 5° 50' south, and 12° 30' north lat. and 58° and 82° west long.

The Andes, continued from Peru, divide in Columbia into three vast chains. Of these the eastern, called Venezuela; the second, Santa Martha, and the third, the western range. This country abounds in rivers, of which the Orinoco, the Amazon, the Magdalena, the Couca, the Atrato, the Guayquil and Guarapiche are the principal. It is also indented by numerous gulfs and bays, and altogether presents the appearance of a country highly advantageous for maritime purposes, as well as excellently calculated for internal navigation.

Columbia is somewhat thinly peopled, including all classes whether Spaniards, Creoles, Indians, negroes or foreigners; we can enumerate but 3,000,000 souls.

The commerce of this fine country, so long oppressed and cramped by the absurd legislation of the Spaniards, is now assuming considerable importance: cocoa, coffee, indigo, sugar, hides, Brazil and other wood, and most beautiful pearls, are the chief articles exported. The value of these exports in 1823 was upwards of 16 millions of dollars.

It is only since 1819 that this country has received the title of the Colombian Republic, previous to which it was known as the Viceroyalty of Granada and Captain-Generalship of the Caracas. After its establishment, of which a short notice has already been given, it remained tolerably free from internal dissensions until recently, when the inhabitants began to make objections to some part of the Colombian enactments. In consequence, General Paez put himself at the head of the army, and refused obedience to the Colombian Congress. Recent advices inform us, however, that he has been quieted by Bolivar, who is now, *pro tempore*, Dictator, and that the latter now proposes to resign the Dictatorship.

In 1824, Colombia entered into a treaty with Great Britain, which secured to the two nations mutual freedom of trade to the same extent as their respective governments allowed it to other nations.

The stream of our national wealth has of late been so
much

much directed towards South America, by mining speculations, that our readers will naturally expect from us some account of the situation and mode of working of most of the mines, as well as the probability of gain to be derived from them. Into these points, however, we shall only so far enter, as to lay before our readers the general result of Captain Head's travels, which were undertaken for the express purpose of ascertaining the points in question. It is true his observations refer only to some particular mines, but it is obvious that they must apply more or less to every mine in South America. His ultimate conclusion is, the working of South American mines by English capitalists, is a most unprofitable attempt. The degree of loss which particular companies may sustain, and the profits they may get, must of course be regulated by a variety of circumstances; but it might easily have been predicted, and is now partly proved by experience, that taken in the mass, these mining companies are mere bubbles.

Captain Heade's reasons for this failure are as follow:—1. The English miners are not capable in that hot climate of undergoing the same or nearly the same quantity of labour as the native miners; and the former cannot exist on the same spare diet. 2. The latter class, so numerous under the compulsive system of the old Spanish government, are fast declining in number. No longer slaves, the more enlightened amongst them attach themselves to the free and independent habits of hunting or agriculture; and though long habit may retain many at their unwholesome avocation in which they have been brought up, no new miners arise, and hence it follows that no new ones will come forward until the price of their labour is materially increased. 3. It is only by manual labour that these mines can be worked, since want of roads and the dangerous and narrow passes of the mountains forbid the importation of an effective machinery.

SOUTH ANNA, a branch of North Anna river, in Virginia, which together, form Pamunky river.

SOUTH BAY, a bay in Hudson's straits on the north coast of Labrador, west of Cape Chidley.

SOUTH BAY, an arm of Lake Champlain, extending west-erly from the south extremity.

SOUTH BAY, a bay of the United States, on the coast of Long Island, extending from Hampstead to Southampton.

SOUTH CAPE, a cape at the southern extremity of New Holland. Lat. 43. 42. S. long. 146. 56. E. according to Captain Cook; 43. 47. S. by Captain Flinders.

SOUTH CREEK, a river of North Carolina, which runs into Pamlico Sound. Lat. 44. 54. N. long. 76. 48. W.

SOUTH FRIARS BAY, a bay on the south coast of the island of St. Christopher; 3 miles east-south-east of Basseterre.

SOUTH-HAMS, several small villages of England, in Devonshire, near Torbay, noted for the production of a strong rough cyder, resembling wine in taste. The soil is here of a reddish sand, and produces excellent carrots, and the best cabbages in England.

SOUTH HEAD, a cape on the north-east coast of New Holland. Lat. 24. 2. S. long. 108. 17. W.

SOUTH HERO, a post township of the United States, in Grand Isle county, Vermont, on an island in Lake Champlain. Population 826.

SOUTH HILL, a post village of the United States, in Mecklenburgh county, Virginia.

SOUTH OF INDIA, a division of Hindostan, which has the figure of a triangle, the base of which is formed by the Krishna river, and by its apex Cape Comorin. It is in length about 600 miles, and nearly 550 in its broadest part. This region was never completely conquered by the Mahometans, on which account it contains a greater proportion of Hindoos than most other parts of India. It was divided into several Hindoo principalities, the sovereigns of which expended large sums of money in the erection of temples, reservoirs, embankments, &c. Many of these princes were of the Jain and Boodhist sects; and although they all paid a nominal obedience to the Maha rajah of Vijeynagar, were despotic

in their own territories. These subdivisions were, Adoni, Baramahal, Bednore, Carnatic Upper and Lower, Cochin, Coimbetoor, Cuddapah, Dindigul, Guntoor, Harponelly, Madura, Malabar, Mysore, Rachore, Shanoor or Savanoor, Tanjore, Tinncvelly, and Travancore. A further description of each will be found under their respective heads. The whole of this territory is now occupied either by the British or their tributaries.

SOUTH ISLAND, a small island in the North Pacific Ocean. It is of a round form, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in diameter; a bare rock, with a peak in the centre, about 3000 feet high.

SOUTH ISLAND, a small island of the East Indian Ocean, in Gaspar's strait.

SOUTH ISLAND, a small island in the strait of Saleyer, near the south coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 5. 45. S. long. 120. 51. E.

SOUTH ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the south-west coast of the island of Boutton. Lat. 5. 42. S. long. 122. 50. E.

SOUTH ISLAND, a small island in the Indian sea, near the eastern coast of Madagascar. Lat. 17. S. long. 50. 20. E.

SOUTH KEY, a small island in the Spanish Main. Lat. 15. 40. N. long. 82. 35. W.

SOUTH MALLING, a parish of England, in Sussex, near Lcwes. Population 443.

SOUTH MOULTON, a market town of England, in Devonshire, pleasantly situated on an eminence near the west side of the river Moule. It is so called, to distinguish it from the village of North Moulton. It contains many well built houses. The church is a spacious and handsome building, containing several good monuments, and a large organ. The guild-hall is a commodious building; and the market-place, from which various streets branch out, is extensive and well built. Here is a respectable free school, founded in 1614; and also a charity school. In the former, the late judge Buller received the rudiments of his education. The inhabitants of the town are chiefly employed in the manufacture of serges, felts, and shalloons. South Moulton is an ancient town, and previous to the conquest formed part of the demesnes of Edward the Confessor. It is governed by a mayor, assisted by 18 capital burgesses, a recorder, town clerk, &c. The town was represented in Parliament in the 30th Edward I., but no return has been made since that period. Market on Saturday, well supplied and frequented; $12\frac{1}{2}$ miles west of Barnstaple, and 176 west of London.

SOUTH MOUNTAIN, a mountain of the United States, in Pennsylvania, on the west side of Adams' county.

SOUTH MOUNTAIN CREEK, a small river which falls into the Missouri. It is 40 yards wide, and it discharges a handsome stream of water. Its bed is rocky, with gravel and sand, and the banks are high. From its direction, it seemed to Captain Clarke to rise in a range of unknown mountains, about 50 or 60 miles to the south-west of its entrance.

SOUTH PETHERTON. See PETHERTON.

SOUTH POINT, a cape on the south coast of the island of Anticosti. Lat. 49. 5. N. long. 62. 35. W.

SOUTH POINT, a cape at the southern extremity of the island of Barbadoes. Lat. 13. N. long. 58. 23. W.

SOUTH POINT, a cape on the south-west coast of Sir Henry Martin's island. Lat. 8. 58. S. long. 220. 15. E.

SOUTH POINT, a cape on the south-west coast of the island of Fortaventura. Lat. 28. 1. N. long. 14. 1. W.

SOUTH QUAY, a post village of the United States, in Nansemond county, Virginia.

SOUTH REPPS, or REPPIS, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles from North Walsham. Population 617.

SOUTH RIVER, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into the Chesapeake; 6 miles south of Annapolis.

SOUTH RIVER, a river of Maryland, which runs into the Chesapeake. Lat. 38. 58. N. long. 76. 41. W.

SOUTH

SOUTH RIVER, a river of Canada, which runs into the St. Lawrence. Lat. 46. 56. N. long. 70. 26. W.

SOUTH RIVER, a river of Antigua, which runs into the sea, a little to the north of Young Point.

SOUTH SEA, a name formerly given to the Pacific Ocean.

SOUTH-TOWN, or **LITTLE YARMOUTH**, a hamlet of England, in Suffolk; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south of Great Yarmouth.

SOUTHACRE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-west of Swaffham.

SOUTHAKER LEDGE, a reef of rocks, near the south coast of Labrador. Lat. 50. 5. N. long. 60. W.

SOUTHALL, a hamlet of England, in Middlesex; $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles from London.

SOUTHAM, a market town of England, in the county of Warwick. In Domesday Survey, the name is written Sucham, and is said to contain four hides, with two mills, and a wood of one mile in length, and half a mile in breadth, all which belonged to the king. Henry III. granted it a weekly market and an annual fair. Little business, however, is done in the town, which is chiefly supported by the thoroughfare on the roads from Coventry to Banbury, and from Warwick to London. The town is indifferently built. The church is a handsome building, with a spire rising from a square tower at the west end. In 1811, the parish contained 165 houses, and 1007 inhabitants. Market on Monday; 82 miles north-west of London.

SOUTHAM, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Cheltenham.

SOUTHAMPTON, a considerable town of England, in the county of Hants or Southampton, is a county of itself, and is styled the Town and County of the Town of Southampton. It is situated on the large estuary called Southampton Water, on a tongue of land which is bounded by that water on the south and west, and by the river Itchin on the east. The ground in this peninsula rises towards the centre, forming a very moderately elevated ridge, on which the town is built. The streets have hence a gentle slope; and as the soil is at the same time of a gravelly nature, they are thus kept dry and clean. The situation is on the whole very healthy and agreeable; it is noted for the beauty of the surrounding scenery; and the town itself presents a picturesque appearance from different points of view. The approach from the London road is peculiarly fine, from the noble view of Southampton bay, the Isle of Wight, and the scenery of the New Forest. The town is well paved and lighted, and regularly patrolled by watchmen, and conduits of water are disposed at proper distances. The High-street runs from the quay northwards: it is upwards of half a mile in length, and is particularly handsome and spacious, somewhat resembling the High-street of Oxford. The entrance to this street from the land side is by the Bar-gate, a venerable piece of antiquity, the approach to which is striking, being continued through an extensive and well built suburb. Within the last fifty years the town has more than doubled its buildings and its population; the latter probably amounting to between 10,000 and 12,000. Of the public buildings, there are five parish churches—St. Michael's All Saints, Holy Rood, St. Lawrence, and St. Mary. There was formerly another church, that of St. John; but in the reign of Charles II. the parishes of St. John and St. Lawrence were united, and the church of the former was taken down; a burying ground now occupies the spot on which it stood: St. Michael's church is the most ancient in the town; it forms the eastern side of the square of the same name. It consists of a nave, chancel, and side aisles, with a low tower rising from the centre, and terminating in a fine slender octagonal spire, which forms a very conspicuous object, and was erected as a mark or guide to ships entering the port. On the north side of the chancel is a handsome monument to the memory of the lord chancellor Wriothesley; and in the opposite aisle, on the south, is a curious antique font. In this church the mayor is always sworn into office. All Saints' church is an elegant modern building, in the Grecian style: it was erected from the designs of Mr. Revely, a

pupil of Athenian Stuart, and is a fine specimen of what might have been expected from the talents of a very promising artist, had his life been prolonged. The remains of captain Carteret the circumnavigator, and of Bryan Edwards, the historian of the West Indies, are deposited here. Holy Rood church is a large building, with a tower at the south-west angle, and a colonnade in front, commonly called the Proclamation, where the hustings is erected, and the poll taken at elections. Within the church is a fine organ and several handsome monuments, one of which, by Rysbrack, to the memory of Miss Stanley, has an inscription from the pen of Thomson. St. Mary's and St. Lawrence churches contain nothing remarkable. The dissenters of the Independent denomination have lately erected a neat and spacious place of worship. There is also a remarkably neat new chapel of the Baptist denomination, with a very pretty Gothic front. The other public buildings are the assembly-rooms, situated near the west quay, and a commodious theatre. Near the town, on the north, is a military asylum for the orphans of soldiers, on the same plan as the well known institution at Chelsea. It contains about 380 boys, and is under admirable regulations. A free grammar school was established in Southampton by Edward VI. in an old building in Winkle-street. It was thence removed many years afterwards to an ancient mansion, known by the name of West Hall, which has lately been taken down, and a new house has been erected for the master, out of the old materials. Here are also Sunday schools, and schools on the plans of Bell and Lancaster; and near the entrance of the town, on the right, is a neat range of alms-houses for 18 poor widows, who are allowed two shillings each weekly, from a bequest by Robert Horner, Esq. There are various buildings of considerable antiquity in different parts of the town. The Bar-gate already mentioned, is a curious ancient fortified gate house. It consists of a central arched passage, about eighteen yards in length, and four wide; on both sides of which are two lateral passages, or postern doorways. It was mostly built in the reign of Edward III. On the north front are two gigantic figures, one on each side of the gateway, said to have been intended to represent, the one Ascupart, a giant; and the other Sir Bevois of Southampton, who slew him in combat. Over the arches of the gate is the town-hall. Near the quay is part of the front of a spacious mansion, supposed to have been a palace, occasionally inhabited by the Saxon and Danish kings. The Domus Dei is an hospital, founded, according to Leland, in the reign of Henry III. by two merchants, brothers. It was given by Edward III. to Queen's College, Oxford, to which it still belongs. The establishment consists at present of a warden, four aged men, and as many women. A house of Grey Friars was founded here in 1240, but no remains of it are now standing. Part of its site is occupied by Gloucester-square, and another part by a very large building originally erected for refining sugar, but now used as a warehouse. Southampton castle was situated on the west side of the town. Its area was nearly semicircular, in the southern part of which stood the keep, on a high artificial mount. The keep was circular. This spot commands a delightful view of the town and of the adjacent county. The site of the keep was purchased by the late Marquis of Lansdowne, who erected a very irregular and costly building, which, after his death, was sold as building materials, and is now demolished. Southampton is, by its situation, well adapted for commerce, and it carries on a considerable trade in wine, corn, timber, &c. Hemp, iron, and tallow, are imported from Russia, and tar and pitch from Sweden. English iron is brought coastways from Wales, and coals, lead, and glass are brought by colliers from Newcastle. From Portugal the importations are chiefly wine and fruit. To Jersey and Guernsey are exported about 6000 tons annually of unwrought wool, great part of which is returned in the shape of coarse knit hose. During the last war large quantities of Spanish wool were landed here. The manufactures of Southampton are not of much importance. A silk throwing manufactory employs a few of the poor. Ship-building is

arried on at different docks near the town. During the last war, contracts for biscuits for the navy, and bread and clothing for the army, were executed to a considerable extent. Near the west quay, and farther towards the channel, are convenient baths; and several bathing machines have been set up at the crosshouse near Itchin ferry. A chalybeate spring, which rises about 100 yards to the westwards of Bargate, is in some repute for its medicinal qualities. Besides the amusements of the theatre and assemblies, here are annual races, an annual sailing match, circulating libraries, and a public garden. According to its last charter of incorporation, granted by Charles I., Southampton is governed by a mayor, a recorder, 9 justices, a sheriff, 2 bailiffs, 24 common councilmen, and as many burgesses. All who have passed the chair are aldermen. The town, which was made a borough by Henry II., is also a county within itself, and as such is independent of the lord lieutenant and sheriff of Hampshire. The mayor is admiral of the liberties from Southsea castle to Hurst castle, and half-sea over from Calshot to the Isle of Wight. Southampton sends two members to parliament. The first return was made in the 23d of Edward I. The number of voters is about 700, consisting of the burgesses, and such of the inhabitants as pay scot and lot. Several royal burgesses have been enrolled in this corporation, among whom are the late king and his present Majesty. The origin and name of Southampton have occasioned much discussion. The name is written Hanton or Hantune in the Doomsday book, and is supposed to be derived from the river Ant or Anton. The Romans had a settlement at Bittern, about a mile and a half from Southampton, named Clausenham. The present town arose after that was abandoned. Hampton must have been a place of consequence under the Anglo-Saxons, as it gave a name to the whole county. From the year 873, Hanton was subject to frequent ravages by the Danes, until the accession of king Canute, who put an end to these invasions. This monarch appears to have occasionally resided at Southampton; and it was here that the incident happened which is recorded of him, when he ordered his chair to be set on the sea shore, and attempted to control the waves. During the thirteenth century a considerable trade was carried on between this port and France, and this continued till the rupture with France in 1338. In 1345, the army which afterwards fought at the battle of Cressy, was embarked here, as was also the army which, in 1415, fought under Henry V. at Agincourt. The trade of the town appears again to have flourished in the reign of Henry VI. Camden, who wrote in the reign of Elizabeth, says, that in his time the town was famous for the number and beauty of its buildings, its affluent inhabitants, and the resort of numerous merchants. After this, however, it appears to have declined, as Gibson, in the year 1695, in his edition of Camden, describes it as going fast to decay. Since that time, however, trade has again revived, and the town has gradually risen to its present consideration. Population of the county 282,203. Markets on Tuesday, Thursday, and Saturday, well supplied with excellent fish and other provisions. There are two annual fairs, the principal of which is Trinity; 12 miles south-south-west of Winchester, and 75 west-south west of London. Lat. 50. 54. N. long. 1. 24. W.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire. Population 427.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Hampshire county, Massachusetts, which contains a lead mine; 93 miles west of Boston.

SOUTHAMPTON, a post township of the United States in Suffolk county, New York, on the south side of Long Island; 100 miles east of New York. Population 3899.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Cumberland county, Pennsylvania. Population 700.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Pennsylvania. Population 1060.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Bedford county, Pennsylvania. Population 932.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Somerset county, Pennsylvania. Population 455.

SOUTHAMPTON, a township of the United States, in Bucks county, Pennsylvania. Population 739.

SOUTHAMPTON, a county of the United States, in the south-east part of Virginia, bounded north-west by Sussex and Surrey counties, east by Isle of Wight and Nansemond counties, south by North Carolina, and south-west by Greedsville county. Population 13,497, including 6406 slaves. Jerusalem is the chief town.

SOUTHBOROUGH, a hamlet of England, in Kent; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-west of Tunbridge.

SOUTHBOROUGH, a post township of the United States in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 28 miles west of Boston. Population 946.

SOUTHBURY, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 28 miles west of Boston. Population 946.

SOUTHBURY, a post township of the United States, in New Haven county, Connecticut; 22 miles north-west of New Haven. Population 1413.

SOUTHCHURCH, a parish of England, in Essex, half a mile from Southend.

SOUTHCOATS, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile north-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

SOUTHDEAN, a parish of Scotland, in Roxburghshire; 12 miles long and 7 broad, on the bank of the Jed. Population 804.

SOUTHEASE, a parish of England, in Sussex; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-east of Lewes.

SOUTHEAST, *s.* The point between the east and south; the point of winter sunrise.—The planting of trees warm upon a wall against the south, or *southeast* sun, doth hasten their ripening. *Bacon.*

SOUTH-EAST, a post township of the United States, in Putnam county, New York. Population 1887.

SOUTH-EAST-BAY, a bay of the south-east extremity of Tavai Poenamoo. Lat. 46. 45. S long. 191. 20. W.

SOUTH-EAST ISLANDS, a group forming part of Recherche archipelago, on the south coast of New Holland. Lat. 33. 53. S.

SOUTHELMHAM, the name of six parishes in England, in the county of Suffolk, lying between Halesworth and Bungay, about 106 miles from London. Their names and population are, St. James's Southeilmham, 264; St. Margaret's, 191; St. Cross, 214; St. Nicholas, 97; St. Peter's, 131; and St. Michael's, 112.

SOUTHEND, a parish of Scotland, in Argyshire, about 10 miles long, by 5 broad. Population 1869.

SOUTHEND, a hamlet of England, in the county of Essex, situated at the mouth of the Thames, nearly opposite Sheerness. Until within the last 20 years, this village was but little known; but since that time it has obtained considerable repute for sea-bathing. Some respectable and elegant lodging-houses have been erected for the accommodation of the visitors, and also an assembly-room, a theatre, and library. The water is accounted sufficiently salt; and besides bathing-machines, there are two warm baths. The view of the Thames, and of the continual passing and repassing of vessels, forms an agreeable prospect from the town. At a small distance from Southend, a stone is placed, to mark the boundary of the jurisdiction of the corporation of London over the river Thames on the east. Southend is in the parish of Prittlewell with which its population is returned. The village of Prittlewell stands on the declivity of a hill, on the top of which is the parish church, a large and respectable building, the tower of which serves as a landmark to vessels entering the Thames.

SOUTHEND, **ELTHAM** and **LEWISHAM**, two small villages of England in Kent, situated on the river Ravensbourne; 10 miles south-east of London.

SOUTHEND, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles from Chipping Sodbury.

SOUTHERAY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Market Downham. Population 536.

SOUTHERLY, *adj.* Belonging to any of the points denominated from the south; not absolutely southern.—
Lying

Lying towards the south.—Unto such as live under the Pole that is only north which is above them, that is only *southerly* which is below them. *Brown*.—Coming from about the south.

I am but mad north northwest: when the wind is *southerly*, I know a hawk from a handsaw. *Shakspeare*.

SO'UTHERN, *adj.* [ʊðəpne, Sax.] Belonging to the south; meridional.

Frowning Auster seeks the *southern* sphere,
And rots with endless rain th' unwholesome year. *Dryden*.

Lying towards the south.

Why mourn I not for thee,

And with the *southern* clouds contend in tears? *Shakspeare*.

Coming from the south.—Men's bodies are heavier when *southern* winds blow than when northern. *Bacon*.

SOUTHERN (Thomas), a dramatic writer, is said to have been born at Stratford-on-Avon, about the year 1662; though others assume that he was a native of Dublin, and educated at the university there till his eighteenth year, when he came to England. He was entered of Pembroke college, Oxford, in 1680, and soon after composed a tragedy, entitled, "The Persian Prince, or Loyal Brother," which was acted in 1682. He took up his residence at the Middle Temple in 1683, and in the following year another play composed by him was acted and published. When James II. came to the crown, he rewarded Southern for his loyalty in defending his cause, when his exclusion from the throne was warmly, or indeed violently agitated, by giving him a captain's commission in the troops intended to oppose the landing of the prince of Orange. When his military services became of no account, he returned to his dramatic career, and wrote several pieces, both in tragedy and comedy, from which he drew a liberal subsistence. Though Southern does not rank with the highest of our dramatic geniuses, yet he was capable of deeply interesting the passions. His best pieces were "Isabella," and "Oroonoko;" the latter, formed upon one of Mrs. Benn's novels, was said to have been taken from a real story. Southern was apt to mix scenes of low and indecent comedy with his tragic scenes; but they are so managed that they may be easily separated, and leave pieces which are occasionally viewed with applause. He lived to a great age, and bore a very respectable character. He died in 1746, at the age of 84. His plays were published collectively by T. Evans, in 3 vols. 12mo. *Biog. Brit.*

SOUTHERNBY, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 16½ miles north-west of Perith.

SO'UTHERNLY, *adv.* Toward the south.—The sun cannot go more *southernly* from us, nor come more northernly towards us, in this than in former ages. *Hakewill*.

SO'UTHERNMOST, *adj.* Furthest towards the south.—Shenstone had resolution enough to take a journey of near seventy miles across the country, to visit his friend in the *southernmost* part of Oxfordshire. *Graves*.

SO'UTHERNWOOD, *s.* [ʊðəpnwude, Sax.; *abrotanum*, Lat.] This plant agrees in most parts with the wormwood, from which it is not easy to separate it. *Miller*.—Wine and water, in which are sod *southernwood*, melilot, &c. *Burton*.

SOUTHFIELD, a township of the United States, in Berkshire county, Massachusetts; 112 miles west-south-west of Boston. Population 147.

SOUTHFIELD, a town of the United States, and capital of Richmond county, on the south side of Staten island; 12 miles south of New York. Population 1007.

SOUTHFLEET, a parish of England, in the county of Kent. In ploughing up some adjacent fields here, some stone coffins were lately found, supposed to have been deposited by the Romans; also two leaden coffins, urns, &c. Before the conquest, the manor of Southfleet belonged to the bishop of Rochester, and the court had the power of trying and executing felons within its jurisdiction. Population 584; 5 miles east of Dartford, and 20 east of London.

SOUTHGATE, a hamlet of England, in Middlesex, situated on the skirts of Enfield Chase; 9 miles north-by-west of St. Paul's Cathedral, London.

SOUTHILL, a parish of England, in the county of Bedford. In ancient records it is called South Yewel. Sir George Byng, a naval officer of eminence in the reign of Queen Anne and George I., purchased an estate and settled here; and his unfortunate son, Admiral Byng, who was shot by a sentence of a court-martial in 1757, was born and interred here. Southill house, belonging to Mr. Whitbread, is a very elegant mansion. In 1811, Southill contained 185 houses, and 1024 inhabitants; 4 miles from Biggleswade, and 43 north of London.

SOUTHILL, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 3½ miles north-west of Callington. Population 466.

SO'UTHING, *adj.* Going towards the south.

I will conduct thee on thy way,
When next the *southing* sun inflames the day. *Dryden*.

SO'UTHING, *s.* Tendency to the south.

Not far from hence, if I observ'd aright,
The *southing* of the stars and polar light,
Sicilia lies. *Dryden*.

SOUTHING, in Navigation, the difference of latitude a ship makes in sailing to the southward.

SOUTHINGTON, a post township of the United States, in Hartford county, Connecticut. Population 1807.

SOUTHMEAD, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire, south of Gloucester.

SOUTHMINSTER, a parish of England, in Essex, between the rivers Crouch and Blackwater; 10 miles from Maldon. Population 1289.

SO'UTHMOST, *adj.* Furthest toward the south.

Next Chemos, the obscene dread of Moab's sons,
From Aroar to Nebo, and the wild
Of *southmost* Abarim. *Milton*.

SOUTHOE, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 3 miles north-by-west of St. Neot's.

SOUTHOLD, a post township of the United States, in Suffolk county, New York, on the north-east part of Long Island. Population 2613.

SOUTHOLT, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles south-east of Eye.

SOUTHORPE, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-east of Gainsborough.

SOUTHORPE, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 2½ miles north-by-east of Wandsford.

SOUTHOVER, a parish of England, in Sussex, south of Lewes.

SOUTHROP, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire, situated on the river Leck; 2 miles north of Lecklade.

SOUTHSAY, *s.* [Properly *soothsay*; which see.] Prediction.—Glaucus, that wise *southsays* understood. *Spenser*.
To SO'UTHSAY, *v. n.* [See To SOOTHSAÿ.] To predict.—Young men, hovering between hope and fear, might easily be carried into the superstition of *southsaying* by names. *Cæmden*.

SO'UTHSAYER, *s.* [Properly *soothsayer*. See SOOTH-SAYER.] A predictor.

SOUTHSTOKE, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 12 miles west-by-north of Henley-upon-Thames. Population 645.

SOUTHSTOKE, a parish of England, in Sussex; 2½ miles north-north-east of Arundel.

SO'UTHWARD, *s.* The southern regions.—Countries are more fruitful to the *southward* than in the northern parts. *Raleigh*.

SO'UTHWARD, *adv.* Towards the south.

Every life, from the dreary months,
Flies conscious *southward*. *Thomson*.

SOUTHWARK, a town of England, in the county of Surrey, the chief town of the county, and which forms also a suburb of the city of London. It is commonly called the Borough,

Borough, and, together with the adjacent parishes, with which it is united by a continued range of buildings, constitutes that great division of the metropolis which lies to the south of the Thames. The borough extends about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from east to west, and about 1 mile from north to south, the whole of the included area being now covered with houses, public buildings, and streets; while the bank of the river is occupied with warehouses, timber and coal-yards, glass-houses, manufactories, &c. On the east it is bounded by the parish of Rotherhithe, on the south by Newington Butts, and on the west by Lambeth. Southwark contains many good streets. The principal, called the Borough High-street, extends from London Bridge southwards, and is prolonged into Blackman-street, &c.; and from this, numerous others branch off to the east and west, such as Tooley-street, St. Olave's, &c. The principal public buildings are the churches, hospitals, prisons, &c.; these, and other objects worthy of attention, will be noticed in the order of the parishes, which are five in number, viz., St. Olave, part of which is in the city of London; St. John, Horselydown; St. Saviour, commonly called St. Mary Overy's; St. Thomas; and Christ Church. St. Olave's church is situated in Tooley-street, near the south end of London Bridge. The original building is mentioned so early as the year 1281; but the date of its erection is unknown. Part of this church having fallen down in 1736, the present structure was raised in its stead, and finished in 1740. It is a plain building; the interior is neat, and in the west gallery is a handsome organ. On the north side of Tooley-street, next to the Thames, is a building termed the Bridge-house, which seems to be coeval with London Bridge, having been used as a store-house, for stone, timber, and other materials used in its repair. At this house was also the public granary for times of scarcity, the city brew-house, and ovens to bake bread for the poor. It is still under the superintendance of officers called Bridge-masters, who are appointed by the city. Below the Bridge-house, on the banks of the Thames, stood the inn of the abbot of Battle, the site of which is still called Battle Bridge. In front of this mansion were the gardens belonging to it, which, from their intricate embellishments, were called the Maze, a name the place still retains. By a charter of Queen Elizabeth, a free grammar school was founded in this parish, which purchased lands and revenues for its endowment. It is now under the management of 16 trustees or governors, incorporated for the purpose; and the scholars, of whom there are 250 on the foundation, receive a liberal education from a head master and three assistants. Here is also a charity school. Eastward of St. Olave's is the Parish of St. John, Horselydown, having been originally a grazing ground for horses. The church is one of the 50 ordered by act of parliament to be built in the metropolis. It was finished in 1732, when this district was separated from St. Olave's, and constituted a distinct parish. St. Thomas's church stands on the south side of the street of the same name. It was annexed to St. Thomas's Hospital, and included with that foundation in the grant made by Edward VI. to the city of London. Being old and ruinous, this church was taken down, and rebuilt in 1702, when it was made parochial, and a chapel erected within the hospital, for the use of the patients.—St. Thomas's Hospital is a noble charity, appropriated to the reception of indigent persons labouring under sickness or accidental injuries. It is situated on the east side of the Borough High-street, not far from London Bridge. The building consists of four quadrangles, into the first of which, facing the street, is the entrance by large iron gates, which occupy one side of the square. The other three sides are encompassed with a colonade. The building on the north was erected by Thomas Frederick, Esq; and that on the south at the expense of Thomas Guy, Esq. in 1737; both of whom were governors of the institution. The centre of the principal front is of stone, and looks towards the street. A spacious passage leads down a flight of steps into the second court, which is by far the most elegant. The north side is occupied by the chapel, adorned with lofty Corinthian pilasters; and the other three

sides are surrounded by a colonade, above which the fronts of the wards are ornamented with Ionic pilasters. In the centre is a good brass statue of Edward VI. by Scheemakers. The buildings of the third court are older than the others, and are entirely encompassed with a piazza, above which rise slender Ionic pilasters, with very small capitals. In the centre is a stone statue of Sir Robert Clayton, Lord Mayor, and a benefactor of the hospital. The fourth quadrangle is partly occupied with hot and cold baths, a surgery, theatre, apothecary's shop, brewhouse, and other offices. The whole establishment contains 19 wards, and 474 beds; and since its foundation, this excellent institution has afforded relief to an immense number of patients. The annual number of patients may be estimated at 9000, and the expenditure at 10,000*l.*; and though no estates appear to have been originally annexed to it, the bounty of the corporation, and other benefactions, have contributed such a fund as to ensure the permanence of the establishment. The original foundation of this hospital was owing to the destruction, by fire, of the priory of St. Mary Overy, in 1207, on which the monks erected a temporary habitation, which, on their removal to the new convent, was pulled down in 1215, by Peter de Rupibus, bishop of Winchester, who founded in its stead an hospital dedicated to St. Thomas, which being an appurtenance of the manor of Southwark, purchased in 1551, of king Edward VI. by the corporation of the city of London, was immediately repaired and enlarged by the city, at an expense of 1100*l.*, and appropriated to the reception of poor, sick, and maimed persons. In 1553, the king incorporated a society for its government, in common with St. Bartholomew's, Bridewell, Bethlem, and Christ Church-Hospitals. The revenues of the establishment sustained great injury by the fire of London in 1666, and by three subsequent fires in Southwark in 1676, 1681, and 1689. The building itself having also become old and ruinous, a subscription was set on foot in 1699, by the governors, for rebuilding it on a more extensive and commodious plan. From this source funds were soon obtained for erecting the new hospital, which consisted of three quadrangles; and the fourth was added in 1723, at the expense of the institution itself. Near St. Thomas's is the kindred institution of Guy's Hospital, a great and singular monument of private munificence. It is named after its founder, Thomas Guy, a citizen and bookseller of London, who, by industry and frugality, amassed a very large fortune, which he determined, when he arrived at his 76th year, to apply to this benevolent purpose. He accordingly took from the governors of St. Thomas's Hospital, a lease of a piece of land opposite to that edifice, for 999 years, at 30*l.* per annum. This spot was covered with small houses, which were removed in the following spring; and before the death of the founder, in December, 1724, the building was roofed in. The expense of erecting and furnishing the hospital, amounted to 1873*l.*; and Mr. Guy, by his will, endowed it with the unappropriated residue of his estate, which amounted to 219,499*l.* After his decease, his executors obtained an act of parliament, investing the management of the charity in a corporation of 60 governors. Being situated in a narrow street, the building cannot be seen to advantage. The entrance is by an iron gate opening into a square, in the middle of which is a brass statue of the founder in his livery gown, by Scheemakers. The buildings consist of a centre and two wings; the latter of which were erected after the decease of the founder, in an additional piece of ground, obtained on lease from St. Thomas's hospital. The former is for the reception of patients; and behind it is a small neat building for lunatics. In the centre of one wing is a spacious hall and rooms for public business, and in the other a neat chapel, in which is a finely executed statue of the founder, by Bacon. The wings contain the houses of the principal officers; besides which there is a theatre for medical lectures, a library well furnished with professional books, and a collection of anatomical preparations. The whole comprehends 13 wards, and 411 beds. The out patients of this institution are also very numerous.—St. Saviour's church, commonly

commonly called St. Mary Overy, originally belonged to a nunnery, founded by a female, at the time of the Norman conquest, and endowed by her with the profits of the ferry across the river at this place, prior to the erection of London Bridge. This house was afterwards converted into a college for priests, by whom the first bridge over the Thames was built of wood, and kept in repair, till they were enabled, by the munificence of benefactors, to supply its place by another of stone. In 1106, the college was converted into a priory of canons; on the suppression of which, in 1539, the inhabitants of Southwark purchased the church belonging to it, which was by charter appropriated to the joint use of the parishioners of St. Mary Magdalen and St. Margaret, by the name of St. Saviour's. This church is built on the plan of a cathedral, though of small dimensions. A part only of the original architecture remains; and this is in the interior of the west front of the church, all the rest of the building exhibiting the styles in use between the 13th and 16th centuries. The tower in the centre rises in three stories, the walls finishing with battlements, and being adorned at the angles with turrets and pinnacles. It was from this tower that Haller took his famous views of London, both before and after the great fire in 1666. This church has three chapels, viz., Our Lady's, or the new chapel, at the east end of which is run out a small monumental chapel, which was let by the wardens, after the church became parochial, as a bake-house; St. John's, now the vestry on the north side of the choir; and St. Mary Magdalen's on the south side. In Our Lady's chapel is a grave stone, which is supposed to cover the remains of the celebrated William of Wykeham, bishop of Lincoln, and afterwards of Winchester, who died in 1395. There are also several other monuments and antiquities deserving of attention. In St. Saviour's church-yard is a free grammar school, founded by the parish in 1562, under the authority of Queen Elizabeth; and adjoining to it is a free English school. Contiguous to the priory of St. Mary Overy, formerly stood Winchester house, the town residence of the prelates of that see. It was erected about the year 1107, by bishop Gifford, and was one of the most magnificent structures in the city or suburbs of London. It continued to be the abode of his successor, till the beginning of the 17th century, when it was forsaken for the more agreeable residence at Chelsea. During the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. it was for some time a prison for royalists, and among the rest, for the celebrated Sir Kenelm Digby. In 1649, it was sold by the parliament, to Thomas Walker, of Camberwell, for 4380*l*. Reverting at the Restoration to the rightful owner, the house was mostly demolished; and its site, as well as the park, leased out to different persons, to the great emolument of the see of Winchester. From its present remains, which form parts of the various warehouses now occupying the site, no adequate idea can be formed of the former extent and arrangement of this magnificent palace. In the south front are many curious doorways and windows, in various styles of architecture, but greatly mutilated. At the west end of this range, is a large circular window, which for delicacy of form and beauty of workmanship, is surpassed by few. Its style shews it to be of the time of Edward III. What is now called Bankside was formerly a range of dwellings, licensed by the bishop of Winchester, "for the repair of incontinent men to the like women," and denominated the Bordello, or Stew Houses, which were subject to various laws and regulations enacted by parliament. These privileged houses were suppressed by Henry VIII. in 1546. On the Bankside was a gaol called the Clink, which still exists, and has been represented as a filthy noisome dungeon. The bishop of Winchester's steward tries pleas of debt, damages, or trespass, within the Clink liberty, for any sum. On the Bankside was also situated the principal theatre of its time, called the Globe, where the plays of Shakspeare were first represented, and the memory of which is still retained in the name of the Globe

Alley. Near this was the Bear Garden, wherein, says Stowe, "were kept bears, bulls, and other beasts to be baited." Bear baiting was in that age an amusement of persons of the highest rank.—In this district of the Borough several improvements have been lately planned and executed, which add greatly both to the appearance and beauty of the place. Of these are the very elegant bridge over the Thames, called Southwark Bridge, which crosses the river from Bankside to Queen-street, and a handsome street from this to St. Margaret's Hill. A road is in contemplation to extend from the bridge to the Mansion House. Not far from St. Saviour's church is the Borough Market, surrounded with stalls and other conveniences for the sale of provisions. In Deadman's place, on the west side of this market, is an hospital or college, founded in the reign of Elizabeth, by Thomas Cure. At the end of the High-street is St. Margaret's Hill, the site of the ancient church of the same name, which being forsaken on the union of the parish with St. Saviour's, was converted into a Sessions-house and prison, since removed to Mill-lane, and denominated the Borough Compter. The whole has lately been rebuilt. In the front, facing Blackman-street, the hustings for the election of representatives for the Borough are usually erected. On the opposite side of the street was the Tabard-inn, which was the residence of the abbots of Hyde, in Hampshire, when called to the metropolis on business. This house is celebrated by Chaucer as the place of rendezvous for pilgrims repairing to Becket's shrine, at Canterbury. On the east side of Blackman-street is the Marshalsea, a court of law and a prison, originally intended for the determination of differences between the king's menial servants, and under the control of the knight marshal of the royal household. It had particular cognizance of murders and other offences committed within the king's court. Persons guilty of piracies and other offences on the high seas are now committed here, though the offenders are tried at the Old Bailey. The jurisdiction of the Marshalsea extends to the distance of 12 miles round Whitehall, excepting the City of London, for actions of debt, damages, &c. When the subject of litigation exceeds the value of 5*l*., the suit is removeable to a higher tribunal. The prison contains about 60 rooms; it is too small, and much out of repair. Southward of the Marshalsea, and on the same side of the street, is the Church of St. George the Martyr. The original building was a very ancient foundation, and belonged to the abbey of Bermondsey, to which it was given in 1112, by Thomas Arderne. The present structure was erected in 1736, in consequence of an act of parliament obtained by the parishioners, to pull down the old church, which had fallen into a ruinous condition. The principal entrance is at the west end, which faces the street. Above the door is a circular pediment, supported by Ionic columns; and on the east side the front is adorned with a balustrade and vases. From this part rises the tower, which is strengthened with rustic coars. The base of the spire rests on a series of Ionic columns raised on the tower. In the old church was interred Edward Cocker, the celebrated arithmetician, and also the noted Bishop Bonner, who died miserably in the Marshalsea, in 1569. Opposite St. George's church formerly stood Suffolk-place, a magnificent mansion, erected in the reign of Henry VIII., by Charles Brandon, Duke of Suffolk. Its name was afterwards altered to Southwark-place, and it was used as a royal mint. After this the mansion was pulled down, and the site was converted into streets, which still retain the name of the Mint. The inhabitants assumed a privilege of protection from arrests, and the place became, for many years, the retreat of bankrupts and fraudulent debtors, until the privilege was abolished in the reign of George I. In Union-street, northward of the Mint, is the public office of Union Hall, a handsome building; and at the south-east end of Blackman-street, in Horsemonger-lane, is the County Gaol and House of Correction for Surrey. This spacious building was erected on the suggestion of the benevolent Howard, and contains a good court-

hall, a chapel, offices and other accommodations. On the top of the platform where executions are performed, Colonel Despard and six of his associates, convicted of high treason, suffered in 1802. The King's Bench prison is situated at the south-west corner of Blackman-street. This is a place of confinement for debtors, and for all other persons under sentence of imprisonment by that court. It consists of one large pile of brick buildings, comprehending 224 rooms. It is surrounded by a brick wall, about 30 feet high, and defended, by *chevaux-de-frise*. Without this the Marshal or keeper of the prison has very handsome apartments. The liberties, or rules of the prison, as they are termed, extend about three miles round the buildings, and the right of residing in any part of these may be purchased by debtors, at the rate of 10 guineas for the first 100%, and about half as much for each succeeding 100%, of the sums for which they are confined. Prisoners in any other gaol may remove hither by Habeas Corpus. Of the parishes adjacent to Southwark, Christ Church was taken out of that of St. Saviour's, and was originally part of the district called the liberty of Paris Garden. The first church was erected at the expense of Mr. John Marshal, of Southwark, and finished in 1671, when he endowed it with an estate of 60*l.* per annum, for the support of a minister. But this building soon decaying, from the insufficiency of the foundations, Mr. Marshal's trustees applied to parliament in 1737, for an act to rebuild it with the sum of 2,500*l.*, which had accumulated in their hands, and the present structure was accordingly erected. It stands on the west side of the road leading from Blackfriars Bridge. It is a plain brick building, with a square tower, surmounted by a cupola. Its appearance has been much improved by the removal of several old houses, which nearly blocked up the view in front, and by the substitution of a handsome iron railing. In this parish is a charity school, a workhouse, and a neat alms-house. At the foot of Blackfriars Bridge is a range of buildings, which formerly constituted part of the noted Albion Mills, destroyed by fire in 1791. On the opposite side of Albion place, is the house belonging to the British plate-glass manufactory. On the west-side of Blackfriars road, very near the bridge, is the building formerly occupied by the extensive museum collected by Sir Ashton Lever, and which afterwards formed the premises of the Surrey Institution. The Surrey chapel on the east side of Blackfriars road, is a large octagonal building erected for the use of the Methodists, by the friends of Rowland Hill. This chapel is capable of holding nearly 5000 persons. Farther to the south, and on the west side of the street, stands the Magdalen Hospital, for the reception, maintenance and employment of unfortunate females. The present building was erected in 1769. It is calculated for the accommodation of about 80 persons at a time. The females are treated with great attention and kindness; and since the establishment was begun in 1756, upwards of 4000 penitents have been reclaimed from their unfortunate condition. In the central point, where the great south road from London, and the roads from Westminster, Southwark, Newington and Lambeth, unite, stands the Obelisk, a plain structure of freestone, erected in 1771, during the mayorality, and in honour of Brass Crosby, Esq., who had been confined in the Tower with Alderman Oliver, for the conscientious discharge of his duty as a magistrate. At the end of Blackfriars road, on the west side, near the Obelisk, is a place of amusement, formerly denominated the Royal Circus. Having been destroyed by fire in 1805, it was rebuilt in a tasteful manner. It is now called the Surrey Theatre, and has been much resorted to by the lovers of ranting melo-drame. Between the Obelisk and the King's Bench prison, is the school where Lancaster first practised his system of education. St. George's Fields, so frequently noticed in English history, and which about half a century ago were little better than a continued swamp, have since the erection of Westminster and Blackfriars Bridges, been almost covered with streets and buildings, from the ditch at the end of

Great Surrey-street, to the Fishmongers' alms-house on the one hand, and from the Marshalsea prison to the late Dog and Duck on the other. The Dog and Duck, so denominated from its sign, was formerly a house of public entertainment, which took its rise from a mineral spring that was discovered here, and was much resorted to from its vicinity to the metropolis. In consequence, however, of the violations of order and decorum committed here, the premises were shut up by the magistrates, and were latterly occupied as a school for the indigent blind. The last mentioned institution was begun in 1799, and a neat, new school has been since erected for its use. Near this school is the house of the Philanthropic Society. On the site of the Dog and Duck, the corporation of the City of London have obtained a plot of ground of 12 acres, on part of which is erected a most noble Hospital for Lunatics, instead of the old building in Moorfields. Of the parishes adjacent to Southwark, Newington Butts lies contiguous to the parish of St. George, at the distance of about a mile from London Bridge. It is of small extent, but extremely populous. Bermondsey parish is bounded on the west by St. John's, St. George's and St. Olave's, and by those of Deptford and Rotherhithe on the east. In 1082, a priory for Cluniac monks was founded here by Aylwin Child, a citizen of London; and William Rufus gave his manor of Bermondsey to this convent. The site of the abbey was granted by Henry VIII. to Sir Thomas Pope, who pulled down the church, and built a large house on the spot. The church at this place, mentioned in Domesday Survey, was the conventual church then newly built. It was not till long afterwards that the monks founded a parochial church, dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen. The present structure was erected in 1680.

Southwark was anciently a distinct corporation, governed by its own bailiffs. In 1327, owing to the inconveniences attending the escape of malefactors from the metropolis, it was granted by Edward III. to the corporation of London, on payment of 10*l.* annually. The place was then called the village of Southwark; it was afterwards made a bailiwick—the mayor and commonly of London appointing the bailiff; and a still more intimate connection with the metropolis being deemed necessary, it was, in the reign of Edward VI. at the earnest request of the citizens, united to the City of London by charter. It was formed into the 26th ward, by the style of "Bridge Ward Without," and was subjected to the Lord Mayor, who appoints the steward and bailiff. This, however, is only understood of the Borough liberty, which consists of three of the parishes belonging to the town. From the city division, the Lord Mayor, by his steward, holds a court of record every Monday, at the sessions-house on St. Margaret's Hill, for all debts and trespasses within his jurisdiction. To the ward of Bridge Without, which is not represented in the common council, the senior alderman, or father of the city, as he is called, is always removed as to an honourable sinecure, being exempt from the fatigues incurred in the other 25 wards. The other division of Southwark is called the Clink, or the Manor of Southwark, and is subdivided into the great liberty, the guild-hall and the king's manor, for each of which subdivisions a court-leet is held. This division is in the jurisdiction of the bishop of Winchester, who, besides a court-leet, keeps here a court of record, on the Bankside, near St. Saviour's church, by his steward or bailiff. Court-leets are also kept at Lambeth, Bermondsey and Rotherhithe, three districts adjoining to the borough. Though so long a ward of the city, Southwark still retains the privilege of sending members to parliament, and has done so since the 23d of Edward I. The right of election is in the inhabitants paying scot and lot, the number of voters amounting to about 3200. In 1811, Southwark contained 12,217 houses, and 72,119 inhabitants, viz. 33,611 males, and 38,501 females, of whom 116 families were employed in Agriculture, and 10,510 in trade and manufactures.

manufactures. At present there are scarcely any families employed in agriculture; and the population is nearly doubled. For farther information regarding Southwark, see LONDON.

SOUTHWELD, a village and parish of England, in Essex, situated on an eminence which commands an extensive prospect. Population 1010; 4 miles from Rumford, and 16 east-north-east of London.

SOUTHWELL, a market town of England, in the county of Nottingham, situated on a gentle eminence, on the banks of the little river Greet, which is much celebrated for its red trout. It stands on a fertile soil, and in a well wooded country, inclosed by an amphitheatre of swelling hills. The town was formerly much more extensive than at present, and the foundations of a whole street are said to have been, at different times, observed in the immediate vicinity. As the hamlets of East and West Thorpe, which are contiguous to the town, appear to form part of it, and go under the same name, it has still the appearance of a pretty large but scattered country place. It is divided into two parts, civil and ecclesiastical. The former, called the Burgage or Burridge, comprehends all the space between the market-place and the river Greet; and the latter, called the Prebendage, includes the collegiate church and its property. This church forms the most interesting object in the town, and has been long celebrated for its antiquity, and for the beauty and variety of its architecture. It consists of a nave, with two aisles, two towers at the west end, a transept, a choir with aisles, and a chapter house. The extreme length from east to west is 306 feet, the width of the transept from north to south is 121 feet, and the breadth of the nave 59 feet. The foundation of the church is generally ascribed to Paulinus, archbishop of York, who was sent by pope Gregory, by the advice of St. Augustine, to establish Christianity in Britain, in the year 627. During a succession of ages it was patronized and liberally endowed by monarchs and nobles, and protected by the decrees of popes, and the regulations of various prelates, until it shared the fate of other collegiate establishments, in the reign of Henry VIII. It was notwithstanding, in the same reign, declared by act of parliament, the mother church of Nottinghamshire. In Edward's reign the chapter was dissolved and granted to the duke of Northumberland, but was restored by queen Mary to the archbishop and chapter. It suffered much in the civil wars, and has not yet recovered the damage done by Cromwell's troops, who converted it into a stable for horses. The architecture of this church is Saxon, and, generally speaking, the great mass of the building has sustained little alteration except in some of the windows, whose Saxon arches have given place to the Gothic pointed style of the 14th century. There is still a tradition that the oldest part, which is pure Saxon, and where the pillars are large, plain and singularly massive, was built in the short reign of Harold; and, on the whole, there is little doubt that, excepting St. Augustine's at Canterbury, this is the oldest building now in existence in the kingdom. The entrance is by a Gothic gateway, from which there is a direct view of the west front, with the chapter-house on the left, and some round monastic buildings on the right. At the entrance by the western door, the appearance of the interior very much resembles Rochester cathedral; but in the screen at the entrance of the choir, the plainness of the Saxon architecture gives place to the richness and elegance of the Gothic of the 14th century. The chapter-house is a very beautiful structure. The exterior does not boast much profusion of ornament, but the interior is much superior, and the arch of entrance forms a most striking object, and is not perhaps equalled by any thing of the kind in the kingdom. Of the tombs in this church is a large one of alabaster, to archbishop Sandys. In the church-yard was a college for the chantry priests, of which there are some remains. The square building called the chantry has lately been taken down, and an excellent house and school erected on the same ground. The whole establishment of the college now consists of 16

prebendaries, 6 vicars-choral, 1 organist, and other officers. Two fellowships and two scholarships, in St. John's College, Cambridge, are the presentation of Southwell college. They were founded by Dr. Reton, canon of Salisbury, in the time of Henry VIII. The Archbishop of York had formerly a palace here, situated on the south side of the church-yard, and which was once a large and elegant building; the ruins of it are still extensive, and being overshadowed with ivy, and embosomed among trees, they form a great ornament to the place. The archiepiscopal parks were once four in number, but these have been divided and inclosed since the destruction of the palace in the civil wars of Charles I., during which the king was often here, and the town frequently experienced the fate of war. On the north side of the church-yard is a very convenient public walk, made in 1784, and well shaded from the weather on every side. Another building in the town deserving of notice is the county bridewell, which is used as a prison for the various manors belonging to the archbishopric within the county. It was built in 1656, and in 1787 many additions were made to it, together with the walls that surround it. It stands on the slope of a gentle hill, close to the burgage green, in an airy and healthful situation. This prison, now called the Nottinghamshire house of correction, received considerable additions to its size during the years 1820-22, and is capable of containing more than 100 prisoners, and generally is nearly filled, being a house of correction for the whole county. It is under the immediate direction of county magistrates, who are appointed visiting justices, a resident governor, a surgeon, chaplain and turnkeys. The admirable adaptation of the structure, and the excellent regulations and discipline of the whole establishment, are highly and warmly spoken of by those who are competent judges. Southwell possesses no trade of any consequence. The civil government of the town is divided between the clergy and the laity; the former ruling over the Prebendage, and the latter over the Burgage. Its civil jurisdiction extends over 20 towns or villages; its ecclesiastical over 28. The civil administration is held at Southwell and Scrooby, by the justices, who are nominated by the archbishop, but act under a commission from the crown. The chapter, in the person of their vicar-general, exercise all the episcopal functions except ordination and confirmation. Southwell is a place of great antiquity, and is thought to have been a Roman station. Market on Saturday, and an annual fair on Whit-Monday; 14 miles north-east of Nottingham, and 132 north-north-west of London. Lat. 53. 5. N. long. 0. 58. W.

SOUTH-WEST, *s.* Point between the south and west; winter sun-set.—The planting of trees warm upon a wall against the south, or south-east sun, doth hasten their coming on and ripening; and the south-east is found to be better than the *south-west*, though the *south-west* be the hotter coast. *Bacon.*

SOUTH-WEST BAY, a bay on the south-west coast of Tavai Poenamoo, between Cape South and Cape West.

SOUTH-WEST CAPE, a cape on the south coast of New Holland, in the South Pacific Ocean, north-west of South Cape. Lat. 43. 32. S. long. 146. 7. E.

SOUTH-WEST ISLES, seven small islands, of which Kissier is the chief, dependant on the Banda islands, lying to the south-west of them all. They are low, and surrounded by shoals and rocks. The natives have been represented as a ferocious, savage and perfidious people, resembling those of New Guinea, and being an intermediate race between the Papuas or aborigines of that country, and the Caffres of Africa. Their number in 1796 is said to have amounted to 36,266, of whom 2322 had been converted to Christianity. The Dutch had an establishment for commercial purposes on these islands, which produce sandal-wood, and afford some venison and slaves.

SOUTH-WEST POINT, a cape on the south-west coast of the island of Anticosti. Lat. 49. 25. N. long. 63. 4. W.

SOUTH-WEST POINT. See KINGSTON.

SOUTHWICH,

SOUTHWICH, a hamlet of England, adjoining to the city of Gloucester.

SOUTHWICH, a village and parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 5 miles north of Portsmouth. It commands an extensive view of the Isle of Wight, and the adjacent scenery. Population 714.

SOUTHWICH, a township of England, in Durham; 2 miles north-west of Sunderland. Population 641.

SOUTHWICH, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 3 miles north-north-west of Oundle.

SOUTHWICH, a parish of England, in Sussex, near the sea-shore; 2 miles east of New Shoreham.

SOUTHWICK, a small river of Scotland, in the stewardry of Kirkcudbright, which falls into the Solway frith two miles from the estuary of the river Err. It is navigable for vessels of small burden, two miles from its mouth.

SOUTHWICK, a post township of the United States, in Hampden county, Massachusetts; 92 miles west-south-west of Boston.

SOUTHWOLD, a market town of England, in the county of Suffolk, pleasantly situated on an eminence overhanging the German Ocean, and nearly surrounded on every side by the river Blyth, which here discharges itself into the sea. It contains many good houses, but no building worthy of particular notice, except the church and the guildhall. The church is a very fine building, 143 feet in length, and 56 wide. It has two aisles, which are separated from the nave by seven arches and six pillars, of elegant workmanship. The tower steeple, about 100 feet in height, is a fine piece of architecture, ornamented with freestone and intermixed flints. The interior of the church still indicates its having been at one time more highly ornamented than even the outside. A chapel was first built here in the reign of king John. It was destroyed by fire about 220 years afterwards; and the present edifice, dedicated to St. Edmund, is supposed to have been begun soon after, and the exterior seems to have been finished about 1460. In 1751, it was made parochial, and endowed with 400*l.* by the governors of Queen Anne's bounty. Southwold was incorporated in 1489 by Henry VII., and is governed by two bailiffs, a recorder, and 12 aldermen. It is a member of the port of Yarmouth, and its creek extends to Dunwick and Walderswick. It has a considerable trade in the herring and sprat fishery, and also in salt and old beer. The trade of Southwold was greatly encouraged by Henry VII. and Henry VIII.; and in their reigns it exceeded all the neighbouring towns in shipping and commerce. An act of Parliament having been obtained for repairing the harbour, a pier was erected in 1749, and another in 1752. Of late years the town has derived some benefit from the resort of visitors for the sea bathing. It has been observed, that at this town in particular, as at all the places on this coast, the swallows first land on their arrival in England, and here also take their departure to warmer climates. Southwold bay, or Sole bay, is noted in history as the scene of a sanguinary naval engagement, which took place in 1672, between the combined fleet of England and France on the one side, and that of the Dutch on the other; the former consisting of 101 men of war, and the latter of 91. The issue of the day was rather uncertain: the English lost four ships, and the Dutch three. In 1666 also, a famous sea fight took place here, between the English fleet of 114 men-of-war and frigates, and the Dutch fleet of 103 men-of-war, when the latter were defeated, with the loss of 70 ships. In 1811, Southwold contained 1369 inhabitants. Market on Thursday, well attended; and two annual fairs; 20 miles south of Yarmouth, and 104 north-east of London. Lat. 52. 20. N. long. 1. 39. E.

SOUTHWOOD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles south-by-west of Acle.

SOUTHWORTH, a township of England, in Lancashire; 3 miles east-south-east of Newton, in Makerfield. Population 1016.

SOUTRA HILL, the westernmost hill of the Lammer-

muir ridge, in Scotland, elevated 1000 feet above the level of the sea. On it are the ruins of an hospital, founded in 1164 by Malcolm IV. of Scotland.

SO'UVENANCE, *s.* [Fr.] Remembrance; memory. *A French word, now disused.*

If thou wilt renounce thy miscreance,
Life will I grant thee for thy valiance,
And all thy wrongs will wipe out of my *souvenance*.

Spenser.

Gave wond'rous great countenance to the knight,
That of his way he bad no *souvenance*,
Nor care of vow'd revenge.

Spenser.

SOUVERABO, a small sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa.

SOUVIGNY, a town near the central part of France, in the department of the Allier, on the river Quesnes. It contains 2700 inhabitants, and has extensive glass manufactures; 6 miles west of Moulins.

SOUVIGNY, a town in the interior of France, department of the Allier. It has 2700 inhabitants, and large glass-houses; 9 miles south-west of Moulins.

SOUZA (Louis de), a Portuguese writer, born at Santarem, was son of a man of rank, governor of the castle of St. George de la Mina. He was educated to the profession of arms, and served first in the order of Malta, when he was taken prisoner by the Turks. After recovering his liberty, he served with the troops in America and the East Indies. After this he married, but the loss of a child and other afflicting circumstances impressed both him and his wife with a spirit of devotion, and they took the religious habit in the Dominican order; De Souza changing his baptismal name of Manuel for that of Louis. He had already acquired a good share of literature, and had written an elegant preface to the Latin poems of Falcone. He was, therefore, chosen to write the history of his order in Portugal in the vernacular tongue, of which he printed the first volume, folio, in 1623. From his papers two other volumes were printed after his death. He was author also of the "Life of Dom. Bartholomew, one of the Martyrs," printed in 1619, and of which a French translation has been given; and "A History of John III. King of Portugal," which has not been published. De Souza is accounted one of the best writers of his country.

SOUZA, a river of Portugal, in the province of Entre Minho e Douro, which joins the Douro about 9 miles from its mouth.

SOUZEL, a town of Portugal, in the province of Alentejo; 6 miles north-north-west of Estremos. Population 2000.

SOW, *s.* [ruza, Sax.; *sugga*, Su. Goth.; from *so*. Ihre.] A female pig; the female of a boar.

A *sow* beneath an oak shall lie along,

All white herself, and white her thirty young. *Dryden.*

Perhaps from *sow* came *sowen*, *swen*, *swine*.—An oblong mass of lead. *Sherwood.*

With clothes upon her head,

That they weigh a *sow* of lead.

Skelton.

[*Millepeda*, Lat.] An insect; a millepede. *Ainsworth.*

To **SOW**, *v. n.* [*saiian*, M. Goth.; *saa*, Su. Goth.; *rapan*, Sax.] To scatter seed in order to a harvest.—He that *soweth* to his flesh, shall reap corruption; but he that *soweth* to the spirit, shall reap life everlasting. *Gal.*

To **SOW**, *v. a.* part. pass. *sown*. To scatter in the ground in order to growth; to propagate by seed.

Like was not to be found,

Save in that soil where all good things did grow

And freely sprung out of the fruitful ground

As incorrupted nature did them *sow*.

Spenser.

When to turn

The fruitful soil, and when to *sow* the corn,

I sing, *Mecænas*.

Dryden.

To spread; to propagate.—To *sow* a jangling noise of words unknown. *Milton,*

Born

Born to afflict my Marcia's family,
And sow dissension in the hearts of brothers. *Addison.*

To impregnate or stock with seed.—The intellectual faculty is a goodly field, capable of great improvement; and it is the worst husbandry in the world to sow it with trifles or impertinencies. *Hale.*—To besprinkle.—All *sow'd* with glistering stars, more thick than grass. *Spenser.*—He *sow'd* with stars the heaven thick as a field. *Milton.*

Now morn her rosy steps in th' eastern clime,
Advancing, *sow'd* the earth with orient pearl. *Milton.*

To SOW, *v. a.* For *sew*. To join by needlework.
Some tree, whose broad smooth leaves together *sow'd*,
And girded on, may cover round. *Milton.*

SOW, in Ancient Military Language, a kind of covered shed, fixed on wheels, under which the besiegers filled up and passed the ditch, sapped or mined the wall, and sometimes worked a kind of ram.

SOW, a river of England, in Staffordshire, which runs into the Trent at Tixall; 3 miles east of Stafford.—Also a river in Warwickshire, which falls into the Avon, near Stoneleigh Abbey; 4 miles north of Warwick.

SOW AND PIGS, a number of large rocks lying off the south-west end of Catahunk island, one of the Elizabeth islands, on the coast of Massachusetts.

SO'WBREAD, *s.* [*eyclamea*, Lat.] A plant.
The *sowbread* does afford rich food for swine,
Physic for man, and garland for the shrine. *Tate.*

To SOWCE, *v. a.* To throw into the water. See *To*
SOUSE.—He *sowed* me up to the middle in the pond.
L'Estrange.

SOWE, a parish of England, in Warwickshire, on the river Sow, north-west of Comb-Abbey. Population 937.

SO'WER, *s.* [*japepe*, Sax.] He that sprinkles the seed.—A *sower* went forth to sow. *St. Matt.*—It is thrown round, as grain by a skilful *sower*. *Derham.*—A scatterer—Terming Paul and his doctrine a *sower* of words, a very babbler or trifler. *Hakewill.*—A breeder; a promoter.—They are *sowers* of suits, which make the court swell, and the country pine. *Bacon.*

SOWERBY, a hamlet of England, in Lancashire, near Garstang.

SOWERBY, a township of England, in Westmoreland, north-east of Kirby Steven.

SOWERBY, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, near Thirsk. Population 685.

SOWERBY, or SOWERBY BRIDGE, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-south-west of Halifax. It is called Sowerby Bridge, from its stately stone bridge of several arches, over the river Calder, which is navigable from hence to Wakefield. Population 5177.

SOWERBY CASTLE, a township of England, in Cumberland; 12 miles west-north-west of Penrith.

SO'WINS, *s.* Flummery, made of oatmeal somewhat sour'd.—These *sowins*, that is, flummery, being blended together, produce good yeast. *Mortimer.*—See where Norah with the *sowins* comes. *Swift.*

To SOWLE, *v. a.* [from *sow*, as hogs are pulled by dogs, *Skinner*; from *solea*, a strap, a rein, *Kennet.*] To pull by the ears. The word is still used for *pull*, or *lug*, in several counties.—He'll go, he says, and *sowle* the porter of Rome gates by the ears. *Shakspeare.*

SOWN. The participle of *sow*. It is used barbarously by Swift for *sowed*.—A goodly country, naturally beautified with roses, *sown* with pease. *Heylin.*—An hundred and fifty of their beds, *sown* together, made up the breadth and length. *Swift.*

SOWNE, a term used in the exchequer; seeming to be a corruption from the French *souvenu*, remembered.

Such estreats and casualties as the sheriff by his industry cannot get or levy, are said to be estreats that *sowne* not, that is, are not to be remembered, or are not in demand. On the contrary, estreats that *sowne*, are such as he may gather.

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SO'WTHISTLE, *s.* [*sonchus*, Lat.] A weed.—*Sow-thistles* though sheep coney eat, yet sheep and cattle will not touch; the milk of which rubbed on warts weareth them away, which sheweth it is corrosive. *Bacon.*

SOWTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3½ miles east of Exeter.

SOXINI, or SOCCINI (Mariano), denominated the elder, an eminent canonist, was born at Siena in 1401. He studied first at his native place, and then in Padua, in which last university, after he had taken his degree, he was for some years professor of the canon law. He then returned to Siena, where he taught as a professor during the remainder of his life. He was very intimate with Eneas Sylvius, afterwards pope Pius II., who has written a panegyric upon him in one of his letters in the most magnificent terms, assigning to him almost universal proficiency in science and the arts, with the greatest excellence of moral character. Soxini was sent by the state to compliment Sylvius when he ascended the papal throne, on which occasion he was nominated consistorial advocate. He died in 1467, leaving behind him a considerable reputation for learning and integrity. His works, consisting of "Consultations," "Commentaries on the Books of Canon Law," and tracts upon "Legal Subjects," have been frequently reprinted.

SOXINI, or SOCCINI (Bartolomeo), a celebrated civilian, son of the preceding, was born at Siena in 1436. He studied the law under different masters at Siena and Bologna, and after he had been admitted to a doctor's degree he became professor of the civil and canon law in his native city. He was, in 1473, invited to Pisa, where he taught both branches of law, and in this city he resided twenty years, with some occasional absences. He took an active part in the civil dissensions of Siena, and was, at one time, in the list of the banished citizens. He was employed in embassies from the Sieneese to the Florentines, and it is said he engaged in a military attempt to change the constitution of Siena. At Pisa the famous Jason del Maino was his rival, and they held frequent public disputations, at one of which Lorenzo de Medici was an auditor. Jason being hard pressed by the arguments of his antagonist, quoted, in his own favour, a text which he had invented for the occasion. Soxini, with equal readiness, invented another to oppose it, and being asked by Jason where he had found it, "Next to that which you have just now quoted," he replied. The fame which he had acquired caused him to be invited to Padua in 1489, with the offer of a large salary, which he determined to accept, but his intentions being known he was detained. For some time he was professor at Padua. He died in 1507, having been three years deprived of the use of his speech. His works as an author were "Consultations," "Comments on the Code and Digest," the "Rule of Right," and other pieces of a similar kind. He was not estimable as a practical moralist. He was addicted to gambling, and would sometimes leave his scholars without a lesson, and pass whole nights at the gaming table, the consequence of which most destructive habit was, that he did not leave money enough behind him to pay the expenses of his funeral. He was extremely greedy of money, charged very high for his opinion, which he would sometimes give to both parties in a suit. He was free of speech, sarcastic and jocular. His faults were borne with on account of his high professional character. Angelo Politiano, speaking of his intended correction of the Pandects, says "I must have recourse to the assistance and advice of that singularly excellent doctor of Siena, Bartolomeo Soxini, whom I may boldly denominate the Papinian of our age."

SOXINI (Mariano), denominated the younger, grandson of the first Mariano, was born at Siena in 1482: he studied the law under his uncle Bartolomeo, and after taking his degree, taught alternately the civil and canon law at his native city, till he removed to Paris. He was author of many works, which were once in considerable estimation, though they are now forgotten.

SOY, *s.* A kind of sauce: a considerable article of commerce in Japan.—*Soy-sauce*—is prepared from *soy-beans* (dolichos

(*dolichos soja*), and salt, mixed with barley or wheat. *Thunberg*.—Some provinces [of Japan] furnish better *soja* than others; but, exclusively of this, it grows better and clearer through age. Its colour is invariably brown, and its chief excellence consists in the agreeable salt taste which it possesses. *Transl. of Thunberg's Travels*.

SOYENNOM INDIANS, Indians of North America, on Lewis' river, west of the Rocky Mountains. Number 400.

SOZOMEN (Hermias), an ecclesiastical historian, contemporary with *Socrates* (see his article), was born of respectable parents, as some say at Salamis, in the isle of Cyprus, but according to others, at Gaza or Bethelia, in Palestine. Having studied the law at Berytus, he practised as an advocate at Constantinople, devoting his leisure hours to the composition of his ecclesiastical history. This work contains in nine books, an account of the affairs of the church, from the third consulship of Crispus and Constantine Cæsars, to the 17th consulship of Theodosius the emperor, in whose time he wrote, and to whom he dedicated his performance; that is, from the year 324 to the year 439, or during a period of 115 years. His history is chargeable with several notorious errors in the relation of facts. He is supposed to have died about the year 420. Sozomen's history is printed with that of *Socrates*, and the other Greek ecclesiastical historians.

SPA, a town of the Netherlands, province of Liege. It is situated on the banks of a rivulet, at the end of a deep valley, with meadows and cultivated fields in its immediate vicinity, but with high and steep mountains at a short distance, so that the country around forms a wild and romantic landscape. The town is small, having little more than 3000 inhabitants; and a number of its houses are of wood. Its streets, however, four in number, and built in the form of a cross, are wide and regular. The adjacent country being rugged and unproductive, Spa can boast of little else than its far famed medicinal springs and baths. Of the springs, to the number in all of six or seven, the principal are called respectively the Pouhon, Geronstere, Sauvenière and Tonnelet. The Pouhon rises from the hill to the north of Spa, but is made to issue from a fountain in the middle of the town; the others are at a distance of from one to two miles. The season commences with the warm weather, and the number of visitors soon produces a change in the sequestered spot. It lasts commonly during four months. The accommodations, whether at private lodgings or at hotels, are in general good. The habit of early rising, and of riding every morning to the more distant springs, is favourable to health. The rest of the day is passed either at a public breakfast in the new Vauxhall, one of the finest buildings of the kind on the continent; on the public walks, or in the chace; for the adjacent country, poor in the more useful products, is abundant in game. Spa contains a theatre and commodious ball-rooms. The public walks are pleasant, although limited in extent. The company, composed in a great measure of men of rank and property from Germany, France, the Netherlands or England, is superior to the common description of visitors at watering places, although mixed occasionally with adventurers, who endeavour to reap a harvest from the gaming resorted to, to kill time in this vacant and somewhat mountainous place. These waters were known to the Romans, and are mentioned by *Pliny*. They all spring from the adjacent hills, which are formed of calcareous earth, mixed with siliceous substances. They are all chalybeates, and the Pouhon being impregnated with the largest proportion of iron, is the spring from which the Spa waters are bottled for exportation. The effect of these waters is diuretic and exhilarating. They are more cooling, and allay thirst more effectually, than common water. They are recommended chiefly in cases of relaxation; also in obstructions of the liver, and various other disorders. They are of course accounted most effectual when drunk on the spot. The inhabitants of this small place adapt, like those of Tunbridge, their manufacturing industry to the taste of their visitors, and employ themselves in making boxes of painted and

varnished wood, with a variety of ornaments and fanciful articles. In 1807, the town was visited by a calamitous fire, the effects of which it was long in recovering; 20 miles south-east of Liege, and 210 north-east of Paris.

SPAAD, *s.* [*stella terra*, Lat.] A kind of mineral.—English talc, of which the coarser sort is called plaster; the finer, *spaad*, earth-flax, or salamander's hair. *Woodward*.

SPACE, *s.* [*spatium*, Lat.] Room; local extension.—*Space* is the relation of distance between any two bodies or points. *Locke*.—Oh, undistinguish'd *space* of woman's wit! *Shakspeare*.—This which yields or fills all *space*. *Milton*.—Pure *space* is capable neither of resistance nor motion. *Locke*.—*Space* and motion can never be actually infinite: they have a power only and a capacity of being increased without end; so that no *space* can be assigned so vast, but still a larger may be imagined; no motion so swift or languid, but a greater velocity or slowness may still be conceived. *Bentley*.—Any quantity of place.

I would not be the villain that thou think'st

For the whole *space* that's in the tyrant's grasp,
And the rich East to boot.

Shakspeare.

There was but two ways to escape; the one through the woods about ten miles *space* to Walpo. *Knolles*.—In such a great ruin, where the fragments are great and hard, it is not possible they should be so adjusted in their fall, but that they would lie hollow, and many unfilled *spaces* would be intercepted amongst them. *Burnet*.

Measuring first with careful eyes

The *space* his spear could reach, aloud he cries. *Dryden*.

Quantity of time.—There is a competent time allowed every man, and as it is certain death is the conclusion of it, 'tis possible some *space* before death. *Hammond*.

Nine times the *space* that measures day and night

To mortal men, he with his horrid crew

Lay vanquish'd, rolling in the fiery gulf,

Confounded, though immortal.

Milton.

In a lever, the motion can be continued only for so short a *space*, as may be answerable to that little distance betwixt the fulcrum and the weight. *Wilkins*.—God may defer his judgments for a time, and give a people a longer *space* of repentance: he may stay till the iniquities of a nation be full; but sooner or later they have reason to expect his vengeance. *Tillotson*.—The lives of great men cannot be writ with any tolerable degree of elegance or exactness, within a short *space* after their decease. *Addison*.—A small time; a while.

Sith for me ye fight, to me this grace

Both yield, to stay your deadly strife a *space*. *Spenser*.

Compassion quell'd

His best of man, and gave him up to tears

A *space*, till firmer thoughts restrain'd excess.

Milton.

To SPACE, *v. n.* [*spatior*, Lat.] To rove; to spatiat.

But she, as Feyes are wont, in privie place

Did spend her dayes, and lov'd in forest wyld to *space*.

Spenser.

SPA/CEFUL, *adj.* Extensive; wide. *Not in use*.

The ship, in those profound

And *spacefull* seas, so stuck as on drie ground. *Sandys*.

SPACHENDORE, a town of Austrian Silesia; 18 miles south-west of Troppau, and 29 south-by-east of Olmutz. Population 1400.

SPA/CIOUS, *adj.* [*spacieux*, French; *spatiosus*, Latin.] Wide; extensive; roomy; not narrow.—The former buildings, which were but mean, contented them not: *spacious* and ample churches they erected throughout every city. *Hooker*.

Convey your pleasures in a *spacious* plenty;

And yet seem cold.

Shakspeare.

Merab with *spacious* beauty fills the sight,

But too much awe chastis'd the bold delight.

Cowley.

Like

Like an English general will I die,
And all the ocean makè my spacious grave:
Women and cowards on the land may lie:
The sea's a tomb that's proper for the brave.

Dryden.

SPA'CIOUSLY, *adv.* Extensively.

SPA'CIOUSNESS, *s.* Roominess; wide extension.—The *spaciousness* of the house was such, that it had three galleries, each of them a mile long. *Hakewill on Prov.*—Here is visible an elegant taste of architecture, painting, and gardening, but more remarkable for the *spaciousness* of its prospect. *Ashmole.*

SPADA (Lionello), was born at Bologna in 1576, in a very low condition of life; and when a boy he became the servant of the Caracci, and ground and prepared their colours. The constant opportunity he possessed, whilst with these great men, of seeing pictures, and hearing discussions on the principles of the art, roused a latent disposition to study and design, which his masters saw and encouraged; and at length they admitted him into their academy, where they had the gratification of seeing him become one of their most eminent disciples; though he never arrived at any very great degree of grandeur or purity of invention. His style is a compound of the Caracci and Caravaggio's manners, and is wrought with great boldness. His principal productions are, The Miraculous Draught of Fishes, in the refectory of S. Procolo at Bologna, and St. Dominic burning the forbidden Books, for the church of that saint, in the same city. This last is considered as his very greatest work. He died in the 46th year of his age, in 1622.

SPADA, a cape of the island of Candia; 24 miles north-west of Canea.

SPA'DDLE, *s.* [Diminutive of *spade.*] A little spade.—Others destroy moles with a *spaddle*, waiting in the mornings and evenings for them. *Mortimer.*

SPADE, *s.* [ʃpɑd, Saxon; *spade*, Icelandic and Dutch.] The instrument of digging.—Take the air of the earth new turned up, by digging with the *spade*, or standing by him that diggeth. *Bacon.*—Many learned men affirm, that some isthmes have been eat through by the sea, and others cut by the *spade.* *Brown.*

His next advance was to the soldier's trade,
Where if he did not nimbly ply the *spade*,
His surly officer ne'er fail'd to crack
His knotty cudgel on his tougher back.

Dryden.

Here nature never difference made
Between the sceptre and the *spade.*

Swift.

A deer three years old. *Ainsworth.*—A suit of cards.

SPA'DEBONE, *s.* [named from the form.] The shoulder blade.

By th' shoulder of a ram from off the right side par'd,
Which usually they boil, the *spade-bone* being par'd.

Drayton.

SPADICEOUS, *adj.* [*spadiceus*, Lat.] Of a light red colour.—Of those five Scaliger beheld, though one was *spadiceous*, or of a light red, and two inclining to red, yet was there not any of this complexion among them. *Brown.*

SPADICEOUS, or SPATHAGEOUS PLANTS, those the flowers of which are protruded or produced from a sort of scabbard, or sheath, which is burst open. There is a great number of flowers, which are of this sort, as the narcissus or daffodil and jonquil, the lily daffodil, the Guernsey lily, the asphodel lily, the sea daffodil, the different varieties of crocus, the meadow saffron, the common snow-drop, the leucocium, or greater snow-drop, the onion, the leek, the garlic, and some others.

SPADILLE, *s.* [*spadille*, or *espadille*, Fr.] The ace of spades at the game of quadrille.

SPADIX, in Botany, a flower stalk, whether simple or branched, included within a *Spatha*, or Sheath.

SPADO, among the Romans, differed from an eunuch only in this, that the latter was deprived both of the penis and testes, but the spado of the testes only.

SPAFFORD, a township of the United States, in Onondago county, New York, on the east side of Skeneateles lake.

SPAFFORD'S LAKE, a lake of the United States, in Chesterfield, New Hampshire; 2 miles long.

SPAGGOT, a river of the United States, which rises in New Hampshire, and runs into the Merrimack, in Methuen.

SPAGNOLETTO (II), the cognomen of a Spanish painter, a native of Xativa, in Valencia, whose real name was Josef Ribera. See RIBERA.

SPAGYRIC, *s.* A chymist.

SPAGYRICAL, *adj.* [*spagyricus*, Lat.; *spagirique*, Fr., from the Gr. *σπας*, to extract, and *αγειρω*, to collect: not from *spaher*, Teut., a searcher, as Dr. Johnson would have it to be under the adjective *spagyric*, which he has noticed; where he says, Paracelsus coined the word, viz. *spagyricus*.] Chymical.—Paracelsus — brought to light in these parts of the world the use of hermetical, *spagyric*, or chymical phisic, as they term it. *Hakewill.*

SPAGYRIST, *s.* A chymist.

SPA'HEE, or SPA'HI, *s.* [*espahee*, a horseman, Pers.] One of the Turkish cavalry.—He said, there were certain books in their language pawned to a great *spaher* of that city, [Damascus:] The *spaher* would not part with them under 200 dollars. *Letters to Abp. Usher.*

SPAICHINGEN, a town of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 8 miles south-east of Rothwell, and 51 south-south-west of Stutgard. Population 2000.

S P A I N.

SPAIN is a kingdom of Europe, situated between the 36th and 44th degrees of north latitude, and having its western extremity about 9° west longitude from London. Its greatest length from west to east is about 600 miles. The precise western boundary is formed by the river Bidassoa, near the mouth of which is the isle of Pheasants. The last town in Spain is Irum, near the Bidassoa. The superficial contents of Spain have been estimated at about 148,000 square miles. It lies between the fifth climate on the south, and half-way between the sixth and seventh on the north; the longest days are, therefore, 14½ hours in the southern part, and 15½ in the northern.

The first known division of Spain, into Hispania Citerior and Ulterior, took place under the Romans; but these were soon denominated Lusitania, Boetica, and Tarraconensis. Lusitania comprehended the eastern part, and extended as far

as the Atlantic Ocean: its limits were marked on the north by the Duero, on the south by the Guadiana, and from one to the other by a straight line drawn from Simancas to Puente de l'Arzobispo, and from thence as far as the country of the people called Oretani, in which the town of Almagro at present stands. It included in its extent the towns of Avila, Salamanca, Coria, the territory of Plasencia, Truxill, Merida and Portugal, the kingdom of Leon, and part of Estremadura.

Boetica was almost surrounded on two of its sides by the Guadiana, bounded on the south by the Mediterranean and the ocean, and terminated on the east by a line drawn from Murgis or Muxacra, a village near the ancient promontory of Charidemus, now called the Cape de Gatte, to the territory of Castulo, (which was nearly in the same situation as the modern Cazlona,) and to the country of the Oretania. It

It formed what is called Andalusia, containing the kingdoms of Seville, Jaen, Cordova, and Granada; it also included a part of modern Estremadura, and extended as far as Badajoz, which was within its boundaries.

Hispania Tarraconensis comprehended all the other parts of Spain, and was the same with that called Citerior Spain.

The division of Spain, now stated, underwent some alterations under the last Roman emperors, and was totally changed after the invasion of the northern nations. The Aborigines of Spain were doubtless a Celtic tribe, which probably passed into this peninsula from the adjoining continent of Gaul, though at a very early period they appear to have been mixed with a colony of Mauritanians, or Moors from the coast of Africa. The Celtic inhabitants, or Celtiberians, seem to have possessed the north-east of the peninsula, while the Mauritanians occupied the southern and south-western districts.

Nothing certain is known respecting the early state of Spain till the commencement of the first Punic war between the Romans and the Carthaginians, in the middle of the third century before Christ. Not long before this date, probably at the beginning of the century, the latter people had possessed themselves of Catalonia, when their general Hamilcar Barca is said to have founded the city of Barceno, the modern Barcelona. The Carthaginian colony, however, seems to have been rather a mercantile than a warlike settlement, and the Celtiberians were more the allies than the subjects of their African neighbours. Of the contest carried on between the Carthaginians and the Romans, till the final subjugation of the former, and the consequent occupation of all their territories by the Roman republic, we have given an account under the articles *CARTHAGE* and *ROME*. We shall here briefly consider the state of Spain at the time of its occupation by the Romans, and relate the events to which that occupation gave rise, and which are less connected with the more immediate transactions of the Punic wars.

At the time of the Roman conquest, Spain, though prodigious quantities of silver had been carried out of it by the Carthaginians and Tyrians, was yet a very rich country. In the most ancient times, indeed, its riches are said to have exceeded what is related of the most wealthy country in America: Aristotle assures us, that when the Phenicians first arrived in Spain, they exchanged their naval commodities for such immense quantities of silver, that their ships could neither contain nor sustain its load, though they used it for ballast, and made their anchors and other implements of silver. When the Carthaginians first came to Spain, they found the quantity of silver nothing lessened, since the inhabitants at that time made all their utensils, and even mangers, of that precious metal. In the time of the Romans this amazing plenty was very much diminished; however, their gleanings were by no means despicable, since in the space of nine years they carried off 111,542 pounds of silver, and 4095 of gold, besides an immense quantity of coin and other things of value. The Spaniards were always remarkable for their bravery, and some of Hannibal's best troops were brought from thence; but as the Romans penetrated farther into the country than the Carthaginians had done, they met with nations whose love of liberty was equal to their valour, and whom the whole strength of their empire was scarcely able to subdue. Of these the most formidable were the Numantines, Cantabrians, and Asturians.

In the time of the third Punic war, one Viriathus, a celebrated hunter, and afterwards the captain of a gang of banditti, took upon him the command of some nations who had been in alliance with Carthage, and ventured to oppose the Roman power in that part of Spain called *Lusitania*, now Portugal. The prætor, named *Vetilius*, who commanded in those parts, marched against him with 10,000 men; but was defeated and killed, with the loss of 4000 of his troops. The Romans immediately dispatched another prætor with 10,000 foot and 1300 horse: but Viriathus having first cut off a detachment of 4000 of them, engaged the rest in a pitched battle; and having entirely defeated

them, reduced great part of the country. Another prætor, who was sent with a new army, met with the same fate; so that, after the destruction of Carthage, the Romans thought proper to send a consul named *Quintus Fabius*, who defeated the Lusitanians in several battles, and regained two important places which had long been in the hands of the rebels. After the expiration of Fabius's consulate, Viriathus continued the war with his usual success, till the senate thought proper to send against him the consul *Q. Cæcilius Metellus*, an officer of great valour and experience. With him Viriathus did not choose to venture a pitched battle, but contented himself with acting on the defensive; in consequence of which the Romans recovered a great many cities, and the whole of Tarraconian Spain was obliged to submit to their yoke. The other consul, named *Servilianus*, did not meet with the same success; his army was defeated in the field, and his camp was nearly taken by Viriathus. Notwithstanding the good fortune of Metellus, however, he could not withstand the intrigues of his countrymen against him, and he was not allowed to finish the war he had begun with so much success. In resentment for this he took all imaginable pains to weaken the army under his command: he disbanded the flower of his troops, exhausted the magazines, let the elephants die, broke in pieces the arrows which had been provided for the Cretan archers, and threw them into a river. Yet, after all, the army which he gave up to his successor *Q. Pompeius*, consisting of 30,000 foot and 2000 horse, was sufficient to have crushed Viriathus, if the general had known how to use it. But, instead of opposing Viriathus with success, the imprudent consul procured much more formidable enemies. The Termantians and Numantines, who had hitherto kept themselves independent, offered very advantageous terms of peace and alliance with Rome; but Pompeius insisted on their delivering up their arms. Upon this war was immediately commenced. The consul with great confidence invested Numantia; but being repulsed with considerable loss, he sat down before Termantia, where he was attended with still worse success. The very first day, the Termantines killed 700 of his legionaries; took a great convoy which was coming to the Roman camp; and having defeated a considerable body of their horse, pushed them from post to post till they came to the edge of a precipice, where they all tumbled down, and were dashed to pieces. In the mean time Servilius who had been continued in his command with the title of *proconsul*, managed matters so ill, that Viriathus surrounded him on all sides, and obliged him to sue for peace. The terms offered to the Romans were very moderate; being only that Viriathus should keep the country he at that time possessed, and the Romans remain masters of all the rest. This peace the proconsul was very glad to sign, and afterwards procured its ratification by the senate and people of Rome.

The next year *Q. Pompeius* was continued in his command against the Numantines in Farther Spain, while *Q. Servilius Cæpio*, the new consul, had for his province Hither Spain, where Viriathus had established his new state. Pompeius undertook to reduce Numantia by turning aside the stream of the *Durius*, now the Douro, by which it was supplied with water; but, in attempting this, such numbers of his men were cut off, that, finding himself unable to contend with the enemy, he was glad to make peace with them on much worse terms than they had offered of their own accord. The peace, however, was ratified at Rome; but in the mean time Cæpio, desirous of showing his prowess against the renowned Viriathus, prevailed on the Romans to declare war against him without any provocation. As Cæpio commanded an army greatly superior to the Lusitanians, Viriathus thought proper to sue for peace; but finding that Cæpio would be satisfied with nothing less than a surrender at discretion, he resolved to stand his ground. In the mean time, the latter having bribed some of the intimate companions of Viriathus to murder him in his sleep, he by that infamous method put an end to a war which had lasted 14 years, very little to the honour of the republic.

After

After the death of Viriathus, the Romans ordered their new consul Popilius to break the treaty with the Numantines. His infamous conduct met with the reward it deserved; the Numantines sallying out, put the whole Roman army to flight with such slaughter, that they were in no condition to act during the whole campaign. Mancinus, who succeeded Popilius, met with still worse success; his great army, consisting of 30,000 men, was utterly defeated by 4000 Numantines, and 20,000 of them killed in the pursuit. The remaining 10,000, with their general, were pent up by the Numantines in such a manner that they could neither advance nor retreat, and would certainly have been all put to the sword or made prisoners, had not the Numantines, with a generosity which their enemies never possessed, offered to let them depart upon condition that a treaty should be concluded with them upon very moderate terms. This the consul very willingly promised, but found himself unable to perform. On the contrary, the people, not satisfied with declaring his treaty null and void, ordered him to be delivered up to the Numantines. The latter refused to accept him, unless he had along with him the 10,000 men whom they had relieved as before related. At last, after the consul had remained a whole day before the city, his successor Furius, thinking this a sufficient recompense to the Numantines for breaking the treaty, ordered him to be received again into the camp. However, Furius did not chuse to engage with such a desperate and resolute enemy as the Numantines had showed themselves; and the war with them was discontinued till the year 133 B. C. when Scipio Æmilianus, the destroyer of Carthage, was sent against them. Against this renowned commander the Numantines with all their valour were not able to contend. Scipio, having with the utmost care introduced strict discipline among his troops, and reformed the abuses which his predecessors had suffered in their armies, by degrees brought the Romans to face their enemies, which at his arrival they had absolutely refused to do. Having then ravaged all the country round the town, it was soon blocked up on all sides, and the inhabitants began to feel the want of provisions. At last they resolved to make one desperate attempt for their liberty, and either to break through their enemies, or perish in the attempt. With this view they marched out in good order by two gates, and fell upon the works of the Romans with the utmost fury. The Romans, unable to stand this desperate shock, were on the point of yielding, when Scipio, hastening to the places attacked, with no fewer than 20,000 men, the unhappy Numantines were at last driven into the city, where they sustained for a little longer the miseries of famine. Finding at last, however, that it was altogether impossible to hold out, it was resolved by the majority to submit to the pleasure of the Roman commander. But this resolution was not universally approved. Many shut themselves up in their houses, and died of hunger, while even those who had agreed to surrender repented their offer, and setting fire to their houses, perished in the flames with their wives and children, so that not a single Numantine was left alive to grace the triumph of the conqueror of Carthage.

After the destruction of Numantia the whole of Spain submitted to the Roman yoke; and nothing remarkable happened till the times of the Cimbri, when a prætorian army was cut off in Spain by the Lusitanians. From this time nothing remarkable occurs in the history of Spain till the civil war between Marius and Sylla. The latter having crushed the Marian faction, as related under the article ROME, proscribed all those that had sided against him whom he could not immediately destroy. Among these was Sertorius, a man of consummate valour and experience in war. He had been appointed prætor of Spain by Marius; and upon the overthrow of Marius, retired to that province. Sylla no sooner heard of his arrival in that country, than he sent thither one Caius Annius with a powerful army to drive him out. As Sertorius had but few troops along with him, he dispatched one Julius Salinator with a body of 6000 men to guard the passes of the Pyrenees, and to prevent Annius from entering the country. But Salinator having been

treacherously murdered by assassins hired by Annius for that purpose, he no longer met with any obstacle; and Sertorius was obliged to embark for the coast of Africa with 3000 men, being all he had now remaining. With these he landed in Mauritania; but as his men were straggling carelessly about, great numbers of them were cut off by the Barbarians. This new misfortune obliged Sertorius to re-embark for Spain; but finding the whole coast lined with the troops of Annius, he put to sea again, not knowing what course to steer. In this new voyage he met with a small fleet of Cilician pirates; and having prevailed with them to join him, he made a descent on the coast of Iviça, overpowered the garrison left there by Annius, and gained a considerable booty. On the news of this victory Annius set sail for Iviça, with a considerable squadron, having 5000 land forces on board. Sertorius prepared to give them battle. But a violent storm arising, most of the ships were driven on shore and dashed to pieces, Sertorius himself with great difficulty escaping with the small remains of his fleet. He then passed the straits of Gades, now Gibraltar, and landed near the mouth of the river Bætis. Here he met with some seamen newly arrived from the Atlantic or Fortunate islands; and was so charmed with the account which they gave him of those happy regions, that he resolved to retire thither to spend the rest of his life in quiet and happiness. But having communicated this design to the Cilician pirates, they immediately abandoned him, and set sail for Africa, with an intention to assist one of the barbarous kings against his subjects who had rebelled. Upon this Sertorius sailed thither also, but took the opposite side; and having defeated the king named *Ascalis*, obliged him to shut himself up in the city of Tingis, now Tangier, which he closely besieged. But in the mean time Pacianus, who had been sent by Sylla to assist the king, advanced with a considerable army against Sertorius. Upon this the latter, leaving part of his forces before the city, marched with the rest to meet Pacianus, whose army, though greatly superior to his own in number, he entirely defeated; killed the general, and took all his forces prisoners.—The fame of this victory soon reached Spain; and the Lusitanians, being threatened with a new war from Annius, invited Sertorius to head their armies. With this request he very readily complied, and soon became very formidable to the Romans. Titus Didius, governor of that part of Spain called *Bætica*, first entered the lists with him; but he being defeated, Sylla next dispatched Metellus, reckoned one of the best commanders in Rome, to stop the progress of this new enemy. But Metellus, notwithstanding all his experience, knew not how to act against Sertorius, who was continually changing his station, putting his army into new forms, and contriving new stratagems. On his first arrival, he sent for L. Domitius, then prætor of Hither Spain, to his assistance; but Sertorius being informed of his march, detached Hirtuleius, or Herculeius, his quæstor, against him, who gave him a total overthrow. Metellus then dispatched Lucius Lollius prætor of Narbonne Gaul against Hirtuleius; but he met with no better success, being utterly defeated, and his lieutenant-general killed.

The fame of these victories brought to the camp of Sertorius such a number of illustrious Roman citizens of the Marian faction, that he formed a design of erecting Lusitania into a republic in opposition to that of Rome. Sylla was continually sending fresh supplies to Metellus; but Sertorius, with a handful of men, so harassed the Roman army, that Metellus himself began to be quite discouraged. At last, Sertorius hearing that Metellus had spoken disrespectfully of his courage, challenged his antagonist to end the war by single combat; but Metellus very prudently declined the combat, as being advanced in years; yet this refusal brought upon him the contempt of the unthinking multitude, upon which Metellus resolved to retrieve his reputation by some signal exploit, and therefore laid siege to Iacobriga, a considerable city in those parts. This he hoped to reduce in two days, as there was but one well in the place; but Sertorius having previously removed all those who could be of no service during the siege, and conveyed 6000 skins full of water into

the city, Metellus continued a long time before it without making any impression. At last, his provisions being almost spent, he sent out Aquinus at the head of 6000 men to procure a new supply; but Sertorius falling unexpectedly upon them, cut in pieces or took the whole detachment; the commander himself being the only man who escaped to carry the news of the disaster; upon which Metellus was obliged to raise the siege with disgrace.

Sertorius, having gained some intervals of ease in consequence of the many advantages he had obtained over the Romans, began to civilize his new subjects. Their savage and furious manner of fighting he changed for the regular order and discipline of a well-formed army; he bestowed liberally upon them gold and silver to adorn their arms, and by conversing familiarly with them, prevailed with them to lay aside their own dress for the Roman *toga*. He sent for all the children of the principal people, and placed them in the great city of Osca, now Huesca, in the kingdom of Arragon, where he appointed them masters to instruct them in the Roman and Greek learning, that they might, as he pretended, be capable of sharing with him the government of the republic. Thus he made them really hostages for the good behaviour of their parents; however, the latter were greatly pleased with the care he took of their children, and all Lusitania were in the highest degree attached to their new sovereign. This attachment he took care to heighten by the power of superstition; for having procured a young hind of a milk-white colour, he made it so tame that it followed him wherever he went; and Sertorius gave out to the ignorant multitude, that this hind was inspired by Diana, and revealed to him the designs of his enemies, of which he always took care to be well informed by the great numbers of spies whom he employed.

While Sertorius was thus employed in establishing his authority, the republic of Rome, alarmed at his success, resolved to crush him at all events. Sylla was now dead, and all the eminent generals in Rome solicited this honourable though dangerous employment. After much debate, a decree was passed in favour of Pompey the Great, but without recalling Metellus. In the mean time, the troops of one Perpenna, or Perperna, had abandoned him, and taken the oath of allegiance to Sertorius. This was a most signal advantage to Sertorius; for Perpenna commanded an army of 33,000 men, and had come into Spain with a design to settle there as Sertorius had done; but as he was descended from one of the first families of Rome, he thought it below his dignity to serve under any general, however eminent he might be. However, the troops of Perpenna were of a different opinion; and therefore declaring that they would serve none but a general who could defend himself, they, to a man, joined Sertorius; upon which, Perpenna consented to serve also as a subaltern.

On the arrival of Pompey in Spain, several of the cities which had hitherto continued faithful to Sertorius began to waver; upon which the latter resolved, by some signal exploit, to convince them that Pompey could no more screen them from his resentment than Metellus. With this view he laid siege to Lauron, now Lirias, a place of considerable strength. Pompey, not doubting but he should be able to raise the siege, marched quite up to the enemy's lines, and found means to inform the garrison that those who besieged them were themselves besieged, and would soon be obliged to retire with loss and disgrace. On hearing this message, "I will teach Sylla's disciple (said Sertorius), that it is the duty of a general to look behind as well as before him." Having thus spoken, he sent orders to a detachment of 6000 men, who lay concealed among the mountains, to come down and fall upon his rear if he should offer to force the lines. Pompey, surprised at their sudden appearance, durst not stir out of his camp; and in the mean time the besieged, despairing of relief, surrendered at discretion; upon which Sertorius granted them their lives and liberty, but reduced their city to ashes.

While Sertorius was thus successfully contending with

Pompey, his questor Hiirtuleius was entirely defeated by Metellus, with the loss of 40,000 men; upon which Sertorius advanced with the utmost expedition to the banks of the Suero in Tarraconian Spain, with a design to attack Pompey before he could be joined by Metellus. Pompey, on his part, did not decline the combat; but fearing that Metellus might share the glory of the victory, advanced with the greatest expedition. Sertorius put off the battle till towards the evening; Pompey, though he knew that the night would prove disadvantageous to him, whether vanquished or victorious, because his troops were unacquainted with the country, resolved to venture an engagement, especially as he feared that Metellus might arrive in the mean time, and rob him of part of the glory of conquering so great a commander. Pompey, who commanded his own right wing, soon obliged Perperna, who commanded Sertorius's left, to give way. Hereupon Sertorius himself, taking upon him the command of that wing, brought back the fugitives to the charge, and obliged Pompey to fly in his turn. In his flight he was overtaken by a gigantic African, who had already lifted up his hand to discharge a blow at him with his broad sword, but Pompey prevented him by cutting off his right hand at one blow. As he still continued his flight, he was wounded and thrown from his horse; so that he certainly would have been taken prisoner, had not the Africans who pursued him quarrelled about the rich furniture of his horse. This gave an opportunity to the general to make his escape; so that at length he reached his camp with much difficulty. But in the mean time Afranius, who commanded the left wing of the Roman army, had entirely defeated the wing which Sertorius had left, and even pursued them so close that he entered the camp along with them. Sertorius, returning suddenly, found the Romans busy in plundering the tents; when taking advantage of their situation, he drove them out with great slaughter, and retook their camp. Next day he offered battle a second time to Pompey; but Metellus then coming up with all his forces, he thought proper to decline an engagement with both commanders. In a few days, however, Pompey and Metellus agreed to attack the camp of Sertorius. The event was similar to that of the former battle; Metellus defeated Perperna, and Sertorius routed Pompey. Being then informed of Perperna's misfortune, he hastened to his relief; rallied the fugitives, and repulsed Metellus in his turn, wounded him with his lance, and would certainly have killed him, had not the Romans, ashamed to leave their general in distress, hastened to his assistance, and renewed the fight with great fury. At last Sertorius was obliged to quit the field, and retire to the mountains. Pompey and Metellus hastened to besiege him; but while they were forming their camp, Sertorius broke through their lines, and escaped in Lusitania. Here he soon raised such a powerful army, that the Roman generals, with their united forces, did not think proper to venture an engagement with him. They could not, however, resist the perpetual attacks of Sertorius, who now drove them from place to place, till he obliged them to separate; the one went into Gaul, and the other to the foot of the Pyrenees.

Thus did this celebrated commander triumph over all the power of the Romans; and there is little doubt but he would have continued to make head against all the other generals whom the republic could have sent, had he not been assassinated at an entertainment by the infamous treachery of Perperna, in 73 B. C. after he had made head against the Roman forces for almost 10 years. Pompey was no sooner informed of his death, than, without waiting for any new succours, he marched against the traitor, whom he easily defeated and took prisoner; and having caused him to be executed, thus put an end, with very little glory, to a most dangerous war.

Many of the Spanish nations, however, still continued to bear the Roman yoke with great impatience; and as the civil wars which took place first between Julius Cæsar and Pompey, and afterwards between Octavianus and Antony, diverted the attention of the republic from Spain, by the time

time that Augustus had become sole master of the Roman empire, they were again in a condition to assert their liberty. The Cantabrians and Asturians were the most powerful and valiant nations at that time in Spain; but they were almost exterminated by Agrippa.

When incorporated with the Roman empire, Spain partook of its tranquillity, and received in exchange for her liberty, at least wise laws and a mild government. If she could not prevent herself from falling under the dominion of the masters of the world, she was at least the most powerful, the richest, and the happiest province of their empire. Columella has left us an interesting account of her agriculture under the first emperors. The tradition of her ancient population is probably exaggerated, but the ruins of several towns prove it to have been considerable. It was increased by a great many Roman families after the conquest; several legions were established in Spain; 25 colonies were distributed in the most fertile parts of the country, and intermarried with the inhabitants. After a while the Spaniards, seeing in their masters only countrymen, were the first to solicit the rights of Roman citizens, by which they were completely consolidated. Some municipal towns went so far as to desire permission to take the title of colonies, though in the change they lost their independence, nearly in the same manner as certain proprietors of lands under the feudal system converted their domains into fiefs, in order to enjoy the honours attached to them. The government was, in general, milder in Spain than in the other Roman provinces. The administration was carried on in the towns by magistrates named by themselves, and the different provinces were under the superintendance of prætors, proconsuls, and legates, or deputies, according to the different eras of the Roman empire; those in their respective departments took care of all the works of public utility, the aqueducts, baths, circuses, and highways, whose magnificent ruins are still existing; but they were principally employed in collecting the revenues of the state, which arose from dues, fines, or alienations of property, and the produce of the mines. Spain at that time drew from her own mines the same riches she afterwards derived from the new world, and they were distributed in nearly the same manner. One part belonged to the state, and the other to the inhabitants of the country, who paid a certain duty on the metals which they procured from the mines. Their returns went on increasing, and depended entirely on the number of hands which could be devoted to work in the mines. An employment, so laborious, however, which required a numerous population, tended to diminish that population by the excessive fatigues which it occasioned. Agriculture also suffered by the accumulation of estates in the hands of a few wealthy landholders. By the little attention paid to it by the proprietors, and by the defects inseparable from the system of cultivation by means of slaves, commerce and industry languished; and Spain, after having shared in the splendour of the Roman empire, was beginning to participate in its decline, when a new calamity, by completing her ruin, prepared her regeneration.

This calamity was the irruption of the northern hordes, which soon involved Spain in the general attack. This province was invaded first by the Franks, who in the third century had entered Gaul with a formidable force.

The Rhine, though dignified by the title of Safeguard of the Provinces, was an imperfect barrier against the daring spirit of enterprize with which the Franks were actuated. Their rapid devastations stretched from the river to the foot of the Pyrenees; nor were they stopped by those mountains. Spain, which had never dreaded, was unable to resist the inroads of the Germans. During 12 years, the greatest part of the reign of Gallienus, that opulent country was the theatre of unequal and destructive hostilities. Tarragona, the flourishing capital of a peaceful province, was sacked and almost destroyed; and so late as the days of Orosius, who wrote in the fifth century, wretched cottages, scattered amidst the ruins of magnificent cities, still recorded the rage of the barbarians. When the exhausted country no longer

supplied a variety of plunder, the Franks seized on some vessels, and retreated to Mauritania.

The situation of Spain, separated, on all sides, from the enemies of Rome, by the sea, by the mountains, and by intermediate provinces, had secured the long tranquillity of that remote and sequestered country; and we may observe, as a sure symptom of domestic happiness, that in a period of 400 years, Spain furnished very few materials to the history of the Roman empire. The footsteps of the Barbarians, who, in the reign of Gallienus, had penetrated beyond the Pyrenees, were soon obliterated by the return of peace; and in the 4th century of the Christian era, the cities of Emerita or Merida, of Corduba, Seville, Bracara, and Tarragona, were numbered with the most illustrious of the Roman world.

The various plenty of the animal, the vegetable, and the mineral kingdoms, was improved and manufactured by the skill of an industrious people; and the peculiar advantages of naval stores contributed to support an extensive and profitable trade. The arts and sciences flourished under the protection of the emperors; and if the character of the Spaniards was enfeebled by peace and servitude, the hostile approach of the Germans seemed to rekindle some sparks of military ardour. As long as the defence of the mountains was intrusted to the hardy and faithful militia of the country, they successfully repelled the frequent attempts of the Barbarians. But no sooner had the national troops been compelled to resign their post to the Honorian bands, in the service of Constantine, than the gates of Spain were treacherously betrayed to the public enemy, about ten months before the sack of Rome by the Goths. The consciousness of guilt, and the thirst of rapine, prompted the mercenary guards of the Pyrenees to desert their station; to invite the arms of the Suevi, the Vandals, and the Alani; and to swell the torrent which was poured with irresistible violence from the frontiers of Gaul to the sea of Africa. The misfortunes of Spain may be described in the language of its most eloquent historian, who has concisely expressed the passionate and perhaps exaggerated declamations of contemporary writers. "The irruption of these nations was followed by the most dreadful calamities; as the Barbarians exercised their indiscriminate cruelty on the fortunes of the Romans and the Spaniards; and ravaged with equal fury the cities and the open country. The progress of famine reduced the miserable inhabitants to feed on the flesh of their fellow creatures; and even the wild beasts, who multiplied, without controul, in the desert, were exasperated, by the taste of blood and the impatience of hunger, boldly to attack and devour their human prey. Pestilence soon appeared, the inseparable companion of famine; a large proportion of the people was swept away; and the groans of the dying excited only the envy of their surviving friends. At length the Barbarians, satiated with carnage and rapine, and afflicted by the contagious evil which they themselves had introduced, fixed their permanent seats in the depopulated country. The ancient Gallicia, whose limits included the kingdom of Old Castile, was divided between the Suevi and the Vandals, the Alani were scattered over the provinces of Carthagenia and Lusitania, and from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic Ocean; and the fruitful territory of Bœtica was allotted to the Silingi, another branch of the Vandalic nation. After regulating this partition, the conquerors contracted with their new subjects some reciprocal engagements of protection and obedience; the lands were again cultivated; and the towns and villages were again occupied by a captive people. The greatest part of the Spaniards was even disposed to prefer this new condition of poverty and barbarism, to the severe oppressions of the Roman government; yet there were many who still asserted their native freedom, and who refused, more especially in the mountains of Gallicia, to submit to the barbarian yoke."

The important present of the heads of Jovinus and Sebastian, had approved the friendship of Adolphus, and restored Gaul to the obedience of his brother Honorius. Peace was incompatible with the situation and temper of the king of the Goths,

Goths. He readily accepted the proposal of turning his victorious arms against the barbarians of Spain; the troops of Constantius intercepted his communication with the seaports of Gaul, and gently pressed his march towards the Pyrenees. He passed the mountains, and surprised, in the name of the emperor, the city of Barcelona. The fondness of Adolphus for his Roman bride, Placidia, was not abated by time or possession; and the birth of a son, surnamed, from his illustrious grandsire, Theodosius, appeared to fix him for ever in the interest of the republic. The loss of that infant, whose remains were deposited in a silver coffin in one of the churches near Barcelona, afflicted his parents; but the grief of the Gothic king was suspended by the labours of the field, and the course of his victories was soon interrupted by domestic treason. He had imprudently received into his service one of the followers of Sarus, a barbarian of a daring spirit, but of a diminutive stature; whose secret desire of revenging the death of his beloved patron, was continually irritated by the sarcasms of his insolent master. Adolphus was assassinated in the palace of Barcelona; the laws of the succession were violated by a tumultuous faction; and a stranger to the royal race, Singeric, the brother of Sarus himself, was seated on the Gothic throne. The first act of his reign was the inhuman murder of the six children of Adolphus, the issue of a former marriage, whom he tore, without pity, from the feeble arms of a venerable bishop. The unfortunate Placidia, instead of the respectful compassion, which she might have excited in the most savage breasts, was treated with cruel and wanton insult. The daughter of the emperor Theodosius, confounded among a crowd of vulgar captives, was compelled to march on foot above 12 miles, before the horse of a barbarian, the assassin of a husband whom Placidia loved and lamented.

But Placidia soon obtained the pleasure of revenge; and the view of her ignominious sufferings roused an indignant people against the tyrant, who was assassinated on the seventh day of his usurpation. After the death of Singeric, the free choice of the nation bestowed the Gothic sceptre on Wallia, whose warlike and ambitious temper appeared, in the beginning of his reign, extremely hostile to the republic. He marched, in arms, from Barcelona to the shores of the Atlantic Ocean, which the ancients revered and dreaded as the boundary of the world. But when he reached the southern promontory of Spain, and, from the rock now covered by the fortress of Gibraltar, contemplated the neighbouring and fertile coasts of Africa, Wallia resumed the designs of conquest, which had been interrupted by the death of Alaric. The winds and waves disappointed the enterprises of the Goths; and the minds of a superstitious people were deeply affected by the repeated disasters of storms and shipwrecks. In this disposition, the successor of Adolphus no longer refused to listen to a Roman ambassador, whose proposals were enforced by the real, or supposed, approach of a numerous army, under the conduct of the brave Constantius. A solemn treaty was stipulated and observed: Placidia was honourably restored to her brother; 600,000 measures of wheat were delivered to the hungry Goths; and Wallia engaged to draw his sword in the service of the empire. A bloody war was instantly excited among the barbarians of Spain; and the contending princes are said to have addressed their letters, their ambassadors, and their hostages, to the throne of the western emperor, exhorting him to remain a tranquil spectator of their contest; the events of which must be favourable to the Romans, by the mutual slaughter of their common enemies. The Spanish war was obstinately supported, during three campaigns, with desperate valour, and various success; and the martial achievements of Wallia diffused through the empire the superior renown of the Gothic hero. He exterminated the Silingi, who had irretrievably ruined the elegant plenty of the province of Bœtica. He slew in battle the king of the Alani; and the remains of those Scythian wanderers, who escaped from the field, instead of choosing a new leader, humbly sought a refuge under the standards of the Vandals, with whom they were ever afterwards confounded. The Vandals themselves, and the Suevi, yielded

to the efforts of the invincible Goths. The promiscuous multitude of barbarians, whose retreat had been intercepted, were driven into the mountains of Galicia, where they still continued, in a narrow compass, and on a barren soil, to exercise their domestic and implacable hostilities. In the pride of victory, Wallia was faithful to his engagements; he restored his Spanish conquests to the obedience of Honorius; and the tyranny of the imperial officers soon reduced an oppressed people to regret the time of their barbarian servitude. While the event of the war was still doubtful, the first advantages obtained by the arms of Wallia, had encouraged the court of Ravenna to decree the honours of a triumph to their feeble sovereign. He entered Rome like the ancient conquerors of nations; and if the monuments of servile corruption had not long since met with the fate which they deserved, we should probably find that a crowd of poets, and orators, of magistrates and bishops, applauded the fortune, the wisdom, and the invincible courage, of the emperor Honorius.

After the retreat of the Goths, the authority of Honorius had obtained a precarious establishment in Spain; except only in the province of Galicia, where the Suevi and the Vandals had fortified their camps. The Vandals prevailed, and their adversaries were besieged in the Nervescan hills, between Leon and Oviedo, till the approach of Count Asterius provoked the victorious barbarians to remove the scene of the war to the plains of Bœtica. The rapid progress of the Vandals soon required a more effective opposition; and the master-general Costinus marched against them with a numerous army of Romans and Goths. Vanquished in battle by an inferior enemy, Costinus fled with dishonour to Tarragona; and this memorable defeat was most probably the effect of his rash presumption. Seville and Carthage became the prey of the ferocious conquerors; and the vessels which they found in the harbour of Carthage, might easily transport them to the isles of Majorca and Minorca, where the Spanish fugitives had vainly concealed their families and their fortunes. The experience of navigation, and perhaps the prospect of Africa, encouraged the vandals to accept the invitation which they received from Count Boniface; and the death of Gonderic served only to forward and animate the bold enterprise. In the room of this prince, they acquired his bastard brother, the terrible Genseric; a name which has deserved an equal rank with the names of Alaric and Attila. Almost in the moment of his departure he was informed, that Hermanric, king of the Suevi, had presumed to ravage the Spanish territories, which he was resolved to abandon. Impatient of the insult, Genseric pursued the hasty retreat of the Suevi as far as Merida; precipitated the king and his army into the river Anas, and calmly returned to the sea shore; to embark his victorious troops. The vessels which transported the Vandals over the modern straits of Gibraltar, were furnished by the Spaniards, and by the African general, who had implored their formidable assistance.

When Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, encouraged Avitus to assume the purple, he offered his person and his forces, as a faithful soldier of the republic. The exploits of Theodoric soon convinced the world, that he had not degenerated from the warlike virtues of his ancestors. After the establishment of the Goths in Aquitain, and the passage of the Vandals into Africa, the Suevi, who had fixed their kingdom into Galicia, aspired to the conquest of Spain, and threatened to extinguish the feeble remains of the Roman dominion. The provinces of Carthage and Tarragona, afflicted by an hostile invasion, represented their injuries and their apprehensions. Count Fronto was dispatched, in the name of the emperor Avitus, with advantageous offers of peace; but Theodoric interposed his weighty mediation, to declare that, unless his brother-in-law, the king of the Suevi, immediately retired, he should be obliged to arm in the cause of justice and of Rome. "Tell him," replied the haughty Recniarius, "that I despise his friendship and his arms; but that I shall soon try, whether he will dare to expect my arrival under the walls of Thoulouse." Such a challenge urged Theodoric to prevent the bold designs of his enemy. He passed the Pyrenees at

at the head of the Visigoths; the Franks and Burgundians served under his standard; and he privately stipulated, for himself and his successors, the absolute possession of his Spanish conquests. The two nations encountered each other on the banks of the river Urbicus, about 12 miles from Astorga; and the decisive victory of the Goths appeared for a while to have extirpated the name and kingdom of the Suevi. From the field of battle Theodoric advanced to Braga, their metropolis. His entrance was not polluted with blood, and the Goths respected the chastity of their female captives, more especially of the consecrated virgins; but the greatest part of the clergy and people were made slaves, and even the churches and altars were confounded in the universal pillage. The unfortunate king of the Suevi, was delivered to his implacable rival; and Rechiarius, who neither desired nor expected mercy, received, with manly constancy, the death which he would probably have inflicted. After this bloody sacrifice to policy or resentment, Theodoric carried his victorious arms as far as Merida, the principal town of Lusitania, without meeting any resistance; but he was stopped in the full career of success, and recalled from Spain before he could provide for the security of his conquests. In his retreat towards the Pyrenees, by the sack of Pallentia and Astorga, he shewed himself a faithless ally, as well as a cruel enemy.

Recared was the first Catholic king of Spain. He had imbibed the faith of his unfortunate brother, and he supported it with more prudence and success. Instead of revolting against his father, Recared patiently expected the hour of his death. Instead of condemning his memory, he piously supposed, that the dying monarch had abjured the errors of Arianism; and recommended to his son the conversion of the Gothic nation. To accomplish that salutary end, Recared convened an assembly of the Arian clergy and nobles, declared himself a Catholic, and exhorted them to imitate the example of their prince. The laborious interpretation of doubtful texts, or the the curious pursuit of metaphysical arguments, would have excited endless controversy; and the monarch discreetly proposed to his illiterate audience, two substantial and visible arguments, the testimony of Earth and of Heaven. The Earth had submitted to the Nicene synod: the Romans, the Barbarians, and the inhabitants of Spain, unanimously professed the same orthodox creed; and the Visigoths resisted, almost alone, the consent of the Christian world. A superstitious age was prepared to reverence, as the testimony of Heaven, the preternatural cures which were performed by the skill or virtue of the Catholic clergy; the baptismal fountains of Osset in Bœtica, which were spontaneously replenished each year, on the vigil of Easter; and the miraculous shrine of St. Martin of Tours, which had already converted the Suevic prince and people of Galicia. The Catholic king encountered some difficulties on this important change of the national religion. A conspiracy, secretly fomented by the queen-dowager, was formed against his life; and two counts excited a dangerous revolt in the Narbonnese Gaul. But Recared disarmed the conspirators, defeated the rebels, and executed severe justice. Eight bishops, abjured their errors; and all the books of Arian theology were reduced to ashes, with the house in which they had been purposely collected. The whole body of the Visigoths and Suevi were allured or driven into the pale of the Catholic communion; the faith, at least, of the rising generation, was fervent and sincere; and the devout liberality of the Barbarians enriched the churches and monasteries of Spain. Seventy bishops assembled in the council of Toledo, received the submission of their conquerors; and the zeal of the Spaniards improved the Nicene creed, by declaring the procession of the Holy Ghost from the Son, as well as from the Father—a weighty point of doctrine, which produced, long afterwards, the schism of the Greek and Latin churches. The royal proselyte immediately saluted and consulted Pope Gregory, surnamed the Great, a learned and holy prelate, whose reign was distinguished by the conversion of heretics and infidels. The ambassadors of Recared respectfully offered on the

threshold of the Vatican his rich presents of gold and gems: they accepted, as a lucrative exchange, the hairs of St. John the Baptist; a cross, which inclosed a small piece of the true wood; and a key, that contained some particles of iron which had been scraped from the chains of St. Peter.

After their conversion from idolatry or heresy, the Franks and the Visigoths were disposed to embrace, with equal submission, the inherent evils, and the accidental benefits of superstition. But the prelates of France, long before the extinction of the Merovingian race, had degenerated into fighting and hunting barbarians. They disdained the use of synods; forgot the laws of temperance and chastity, and preferred the indulgence of private ambition and luxury, to the greatest interest of the sacerdotal profession. The bishops of Spain respected themselves, and were respected by the public: their indissoluble union disguised their vices, and confirmed their authority; and the regular discipline of the church introduced peace, order, and stability into the government of the state. From the reign of Recared, the first Catholic king, to that of Witiza, the immediate predecessor of the unfortunate Roderic, sixteen national councils were successively convened. The six metropolitans, Toledo, Seville, Merida, Braga, Tarragona and Narbonne, presided according to their respective seniority; the assembly was composed of their suffragan bishops, who appeared in person, or by their proxies; and a place was assigned to the most holy, or opulent, of the Spanish abbots. During the first three days of the convocation, as long as they agitated the ecclesiastical questions of doctrine and discipline, the profane laity was excluded from their debates; which were conducted, however, with decent solemnity. But, on the morning of the fourth day, the doors were thrown open for the entrance of the great officers of the palace, the dukes and counts of the provinces, the judges of the cities, and the Gothic nobles; and the decrees of Heaven were ratified by the consent of the people. The same rules were observed in the provincial assemblies, the annual synods, which were empowered to hear complaints, and to redress grievances; and a legal government was supported by the prevailing influence of the Spanish clergy. The bishops who, in each revolution, were prepared to flatter the victorious, and to insult the prostrate, laboured, with diligence and success, to kindle the flames of persecution, and to exalt the mitre above the crown. Yet the national councils of Toledo, in which the free spirit of the Barbarians was tempered, and guided by episcopal policy, have established some prudent laws for the benefit of the king and people. The vacancy of the throne was supplied by the choice of the bishops and palatines; and after the failure of the line of Alaric, the regal dignity was still limited to the pure and noble blood of the Goths. The clergy, who anointed their lawful prince, always recommended, and sometimes practised, the duty of allegiance; and the spiritual censures were denounced on the heads of the impious subjects, who should resist his authority, conspire against his life, or violate, by an indecent union, the chastity even of his widow. But the monarch himself, when he ascended the throne, was bound by a reciprocal oath to God and his people, that he would faithfully execute his important trust. The real or imaginary faults of his administration were subject to the controul of a powerful aristocracy; and the bishops and palatines were guarded by a fundamental privilege that they should not be degraded, imprisoned, tortured, nor punished with death, exile, or confiscation, unless by the free and public judgment of their peers.

One of these legislative councils of Toledo, examined and ratified the code of laws which had been compiled by a succession of Gothic kings, from the fierce Eurice, to the devout Egica. As long as the Visigoths themselves were satisfied with the rude customs of their ancestors, they indulged their subjects of Aquitaine and Spain in the enjoyment of the Roman law. Their gradual improvement in arts, in policy, and at length in religion, encouraged them to imitate, and to supersede, these foreign institutions, and to compose a code of civil and criminal jurisprudence, for

the use of a great and united people. The same obligations, and the same privileges, were communicated to the nations of the Spanish monarchy; and the conquerors, insensibly renouncing the Teutonic idiom, submitted to the restraints of freedom. The merit of this impartial policy was enhanced by the situation of Spain, under the reign of the Visigoths. The provincials were long separated from their Arian masters, by the irreconcilable difference of religion. After the conversion of Recared had removed the prejudices of the Catholics, the coasts, both of the ocean and Mediterranean, were still possessed by the Eastern emperors, who secretly excited a discontented people to reject the yoke of the barbarians, and to assert the name and dignity of Roman citizens.

The Gothic princes continued to reign over a considerable part of Spain till the beginning of the 8th century, when their empire was overthrown by the Saracens. During this period, they had entirely expelled the eastern emperors from what they possessed in Spain, and even made considerable conquests in Barbary; but towards the end of the 7th century the Saracens overran all that part of the world; and having soon possessed themselves of the Gothic dominions in Barbary, they made a descent upon Spain about the year 711 or 712. The king of the Goths at that time was called Roderic, who by his bad conduct had occasioned great disaffection among his subjects. He therefore determined to put all to the issue of a battle. The two armies met in a plain near Xeres in Andalusia. The Goths were defeated with excessive slaughter, and their king himself was supposed to have perished in the battle.

By this battle the Moors in a short time rendered themselves masters of almost all Spain. The poor remains of the Goths were obliged to retire into the mountainous parts of Asturias, Burgos, and Biscay: the inhabitants of Arragon, Catalonia, and Navarre, chose for the most part to withdraw into France. In 718, however, the power of the Goths began again to revive under Don Pelagius or Pelayo, a prince of the royal blood, who headed those that had retired to the mountains after the fatal battle of Xeres. The place where he first laid the foundation of his government was in the Asturias, in the province of Liebana, about nine leagues in length and four in breadth. This is the most inland part of the country, full of mountains enormously high, and so much fortified by nature, that its inhabitants are capable of resisting almost any number of invaders. Alakor the Saracen governor was no sooner informed of this revival of the Gothic kingdom, than he sent a powerful army, under the command of one Alchaman, to crush Don Pelagius before he had time to establish his power. The king did not think proper to venture a general engagement in the open field; but taking post with part of his troops in a cavern in a very high mountain, he concealed the rest among precipices, giving orders to them to fall upon the enemy as soon as they should perceive him attacked by them. These orders were punctually executed, though indeed Don Pelagius himself had repulsed his enemies, but not without a miracle, as the Spanish historians pretend. The slaughter was dreadful; for the troops who lay in ambuscade joining the rest, and rolling down huge stones from the mountains upon the Moors (the name by which the Saracens were known in Spain), no fewer than 124,000 of these unhappy people perished in one day. The remainder fled till they were stopped by a river, and beginning to coast it, part of a mountain suddenly fell down, stopped up the channel of the river, and either crushed or drowned, by the sudden rising of the water, almost every one of that vast army.

The Moors made a second attempt against Don Pelagius. In consequence of which, they lost all the Asturias, and never dared to enter the lists with Pelagius afterwards. They then directed their force against France, where they hoped for more plunder. Into this country they poured in prodigious multitudes; but were utterly defeated, in 732, by Charles Martel, with the loss of 300,000 men, as the historians of those times relate.

Don Pelagius died in 737; and soon after his death such

intestine divisions broke out among the Moors, as greatly favoured the increase of the Christian power. In 745, Don Alphonso the Catholic, son-in-law to Pelagius, in conjunction with his brother Froila, passed the mountains, and fell upon the northern part of Galicia; and meeting with little resistance, recovered almost the whole of that province in a single campaign. Next year he invaded the plains of Leon and Castile; and reduced Astorgas, Leon, Saldagna, Montes de Oca, Amaya, Alava, and all the country at the foot of the mountains. The year following he pushed his conquests as far as the borders of Portugal, and in the next campaign he ravaged the country as far as Castile. Finding he was unable to defend the flat country which he had conquered, he laid the whole of it waste, obliged the Christians to retire to the mountains, and carried off all the Moors for slaves. Thus secured by a desert frontier, he met with no interruption for some years; during which time, he allowed his subjects gradually to occupy part of the flat country, and to rebuild Leon and Astorgas, which he had demolished. He died in 758, and was succeeded by his son Don Froila. In his time Abdoulrahman, the khaliff's viceroy in Spain, threw off the yoke, and rendered himself independent, fixing the seat of his government at Cordova. Froila encountered the Moors with such success, that 54,000 of them were killed on the spot, and their general taken prisoner. Soon after he built the city of Oviedo, which he made the capital of his dominions, in order to be in a better condition to defend the flat country.

In the year 850 the power of the Saracens received another blow by the rise of the kingdom of Navarre. This kingdom, we are told, took its origin from an accidental meeting of gentlemen, to the number of 600, at the tomb of an hermit named John, who had died among the Pyrenees. At this place, where they had met on account of the supposed sanctity of the deceased, they took occasion to converse on the cruelty of the Moors, the miseries to which the country was exposed, and the glory that would result from throwing off their yoke; which, they supposed, might easily be done, by reason of the strength of their country. On mature deliberation, the project was approved; one Don Garcias Ximenes was appointed king, as being of illustrious birth, and looked upon as a person of great abilities. He recovered Ainsa, one of the principal towns of the country, out of the hands of the infidels, and his successor Don Garcias Inigas extended his territories as far as Biscay; however, the Moors still possessed Portugal, Murcia, Andalusia, Valencia, Granada, Tortosa, with the interior part of the country as far as the mountains of Castile and Zaragoza. Their internal dissensions, which revived after the death of Abdoulrahman, contributed greatly to reduce the power of the infidels in general. In 778, Charles the Great being invited by some discontented Moorish governors, entered Spain with two great armies; one passing through Catalonia, and the other through Navarre, where he pushed his conquests as far as the Ebro. On his return he was attacked and defeated by the Moors; though this did not hinder him from keeping possession of all those places he had already reduced. At this time he seems to have been master of Navarre: however, in 831, Count Azner, revolting from Pepin, son to the emperor Louis, asserted the independency of Navarre; but the sovereigns did not assume the title of kings till the time of Don Garcias, who began to reign in 857.

In the mean time, the kingdom founded by Don Pelagius, now called the kingdom of Leon and Oviedo, continued to increase rapidly in strength. In 921, however, they gained a great victory over the united forces of Navarre and Leon, by which the whole force of the Christians in Spain must have been entirely broken, had not the victors conducted their affairs so wretchedly, that they suffered themselves to be almost entirely cut in pieces by the remains of the Christian army. In short, the Christians became at length so terrible to the Moors, that it is probable they could not long have kept their footing in Spain, had not a great general, named Mohammed Ebn Amr Almanzor, appeared, in 979, to support their sinking cause. This man was visir to the

the king of Cordova, and being exceedingly provoked against the Christians on account of what his countrymen had suffered from them, made war with the most implacable fury. He took the city of Leon, murdered the inhabitants, and reduced the houses to ashes. Barcelona shared the same fate: Castile was reduced to a desert; Galicia and Portugal ravaged; and he is said to have overcome the Christians in fifty different engagements. At last, having taken and demolished the city of Compostella, and carried off in triumph the gates of the church of St. James, a flux happened to break out among his troops, which the superstitious Christians supposed to be a divine judgment on account of his sacrilege. Taking it for granted, therefore, that the Moors were now entirely destitute of all heavenly aid, they fell upon them with such fury in the next engagement, that all the valour and conduct of Almanzor could not prevent a defeat. Overcome with shame and despair at this misfortune, he desired his followers to shift for themselves, while he himself retired to Medina Coeli, and put an end to his life by abstinence in the year 998.

During this period a new Christian principality appeared in Spain, namely, that of Castile, which is now divided into Old and New Castile. The Old Castile was recovered long before that called the New. It was separated from the kingdom of Leon on one side by some little rivers; on the other, it was bounded by the Austrias, Biscay, and the province of Rioja. On the south it had the mountains of Segovia and Avila; thus lying in the middle between the Christian kingdom Leon and Oviedo, and the Moorish kingdom of Cordova. Hence this district soon became an object of contention between the kings of Leon and those of Cordova; and as the former were generally victorious, some of the principal Castilian nobility retained their independence under the protection of the Christian kings, even when the power of the Moors was at its greatest height. In 834 we first hear of Don Rodriguez, assuming the title of Count of Castile, though it does not appear that either his territory or title were given him by the king of Leon. Nevertheless, this monarch having taken upon him to punish some of the Castilian lords as rebels, the inhabitants made a formal renunciation of their allegiance, and set up a new kind of government. The supreme power was now vested in two persons of quality, styled judges; however, this method did not long continue to give satisfaction, and the sovereignty was once more vested in a single person. By degrees, Castile fell entirely under the power of the kings of Leon and Oviedo; and, in 1037, Don Sancho bestowed it on his eldest son Don Ferdinand, with the title of king; and thus the territories of Castile were first firmly united to those of Leon and Oviedo, and the sovereigns were thenceforth styled kings of Leon and Castile.

Besides all these, another Christian kingdom was set up in Spain about the beginning of the 11th century. This was the kingdom of Arragon. The inhabitants were very brave, and lovers of liberty, so that it is probable they had in some degree maintained their independence, even when the power of the Moors was greatest. The history of Arragon, however, during its infancy, is much less known than that of any of the others hitherto mentioned. We are only assured, that about the year 1035, Don Sancho, surnamed the Great, king of Navarre, erected Arragon into a kingdom in favour of his son Don Ramiro, and afterwards it became very powerful. At this time, then, we may imagine the continent of Spain divided into two unequal parts by a straight line drawn from east to west, from the coasts of Valencia to a little below the mouth of the Douro. The country north of this belonged to the Christians, who, as yet, had the smallest and least valuable state, and all the rest to the Moors. In point of wealth and real power, both by land and sea, the Moors were much superior, but their continual dissensions greatly weakened them, and every day facilitated the progress of the Christians. Indeed, had either of the parties been united, the other must soon have yielded; for though the Christians did not make war upon each other constantly as the Moors did, their mutual feuds

were yet sufficient to have ruined them, had their adversaries made the proper use of the advantages thus afforded them. But among the Moors almost every city was a kingdom; and as these petty sovereignties supported one another very indifferently, they fell a prey one after another to their enemies. In 1080, the king of Toledo was engaged in a war with the king of Seville, another Moorish potentate; which being observed by Alphonso, king of Castile, he also invaded his territories; and in four years made himself master of the city of Toledo, with all the places of importance in its neighbourhood; from thenceforth making Toledo the capital of his dominions. In a short time the whole province of New Castile submitted; and Madrid, the present capital of Spain, fell into the hands of the Christians, being at that time a small place.

The Moors were so much alarmed at these conquests, that they not only entered into a general confederacy against the Christians, but invited to their assistance Mahomet Ben Joseph, the sovereign of Barbary. He accordingly came, attended by an incredible multitude; but was utterly defeated by the Christians in the defiles of the Black Mountain, or Sierra Morena, on the borders of Andalusia. The victory happened on the 16th of July, 1212, and the anniversary is still celebrated at Toledo. This victory was not improved; the Christian army immediately dispersed themselves, while the Moors of Andalusia were strengthened by the remains of the African army; yet, instead of being taught, by their past misfortunes, to unite among themselves, their dissensions became worse than ever, and the conquests of the Christians became daily more rapid. In 1236, Don Ferdinand of Castile and Leon took the celebrated city of Cordova, the residence of the first Moorish kings; at the same time that James I. of Arragon dispossessed them of the island of Majorca, and drove them out of Valencia. Two years after, Ferdinand made himself master of Murcia, and took the city of Seville; and in 1303, Ferdinand IV. reduced Gibraltar.

In the time of Edward III., we find England, for the first time, interfering in the affairs of Spain, on the following occasion. In the year 1284 the kingdom of Navarre had been united to that of France by the marriage of Donna Joanna Queen of Navarre with Philip the Fair of France. In 1328, however, the kingdoms were again separated, though the sovereigns of Navarre were still related to those of France. In 1350, Charles, surnamed the Wicked, ascended the throne of Navarre, and married the daughter of John King of France. Notwithstanding this alliance, and that he himself was related to the royal family of France, he secretly entered into a negotiation with England against the French monarch, and even drew into his schemes the dauphin Charles, afterwards surnamed the Wise. The young prince, however, was soon after made fully sensible of the danger and folly of the connections into which he had entered; and by way of atonement, promised to sacrifice his associates. Accordingly he invited the king of Navarre, and some of the principal nobility of the same party, to a feast at Rouen, where he betrayed them to his father. The most obnoxious were executed, and the king of Navarre was thrown into prison. In this extremity, the party of the king of Navarre had recourse to England. The prince of Wales, surnamed the Black Prince, invaded France, defeated King John at Poitiers, and took him prisoner; which unfortunate event produced the most violent disturbances in that kingdom. The dauphin, now about 19 years of age, naturally assumed the royal power during his father's captivity; but possessed neither experience nor authority sufficient to remedy the prevailing evils. In order to obtain supplies, he assembled the states of the kingdom: but that assembly, instead of supporting his administration, laid hold of the present opportunity to demand limitations of the prince's power, the punishment of past malversations, and the liberty of the king of Navarre. Marcel, provost of the merchants of Paris, and first magistrate of that city, put himself at the head of the unruly populace, and pushed them to commit the most criminal outrages against the royal authority. They detained the dauphin in a kind of captivity; murdered

murdered in his presence Robert de Clermont and John de Conflans, marshals of France; threatened all the other ministers with the like fate; and when Charles, who had been obliged to temporize and dissemble, made his escape from their hands, they levied war against him, and openly rebelled. The other cities of the kingdom, in imitation of the capital, shook off the dauphin's authority, took the government into their own hands, and spread the contagion in every province.

Amidst these disorders, the king of Navarre made his escape from prison, and presented a dangerous leader to the furious malcontents. He revived his pretensions to the crown of France: but in all his operations he acted more like a leader of banditti than one who aspired to be the head of a regular government, and who was engaged by his station to endeavour the re-establishment of order in the community. All the French, therefore, who wished to restore peace to their country, turned their eyes towards the dauphin; who, though not remarkable for his military talents, daily gained by his prudence and vigilance the ascendancy over his enemies. Marcel, the seditious provost of Paris, was slain in attempting to deliver that city to the king of Navarre. The capital immediately returned to its duty; the most considerable bodies of the mutinous peasants were dispersed or put to the sword; some bands of military robbers underwent the same fate; and France began once more to assume the appearance of civil government.

John was succeeded in the throne of France by his son Charles V., a prince educated in the school of adversity, and well qualified, by his prudence and experience, to repair the losses which the kingdom had sustained from the errors of his predecessors. Contrary to the practice of all the great princes of those times, who held nothing in estimation but military courage, he seems to have laid it down as a maxim, never to appear at the head of his armies; and he was the first European monarch that showed the advantage of policy and foresight over a rash and precipitate valour.

Before Charles could think of counterbalancing so great a power as England, it was necessary for him to remedy the many disorders to which his own kingdom was exposed. He accordingly turned his arms against the king of Navarre, the great disturber of France during that age; and he defeated that prince, and reduced him to terms, by the valour and conduct of Bertrand du Guesclin, one of the most accomplished captains of those times, whom Charles had the discernment to choose as the instrument of his victories. He also settled the affairs of Brittany, by acknowledging the title of Mountfort, and receiving homage for his dominions. But much was yet to be done. On the conclusion of the peace of Bretigni, the many military adventurers who had followed the fortunes of Edward, being dispersed into the several provinces, and possessed of strong holds, refused to lay down their arms, or relinquish a course of life to which they were now accustomed, and by which alone they could earn a subsistence. They associated themselves with the banditti, who were already inured to the habits of rapine and violence; and, under the name of companies and companions, became a terror to all the peaceable inhabitants. Some English and Gascon gentlemen of character were not ashamed to take the command of these ruffians, whose number amounted to near 40,000, and who bore the appearance of regular armies rather than bands of robbers. As Charles was not able by power to redress so enormous a grievance, he was led by necessity, as well as by the turn of his character, to correct it by policy; to discover some method of discharging into foreign countries this dangerous and intestine evil; and an occasion now offered.

Alphonso XI. king of Castile, who took the city of Algezira from the Moors, after a famous siege of two years, during which artillery are said first to have been used by the besieged, had been succeeded, by his son Pedro I. surnamed the Cruel; a prince equally perfidious, debauched, and bloody. He began his reign with the murder of his father's mistress, Leonora de Gusman: his nobles fell every day the victims of his severity: he put to death his cousin

and one of his natural brothers, from groundless jealousy; and he caused his queen Blanche de Bourbon, of the blood of France, to be thrown into prison, and afterwards poisoned, that he might enjoy in quiet the embraces of Mary de Padella, with whom he was violently enamoured.

Henry count of Trastamara, the king's natural brother, alarmed at the fate of his family, and dreading his own, took arms against the tyrant; but having failed in the attempt, he fled to France, where he found the minds of men much inflamed against Pedro, on account of the murder of the French princess. He asked permission of Charles to enlist the companies in his service, and to lead them into Castile against his brother. The French king, charmed with the project, employed du Guesclin in negotiating with the leaders of these banditti. The treaty was soon concluded; and du Guesclin having completed his levies, led the army first to Avignon, where the pope then resided, and demanded, sword in hand, absolution for his ruffian soldiers, who had been excommunicated, and the sum of 200,000 livres for their subsistence. The first was readily promised him, but some difficulty being made with regard to the second, du Guesclin replied, "My fellows, I believe, may make a shift to do without your absolution, but the money is absolutely necessary." His holiness then extorted from the inhabitants of the city and its neighbourhood the sum of 100,000 livres, and offered it to du Guesclin. "It is not my purpose (cried that generous warrior) to oppress the innocent people. The pope and his cardinals can spare me double the sum from their own pockets. I therefore insist, that this money be restored to the owners; and if I hear they are defrauded of it, I will myself return from the other side of the Pyrenees, and oblige you to make them restitution." The pope found the necessity of submitting, and paid from his own treasury the sum demanded.

A body of experienced and hardy soldiers, conducted by so able a general, easily prevailed over the king of Castile, whose subjects were ready to join the enemy against their oppressor. Pedro fled from his dominions, took shelter in Guienne, and craved the protection of the prince of Wales, whom his father had invested with the sovereignty of the ceded provinces, under the title of the *principality of Aquitaine*. The prince promised his assistance to the dethroned monarch; and having obtained his father's consent, he levied an army, and set out on his enterprise.

The first loss which Henry of Trastamara suffered from the interposition of the prince of Wales, was the recalling of the companies from his service; and so much reverence did they pay to the name of Edward, that great numbers of them immediately withdrew from Spain, and enlisted under his standard. Henry, however, beloved by his new subjects and supported by the king of Arragon, was able to meet the enemy with an army of 100,000 men, three times the number of those commanded by the Black Prince: yet du Guesclin, and all his experienced officers, advised him to delay a decisive action; so high was their opinion of the valour and conduct of the English hero! But Henry, trusting to his numbers, ventured to give Edward battle on the banks of the Ebro, between Najara and Navarrette; where the French and Spaniards were defeated, with the loss of above 20,000 men, and du Guesclin and other officers of distinction taken prisoners. All Castile submitted to the victor; Pedro was restored to the throne, and Edward returned to Guienne with his usual glory; having not only overcome the greatest general of his age, but restrained the most bloodthirsty tyrant from executing vengeance on his prisoners.

This gallant warrior had soon reason to repent of his connection with Spain and Pedro. The monster refused the stipulated pay to the English forces. Edward abandoned him: he treated his subjects with the utmost barbarity; their animosity was roused against him; and du Guesclin having obtained his ransom, returned to Castile with the count of Trastamara, and some forces levied anew in France. They were joined by the Spanish malcontents; and they gained a complete victory over Pedro in the neighbourhood of Toledo. The tyrant now took refuge in a castle, where he was soon after

after besieged by the victors, and taken prisoner in endeavouring to make his escape. He was conducted to his brother Henry; against whom he is said to have rushed in a transport of rage, disarmed as he was. Henry slew him with his own hand, in resentment of his cruelties; and, though a bastard, was placed on the throne of Castile, which he transmitted to his posterity.

After the death of Pedro, nothing remarkable happened in Spain for almost a whole century; but the debaucheries of Henry IV. of Castile roused the resentment of his nobles, and produced a most singular insurrection, which led to the aggrandizement of the Spanish monarchy.

This prince, surnamed the Impotent though continually surrounded with women, began his unhappy reign in 1450. He was totally enervated by his pleasures; and every thing in his court conspired to set the Castilians an example of the most abject flattery and most abandoned licentiousness. The queen, a daughter of Portugal, lived as openly with her parasites and her gallants as the king did with his minions and his mistresses. Pleasure was the only object, and effeminacy the only recommendation to favour; the affairs of the state went every day into disorder; till the nobility, with the archbishop of Toledo at their head, combining against the weak and flagitious administration of Henry, arrogated to themselves, as one of the privileges of their order, the right of trying and passing sentence on their sovereign, which they executed in a curious manner.

The malcontent nobility were summoned to meet at Avila: a spacious theatre was erected in a plain without the walls of the town: an image, representing the king, was seated on a throne, clad in royal robes, with a crown on its head, a sceptre in its hand, and the sword of justice by its side. The accusation against Henry was read, and the sentence of deposition pronounced, in presence of a numerous assembly. At the close of the first article of the charge, the archbishop of Toledo advanced, and tore the crown from the head of the image; at the close of the second, the Conde de Placentia snatched the sword of justice from its side; at the close of the third, the Conde de Benavente wrested the sceptre from its hand; and at the close of the last, Don Diego Lopez de Stuniga tumbled it headlong from the throne. At the same instant, Don Alphonso, Henry's brother, a boy of about twelve years of age, was proclaimed King of Castile and Leon in his stead.

This extraordinary proceeding was followed by a civil war, which did not cease till some time after the death of the young prince, on whom the nobles had bestowed the kingdom. The archbishop and his party then continued to carry on war in the name of Isabella, the king's sister, to whom they gave the title of *Infanta*; and the king of Arragon married her.

Henry disinherited his sister, and established the rights of his daughter. A furious civil war desolated the kingdom. The names of Joan and Isabella resounded from every quarter, and were everywhere the summons to arms. But peace was at length brought about. Henry was reconciled to his sister and Ferdinand; Joan retired into a convent; and the death of Ferdinand's father added the kingdoms of Arragon and Sicily to those of Leon and Castile.

Ferdinand and Isabella were persons of great prudence. They did not live like man and wife, having all things in common under the direction of the husband; but like two princes in close alliance; they neither loved nor hated each other; were seldom in company together; had each a separate council; and were frequently jealous of one another in the administration. But they were inseparably united in their common interests; always acting upon the same principles, and forwarding the same ends. Their first object was the regulation of their government, which the civil wars had thrown into the greatest disorder. Rapine, outrage, and murder, were become so common, as not only to interrupt commerce, but in a great measure to suspend all intercourse between one place and another. These evils the joint sovereigns suppressed by their wise policy, at the same time that they extended the royal prerogative.

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About the middle of the 13th century, the cities in the kingdom of Arragon, and after their example those in Castile, had formed themselves into an association, distinguished by the name of the Holy Brotherhood. They exacted a certain contribution from each of the associated towns; they levied a considerable body of troops, in order to protect travellers and pursue criminals; and they appointed judges, who opened courts in various parts of the kingdom. Whoever was guilty of murder, robbery, or any act that violated the public peace, and was seized by the troops of the Brotherhood, was carried before their judges; who, without paying any regard to the exclusive jurisdiction which the lord of the place might claim, who was generally the author or abettor of the injustice, tried, and condemned the criminals. The nobles often murmured against the salutary institution; they complained of it as an encroachment on one of their most valuable privileges, and endeavoured to get it abolished. But Ferdinand and Isabella, sensible of the beneficial effects of the Brotherhood, not only in regard to the police of their kingdom, but in its tendency to abridge, and by degrees annihilate, the territorial jurisdiction of the nobility, countenanced the institution upon every occasion, and supported it with the whole force of royal authority; by which means the prompt and impartial administration of justice was restored, and with it tranquillity and order returned.

But at the same time, an intemperate zeal led them to establish an ecclesiastical tribunal, equally contrary to the natural rights of humanity and the mild spirit of the gospel. This was the court of inquisition; wherein six thousand persons were burnt, within four years after the appointment of Torquemada, the first Inquisitor-general.

The kingdom of Granada now alone remained of all the Mahometan possessions in Spain. Princes equally zealous and ambitious were naturally disposed to turn their eyes to that fertile territory; and to think of increasing their hereditary dominions, by expelling the enemies of Christianity, and extending its doctrines. Every thing conspired to favour their project: the Moorish kingdom was a prey to civil wars; when Ferdinand, having obtained the bull of Sixtus IV. authorizing a crusade, put himself at the head of his troops, and entered Granada. He continued the war with rapid success; Isabella attended him in several expeditions; and they were both in great danger at the siege of Malaga; an important city, which was defended with great courage, and taken in 1487. Baza was reduced in 1489, after the loss of 20,000 men. Gaudix and Almeria were delivered up to them by the Moorish king Alzagal, who had first dethroned his brother Alboacen, and afterwards been chased from his capital by his nephew Abdali. That prince engaged in the service of Ferdinand and Isabella; who, after reducing every other place of eminence, undertook the siege of Granada. Abdali made a gallant defence; but all communication with the country being cut off, and all hopes of relief at an end, he capitulated, after a siege of eight months, on condition that he should enjoy the revenue of certain places in the fertile mountains of Alpujarras; that the inhabitants should retain the undisturbed possession of their houses, goods, and inheritances; the use of their laws, and the free exercise of their religion. Thus ended the empire of the Arabs in Spain, after it had continued about 800 years. They introduced the arts and sciences into Europe at a time when it was lost in darkness; they possessed many of the luxuries of life, when they were not even known among the neighbouring nations; and they seem to have given birth to that romantic gallantry which so eminently prevailed in the ages of chivalry, and which, blending itself with the veneration of the northern nations for the softer sex, still particularly distinguishes ancient from modern manners. But the Moors, notwithstanding these advantages, and the eulogies bestowed upon them by some writers, appear always to have been destitute of the essential qualities of a polished people, humanity, generosity, and mutual sympathy.

The overthrow of the last Moorish kingdom was soon followed by the expulsion of the Saracens from Spain. This expulsion

expulsion did not entirely take place till the 17th century. Vast numbers of the Moors, indeed, oppressed by their conquerors, abandoned a country where they could not reside with comfort and with freedom. From the reign of Ferdinand of Castile, to that of Philip III. of Spain, more than 3,000,000 of those people quitted Spain, and carried with them, not only a great part of their acquired wealth, but that industry and love of labour which are the foundation of national prosperity.

The state of Spain has never been so flourishing at any period of its civilization, as during the period when it was chiefly possessed by the Moors. The first Saracen invaders, and the twenty successive lieutenants of the caliphs of Damascus, were attended by a numerous train of civil and military followers, who preferred a distant fortune to narrow circumstances at home; private and public interest was promoted by the establishment of faithful colonies, and the cities of Spain were proud to commemorate the tribe or the country of their eastern progenitors. Ten years after the conquest, a map of the province was presented to the caliph, shewing the seas, the rivers, and the harbours, the inhabitants and cities, the climate, the soil, and the mineral productions of the earth. In the space of two centuries, the gifts of nature were improved by agriculture, the manufactures, and the commerce of an industrious people; though the effects of their diligence have been magnified by the idleness of their fancy. The first of the Omniades who reigned in Spain, solicited the support of the Christians; and in his edict of peace and protection, he contents himself with a modest imposition of 10,000 ounces of gold, 10,000 pounds of silver, 10,000 horses, as many mules, 1000 cuirasses; with an equal number of helmets and lances. The most powerful of his successors derived from the same kingdom the annual tribute of 12,045,000 dinars or pieces of gold, about 6,000,000*l.* of sterling money; a sum which, in the 10th century, most probably surpassed the united revenues of the Christian monarchs. His royal seat of Cordova contained 600 mosques, 900 baths, and 200,000 houses; he gave laws to 80 cities of the first, to 300 of the second and third order; and the fertile banks of the Guadalquivir were adorned with 12,000 villages and hamlets. The Arabs might exaggerate the truth; but they created and they describe the most prosperous era of the riches, the cultivation, and the populousness of Spain.

The conquest of Granada was followed by the expulsion, or rather the pillage and banishment, of the Jews, who had engrossed all the wealth and commerce of Spain. The inquisition exhausted its rage against these unhappy people, many of whom pretended to embrace Christianity, in order to preserve their property. About the same time their Catholic majesties concluded an alliance with the emperor Maximilian, and a treaty of marriage for their daughter Joan with his son Philip, archduke of Austria and sovereign of the Netherlands. About this time also the contract was concluded with Christopher Columbus for the discovery of new countries; and the counties of Rousillon and Cerdagne were agreed to be restored by Charles VIII. of France, before his expedition into Italy. The discovery of America was soon followed by extensive conquests in that quarter, as is related under the articles MEXICO, PERU, &c., which tended to raise the Spanish monarchy above any other in Europe.

On the death of Isabella, which happened in 1506, Philip archduke of Austria came to Castile in order to take possession of that kingdom, as heir to his mother-in-law; but he dying in a short time after, his son Charles V., afterwards emperor of Germany, became heir to the crown of Spain. His father at his death left the king of France governor to the young prince, and Ferdinand at his death left Cardinal Ximenes sole regent of Castile, till the arrival of his grandson. This man, whose character is no less singular than illustrious, who united the abilities of a great statesman with the abject devotion of a superstitious monk, and the magnificence of a prime minister with the severity of a mendicant, maintained order and tranquillity in Spain, not-

withstanding the discontents of a turbulent and high-spirited nobility.

Three years after his accession, Charles was elected emperor of Germany, and the first act of his administration was to appoint a diet of the empire, to be held at Worms, in order to concert with the princes proper measures for checking the progress of "those new and dangerous opinions which threatened to disturb the peace of Germany, and to overturn the religion of their ancestors."

The Spaniards, dissatisfied with the departure of their sovereign, whose election to the empire they foresaw would interfere with the administration of his own kingdom, and incensed at the avarice of the Flemings, to whom the direction of public affairs had been committed since the death of Cardinal Ximenes, several grandees, in order to shake off this oppression, entered into an association, to which they gave the name of the *Sancta Juncta*; and the sword was appealed to as the means of redress. This seemed to Francis of France a favourable juncture for reinstating the family of John d'Alberty in the kingdom of Navarre. Charles was at a distance from that part of his dominions, and the troops usually stationed there had been called away to quell the commotions in Spain. A French army, under Andrew de Foix, speedily conquered Navarre; but that young and inexperienced nobleman, pushed on by military ardour, ventured to enter Castile. The Spaniards, though divided among themselves, united against a foreign enemy, routed his forces, took him prisoner, and recovered Navarre in a shorter time than he had spent in subduing it.

Hostilities thus begun in one quarter, between the rival monarchs, soon spread to another. The king of France encouraged the duke of Bouillon to make war against the emperor, and to invade Luxembourg. Charles, after humbling the duke, attempted to enter France; but was repelled and worsted before Mezieres by the famous Chevalier Bayard, distinguished among his cotemporaries by the appellation of *The Knight without fear and without reproach*; and who united the talents of a great general to the punctilious honour and romantic gallantry of the heroes of chivalry. Francis broke into the Low Countries, where, by an excess of caution, an error not natural to him, he lost an opportunity of cutting off the whole imperial army; and, what was of still more consequence, he disgusted the constable Bourbon, by giving the command of the van to the duke of Alençon.

During these operations in the field, an unsuccessful congress was held at Calais, under the mediation of Henry VIII. It served only to exasperate the parties which it was intended to reconcile. A league was soon after concluded, by the intrigues of Wolsey, between the pope, Henry, and Charles, against France. Leo had already entered into a separate league with the emperor, and the French were fast losing ground in Italy.

The insolence and exactions of Marechal de Lautrec, governor of Milan, had totally alienated the affections of the Milanese from France. They resolved to expel the troops of that nation, and put themselves under the government of Francis Sforza, brother to Maximilian their late duke. In this resolution, they were encouraged by the pope, who excommunicated Lautrec, and took into his pay a considerable body of Swiss. The papal army, commanded by Prosper Colonna, an experienced general, was joined by supplies from Germany and Naples; while Lautrec, neglected by his court and deserted by the Swiss in its pay, was unable to make head against the enemy. The city of Milan was betrayed by the inhabitants to the confederates; Parma and Placentia were united to the ecclesiastical state; and of their conquests in Lombardy, only the town of Cremona, the castle of Milan, and a few inconsiderable forts, remained in the hands of the French.

Leo X. received the accounts of this rapid success with such transports of joy, as are said to have brought on a fever, which occasioned his death.

And now much discord prevailed in the conclave. By an unexpected turn of fortune, Cardinal Adrian of Utrécht; Charles's

Charles's preceptor, who at that time governed Spain in the emperor's name, was unanimously raised to the papacy, to the astonishment of all Europe and the great disgust of the Italians.

Francis, roused by the rising consequence of his rival, resolved to exert himself with fresh vigour, in order to wrest from him his late conquests in Lombardy. Lautrec received a supply of money, and a reinforcement of 10,000 Swiss. With this reinforcement he was enabled once more to act offensively, and even to advance within a few miles of the city of Milan; when money again failing him, and the Swiss growing mutinous, he was obliged to attack the imperialists in their camp at Bicocca, where he was repulsed with great slaughter, having lost his bravest officers and best troops. Such of the Swiss as survived set out immediately for their own country; and Lautrec, despairing of being able to keep the field, retired into France. Genoa, which still remained subject to Francis, and made it easy to execute any scheme for the recovery of Milan, was soon after taken by Colonna: the authority of the emperor and his faction was everywhere established in Italy. The citadel of Cremona was the sole fortress which remained in the hands of the French.

The distress of Francis was augmented by the unexpected arrival of an English herald, who in the name of his sovereign, declared war against France. The courage of this prince, however, did not forsake him: though his treasury was exhausted, he assembled a considerable army, and put his kingdom in a posture of defence.

Meanwhile Charles, willing to draw as much advantage as possible from so powerful an ally, paid a second visit to the court of England in his way to Spain, where his presence was become necessary. His success exceeded his most sanguine expectations. In consequence of these negotiations, an English army invaded France, under the command of the Earl of Surrey; who, at the end of the campaign, was obliged to retire, with his forces greatly reduced, without being able to make himself master of one place within the French frontier. Charles was more fortunate in Spain: he soon quelled the tumults which had there arisen in his absence.

While the Christian princes were thus wasting each other's strength, Solyman the Magnificent entered Hungary, and made himself master of Belgrade, reckoned the chief barrier of that kingdom against the Turkish power. Encouraged by this success, he turned his victorious arms against the island of Rhodes, at that time the seat of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem. Lisle Adam, the grand master, made a gallant defence; but, after incredible efforts of courage, patience and military conduct, during a siege of six months, he was obliged to surrender the place. Charles and Francis were equally ashamed of having occasioned such a loss to Christendom by their contests; and the emperor, by way of reparation, granted to the knights of St. John, the small island of Malta, where they fixed their residence.

Adrian VI. though the creature of the emperor, and devoted to his interest, endeavoured to assume the impartiality which became the common father of Christendom, and laboured to reconcile the contending princes, that they might unite in a league against Solyman, whose conquest of Rhodes rendered him more formidable than ever to Europe. The Italian states were no less desirous of peace than the pope: and so much regard was paid by the hostile powers to the exhortations of his holiness, and to a bull which he issued, requiring all Christian princes to consent to a truce for three years, that the imperial, the French and the English ambassadors at Rome, were empowered to treat of that matter; but while they wasted their time in fruitless negotiations, their masters were continuing their preparations for war; and the confederacy against France became more formidable than ever.

The Venetians, who had hitherto adhered to the French interest, formed engagements with the emperor for securing Francis Sforza in the possession of the duchy of Milan; and the pope, from a persuasion that the ambition of the French monarch was the only obstacle to peace, acceded to the same alliance. The Florentines, the dukes of Ferrara and Mantua,

and all the Italian powers, followed this example. Francis was left, without a single ally, to resist the efforts of a multitude of enemies, whose armies everywhere threatened, and whose territories encompassed his dominions. The emperor in person menaced France with an invasion on the side of Guienne; the forces of England and the Netherlands hovered over Picardy, and a numerous body of Germans was preparing to ravage Burgundy.

The dread of so many and such powerful adversaries, it was thought, would have obliged Francis to keep wholly on the defensive, or at least have prevented him from entertaining any thoughts of marching into Italy. But before his enemies were able to strike a blow, Francis had assembled a great army, with which he hoped to disconcert all the emperor's schemes, by marching it in person into Italy; and this bold measure, the more formidable because unexpected, could scarcely have failed of the desired effect, had it been immediately carried into execution. But the discovery of a conspiracy headed by Charles, duke of Bourbon, lord high constable, which threatened the destruction of his kingdom, obliged Francis to stop at Lyons.

After a short time, however, not being sufficiently convinced of the constable's guilt, he suffered so dangerous a foe to escape; and Bourbon, entering into the emperor's service, employed all the force of his enterprising genius, and his great talents for war, to the prejudice of his prince and his native country.

In consequence of the discovery of this plot, and the escape of the powerful conspirator, Francis relinquished his intention of leading his army in person into Italy. He was ignorant how far the infection had spread among his subjects, and afraid that his absence might encourage them to make some desperate attempt in favour of a man so much beloved. He did not, however, abandon his design on the Milanese, but sent forward an army of 30,000 men, under the command of Admiral Bonnivet. Colonna, who was entrusted with the defence of that duchy, was in no condition to resist such a force; and the city of Milan, on which the whole territory depends, must have fallen into the hands of the French, had not Bonnivet, who possessed none of the talents of a general, wasted his time in frivolous enterprises, till the inhabitants recovered from their consternation. The imperial army was reinforced. Colonna died; and Lannoy, viceroy of Naples, succeeded him in the command; but the chief direction of military operations was committed to Bourbon and the marquis de Pescara, the greatest generals of their age. Bonnivet, destitute of troops to oppose this new army, and still more of the talents which could render him a match for its leaders, after various movements and encounters, was reduced to the necessity of attempting a retreat into France. He was followed by the imperial generals, and routed at Biagrassa, where the famous Chevalier Bayard was killed.

The emperor and his allies were less successful in their attempts upon France. They were baffled in every quarter; and Francis, though stripped of his Italian dominions, might still have enjoyed in safety the glory of having defended his native kingdom against one half of Europe, and have bid defiance to all his enemies; but understanding that the king of England, discouraged by his former fruitless enterprises, and disgusted with the emperor, was making no preparations for any attempt on Picardy, his ancient ardour seized him for the conquest of Milan, and he determined, notwithstanding the advanced season, to march into Italy.

The French army no sooner appeared in Piedmont, than the whole Milanese was thrown into consternation. The capital opened its gates. The forces of the emperor and Sforza retired to Lodi; and had Francis been so fortunate as to pursue them, they must have abandoned that post, and been totally dispersed; but his evil genius led him to besiege Pavia, a town of considerable strength, well garrisoned, and defended by Antonio de Leyva, one of the bravest officers in the Spanish service; before which place he was defeated and taken prisoner on the twenty-fourth day of February, 1524.

The captivity of Francis filled all Europe with alarm. Almost the whole French army was cut off; Milan was immediately abandoned; and in a few weeks not a Frenchman was left in Italy.

Henry VIII., though he had not entered into the war against France from any concerted political views, had always retained some imperfect idea of that balance of power which it was necessary to maintain between Charles and Francis; and the preservation of which he boasted to be his peculiar office. Influenced by this motive, together with the glory of raising a fallen enemy, he listened to the flattering submissions of Louisa; entered into a defensive alliance with her as regent of France, and engaged to use his best offices in order to procure the deliverance of her son from a state of captivity.

A treaty was, soon after, concluded at Madrid, in consequence of which Francis obtained his liberty. The chief article in this treaty was, that Burgundy should be restored to Charles as the rightful inheritance of his ancestors, and that Francis's two eldest sons should be immediately delivered up as hostages for the performance of the conditions stipulated. The exchange of the captive monarch for his children was made on the borders between France and Spain. The moment that Francis entered his own dominions, he mounted a Turkish horse, and putting it to its speed, waved his hand, and cried aloud several times, "I am yet a king! I am yet a king!"

Francis never meant to execute the treaty of Madrid; he had even left a protest in the hands of notaries before he signed it, that his consent should be considered as an involuntary deed, and be deemed null and void. Accordingly, as soon as he arrived in France, he assembled the states of Burgundy, who protested against the article relative to their province; and Francis coldly replied to the imperial ambassadors, who urged the immediate execution of the treaty, that he would religiously perform the articles relative to himself, but in those affecting the French monarchy, he must be directed by the sense of the nation. He made the highest acknowledgements to the king of England for his friendly interposition, and offered to be entirely guided by his counsels. Charles and his ministers saw that they were overreached in those very arts of negotiation in which they so much excelled, while the Italian states observed with pleasure, that Francis was resolved not to execute a treaty which they considered as dangerous to the liberties of Europe. Clement absolved him from the oath which he had taken at Madrid; and the kings of France and England, the pope, the Swiss, the Venetians, the Florentines and the duke of Milan, entered into an alliance, to which they gave the name of the *Holy League*, because his Holiness was at the head of it, in order to oblige the emperor to deliver up Francis's two sons on the payment of a reasonable ransom, and to re-establish Sforza in the quiet possession of the Milanese.

In consequence of this league, the confederate army took the field, and Italy once more became the scene of war. But Francis, who it was thought would have infused spirit and vigour into the whole body, had gone through such a scene of distress, that he was become diffident of himself, distrustful of his fortune, and desirous of tranquillity. He flattered himself, that the dread alone of such a confederacy would induce Charles to listen to what was equitable, and therefore neglected to send due reinforcements to his allies in Italy. Meantime the duke of Bourbon, who commanded the Imperialists, had made himself master of the whole Milanese, of which the emperor had promised him the investiture; and his troops beginning to mutiny for want of pay, he led them to Rome, and promised to enrich them with the spoils of that city. He was as good as his word: for though he himself was slain in planting a scaling ladder against the walls, his soldiers, rather enraged than discouraged by his death, mounted to the assault with the utmost ardour, and, entering the city sword in hand, plundered it for several days; and never did Rome in any age suffer so many calamities, not even from the Barbarians, by whom she was often sub-

dued, the Huns, Vandals or Goths, as now from the subjects of a Christian and Catholic monarch.

Henry and Francis, alarmed at the progress of the imperial arms, changed, by a new treaty, the scene of the projected war from the Netherlands to Italy, and resolved to take the most vigorous measures for restoring the pope to liberty. Henry, however, contributed only money. A French army entered Italy, under the command of Marshal Lautrec; Clement obtained his freedom; and war was for a time carried on by the confederates with success; but the death of Lautrec, and the revolt of Andrew Doria, a Genoese admiral in the service of France, entirely changed the face of affairs. The French army was utterly ruined; and Francis, discouraged and almost exhausted by so many unsuccessful enterprises, began to think of peace, and of obtaining the release of his sons by concessions, not by the terror of his arms.

At the same time Charles, notwithstanding the advantages he had gained, had many reasons to wish for an accommodation. Sultan Solymán having overrun Hungary, was ready to break in upon the Austrian territories with the whole force of the East; and the progress of the Reformation in Germany threatened the tranquillity of the empire. In consequence of this situation of affairs, Francis agreed to pay two millions of crowns as the ransom of his two sons, to resign the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and to forego all his Italian claims; and Charles ceased to demand the restitution of Burgundy.

All the steps of this negotiation had been communicated to the king of England; and Henry was, on that occasion, so generous to his friend and ally Francis, that he sent him an acquittal of near six hundred thousand crowns, in order to enable him to fulfil his agreement with Charles.

After having received the imperial crown from the hands of the pope at Bologna, Charles proceeded on his journey to Germany, where his presence was become highly necessary; for although the conduct and valour of his brother Ferdinand, on whom he had conferred the hereditary dominions of the house of Austria, and who had been elected king of Hungary, had obliged Solymán to retire with infamy and loss, his return was to be feared, and the disorders of religion were daily increasing.

Charles having exerted himself as much as he could against the reformers, undertook his first expedition against the piratical states of Africa. Barbary, or that part of the African continent lying along the coast of the Mediterranean sea, was then nearly in the same condition which it is at present. Morocco, Algiers, and Tunis, were its principal states; and the two last were nests of pirates. Barbarossa, a famous corsair, had succeeded his brother in the kingdom of Algiers, which he had formerly assisted him to usurp. He regulated with much prudence the interior police of his kingdom, carried on his piracies with great vigour, and extended his conquests on the continent of Africa; but perceiving that the natives submitted to his government with impatience, and fearing that his continual depredations would one day draw upon him a general combination of the Christian powers, he put his dominions under the protection of the grand seignior. Solymán, flattered by such an act of submission, and charmed with the boldness of the man, offered him the command of the Turkish fleet. Proud of this distinction, Barbarossa repaired to Constantinople, and made use of his influence with the sultan to extend his own dominion. Partly by force, partly by treachery, he usurped the kingdom of Tunis; and being now possessed of greater power, he carried on his depredations against the Christian states with more destructive violence than ever.

Daily complaints of the piracies and ravages committed by the galleys of Barbarossa, were brought to the emperor by his subjects, both in Spain and Italy; and all Christendom seemed to look up to him, as its greatest and most fortunate prince, for relief from this new and odious species of oppression. At the same time Muley-Hassan, the exiled king of Tunis, finding none of the African princes able or willing to support him in recovering his throne, applied to Charles for assistance against the usurper. Equally desirous

of delivering his dominions from the dangerous neighbourhood of Barbarossa, of appearing as the protector of an unfortunate prince, and of acquiring the glory annexed in that age to every expedition against the Mahometans, the emperor readily concluded a treaty with Muley Hassan, and set sail for Tunis with a formidable armament. The Goletta, a sea-port town, fortified with 300 pieces of cannon, was taken, together with all Barbarossa's fleet: he was defeated in a pitched battle, and 10,000 Christian slaves, having knocked off their fetters, and made themselves masters of the citadel, Tunis was preparing to surrender. But while Charles was deliberating on the conditions, his troops fearing that they would be deprived of the booty which they had expected, broke suddenly into the town, and pillaged and massacred without distinction. Thirty thousand persons perished by the sword, and 10,000 were made prisoners. The sceptre was restored to Muley Hassan, on condition that he should acknowledge himself a vassal of the crown of Spain, put into the emperor's hands all the fortified sea-ports in the kingdom of Tunis, and pay annually 12,000 crowns for the subsistence of the Spanish garrison in the Goletta. These points being settled, and 20,000 Christian slaves freed from bondage either by arms or by treaty, Charles returned to Europe, where his presence was become necessary; while Barbarossa, who had retired to Bona, recovered new strength, and again became the tyrant of the ocean.

The king of France took advantage of the emperor's absence to revive his pretensions in Italy. The treaty of Cambray had repressed but not extinguished the flames of discord. Francis in particular, who waited only for a favourable opportunity of recovering the territories and reputation which he had lost, continued to negotiate against his rival with different courts. But all his negotiations were disconcerted by unforeseen accidents. The death of Clement VII. (whom he had gained by marrying his son the duke of Orleans, afterwards Henry II., to Catharine of Medici, the niece of that pontiff), deprived him of all the support which he hoped to receive from the court of Rome. The king of England, occupied with domestic cares and projects, declined engaging in the affairs of the continent; and the Protestant princes, associated by the league of Smalkalde, to whom Francis had also applied, and who seemed disposed at first to listen to him, filled with indignation and resentment at the cruelty with which some of their reformed brethren had been treated in France, refused to have any connection with the enemy of their religion.

Francis, though unsupported by any ally, commanded his army to advance towards the frontiers of Italy, under pretence of chastising the duke of Milan for a breach of the law of nations, in putting to death his ambassador. The operations of war, however, soon took a new direction. Instead of marching directly to the Milanese, Francis commenced hostilities against the duke of Savoy, with whom he had cause to be dissatisfied, and on whom he had some claims; and before the end of the campaign, this feeble prince saw himself stripped of all his dominions, except the province of Piedmont. To complete his misfortunes, the city of Geneva, the sovereignty of which he claimed, and where the reformed opinions had already got footing, threw off his yoke; and its revolt drew along with it the loss of the adjacent territory.

In this extremity, the duke of Savoy saw no resource but in the emperor's protection; and as his misfortunes were chiefly occasioned by his attachment to the imperial interest, he had a title to immediate assistance. But Charles, who was just returned from his African expedition, was not able to lend him the necessary support. His treasury was entirely drained, and he was obliged to disband his army till he could raise new supplies. Meantime, the death of Sforza, duke of Milan, entirely changed the nature of the war, and afforded the emperor full leisure to prepare for action. The French monarch's pretext for taking up arms was at once cut off; but as the duke died without issue, all Francis's rights to the duchy of Milan, which he had yielded only to Sforza and his descendants, returned to him in full force.

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He instantly renewed his claim to it; and if he had ordered his army immediately to advance, he might have made himself master of it. But he unfortunately wasted his time in fruitless negotiations, while his more politic rival took possession of the duchy as a vacant fief of the empire; and though Charles seemed still to admit the equity of Francis's claim, he delayed granting the investiture under various pretences, and was secretly taking every possible measure to prevent him from regaining footing in Italy.

But if misfortunes had rendered Francis too diffident, success had made Charles too sanguine. He presumed on nothing less than the subversion of the French monarchy; nay, he considered it as a certain event. Having chased the forces of his rival out of Piedmont and Savoy, he pushed forward at the head of 50,000 men, contrary to the advice of his most experienced ministers and generals, to invade the southern provinces of France; while two other armies were ordered to enter it, the one on the side of Picardy, the other on the side of Champagne. He thought it impossible that Francis could resist so many unexpected attacks on such different quarters; but he found himself mistaken.

The French monarch fixed on the most effectual plan for defeating the invasion of a powerful enemy; and he prudently persevered in following it, though contrary to his own natural temper and to the genius of his people. He determined to remain altogether upon the defensive, and to deprive the enemy of subsistence, by laying waste the country before them. The execution of this plan was committed to the mareschal Montmorency, its author, a man happily fitted for such a trust by the inflexible severity of his disposition. He made choice of a strong camp, under the walls of Avignon, at the confluence of the Rhone and Durance, where he assembled a considerable army; while the king, with another body of troops, encamped at Valence, higher up the Rhone. Marseilles and Arles were the only towns he thought it necessary to defend; and each of these he furnished with a numerous garrison of his best troops. The inhabitants of the other towns were compelled to abandon their habitations: the fortifications of such places as might have afforded shelter to the enemy were thrown down; corn, forage, and provisions of every kind, were carried off or destroyed; the mills and ovens were ruined, and the wells filled up or rendered useless.

After unsuccessfully investing Marseilles and Arles, after attempting in vain to draw Montmorency from his camp at Avignon, and not daring to attack it, Charles having spent two inglorious months in Provence, and lost one-half of his troops by disease or by famine, was under the necessity of ordering a retreat; and though he was some time in motion before the enemy suspected his intention, it was conducted with so much precipitation and disorder, as to deserve the name of a flight, since the light troops of France turned it into a perfect rout. The invasion of Picardy was not more successful: the imperial forces were obliged to retire without effecting any conquest of importance.

Charles had no sooner conducted the shattered remains of his army to the frontiers of Milan, than he set out for Genoa; and unwilling to expose himself to the scorn of the Italians after such a reverse of fortune, he embarked directly for Spain.

Meanwhile Francis gave himself up to that vain resentment which had formerly disgraced the prosperity of his rival.

The parliament gave judgment, that Charles of Austria had forfeited, by rebellion and contumacy, the counties of Flanders and Artois, and declared these fiefs re-united to the crown of France, and Francis marched into the Low Countries to execute the sentence pronounced by his parliament; but a suspension of arms took place, through the interposition of the queens of France and Hungary, before any thing of consequence was effected: and this cessation of hostilities was followed by a truce, concluded at Nice, through the mediation of the reigning pontiff Paul III., of the family of Farnese, a man of a venerable character and pacific disposition.

Charles had soon farther cause to be sensible of his obligations

gations to the holy father for bringing about the treaty of Nice. His troops everywhere mutinied for want of pay, and the ability of his generals only could have prevented a total revolt. He had depended, as his chief resource for discharging the arrears due to his soldiers, upon the subsidies which he expected from his Castilian subjects. For this purpose he assembled the Cortes of Castile at Toledo; and having represented to them the great expense of his military operations, he proposed to levy such supplies as the present exigency of affairs demanded, by a general excise on commodities; but the Spaniards, who already felt themselves oppressed by a load of taxes unknown to their ancestors, and who had often complained that their country was drained of its wealth and inhabitants, in order to prosecute quarrels in which they had no interest, determined not to add voluntarily to their own burdens. The nobles, in particular, inveighed with great vehemence against the imposition proposed, as an encroachment on the valuable and distinguishing privilege of their order, that of being exempted from the payment of any tax. After employing arguments and promises in vain, Charles dismissed the assembly with indignation; and from that period neither the nobles nor the prelates have been called to the Cortes, on pretence that such as pay no part of the public taxes should not claim a vote in laying them on. These assemblies have until 1812, consisted merely of the procurators or representatives of 18 cities, two from each; in all 36 members, who were absolutely at the devotion of the crown.

The citizens of Ghent, still more bold, broke out not long after into open rebellion against the emperor's government, on account of a tax which they judged contrary to their ancient privileges, and a decision of the council of Mechlin in favour of the imperial authority. Enraged at an unjust imposition, and rendered desperate on seeing their rights betrayed by that very court which was bound to protect them, they flew to arms, seized several of the emperor's officers, and drove such of the nobility as resided among them out of the city. Sensible, however, of their inability to support what their zeal had prompted them to undertake, and desirous of securing a protector against the formidable forces with which they might expect soon to be attacked, they offered to acknowledge the king of France as their sovereign, and to put him into immediate possession of their city, and to assist him in recovering those provinces in the Netherlands which had anciently belonged to his crown. True policy should have made Francis comply with this proposal. The counties of Flanders and Artois were more valuable than the duchy of Milan, for which he had so long contended; and their situation in regard to France made it more easy to conquer or defend them. But Francis overrated the Milanese. He had lived in friendship with the emperor ever since the interview at Aigues-mortes, and Charles had promised him the investiture of that duchy. Forgetting, therefore, all his past injuries, and the deceitful promises by which he had been so often duped, the credulous, generous Francis not only rejected the propositions of the citizens of Ghent, but communicated to the emperor his whole negotiation with the malcontents.

The emperor, well acquainted with the weakness of his rival, flattered him in the hope of the investiture of Milan. The citizens of Ghent, alarmed at the approach of the emperor, who was joined by three armies, sent ambassadors to implore his mercy, and offered to throw open their gates. Charles only condescended to reply, "That he would appear among them as a sovereign and a judge, with the sceptre and the sword." He accordingly entered the place of his nativity on the anniversary of his birth; and instead of that lenity which might have been expected, exhibited an awful example of his severity. Twenty-six of the principal citizens were put to death: a greater number was banished: the city was declared to have forfeited his privileges; a new system of laws and political administration was prescribed; and a large fine was imposed on the inhabitants, in order to defray the expense of erecting a citadel, together with an annual tax for the support of a garrison. They were not

only despoiled of their ancient immunities, but made to pay, like conquered people, for the means of perpetuating their own slavery.

Having thus re-established his authority in the Low Countries, Charles began gradually to throw aside the veil under which he had concealed his intentions with respect to the Milanese, and at last peremptorily refused to give up a territory of such value.

This transaction exposed the king of France to as much scorn as it did the emperor to censure. The former remonstrated, however, and exclaimed with such resentment as made it obvious that he would seize on the first opportunity of revenge, and that a new war would soon desolate the European continent.

Meanwhile Charles was obliged to turn his attention towards the affairs of Germany. The Protestants having in vain demanded a general council, pressed him earnestly to appoint a conference between a select number of divines of each party, in order to examine the points in dispute. For this purpose, a diet was assembled at Ratisbon, which came, however, to no important decision, and it gave great offence to the pope; the allowing a diet, composed chiefly of laymen, to pass judgment in regard to articles of faith, appearing to him no less criminal and profane than the worst of heresies. The Protestants also were dissatisfied with the resolution of the diet, as it considerably abridged the liberty which they at that time enjoyed. They murmured loudly against it; and Charles, unwilling to leave any seeds of discontent in the empire, granted them a private declaration, exempting them from whatever they thought injurious or oppressive in the resolution, and confirming to them the possession of their former privileges.

The situation of the emperor's affairs at this juncture made these extraordinary concessions necessary. He foresaw a rupture with France to be unavoidable, and he was alarmed at the rapid progress of the Turks in Hungary.

Happily for the Protestants, Charles received intelligence of this revolution soon after the diet at Ratisbon; by the concessions in question, he obtained such liberal supplies, both of men and money, as left him under little anxiety about the security of Germany. He therefore hastened to join his fleet and army in Italy, in order to carry into execution a great and favourite enterprise which he had concerted against Algiers.

The loss which the emperor suffered in this calamitous expedition encouraged the king of France to begin hostilities, on which he had been for some time resolved; and an action dishonourable to civil society furnished him with too good a pretext for taking arms. The marquis del Guasto, governor of the Milanese, having got intelligence of the motions and destination of two ambassadors, Rincon and Fergoso, whom Francis had dispatched, the one to the Ottoman Porte, the other to the republic of Venice; knowing how much his master wished to discover the intentions of the French monarch, and of what consequence it was to retard the execution of his measures, he employed some soldiers belonging to the garrison of Pavia to lie in wait for these ambassadors as they sailed down the Po. The latter were murdered with most of their attendants, and their papers seized. Francis immediately demanded reparation for this barbarous outrage; and as Charles endeavoured to put him off with an evasive answer, he appealed to all the courts of Europe, setting forth the heinousness of the injury, the iniquity of the emperor in disregarding his just request, and the necessity of vengeance. But Charles, who was a more profound negotiator, defeated in a great measure the effects of these representations: he secured the fidelity of the Protestant princes in Germany, by granting them new concessions; and he engaged the king of England to espouse his cause, under pretence of defending Europe against the Infidels; while Francis was only able to form an alliance with the kings of Denmark and Sweden (who for the first time interested themselves in the quarrels of the more potent monarchs of the south), and to renew his treaty with Solymán.

But the activity of Francis supplied all the defects of his negotiation. Five armies were soon ready to take the field, under

under different generals, and with different destinations. Nor was Charles wanting in his preparations. He and Henry a second time made an ideal division of the kingdom of France. But as the hostilities which followed terminated in nothing decisive, and were distinguished by no remarkable event except the battle of Cerisoles (gained by count d'Enghuén over the imperialists, and in which 10,000 of the emperor's best troops fell), at last Francis and Charles, mutually tired of harassing each other, concluded at Crespy a treaty of peace, in which the king of England was not mentioned; and from being implacable enemies, became once more, to appearance, cordial friends, and even allies by the ties of blood.

The chief articles of this treaty were, that all the conquests which either party had made since the truce of Nice should be restored; that the emperor should give in marriage to the duke of Orleans, either his own eldest daughter, with the Low Countries, or the second daughter of his brother Ferdinand, with the investiture of the Milanese; that Francis should renounce all pretensions to the kingdom of Naples, as well as to the sovereignty of Flanders and Artois, and Charles give up his claim to the duchy of Burgundy; and that both should unite in making war against the Turks.

The emperor was chiefly induced to grant conditions so advantageous to France, by a desire of humbling the Protestant princes in Germany. With the papal jurisdiction, he foresaw they would endeavour to throw off the imperial authority; and he determined to make his zeal for the former a pretence for enforcing and extending the latter. However, the death of the duke of Orleans before the consummation of marriage, disentangled the emperor from the most troublesome stipulation in the treaty of Crespy; and the French monarch, being still engaged in hostilities with England, was unable to obtain any reparation for the loss which he suffered by this unforeseen event. These hostilities, like those between Charles and Francis, terminated in nothing decisive. Equally tired of a struggle attended with no glory or advantage to either, the contending princes concluded, at Campe, near Ardies, a treaty of peace; in which it was stipulated, that France should pay the arrears due by former treaties to England. But these arrears did not exceed one-third of the sums expended by Henry on his military operations; and Francis being in no condition to discharge them, Boulogne (a chargeable pledge) was left in the hands of the English, as a security for the debt.

In consequence of the emperor's resolution to humble the Protestant princes, he concluded a dishonourable peace with the Porte, stipulating that his brother Ferdinand should pay tribute for that part of Hungary which he still possessed; while the sultan enjoyed the imperial and undisturbed possession of all the rest. At the same time he entered into a league with pope Paul III., for the extirpation of heresy; but in reality with a view to oppress the liberties of Germany. Here, however, his ambition met with a severe check; for though he was successful at first, he was obliged in 1552 to conclude a peace with the Protestants on their own terms.

By the peace concluded on this occasion the emperor lost Metz, Toul, and Verdun, which had formed the barrier of the empire on that quarter; and therefore soon after put himself at the head of an army, in order to recover these three bishoprics. In order to conceal the destination of his army, he gave out, that he intended to lead it into Hungary, to second Maurice in his operations against the Infidels; and as that pretext failed him, when he began to advance towards the Rhiue, he propagated a report that he was marching first to chastise Albert of Brandenburg, who had refused to be included in the treaty of Passau, and whose cruel exactions in that part of Germany called loudly for redress.

The French, however, were not deceived by these arts. Henry immediately guessed the true object of Charles's armament, and resolved to defend his conquests with vigour. The defence of Metz, against which it was foreseen the whole weight of war would be turned, was committed to Francis of Lorraine, duke of Guise, who possessed in an emi-

nent degree all the qualities that render men great in military command. He repaired with joy to the dangerous station; and many of the French nobility, and princes of the blood, eager to distinguish themselves under such a leader, entered Metz as volunteers. The city was of great extent, ill fortified, and the suburbs large. For all these defects the duke endeavoured to provide a remedy. He repaired the old fortifications with all possible expedition, labouring with his own hands; the officers imitated his example; and the soldiers, thus encouraged, cheerfully submitted to the most severe toils; he erected new works, and he levelled the suburbs with the ground. At the same time he filled the magazines with provisions and military stores, and compelled all useless persons to leave the place, and laid waste the neighbouring country; yet such were his popular talents, as well as his arts of acquiring an ascendancy over the minds of men, that the citizens not only refrained from murmuring, but seconded him with no less ardour than the soldiers in all his operations—in the ruin of their estates, and in the havoc of their public and private buildings.

Meanwhile the emperor continued his march towards Lorraine, at the head of 60,000 men. On his approach Albert of Brandenburg, whose army did exceed 20,000 withdrew into that principality, as if he intended to join the French king; and Charles, notwithstanding the advanced season, it being towards the end of October, laid siege to Metz, contrary to the advice of his most experienced officers.

The attention of both the besiegers and the besieged was turned for some time towards the motions of Albert, who still hovered in the neighbourhood, undetermined which side to take, though resolved to sell his service. Charles at last came up to his price, and he joined the imperial army. The emperor now flattered himself that nothing could resist his force; but he found himself deceived. After a siege of almost sixty days, during which he had attempted all that was thought possible for art or valour to effect, and had lost upwards of 30,000 men by the inclemency of the weather, diseases, or the sword of the enemy, he was obliged to abandon the enterprise.

When the French sallied out to attack the enemy's rear, the imperial camp was filled with the sick and wounded, with the dead and the dying. All the roads by which the army retired were strewn with the same miserable objects; who, having made an effort beyond their strength to escape, and not being able to proceed, were left to perish without assistance. Happily that, and all the kind offices which their friends had not the power to perform, they received from their enemies. The duke of Guise ordered them all to be taken care of, and supplied with every necessary; he appointed physicians to attend, and direct what treatment was proper for the sick and wounded, and what refreshments for the feeble; and such as recovered he sent home, under an escort of soldiers, and with money to bear their charges. By these acts of humanity, uncommon in that age, the duke of Guise completed that heroic character which he had justly acquired by his brave and successful defence of Metz.

The emperor's misfortunes were not confined to Germany. During his residence at Villach, he had been obliged to borrow 200,000 crowns of Cosmo de Medici; and so low was his credit, that he was obliged to put Cosmo in possession of the principality of Piombino as a security for that inconsiderable sum; by which means he lost the footing he had hitherto maintained in Tuscany. Much about the same time he lost Sienna. The citizens, who had long enjoyed a republican government, rose against the Spanish garrison, which they had admitted as a check upon the tyranny of the nobility, but which they found was meant to enslave them; forgetting their domestic animosities, they recalled the exiled nobles; they demolished the citadel, and put themselves under the protection of France.

To these unfortunate events one still more fatal had almost succeeded. The severe administration of the viceroy of Naples had filled that kingdom with murmuring and dissatisfaction. The prince of Salerno, the head of the malcontents, fled to the court of France. The French monarch, after

after the example of his father, applied to the grand signior and Solyman, at that time highly incensed against the house of Austria, on account of the proceedings in Hungary, sent a powerful fleet into the Mediterranean, under the command of corsair Dragut, an officer trained up under Barbarossa, and scarcely inferior to his master in courage, talents, or in good fortune. Dragut appeared on the coast of Calabria at the time appointed; but not being joined by the French fleet according to concert, he returned to Constantinople, after plundering and burning several places, and filling Naples with consternation.

Highly mortified by so many disasters, Charles retired into the Low Countries, breathing vengeance against France; and here the war was carried on with considerable vigour. Impatient to efface the stain which his military reputation had received before Metz, Charles laid siege to Terouane; and the fortifications being in disrepair, that important place was carried by assault. Hesdin also was invested, and carried in the same manner. The king of France was too late in assembling his forces to afford relief to either of these places: and the emperor afterwards cautiously avoided an engagement.

The imperial arms were less successful in Italy. The viceroy of Naples failed in an attempt to recover Sienna; and the French not only established themselves more firmly in Tuscany, but conquered part of the island of Corsica. Nor did the affairs of the house of Austria go on better in Hungary during the course of this year. Isabella and her son appeared once more in Transylvania, at a time when the people were ready for revolt, in order to revenge the death of Martinuzzi, whose loss they had severely felt. Some noblemen of eminence declared in favour of the young king; and the bashaw of Belgrade, by Solyman's order, espousing his cause, in opposition to Ferdinand, Castaldo, the Austrian general, was obliged to abandon Transylvania to Isabella and the Turks.

In order to counterbalance these and other losses, the emperor, in 1554, concerted a marriage between his son Philip and Mary of England, in hopes of adding that kingdom to his other dominions. Meanwhile the war between Henry and Charles was carried on with various success in the Low Countries, and in Italy much to the disadvantage of France. The French, under the command of Strozzi, were defeated in the battle of Merciano; Sienna was reduced by Medicino, the Florentine general, after a siege of ten months; and the gallant Siennese were subjected to the Spanish yoke. Much about the same time a plot was formed by the Franciscans, but happily discovered before it could be carried into execution, to betray Metz to the Imperialists. The father guardian, and twenty other monks, received sentence of death on account of this conspiracy; but the guardian, before the time appointed for his execution, was murdered by his incensed accomplices, whom he had seduced; and six of the youngest were pardoned.

While war thus raged in Italy and the Low Countries, Germany enjoyed such profound tranquillity, as afforded the diet full leisure to confirm and perfect the plan of religious pacification agreed upon at Passau, and referred to the consideration of the next meeting of the Germanic body. During the negotiation of this treaty, an event happened which astonished all Europe, and confounded the reasonings of the wisest politicians. The emperor Charles V., though no more than 56, an age when objects of ambition operate in full force on the mind, and are generally pursued with the greatest ardour, had for some time formed the resolution of resigning his hereditary dominions to his son Philip. He now determined to put it in execution. Various have been the opinions of historians concerning a resolution so singular and unexpected; but the most probable seem to be, the disappointments which Charles had met with in his ambitious hopes, and the daily decline of his health.

In consequence of this resolution, Charles assembled the states of the Low Countries at Brussels; and seating himself for the last time in the chair of state, he explained to his subjects the reasons of his resignation, and solemnly de-

veloped his authority upon Philip. He recounted with dignity, but without ostentation, all the great things which he had undertaken and performed since the commencement of his administration. "I have dedicated (observed he), from the 17th year of my age, all my thoughts and attention to public objects, reserving no portion of my time for the indulgence of ease, and very little for the enjoyment of private pleasure. Either in a pacific or hostile manner, I have visited Germany nine times, Spain six times, France four times, Italy seven times, the Low Countries ten times, England twice, Africa as often; and while my health permitted me to discharge the duty of a sovereign, and the vigour of my constitution was equal in any degree to the arduous office of governing such extensive dominions, I never shunned labour, nor repined under fatigue; but now, when my health is broken, and my vigour exhausted by the rage of an incurable distemper, my growing infirmities admonish me to retire; nor am I so fond of reigning, as to retain the sceptre in an impotent hand, which is no longer able to protect my subjects. Instead of a sovereign worn out with diseases (continued he), and scarce half alive, I give you one in the prime of life, already accustomed to govern, and who adds to the vigour of youth all the attention and sagacity of maturer years." A few weeks after he resigned to Philip the sovereignty of Spain and America; reserving nothing to himself out of all these vast possessions but an annual pension of 100,000 crowns.

Charles was now impatient to embark for Spain, where he had fixed on a place of retreat; but by the advice of his physicians, he put off his voyage for some months, on account of the severity of the season; and, by yielding to their judgment, he had the satisfaction before he left the Low Countries of taking a considerable step towards a peace with France. This he ardently longed for; not only on his son's account, whose administration he wished to commence in quietness, but that he might have the glory, when quitting the world, of restoring to Europe that tranquillity which his ambition had banished out of it almost from the time that he assumed the reins of government.

The great bar to such a pacification, on the part of France, was the treaty which Henry had concluded with the pope; and the emperor's claims were too numerous to hope for adjusting them suddenly. A truce of five years was therefore proposed by Charles; during which term, without discussing their respective pretensions, each should retain what was in his possession; and Henry, through the persuasion of the constable Montmorency, who represented the imprudence of sacrificing the true interests of his kingdom to the rash engagements that he had made with Paul, authorised his ambassadors to sign at Vaucelles a treaty, which would insure to him for so considerable a period the important conquest which he had made on the German frontier, together with the greater part of the duke of Savoy's dominions.

The Pope, when informed of this transaction, was no less filled with terror and astonishment than rage and indignation. But he took equal care to conceal his fear and his anger. He affected to approve highly of the truce; and he offered his mediation, as the common father of Christendom, in order to bring about a definitive peace. Under this pretext, he appointed Cardinal Rebibo his nuncio to the court of Brussels, and his nephew Cardinal Caraffa to that of Paris. The public instructions of both were the same; but Caraffa, besides these, received a private commission, to spare neither entreaties, promises, nor bribes, in order to induce the French monarch to renounce the truce and renew his engagements with the holy see. He flattered Henry with the conquest of Naples; he gained by his address the Guises, the queen, and even the famous Diana of Poitiers, duchess of Valentinois, the king's mistress; and they easily swayed the king himself, who already leaned to that side towards which they wished to incline him. All Montmorency's prudent remonstrances were disregarded; the nuncio (by powers from Rome) absolved Henry from his oath of truce; and that weak prince signed a new treaty with the Pope; which rekindled with fresh

fresh violence the flames of war, both in Italy and the Low Countries.

No sooner was Paul made acquainted with the success of this negotiation, than he proceeded to the most indecent extremities against Philip. He ordered the Spanish ambassador to be imprisoned; he excommunicated the Colonnas, because of their attachment to the imperial house; and he considered Philip as guilty of high treason, and to have forfeited his right to the kingdom of Naples, which he was supposed to hold of the holy see, for afterwards affording them a retreat in his dominions.

Alarmed at a quarrel with the Pope, whom he had been taught to regard with the most superstitious veneration, as the vicegerent of Christ and the common father of Christendom, Philip tried every gentle method before he made use of force. He even consulted some Spanish divines on the lawfulness of taking arms against a person so sacred. They decided in his favour; and Paul continuing inexorable, the duke of Alva, to whom the negotiations as well as the war had been committed, entered the ecclesiastical state at the head of 10,000 veterans, and carried terror to the gates of Rome.

The haughty pontiff, though still inflexible and undaunted himself, was forced to give way to the fears of the cardinals, and a truce was concluded for forty days. Meantime the duke of Guise arriving with a supply of 20,000 French troops, Paul became more arrogant than ever, and banished all thoughts from his mind but those of war and revenge. The duke of Guise, however, who had precipitated his country into this war, chiefly from a desire of gaining a field where he might display his own talents, was able to perform nothing in Italy worthy of his former fame. He was obliged to abandon the siege of Civetella; he could not bring the duke of Alva to a general engagement; his army perished by diseases; and the Pope neglected to furnish the necessary reinforcements. He begged to be recalled; and France stood in need of his abilities.

Philip, though willing to have avoided a rupture, was no sooner informed that Henry had violated the truce of Vaucelles, than he determined to act with such vigour, as should convince Europe that his father had not erred in resigning to him the reins of government. He immediately assembled in the Low Countries a body of 50,000 men, and obtained a supply of 10,000 from England, which he had engaged in his quarrel; and as he was not ambitious of military fame, he gave the command of his army to Emanuel Philibert duke of Savoy, one of the greatest generals of that warlike age.

The duke of Savoy kept the enemy for some time in suspense with regard to his destination; at last he seemed to threaten Champagne; towards which the French drew all their troops; then turning suddenly to the right, he advanced by rapid marches into Picardy, and laid siege to St. Quintin. It was deemed in those times a town of considerable strength; but the fortifications had been much neglected, and the garrison did not amount to a fifth part of the number requisite for its defence: it must therefore have surrendered in a few days, if the admiral de Coligny had not taken the gallant resolution of throwing himself into it with such a body of men as could be collected on a sudden. This he effected in spite of the enemy, breaking through their main body. The place, however, was closely invested; and the constable Montmorency, anxious to extricate his nephew out of that perilous situation, in which his zeal for the public had engaged him, as well as to save a town of such importance, rashly advanced to its relief with forces one half inferior to those of the enemy. His army was cut in pieces, and he himself made prisoner.

The cautious temper of Philip on this occasion saved France from devastation, if not ruin. The duke of Savoy proposed to overlook all inferior objects, and march speedily to Paris, which, in its present consternation, he could not have failed to make himself master of; but Philip, afraid of the consequences of such a bold enterprise, desired him to continue the siege of St. Quintin, in order to secure a safe

retreat in case of any disastrous event. The town, long and gallantly defended by Coligny, was at last taken by storm; but not till France was in a state of defence.

Philip was now sensible that he had lost an opportunity which could never be recalled, of distressing his enemy, and contented himself with reducing Horn and Catelet; which petty towns, together with St. Quintin, were the sole fruits of one of the most decisive victories gained in the 16th century. The Catholic king, however, continued in high exultation on account of his success; and as all his passions were tinged with superstition, he vowed to build a church, a monastery, and a palace, in honour of St. Lawrence, on the day sacred to whose memory the battle of St. Quintin had been fought. He accordingly laid the foundation of an edifice, in which all these were included, and which he continued to forward at vast expense, for twenty-two years. The same principle which dictated the vow directed the building. It was so formed as to resemble a gridiron—on which culinary instrument, according to the legendary tale, St. Lawrence had suffered martyrdom. Such is the origin of the famous Escorial near Madrid, the royal residence of the kings of Spain.

The first account of that fatal blow which France had received at St. Quintin, was carried to Rome by the courier whom Henry had sent to recal the duke of Guise. Paul remonstrated warmly against the departure of the French army; but Guise's orders were peremptory. The arrogant pontiff therefore found it necessary to accommodate his conduct to the exigency of his affairs, and to employ the mediation of the Venetians, and of Cosmo de Medici, in order to obtain peace. The first overtures of this nature were eagerly listened to by the Catholic king, who still doubted the justice of this cause, and considered it as his greatest misfortune to be obliged to contend with the Pope. Paul agreed to renounce his league with France; and Philip stipulated on his part, that the duke of Alva should repair in person to Rome, and after asking pardon of the holy father in his own name and in that of his master, for having invaded the patrimony of the church, should receive absolution from that crime. Thus Paul, through the superstitious timidity of Philip, finished an unpropitious war not only without any detriment to the apostolic see, but saw his conqueror humbled at his feet: and so excessive was the veneration of the Spaniards in that age for the papal character, that the duke of Alva, the proudest man perhaps of his time, and accustomed from his infancy to converse with princes, acknowledged, that when he approached Paul, he was so much overawed, that his voice failed, and his presence of mind forsook him.

But though this war, which at its commencement threatened mighty revolutions, was terminated without occasioning any alteration in those states which were its immediate objects, it produced effects of considerable consequence in other parts of Italy. In order to detach Octavio Farnese, duke of Parma, from the French interest, Philip restored to him the city of Placentia and its territory, which had been seized by Charles V., and he granted to Cosmo de Medici the investiture of Sienna, as an equivalent for the sums due to him. By these treaties, the balance of power among the Italian states was poised with more equality, and rendered less variable than it had been since it received the first violent shock from the invasion of Charles VIII., and Italy henceforth ceased to be the theatre on which the monarchs of Spain, France, and Germany, contended for fame and dominion. Their hostilities, excited by new objects, stained other regions of Europe with blood, and made other states feel, in their turn, the miseries of war.

The duke of Guise, who left Rome the same day that his adversary the duke of Alva made his humiliating submission to the Pope, was received in France as the guardian angel of the kingdom. He was appointed lieutenant-general in chief, with a jurisdiction almost unlimited; and, eager to justify the extraordinary confidence which the king had reposed in him, as well as to perform something suitable to the high expectations of his countrymen, he undertook in

winter the siege of Calais. Having taken that place, he next invested Thionville, in the duchy of Luxembourg, one of the strongest towns on the frontiers of the Netherlands; and forced it to capitulate after a siege of three weeks. But the advantages on this quarter were more than balanced by an event which happened in another part of the Low Countries. The Mareschal de Termes, governor of Calais, who had penetrated into Flanders, and taken Dunkirk, was totally routed near Gravelines, and taken prisoner by Count Egmont. This disaster obliged the duke of Guise to relinquish all his other schemes, and hasten towards the frontiers of Picardy, that he might there oppose the progress of the enemy.

The eyes of all France were now turned towards the duke of Guise, as the only general on whose arms victory always attended, and in whose conduct as well as good fortune they could confide in every danger. His strength was nearly equal to the duke of Savoy's, each commanding about 40,000 men. They encamped at the distance of a few leagues from one another; and the French and Spanish monarchs having joined their respective armies, it was expected that, after the vicissitudes of war, a decisive battle would at last determine which of the rivals should take the ascendancy for the future in the affairs of Europe. But both monarchs, as if by agreement, stood on the defensive; neither of them discovering any inclination, though each had it in his power, to rest the decision of a point of such importance on the issue of a single battle.

During this state of inaction, peace began to be mentioned in each camp, and both Henry and Philip discovered an equal disposition to listen to any overture that tended to re-establish it. The private inclinations of both kings concurred with their political interests and the wishes of their people. Philip languished to return to Spain, the place of his nativity, and peace only could enable him, either with decency or safety, to quit the Low Countries. Henry was now desirous of being freed from the avocations of war, that he might have leisure to turn the whole force of his government towards suppressing the opinions of the reformers, which were spreading with such rapidity in Paris and the other great towns, that they began to grow formidable to the established church. Court-intrigues conspired with these public and avowed motives to hasten the negotiation, and the abbey of Cercamp was fixed on as the place of congress.

While Philip and Henry were making these advances towards a treaty which restored tranquillity to Europe, Charles V., whose ambition had so long disturbed it, but who had been some time dead to the world, ended his days in the monastery of St. Justus, in Estremadura, which he had chosen as the place of his retreat.

After the death of Charles, the kingdom of Spain soon lost great part of its consequence. Though Charles had used all his interest to get his son Philip elected emperor of Germany, he had been totally disappointed; and thus the grandeur of Philip II. never equalled that of his father. His dominions were also considerably abridged by his tyrannical behaviour in the Netherlands. In consequence of this, the United Provinces revolted; and after a long and bloody war, obtained their liberty. In this quarrel Elizabeth of England took part against Philip, which brought on a war with Spain. The great losses he sustained in these wars exhausted the kingdom both of men and money, notwithstanding the great sums imported from America. Indeed the discovery of that country has much impoverished, instead of enriching Spain; for thus the inhabitants have been rendered lazy and averse to every kind of manufacture or traffic, which only can be a durable source of riches and strength to any nation. The ruin of the kingdom in this respect, however, was completed by Philip III., who, at the instigation of the inquisition, and by the advice of his prime minister the duke of Lerma, expelled from the kingdom all the Morescoes or Moors, descendants of the ancient conquerors of Spain. Thirty days only were allowed them to prepare for their departure, and it was death to remain

beyond that time. The reason for this barbarous decree was, that these people were still Mahometans in their hearts, though they conformed externally to the rites of Christianity, and thus might corrupt the true faith. The Morescoes, however, chose themselves a king, and attempted to oppose the royal mandate; but, being almost entirely unprovided with arms, they were soon obliged to submit, and were all banished the kingdom. By this violent and impolitic measure, Spain lost almost a million of industrious inhabitants; and as the kingdom was already depopulated by bloody wars, by repeated emigrations to America, and enervated by luxury, it now sank into a state of languor, from which it has never recovered.

The reign of Philip IV., the successor of Philip III., commenced in 1621. He had not been long seated on the throne, before the expiration of the 12 years' truce which Philip III. had concluded with the United Provinces, again involved Spain in the calamities of war. The renewed contest was carried on with vigour by both the contending powers, till in the year 1648, the Spanish monarch was compelled to sign the treaty with Munster, by which the United Provinces were declared free and independent. From this period the power of the Spanish monarchy began to decline, as it had already been severely shaken by the loss of Portugal.

This event took place in 1640, when the Portuguese finally threw off the Spanish yoke, and that country remained an independent kingdom, till the power of Buonaparte compelled its lawful monarch to abandon his European territories. Philip IV. also prosecuted an unsuccessful war with France. This war was terminated in 1659, and Philip died about six years after.

The new monarch, Charles II., was only four years old when he succeeded to the throne. He was of a feeble constitution, and a weak capacity. The war which had been occasioned by the revolt of Portugal, continued till the year 1668, when a peace was concluded, and the independence of that kingdom was acknowledged. Hostilities had been renewed with France, but greatly to the disadvantage of the Spaniards, who lost some of the richest and best fortified towns which they still possessed in Flanders. The peace of Nimeguen between France and Spain was signed in the year 1678. Charles II. died in 1700, and with him ended the male line of the house of Austria; a dynasty to which Spain owes less than to any other race of its monarchs.

Historians have been fond of representing the dominion of the Austrian princes in Spain as productive of the greatest glory and advantage to that kingdom. The reign of Charles V. may indeed be said to have been a glorious reign; but little of its glory belonged to Spain, and the emperor certainly neglected her interests in advancing those of his more favoured territories. The picture given by the Spanish historians of the state of Spain at the accession and during the reign of Philip II., fully evinces how little that kingdom had profited by the change in the line of its succession. Agriculture was neglected; commerce was fettered by enormous duties, and the people were held in the chains of ignorance and superstition.

Charles II. was succeeded by Philip V., duke of Anjou, and grandson to Louis XIV. of France, who had been nominated heir to the Spanish throne by the late monarch. The treaty of Utrecht, which terminated the differences between the principal contending powers, was signed in 1713, and in 1715 a permanent peace was concluded between Spain and Portugal. Hostilities, however, still continued with Savoy and Sardinia, and in 1715 the island of Sardinia was taken by a Spanish fleet, and the year following another fleet belonging to the same nation invaded Sicily, but was defeated by the British Admiral Byng. By a new treaty in 1720, Sardinia was given to the Duke of Savoy, and Sicily to the emperor; and by the treaty of Seville, concluded in 1729, the duchies of Tuscany, Parma and Placentia, were ceded to Spain. In 1731, the Spanish king invaded Naples, took possession of that kingdom, and conferred it on his son Don Carlos, in consequence of which war

war was declared between Spain and the empire in 1733. At the end of that year the palace of Madrid was consumed by fire, and all the archives relating to the Indies perished in the flames.

In 1739, hostilities were renewed between Spain and Britain, but the only successes acquired by the latter power were the capture of Porto Bello by Admiral Vernon, and that of the Maquilla Galeon by Commodore Anson. After a long and turbulent reign, Philip V. died in 1746.

Ferdinand VI., a mild, prudent and beneficent prince, reformed abuses in the administration of justice, and management of the finances. He revived commerce, established manufactures, and promoted the prosperity of his kingdom. In April A.D. 1755, Quito, in South America was destroyed by an earthquake.

Charles III. succeeded Ferdinand in 1759. The famous family compact was concluded at Versailles, A. D. 1761, among the four kings of the house of Bourbon. The English, alarmed by the naval preparations of Spain, declared war in 1762, and took Havannah, in the island of Cuba, and Manilla in the East Indies. Notwithstanding this success, peace was hastily concluded at Fontainbleau, in November, by which the Havannah was restored. In 1767 the Jesuits were expelled from Spain. An unsuccessful expedition was concerted against Algiers, A. D. 1775, the particulars of which are related in M. Swinburne's Travels, Letter V. In the war between Great Britain and her American colonies, Spain, by the intrigues of the French court, was prevailed on to take up arms in support of the latter. At the conclusion of that calamitous war, Great Britain in a treaty with Spain, ceded to this power, East and West Florida, and the island of Minorca. Charles died in 1788, and was succeeded by his second son Charles Anthony, prince of Asturias, the eldest having been declared incapable of inheriting the crown.

Charles IV. had not long been seated on the throne before the portentous revolution in France involved Europe in a general scene of political and military contest. The king of Spain joined the general confederacy against the new republic, and in consequence was numbered among the objects of its resentment, by a declaration of war in 1793. The military operations of Spain, however, were extremely languid; and after two campaigns, in which she might be said to carry on rather a defensive than offensive war, against the republican armies, she was compelled to conclude a treaty of peace, which was signed at Basil on the 22d of July, 1795. By this treaty the French republic restored to the king of Spain all the conquests which she had made from him since the commencement of hostilities, and received in exchange all right and property in the Spanish part of St. Domingo.

This treaty was soon followed by a rupture with Great Britain. On the 5th of October, 1796, the court of Spain published a manifesto against this country, to which the court of London made a spirited reply; and about the same time was published a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance, which had been concluded about two months before, between the king of Spain and the French republic. In the war which followed between Spain and Great Britain, his Catholic majesty could boast of but little honour or success; and the French republic gained little from its new ally, but the contributions of money, which she from time to time compelled him to advance. On the 14th of February, 1797, a Spanish fleet of 27 sail of the line was defeated by Sir John Jervis, off Cape St. Vincent; and four of the Spanish line-of-battle ships were left in the hands of the victors. From this time till the temporary termination of hostilities by the peace of Amiens in 1802, there is nothing remarkable in the transactions of Spain.

On the renewal of the war in 1803, Spain was again compelled, by the overbearing power of France, to take an active part against Great Britain, and fitted out a formidable fleet, which was united to a considerable naval force of the new made emperor of the French. The Spanish declaration of

war against Britain is dated at Madrid on the 12th of December, 1804; and on the 21st of October, 1805, the combined fleets of France and Spain were nearly annihilated by Lord Nelson's decisive victory off Cape Trafalgar.

After this terrible blow to the naval power of Spain, nothing of importance took place till 1808, when the designs of Buonaparte against the independence of Spain, which had been long suspected, were openly avowed, in consequence of a domestic dispute, probably fomented by the emissaries of France, which took place between Charles IV. and the prince of Asturias. During the winter of 1807-8, the public mind in Spain had been greatly agitated. Some accused the prince of the Peace, Don Manuel Godoy (who had long held the helm of state, and was the richest and most powerful subject in the kingdom), of having concerted with the queen to destroy the prince of Asturias. Others accused the prince of Asturias of being at the head of a party to dethrone his father. Solemn councils and long proceedings, followed up by exiles and violent acts, far from calming opinions, served to agitate them still more.

In March, 1808, several disturbances happened at Aranjuez. These disturbances were excited by a report that the royal family were about to quit Spain and emigrate to America. In consequence of this report, the populace of the neighbouring villages repaired in crowds to Aranjuez, where they found the attendants of the court packing up the baggage of the royal household; and understood that relays of horses were stationed on the road to Seville, and that every thing was prepared for the departure of the royal fugitives, who were to take shipping at that port. It was suspected that Don Manuel Godoy, or, as he has commonly been called, the prince of the Peace, was the chief instigator of this unpopular measure; and the fury of the people was directed chiefly against that nobleman, whose palace they attacked on the 18th of March. He, however, found means to escape for the present, but was afterwards arrested in a garret of his own house. In the mean time the king issued two decrees with a view to allay the popular ferment; but as this still continued, he on the 19th took the extraordinary resolution of abdicating the throne in favour of the prince of Asturias. This resolution was made known by a royal decree, in which Charles declared that, as his natural infirmities no longer permitted him to support the weight of government, and the re-establishment of his health required a change of climate, he had after the most mature deliberation resolved to abdicate his crown in favour of his heir the prince of Asturias and; this resolution he declared to be the result of his own free will.

The new sovereign was accordingly proclaimed by the title of Ferdinand VII., and issued an edict confiscating the effects of Don Manuel Godoy, and announcing the appointment of the duke of Infantado, a nobleman extremely popular, to the presidency of Castile and the command of the royal guards.

These disturbances have commonly been attributed to the machinations of the French emperor, who had gained a complete ascendancy over the weak Charles; and had rendered the prince of the Peace entirely subservient to the views which he had formed on the independence and the liberties of Spain. Murat now caused it to be intimated to Ferdinand, that the emperor of the French was on his journey to Spain, and advised him to meet his master on the road. In the mean time he was tampering with the self-deposed monarch, whom he assured of the assistance of Buonaparte in reinstating him on the throne. Charles accordingly addressed a letter to Buonaparte, in which he contradicts the assertion of his decree on the 19th; and declares that his abdication was a measure of compulsion; and throws himself on the protection of that great monarch, his friend and ally, from whom alone he and his subjects can hope to derive tranquillity and happiness.

It appears to have been the design of Murat to draw out of Spain the whole of the royal family, and in this design he completely succeeded. Ferdinand set out to meet Buonaparte, accompanied by the French general Savary, and had advanced

advanced as far as Vittoria, when he was left by Savary, and he found himself surrounded by French troops. He was compelled to remain at Vittoria, until Savary, who had proceeded to Bayonne, where Buonaparte then was, should return and intimate to him the pleasure of his master. When the general returned, he brought with him a letter from Napoleon to Ferdinand. In this letter, which is addressed to Ferdinand as prince of Asturias, and not as king of Spain, Buonaparte assured the prince, that the sole object of his journey into Spain was to make such reforms in that kingdom as would be agreeable to the public feelings. Without pretending to judge respecting the late revolution, he cautions Ferdinand against the danger to be apprehended from sovereigns permitting their subjects to take justice into their own hands. After insinuating his own power over the royal family of Spain, and adverting to the tumults that had taken place, in which some of his troops had fallen, he makes use of the following expression, "A few of my soldiers may be murdered; but the subjugation of Spain shall be the consequence of it."

Ferdinand confounded at the conduct of the French emperor, and alarmed for his own personal safety, was compelled to proceed on his journey. When he arrived at Bayonne he was received by the prince of Neufchatel and Duroc, and was conducted to a place by no means suited to his rank or his character as ally of Buonaparte. He however dined with the emperor; but after he had retired, General Savary brought a message from his master, intimating his determination that the present royal family of Spain should give up to him all right and title to the crown of that kingdom, and that they should be succeeded by a branch of his own family. Astonished at this intimation, Ferdinand sent his prime minister Cevallos, to canvas the matter with M. Champagny, the confidential secretary of Napoleon. The conference was held in an apartment adjoining the cabinet of the emperor, and, as it appeared, within his hearing: for when Cevallos was arguing with great warmth and strength of reasoning on the injustice and even impolicy of the proposed measures, both he and Champagny were ordered into the emperor's presence; and the former was reviled in the grossest terms, branded with the appellation of a traitor, accused of having maintained that the recognition of Buonaparte was not necessary to the validity of his master's title to the throne of Spain, and of having affirmed that if the French dared to attack the independence of the Spanish monarchy, three hundred thousand men would rise to defend it and repel the invaders. After Napoleon had thus indulged the violence of his temper, he entered in a harsh and arrogant style on a discussion of the points in dispute between his secretary and Cevallos: and finding that he could neither convince nor silence the Spanish minister, he abruptly concluded with the following peremptory declaration: "I have a system of policy of my own; you ought to adopt more liberal ideas, to be less susceptible on the point of honour, and not sacrifice the prosperity of Spain to the interest of the House of Bourbon." From this time the destiny of the Spanish royal family was fixed. Ferdinand, the monarch of the people's choice, was already a captive, and not many days elapsed before the rest of the royal family was in the same situation. On the first of May, Ferdinand had made a conditional renunciation of his crown in favour of his father, and on the fifth of the same month, Buonaparte had a long conversation with Charles the Fourth and his queen. Ferdinand was called in by his father, to hear, in the presence of him and the queen, the disgusting and humiliating expressions which were uttered by the French emperor; expressions of such a nature, that Cevallos says he dares not record them. All the parties were seated except Ferdinand; he was ordered by his father to make an absolute renunciation of the crown, on pain of being treated as an usurper and a conspirator against the right of his parents. With this requisition Ferdinand complied, and thus completed the abdication of his family; for it appeared that on the preceding day, Charles had executed the deed of resignation, which transferred to the emperor of the French his title to the crown of Spain, on

consideration of receiving during his life an annuity of eighty millions of reals, of a dowry to his queen of two millions of reals, and to the infantas of Spain the annual sum of four hundred thousand livres.

Thus had Buonaparte effected the transference of the Spanish nation from the Bourbon dynasty to his own family, so far at least as that transference could be effected by the formal renunciation in his favour of the royal family, and by a strong but suspicious recommendation from them to the Spanish nation to receive their new sovereign, whoever he should be, with submission and obedience.

It was soon understood that Napoleon designed the crown of Spain for his brother Joseph, who had some time before been placed on the throne of Naples. In an address to the Spanish nation, which Buonaparte published immediately after the abdication of Charles and Ferdinand, he informed them that he did not mean to reign over them in person, but that he would give them a sovereign every way resembling himself. In the beginning of June, Joseph Buonaparte arrived in the neighbourhood of Bayonne, where he was received by a deputation of the grandes of Spain and from the council of Castile, and presented with a congratulatory address, written in the usual fulsome style of adulation.

But though the nomination of Joseph Buonaparte was easily effected, it was not so easy to place him on the throne in opposition to the almost unanimous will of the Spanish nation. Ferdinand the Seventh was the darling of the people, and his accession to the crown had been hailed by them, both as placing them under the dominion of a beloved monarch, and as releasing them from the tyranny of Godoy, who was an object of almost universal detestation. They had hitherto submitted with patience to the influence and power of France, hopeless of rescuing themselves while Charles possessed the throne, and while the prince of the Peace directed his councils; but the accession of Ferdinand, and the consequent disgrace of the favourite, had led them to hope that they should now find a sovereign willing to direct and assist their efforts to regain their independence. Under these expectations, a great part of the nation had come forward to offer their assistance in supporting the claims of the new monarch. The province of Catalonia, the most industrious and the most warlike of the Spanish nation, particularly distinguished itself by the promptitude and extent of its offers. Soon after Ferdinand had ascended the throne, the captain-general of Catalonia, relying on the well known resources and dispositions of the inhabitants, had come forward with an offer of a military force of above a hundred thousand men; and other provinces would have followed this example, but Ferdinand had discouraged these military preparations, and appeared willing to submit quietly to French bondage.

The spirit which had animated the Spaniards thus boldly to support their sovereign, was not of a nature to be chilled by his timidity or repressed by his example. The renunciation of the royal family in favour of Buonaparte was no sooner known in Spain, than the northern provinces burst into open insurrection. Asturias and Galicia set the example; and it was soon followed by almost every part of Spain, not immediately occupied or overawed by the armies of France.

One of the first steps taken by the leaders of the insurrection was, to assemble the juntas or general assemblies of the provinces. When these were organized, they issued proclamations, calling on the Spaniards to rise in defence of their sovereign, and in the assertion of their own independence. Besides these proclamations from the provincial juntas, addresses were published in almost every province by the leaders of the popular cause; in particular, the province of Arragon was addressed by Palafox, a name celebrated in the annals of the Spanish revolution, in a bold and spirited manifesto. The junta of Seville, which assembled on the 27th of May, formed itself into a supreme junta of government, caused Ferdinand to be proclaimed king of Spain, took possession of the military stores, and issued an order for all males from 16 to 45, who had not children, to enroll themselves in the national armies.

It was natural that, when entering on so determined an opposition to the measures of Buonaparte, the Spaniards should turn their eyes towards that nation, by whom alone the ambitious views of that potentate had been successfully combated. A peace and alliance with Britain was evidently not only a measure of policy, but would afford them the most effectual assistance in the formidable struggle in which they were about to engage. Accordingly, deputies were dispatched to Great Britain from several of the provinces, to solicit the aid and friendship of that country, and to concert measures with the British ministry for executing the plans which had been contrived for freeing the kingdom from the French yoke. The junta of Seville issued a declaration of war with France, and declared the Spanish nation on terms of peace and amity with Britain. The Spanish deputies were empowered to solicit supplies of arms, ammunition, clothing and money; but it was thought that a supply of British troops would be unnecessary, the Spanish patriots considering themselves as fully equal to the defence of their country. The cause of the Spanish patriots was eagerly embraced by the court of London, and by the British nation at large, and the most active measures were quickly taken to send them effectual aid.

While these preparations were making on the part of the Spaniards, the French forces were collecting in great numbers, both on the frontiers, and in the neighbourhood of the capital. Above 25,000 men, under the command of Bessieres and Lassoles, threatened the provinces of Asturias and Biscay, or occupied the plains of Castile. Ten thousand men were shut up in the citadel of Barcelona; and to relieve them, a strong body of French troops had marched from the frontiers, and laid siege to Zaragoza. A considerable body under General Moncey attacked the city of Valencia; while the grand duke of Berg, after having detached General Dupont at the head of 20,000 men, to quiet the insurrection of the southern provinces, held Madrid with about 15,000 troops. Junot, with about 25,000 men, had entered Portugal, and taken possession of the capital. The whole French force at this time in Spain cannot be computed at less than 100,000 men. These were opposed by a very numerous, but undisciplined force, commanded by generals of acknowledged bravery, but differing widely from each other in experience and military prudence. General Palafox commanded in Arragon; General Castanos in the southern provinces; and General Blake in the north.

The first exertions of the Spanish patriots were eminently successful, though they have been greatly exaggerated in the newspapers published under authority of the juntas. The harbour of Cadiz, which contained a numerous and well-appointed fleet, was under the command of the Marquis de Solano, a man notoriously attached to the French interest; and here lay a French fleet, consisting of five ships of the line and a frigate. One of the first efforts of the patriots was, to obtain possession both of Cadiz and the French fleet, and in this they completely succeeded. Solano was arrested and put to death, and Don Morla was appointed in his room. In the beginning of June, the French fleet was summoned to surrender, and on the admiral's refusal, was furiously attacked by the batteries on shore, and obliged to capitulate. The force detached by Murat, under Dupont, was attacked near Baylen, on the 22d July, by Major-general Reding, second in command under Castanos, and after having been defeated, was compelled to surrender at discretion. The French force besieging Zaragoza, was repeatedly attacked by General Palafox, and suffered considerable losses, while that city held out with the most heroic bravery. Perhaps there are few instances in the annals of modern warfare, in which such persevering and successful courage has been displayed, as by the defenders of Zaragoza. All the means of attack which were in possession of the French, directed by the skill with which their long experience and success had supplied them, were made use of. The inhabitants were obliged continually to be upon their guard, and to be prepared to resist the most unexpected and secret, as well as the most open and violent assaults. The city was frequently bombarded in the middle

of the night, at the same time that the gates were attempted to be forced, under cover of the shells. More than once the French got into some parts of the town; but they were received with so much coolness and bravery, that they were never able to preserve what they had with so much difficulty and loss acquired. The women vied with their husbands, sons, and brothers, in the display of patriotism and contempt of danger: regardless of the fire of the enemy, they rushed into the very middle of the battle, administering support and refreshment to the exhausted and wounded, and animating, by their exhortations and example, all ranks to such a display of firmness and bravery as long secured this important city. When it is recollected, that the attacks of the French were numerous and varied, that they were constantly repeated with fresh, and generally with increasing forces, and that the sole defence of the city rested with its spirited inhabitants and the army of Palafox; some idea may be formed of the difficulties they must have undergone and surmounted, and of the glory to which they are so justly entitled. The patriots had gained possession of most of the sea-ports in the bay of Biscay, and headed by the bishop of St. Andero, repulsed the French in several attacks. The French force under General Moncey was also repulsed before Valencia, and the patriots were equally successful in several other quarters; so that by the end of July there did not remain above 40,000 French forces within the Spanish territory.

In the meantime preparations were making at Madrid for the reception of the new sovereign Joseph; and Murat, quitted the capital, to give way to the brother of Napoleon. Joseph arrived at Madrid in the latter end of July, with a guard of 10,000 men; but soon after his arrival, the news of the defeat and capitulation of Dupont reached Madrid, and threw the new court into the utmost consternation. They understood that the victorious army of Castanos was on its march towards the capital; and if he did not speedily retire from so dangerous a position, King Joseph dreaded either falling into the hands of the conqueror of Dupont, or of being intercepted in his retreat by the army of General Blake. In this situation he found himself under the necessity of quitting the capital which he had so lately entered, and before the end of the month he had reached Burgos in his precipitate flight towards the frontiers. Thus, within the space of two months, did the people of Spain behold their country almost entirely freed from the presence of the French; and this happy issue had been brought about by their own intrepidity. At a time when their situation was the most dispiriting and forlorn; when their king had been compelled to forsake them, and to make over his right to the throne to a foreign potentate; when they beheld scarcely any troops surrounding them on all sides, but those of their enemy they rose in arms, and opposed themselves, unskilled as they were in war, and totally unprepared for it, to a man before whom the mightiest empires in Europe had fallen.

The successes of the Spanish arms, though brilliant and important, were but transient. The leaders of the insurrection appear to have been but ill calculated to oppose the system of tactics which had been so often practised with success by the conqueror of Marengo, of Jena, and of Austerlitz. In a series of about 30 bulletins, published from the French army of Spain, comprehending from the beginning of November, 1808, to the middle of January, 1809, we read of nothing but the rapid movements and successes of the French, and the defeat and annihilation of the best appointed armies of the insurgents. In Galicia, General Blake, after having withstood Marshal Ney, in several encounters, was at length defeated, and his army dispersed. A division of the army of Estremadura, under Count Belvider, which had marched from Madrid to support the city of Burgos, was attacked and defeated by a division of the French army under the Dukes of Istria and Dalmatia; while the army of General Castanos was in a great measure dispersed, after a severe conflict on the heights of Tudela.

In the meantime Buonaparte had entered Spain, and taken the command of the French army. He advanced by rapid marches

marches towards Madrid, and at the end of November his advanced guard reached the important pass of Somosierra. This pass was defended by a body of 13,000 Spaniards, with sixteen pieces of cannon. They were attacked by the French under the Duke of Belluno, and after making a considerable stand, were entirely defeated. On the 2d of December Buonaparte arrived in the neighbourhood of Madrid, and on the 5th, he was master of that capital.

While the Spanish patriots were thus pursuing their plan of opposition to French tyranny with various success, the British cabinet were fitting out formidable expeditions to the coasts of Spain and Portugal. The British army under the command of Lieutenant-General Sir John Moore, proceeded on their march to the frontiers of Spain. And about the middle of the same month, a body of 13,000 British troops, under the command of Sir David Baird, arrived at Corunna, and proceeded through the interior of the country, intending to join Sir John Moore in the neighbourhood of Madrid.

A brigade of 10,000 men under General Hope, reached that capital, and established themselves at the Escorial; but on the approach of Buonaparte, were under the necessity of retiring.

Experience has shown that in their military campaigns on the continent, British forces have to contend with numerous difficulties, surmountable only by the utmost prudence and vigilance on the part of the commanding officers, and by a considerable degree of skill and foresight on that of the projectors of such undertakings. Never perhaps were these difficulties more severely felt than in the march of Sir John Moore from Portugal to the centre of the Spanish territory. It was found that in whatever direction he might prosecute his march, he would encounter either bad roads or scanty supplies of provisions. In particular, the difficulty of transporting the artillery over the Portuguese mountains was extreme; and the Portuguese at Lisbon were either egregiously ignorant of the state of the roads which led through their own country to the Spanish frontiers, or were unwilling to communicate the information which they really possessed. Under these circumstances it was found necessary to divide the British army; and it was determined to send forward one division consisting of 6000 men under the command of Lieutenant-General Hope, which was directed to march by Elvas, to enter Spain by Badajos, and to proceed along the Madrid road by way of Espinar. Another division, consisting of two brigades under General Paget, was detached by way of Elvas and Alcantara, where it was to pass the Tagus. Two brigades under General Beresford moved through Portugal by way of Coimbra and Almeida towards Salamanca, while three Brigades under General Fraser marched towards the frontiers of Spain by Abrantes and Almeida.

Burgos had been recommended by the Spanish government as the point of union for the British troops, and Madrid and Valladolid were appointed for magazines. The British had been led to expect that they would find between 60,000 and 70,000 Spaniards assembled under General Blake and the Marquis de la Romana in the provinces of Asturias and Galicia, and that a much greater number was ready to co-operate with them under the command of Castanos on the front and left of the principal French position. The Spaniards had been represented as unanimous in their enthusiasm for the cause of liberty, and as ready to treat the British troops as the saviours of their country. How far this information was correct, will be seen presently.

In marching through the Portuguese territory, the troops first encountered difficulties which they were not prepared to expect. The contractor at Lisbon, who had agreed to supply the divisions with rations on the march, failed in his contract, and excessive inconvenienc was experienced from the want of money. The divisions under Generals Fraser and Beresford were obliged to halt, and it was some time before they could again set forward. The proceedings of the central junta, on which all the movements both of the British and Spanish armies chiefly depended, were languid, tardy, and irresolute; and before the British troops could assemble in

any force in Spain, the principal armies of the patriots had been defeated and dispersed in almost every quarter. On the 8th of November Sir John Moore reached Almeida. The weather was at this time extremely unfavourable, and the troops were exposed to almost incessant rain. They entered Spain on the 11th of November, and on the 13th Sir John arrived with his advanced guard at Salamanca, where he halted, intending to assemble there all the troops which were on their march through Portugal. While he remained at Salamanca, he was informed that a considerable French force had advanced and taken possession of Valladolid, at the distance of only twenty leagues, by which one of the places that had been intended for magazines was lost. At this time Sir John had with him only three brigades of infantry without artillery, and it would be at least ten days before the whole of the divisions could come up. He was thus exposed to almost an immediate attack by the French without any effectual support from the Spaniards.

The situation of affairs in Spain had now become extremely critical; and every account sent to Sir John Moore by men of sound judgment, was filled with convincing proofs that the Spanish government had concealed from their ally the very desperate state of their affairs. General Hope, by a long and tiresome march, had reached the neighbourhood of Madrid, whence he wrote a letter to Sir John, stating that every branch was affected by the disjointed and inefficient construction of the government. On the 28th of November, Sir John was advertised of the late defeat and dispersion of Castanos, and of the little probability there was of his being able to march forward, so as to effect any thing of advantage. He therefore determined to fall back, though this determination was evidently in opposition to the wishes and advice of his officers. Fresh dispatches, however, from the seat of government, diminishing the losses which had been sustained by the patriots, and exaggerating the ardour with which the people were actuated, induced him to delay his retreat, especially as he had now a complete, though small corps, with cavalry and artillery, and could, by a movement to the left, easily effect a junction with Sir David Baird, while the division under General Hope had, by rapid marches, arrived in the neighbourhood of Salamanca.

In addition to the misrepresentations by which the commander of the British forces, and the British envoy at Aranjuez, had been deceived, they had now to contend with two designing men, who, it soon appeared, were in the French interest. These were Don Morla, the late governor of Cadiz, and a M. Charmilly. By the machinations of these men, Mr. Frere was led to advise, and Sir John Moore strongly incited to undertake, bringing the whole of the British force to the neighbourhood of Madrid, where they would soon have been completely within the power of the enemy. Though by these arts Sir John was effectually misled, he did not suffer himself to be drawn into so dangerous a snare. He, however, advanced beyond Salamanca, and sent forward the reserve and General Beresford's brigade towards Toro, on the Douro, where they were to unite with the cavalry under Lord Paget, who had advanced thither from Astorga. On December 12th, Lord Paget, with the principal part of the cavalry, marched from Toro to Tordesillas, while the brigade under General Stewart moved from Arivolo. In the vicinity of Tordesillas, near the village of Rueda, the British forces were first opposed by the French, a small party of whom were attacked and defeated.

While Sir John Moore was at Toro, he received intelligence that the Duke of Dalmatia was at Saldana with a considerable body of French troops, that Junot, Duke of Abrantes, was marching with another towards Burgos, and that a third, under the Duke of Treviso, was destined for Zaragoza. He was very desirous that the first of these generals should advance to meet him, and with this view he had come forward to Toro, which he reached on the 16th of December. He had hoped for effectual assistance from the corps commanded by the Marquis de la Romana, but he soon found that this general could render him no support. He had now resolved to threaten the communication between
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France and Madrid; and, if a favourable opportunity offered, to attack the Duke of Dalmatia's corps, or any of the covering divisions that should present themselves. He foresaw that this would necessarily draw upon him a large French force, and of course would prove an important diversion in favour of the Spaniards; who would by this means have the opportunity of collecting in the south, and restoring their affairs. The army was now near the French position. The cavalry under Lord Paget were pushed so forward, that their patrols reached as far as Valladolid, and had frequent successful skirmishes with the enemy. Colonel Otway met a detachment of French cavalry, charged them, and made the whole prisoners.

On the 18th of December, Sir John's head-quarters were at Castro Nuevo, and Sir David Baird's at Benevente, on the road to join him. On the 20th, Sir John reached Majorca, where he was joined by Sir David Baird. The united British army now amounted to rather fewer than 26,000 men, of whom about 2000 were cavalry. The weather was extremely cold, and the ground covered with deep snow. Still the exertions of the troops were indefatigable, and the cavalry in particular attacked and defeated a considerable body of French horse. On the 21st, the army reached Sahagun, where Sir John established his head-quarters, and determined to halt for some time, to refresh his troops, after the fatigues which they had undergone.

Sir John had now arrived within a very short distance from Saldana, where the Duke of Dalmatia was posted, with the flower of the French army; and preparations were made for an attack, which was waited for with all the ardour and impatience which distinguish British troops. In the mean time, however, repeated couriers arrived at head-quarters, the bearers of unpleasant intelligence. Certain information was received, that a strong French reinforcement had arrived at Carrion, a little to the right of Sahagun, that the French corps, which was marching to the south, had halted at Talavera, and that the enemy were advancing from Madrid in considerable force. Sir John now saw that his motions had been watched by Buonaparte, and that all the arts of this experienced general had been preparing to entrap him. To advance was madness; to retreat, almost in the face of the enemy, was a measure of the utmost danger—but it was the only alternative.

On the 24th of December, Sir John began silently and secretly to prepare for his retreat, and to provide, as far as possible, for the defence of those parts of the country which were still held by the patriots. With this latter view, he directed Sir David Baird to take the route towards Valencia de Don Juan, while the rest of the army was to proceed by Castro Gonzalo. By this division, the magazines and stores which had been deposited at Benevente and Zamora, were also effectually secured.

According to the arrangement made, General Fraser, followed by General Hope, marched with their divisions on the 24th of December to Valderos and Majorca, and Sir David Baird proceeded with his to Valencia. To conceal this movement, Lord Paget was ordered to push on strong patrols of cavalry close to the advanced posts of the enemy. The reserve, with two light corps, did not retire from Sahagun till the morning of the 25th, following General Hope. Lord Paget was ordered to remain with the cavalry until evening, and then follow the reserve. These last were accompanied by Sir John. The retreat commenced in this deliberate manner. On the 26th of December, Sir David Baird reached the Eslar, and passed the ferry with less difficulty than was expected. He took post, according to his orders, at Valencia, and wrote to the Marquis of Romana, urging him to blow up the bridge of Mansilla. The other divisions of infantry proceeded unmolested to Castro Gonzalo. On the 24th, the advanced guard of Buonaparte's army marched from Tordesillas, 120 miles from Madrid, and strong detachments of cavalry had been pushed forward to Villalpando and Majorca. On the 26th, Lord Paget fell in with one of those detachments at the latter place. His Lord-

ship immediately ordered Colonel Leigh, with two squadrons of the 10th hussars, to attack this corps, which had halted on the summit of a steep hill. One of Colonel Leigh's squadrons was kept in reserve; the other rode briskly up the hill; on approaching the top, where the ground was rugged, the colonel judiciously reined-in to refresh the horses, though exposed to a severe fire from the enemy. When he had nearly gained the summit, and the horses had recovered their breath, he charged boldly and overthrew the enemy; many of whom were killed and wounded, and above 100 surrendered prisoners. Nothing could exceed the coolness and gallantry displayed by the British cavalry on this occasion. The 18th dragoons had signaled themselves in several former skirmishes; they were successful in six different attacks. Captain Jones, when at Placencia, had even ventured to charge 100 French dragoons with only 30 British; 14 of the enemy were killed, and six taken prisoners. The cavalry, the horse-artillery, and a light corps, remained on the night of the 26th, at Castro Gonzalo; and the divisions under Generals Hope and Fraser, marched to Benevente. On the 27th, the rear guard crossed the Eslar, and followed the same route, after completely blowing up the bridge.

We shall not attempt any farther detail of this dangerous and calamitous retreat, in which our army suffered extremely, from the fatigues of constant marching, from the badness of the weather, and even from the brutality of the Spaniards, in whose cause they had embarked. Before they reached Astorga, it was found necessary to divide the army. A body of 3000 men, under Brigadier-general Crawford, was detached on the road to Orense towards Vigo, while the main body, under the command of Sir John Moore, marched by Astorga and Lugo, on the road to Corunna. They left Astorga on the 30th of December, and on the 11th of January came in sight of Corunna. The army had now reached the sea-port from which they were to embark, but adverse winds had detained the transports, or the whole of the troops would have been speedily and safely on board. Only a few ships lay in the harbour, and in these some sick men and a few stragglers, under pretence of sickness, had immediately embarked.

During the whole march from Sahagun to Corunna, the British army was closely followed by the French, under Buonaparte and the Duke of Dalmatia; and the two armies were often so near each other, that the French patrols fell in, during the night, with the cavalry piquets of the British. The Duke of Dalmatia had joined Buonaparte at Astorga, and had increased his force to nearly 70,000 men, while the whole force of the British did not exceed 26,000. When Sir John's army reached Lugo, it was found that three divisions of the French were arranged in front, and it was thought advisable, on the 8th of January, to offer the enemy battle. This offer, however, the French thought proper to decline, and the Duke of Dalmatia stirred not from his post. When the army reached Corunna, the French were far in the rear, and it was hoped that the transports might arrive before the enemy could come up.

The retreat of the British, considering the circumstances under which it was effected, was a brilliant and successful achievement. Two hundred and fifty miles of country had been traversed in 11 days, during the worst season of the year, through bad roads, over mountains, defiles and rivers, and in almost daily contact with an enemy nearly three times their numbers. Though often engaged, the rear guard of the British had never been beaten, nor even thrown into confusion. Many losses had indeed been sustained, in baggage, artillery and horses, and many stragglers had fallen into the hands of the enemy; but neither Napoleon, nor the Duke of Dalmatia, could boast of a single military trophy taken from the retreating army. The greatest danger was still to be incurred; the position of Corunna was found to be extremely unfavourable; the transports had not arrived, and the enemy began to appear upon the heights. The situation of the army was by most of the officers thought so desperate, that they advised the general to propose terms to
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the Duke of Dalmatia, that they might be suffered to embark unmolested; but this advice Sir John, without hesitation, rejected.

On the 12th of January, the French were seen moving in considerable force on the opposite side of the river Mero. They took up a position near the village of Perillo, on the left flank of the British, and occupied the houses along the river. In the mean time, Sir John was incessantly occupied in preparing for the defence of his post, and in making every arrangement for the embarkation of the troops.

On the 13th, Sir David Baird marched out of Corunna with his division, and took post on a rising ground, where he determined to remain all night. A division under General Hope was sent to occupy a hill on the left, which commanded the road to Betanzos, forming a semicircle with Sir David Baird's division on the right. General Frazer's division was drawn up near the road to Vigo, about half a mile from Corunna, and communicated with that under Sir David Baird, by means of the rifle corps attached to the latter, which formed a chain across the valley. The reserve under Major-general Paget occupied a village on the Betanzos road, about half a mile from the rear of General Hope. The higher grounds on the rear and flanks of the British were possessed by the French, a situation which gave the latter a considerable advantage.

In the evening the transports from Vigo hove in sight; but the enemy was now so near, and had, during this day, shown so much disposition to molest the British, that a general action was become inevitable. On the 15th, the enemy had advanced to a height where, the day before, a magazine, containing nearly 4000 barrels of gunpowder, had been blown up, and which was immediately opposite to the position of the British. On this day some skirmishes took place.

On the 16th, every thing was prepared for a general action. Most of the artillery had been embarked, as it was found that, from the nature of the ground, much artillery could not be employed with advantage. During the 13th and 14th, the sick, the dismounted cavalry and horses, were also nearly all embarked. On the morning of the 16th, the French on the hills were apparently quiet, and it was hoped that the embarkation might be effected in the course of that night; but about noon the enemy, who had in the morning received reinforcements, and had placed some guns in front of the right and left of his line, was observed to be getting under arms, to be moving troops towards his left flank, and forming various columns of attack at that extremity of the strong and commanding position which he had taken on the 15th, in front of the British line. This indication of his intention was immediately succeeded by a rapid and determined attack on the division under Sir David Baird, which formed the right wing, and was the weakest part of the line. The first effort of the enemy was met by Sir John Moore and Sir David Baird at the head of the 42d regiment, and the brigade under Lord William Bentinck. The village on the right became an object of obstinate contest. While leading on his division to support this position, Sir David had his arm shattered with a grape shot.

Not long after, while Sir John Moore was riding from post to post, everywhere encouraging his troops, and pointing out the most advantageous opportunities for attack or defence, his conspicuous situation had exposed him to the fire of the enemy. A cannon-ball struck his left shoulder, and beat him to the ground. He raised himself, and sat up with an unaltered countenance, looking intently at the Highlanders, who were warmly engaged. Captain Hardinge threw himself from his horse, and took him by the hand; then observing his anxiety, he told him the 42d were advancing, upon which his countenance immediately brightened. His friend Colonel Graham now dismounted to assist him: and, from the composure of his features, entertained hopes that he was not even wounded; but observing the horrid laceration and effusion of blood, he rode off for surgeons. The general was carried from the field on a blanket, by a serjeant of the

42d, and some soldiers. On the way, he ordered Captain Hardinge to report his wound to general Hope, who assumed the command. Many of the soldiers knew that their two chiefs were carried off: yet they continued to fight with undiminished courage; and, by the most determined bravery, not only repelled every attempt of the enemy to gain ground, but actually forced him to retire, though he had brought up fresh troops in support of those originally engaged.

The enemy finding himself foiled in every attempt to force the right of the position, endeavoured by numbers to turn it. A judicious and well-timed movement, which was made by Major-general Paget, with the reserve, which corps had moved out of its cantonments to support the right of the army, by a vigorous attack, defeated this intention. The major-general having pushed forward the 95th (rifle corps) and 1st battalion 52d regiment, drove the enemy before him; and, in his rapid and judicious advance, threatened the left of the enemy's position. This circumstance, with the position of Lieutenant-general Fraser's division (calculated to give still farther security to the right of the line) induced the enemy to relax his efforts in that quarter. They were, however, more forcibly directed towards the centre, where they were again successfully resisted by the brigade under major-general Manningham, forming the left of Sir David Baird's division, and a part of that under Major-general Leith, forming the right of the division under General Hope. Upon the left the enemy at first contented himself with an attack upon our picquets, which, however, in general, maintained their ground. Finding, however, his efforts unavailing on the right and centre, he seemed determined to render the attack on the left more serious, and had succeeded in obtaining possession of the village through which the great road to Madrid passes, and which was situated in front of that part of the line. From this point, however, he was soon expelled with considerable loss, by a gallant attack of some companies of the 2d battalion of the 14th regiment, under Lieutenant-colonel Nicholls. Before five in the evening, the British had not only successfully repelled every attack made upon the position, but had gained ground in almost all points, and occupied a more forward line than at the commencement of the action, whilst the enemy confined his operations to a cannonade, and the fire of his light troops, with a view to draw off his other corps. At six the firing ceased. The different brigades were reassembled on the ground which they occupied in the morning, and the picquets and advanced posts resumed their original stations.

Notwithstanding the decided and marked superiority which at this moment the gallantry of the troops had given them over an enemy, who, from his numbers and the commanding advantages of his position, no doubt expected an easy victory, General Hope did not, on reviewing all circumstances, conceive that he should be warranted in departing from what he knew was the previous and fixed determination of the late commander of the forces, to withdraw the army on the evening of the 16th, for the purpose of embarkation, the previous arrangements for which had already been made.

In this action the British troops had come off with glory; and there can be no doubt, from the repulse of the French forces, and their subsequent inactivity, that the honour of the victory belonged to the British. The victory had indeed cost them dear. They had lost one of their best generals; and probably nearly 1000 men had been killed or wounded during the action. It had been achieved at the termination of a long and harassing service. The superior numbers, and advantageous position of the enemy, not less than the actual situation of the British army, did not admit of any advantage being reaped from success. The lustre of the British arms had, however, been maintained under the most disadvantageous circumstances. The army which had entered Spain amidst the fairest prospects, had no sooner completed its junction, than, owing to the multiplied disasters that dispersed the native armies around it, it was left to its own resources. The advance of the British troops from the

the Douro afforded the best hope, that the south of Spain might be relieved; but this also afforded the enemy the opportunity of directing his numerous troops, and concentrating all his principal resources. These circumstances had produced the necessity of rapid and harassing marches; and the very shameful inattention of our ministry and the commissariat to the wants of the army, had diminished the numbers, exhausted the strength and impaired the equipment of the army.

Notwithstanding the ill success which had thus attended the expedition under Sir John Moore, the spirit of patriotism which appeared still to actuate the southern provinces of Spain, and the hope that the common cause might there be supported to greater advantage, induced the British ministry to send another military force to the western peninsula of Europe, to co-operate with the patriots who still continued in arms. Accordingly, a body of about 15,000 forces, under the command of Sir Arthur Wellesley, whose bravery and good conduct in the battle of Vimiera, had recommended him, in a particular manner, both to the ministry and the nation, was dispatched towards the coast of Portugal, where Marshal Beresford still maintained a British force; while General Hill, with about 5000 infantry, and 400 cavalry, sailed from Ireland with the same destination. General Hill arrived at Lisbon on the 4th of April, and soon after Sir Arthur landed with the main body. On the 7th of April the army moved forward towards the Douro, and crossed that river during the night of the 11th, a little above Oporto. Here they fell in with a French detachment from the army of the Duke of Dalmatia, which they routed and put to flight, after a short but well contested action.

After this action the Duke of Dalmatia found it necessary to retreat. He passed through the defiles of Salamonde; and thus gained considerably on the British army, though he was obliged to leave behind him part of his artillery. On the 19th of May he was at Allaritz, and on the 20th he continued his retreat across the Minho, which he passed at Orense, thus leaving Portugal once more in possession of the British forces.

Sir Arthur Wellesley, after having remained for some time in the Portuguese territory, to refresh his men after the fatigues which they had undergone, advanced into Spain, and effected a junction with general Cuesta, who then commanded a considerable part of the remains of the patriotic army. In the latter end of July, the allied army, had advanced to Talavera de la Reyna, in the neighbourhood of which they were encountered by a formidable French force, consisting of a corps commanded by Marshal Victor, another under General Sebastiani, the guards of Joseph Buonaparte, amounting to 8000 men, and the garrison of Madrid. This large force was commanded by Joseph Buonaparte in person, assisted by Marshals Jourdan and Victor and General Sebastiani.

On the 27th of July, an attack was made by the French army on that of the allies, who had taken up their position at Talavera. The attack was vigorous, but was repelled with great spirit and success, though not without considerable loss on the part of the British.

The defeat of this attempt was followed about noon of the 28th by a general attack of the enemy's whole force, on the whole of that part of the position which was occupied by the British army. The general attack began by the march of several columns of infantry into the valley, with a view to attack the height occupied by Major-general Hill. These columns were immediately charged by the 1st German light dragoons and 23d dragoons, under the command of General Anson, and supported by General Fane's brigade of heavy artillery; and although the 23d dragoons suffered considerable loss, the charge had the effect of preventing the execution of that part of the enemy's plan. At the same time an attack was directed upon Brigadier-general Alexander Campbell's position in the centre of the combined armies, and on the right of the British. This attack was most successfully repulsed by Brigadier-general Campbell, supported by the king's regiment of Spanish cavalry, and

two battalions of Spanish infantry; and the allies were left in possession of the enemy's cannon.

An attack was also made at the same time on Lieutenant-general Sherbrooke's division, which was on the left and centre of the first line of the British army. This attack was most gallantly repulsed by a charge with bayonets, by the whole division.

Shortly after the repulse of this general attack, in which apparently all the enemy's troops were employed, he commenced his retreat across the Alberche, which was conducted in the most regular manner, and effected during the night, leaving in the hands of the British 20 pieces of cannon, ammunition, tumbrils, and some prisoners.

Though the French were defeated in this engagement, and, according to Sir Arthur Wellesley's account, must have lost at least 10,000 men, the loss of the British was very great. By the official returns it is stated to exceed 5000. And the action, though brilliant, does not appear to have been attended with much advantage to the allies, as, from the reinforcements which the French army was daily receiving, Sir Arthur Wellesley was soon compelled to fall back towards the frontiers of Portugal, leaving behind him much of his baggage and the whole of his sick and wounded. It must be recorded to the honour of the French commander, into whose hands these unfortunate men had fallen, that he treated them with the utmost humanity, and afforded them every accommodation which the nature of their situation admitted.

The British army now crossed the Tagus, and held a south-west course till reaching Badajos, where it remained during the rest of the year, in a position which covered that fortress.

In the early part of 1811 the south-west of Spain, was the scene of very active operations. A body of Spaniards and British, marching northward from Gibraltar, approached the south-west extremity of the line occupied by the French troops engaged in the blockade of Cadiz. General Graham commanded the British, and on 5th March, at noon, was drawing near to the close of a long march, when he received intelligence of the advance of a French force. Knowing the height of Barrosa, which he had just left, to be the key of the position, he immediately countermanded his corps, and had proceeded but a short way, when he found himself unexpectedly near to the enemy, whose left division was seen ascending the hill of Barrosa, while their right stood on the plain within cannon shot. To retreat was wholly unadvisable; an immediate attack was determined on, though unsupported by the Spaniards, and inferior to the enemy. A battery opened against the right division of the French, and caused them considerable loss, but they continued to advance until a charge with the bayonet drove them back with great slaughter. With the other division on the ascent of the hill, there took place a similar conflict with a similar issue; both sides fought with courage, and both sustained a heavy loss; that of the British was above 1200; that of the enemy nearly double. The action lasted an hour and a half: our success was owing partly to the effect of our guns, but still more to the firmness of the infantry.

About the same time, but at a distance of 200 miles to the north of Cadiz, the important fortress of Badajos fell into the hands of the French. This painful intelligence reached Lord Wellington when following up the retreat of Massena; and no time was lost in detaching a body of troops to the south of Portugal to enable Marshal Beresford to advance and form the siege of Badajos. This called from the south the army of Soult, 20,000 strong; on their approach, Marshal Beresford raised the siege of Badajos, and marched to meet the French near the river Albuera, or Albuera, with a force numerically superior, but among which there was only 8000 British. Our army awaited the attack in a position as good as a country, in general level, afforded; but our general, in an evil hour, entrusted to the Spaniards a rising ground which formed the key of that position. The French columns succeeded in driving them from it, and were about to rake with their field-pieces all the allied line. A British division marching to attack the enemy with the bayonet, were

unfortunately turned by a body of lancers, who, amidst the smoke from the firing, had approached unperceived. Our loss was very great here, and there remained only one fresh division, which advancing gallantly to the charge, and, being supported by the other corps, drove the French with great slaughter from the field. The battle lasted five hours, and so great was the loss, that of the British force engaged, nearly one half were killed or wounded: the French had fought with equal bravery, and their loss also was very great. Lord Wellington reached the army some time after, and determined to renew the siege of Badajos; breaches were made in the walls, and two attempts at assault were hazarded (6th and 9th June), but in vain; the advance of the French army; from the north, in concert with that of the south, necessitated the raising of the siege. Here ended the active operations of the year; our army remained some time encamped in the central part of Portugal, after which Lord Wellington marched northward and threatened Ciudad Rodrigo, but retreated before a superior force collected by the French.

The campaign of 1812 commenced very early, Lord Wellington investing Ciudad Rodrigo on 8th January. The siege was pressed with activity, and a breach being made, the town was carried by storm on 19th January, though with a great loss, particularly in officers, among whom was General Mackinnon. So prompt had been our operations, that the French army approaching to the relief of the place, would not at first believe its capture. Soon after Lord Wellington turned his forces to the south and invested Badajos, already the scene of such obstinate contests. Here, also, the operations were pressed with great rapidity, that they might be brought to an issue before the arrival of the French army from Cadiz. On the night of 6th April, Badajos was attacked on several points by escalade; but we were repulsed in every direction except at the castle, which was fortunately carried and, commanding all the works, the consequence was the surrender of the town next day, after a siege which, short as it had been, cost us very nearly 5000 men. Secure on the south, Lord Wellington now marched towards the north, and detached Sir Rowland Hill to make a sudden attack on the French station at Almaraz, where the bridge over the Tagus served as the chief military communication between the northern and southern army. The expedition was successful, the entrenchments being stormed and destroyed. Lord Wellington now (May 19,) marched against the French army in the north, commanded by Marmont, and reached Salamanca on 16th June. The forts in that town being taken after some sharp fighting, the French retreated to the Douro, but being soon reinforced resumed the offensive, and obliged our army to retreat in turn. These movements continued several weeks; Lord Wellington being obliged to yield ground to his opponent, but ready to attack him on the commission of any material fault. Such an opportunity at last occurred on 22d July, near Salamanca, when the French, rendered confident by the enemy's continued retreat, extended their left, and presented an opening, which was instantly seized by their vigilant adversary. Columns were sent forward against the enemy's left and centre; the former succeeded completely, the latter met with much opposition. Great gallantry was shown and heavy loss sustained, on both sides; at last the French centre and right were both driven from the field. The darkness prevented the British making prisoners; but a body of cavalry joining in the night, the hostile rear-guard was attacked next morning, and obliged to surrender. The loss was about 3000 British and 2000 Portuguese; of the enemy in killed and wounded at least equal, with the loss of between 6000 and 7000 prisoners. The British force in the field was 22,000.

The consequences of the victory of Salamanca were the pursuit of the French army; the occupation of Madrid on 12th August by the allies; the abandonment by the French of the works constructed with vast expence against Cadiz: the evacuation of Andalusia, Granada, and all the south of Spain. But as this loss of territory was not attended by a

loss of troops, it became incumbent on Lord Wellington to prepare against a vigorous attack from forces that were rapidly concentrating. He made repeated attempts to take the castle of Burgos and the military stores collected there, but this fort, defended by a strong garrison and a vigilant commander (General Dubreton), baffled all our efforts, and proved the cause of a considerable sacrifice of lives. Meantime, the approach of Soult from the south, and of the army that had fought at Salamanca from the east, obliged Lord Wellington to adopt the alternative of retreat. He began on 20th October, and proceeded westward, in a line nearly parallel to the Douro, taking above three weeks to recross the country to the scene of his victory at Salamanca. There, united with General Hill, and at the head of 50,000 men, he remained on ground lately so propitious; hoping that an opportunity might offer to attack the enemy, though now increased, by the junction of their two armies, to the number of 70,000. But Soult's positions were found too strong for attack, and the interval afforded him by Lord Wellington was diligently employed in pushing forward detachments to cut off our communications with Portugal. Retreat now became indispensable; and here, amidst hasty marches, and a scarcity of five days, there occurred scenes of insubordination which recalled all the disorders of our march to Corunna, and drew from Lord Wellington a most severe censure in general orders. Fortunately, similar privations on the side of the French prevented them from making many prisoners, and, on 20th November, on the frontier of Portugal, was closed this eventful campaign.

The campaign of 1813 opened in the east of Spain, by an attack on the allied army under Sir John Murray, stationed not far from Alicante; the ground it occupied was strong, but the length of the position, two miles and a half, made Suchet, who commanded the French, conceive the hope of penetrating it at one or other point. In this, however, he was foiled with a loss of from 2000 to 3000 men; the only check of importance received by that commander in all his campaigns in Spain. Soon after this success, our army was engaged in the bold plan of proceeding by sea to Catalonia and besieging Tarragona. The wind proved favourable; the main body was landed near Tarragona, and a detachment succeeded, by great exertion, in taking Fort St. Philip on the mountain called the *Cold e Balaguer*, which blocked the nearest road for the arrival of the French from the south. Suchet, however, lost no time in marching northwards; our general, Sir John Murray, considered his force (which was chiefly Spanish) unable to withstand the French; he therefore embarked and returned to Alicante, a measure which incurred censure, but appears fully justified by circumstances, and still more by the conduct of his successors in the command.

Suchet, though successful on this occasion, soon found himself unable to retain his extensive line of occupation. The battle of Vittoria brought a new enemy on his rear, and obliged him to withdraw first from Valencia, and subsequently as far as Barcelona. Our army now advanced by land, and resumed the siege of Tarragona, with the power of retreating, not as before by sea, but on the country behind; an alternative to which a second advance by Suchet soon compelled our new commander, Lord William Bentinck. The French, however, unable to occupy an extended position, blew up the works of Tarragona and retired. Our army advanced anew, but was again checked and obliged to draw back, exhibiting a striking proof of the impracticability of opposing an active enemy with a mixed force, of which the Spaniards formed a large proportion.

We now turn to the western part of the peninsula, the field of the commander-in-chief, and of the far larger portion of our force. Lord Wellington, averse to open the campaign till every part of his troops was ready to co-operate with efficiency, did not move from quarters till after the middle of May. He knew that he would have much ground to traverse, retreat being evidently the policy of the French, weakened as they were by the recall of 25,000 veterans,

veterans, who had been feebly replaced by a body of conscripts. Lord Wellington was now, for the first time, at the head of a superior force, which he wielded with consummate skill. The strength of the enemy lay in the line of the Douro, which they expected to defend with advantage, so far at least as to make us purchase dearly its acquisition; but all this was prevented by Lord Wellington making his left division cross the river on the Portuguese territory, and advance along its northern bank; while he and Sir Rowland Hill, at the head of separate corps, marched, after several feints, in a diagonal direction, so as to support this movement, and effect a junction in an advanced position. The French, threatened with being taken in the rear, evacuated one town after another, and, even at Burgos, declined to fight on ground where late recollections would have been so animating; they continued to retreat, increasing from time to time their numbers by the garrisons of the evacuated towns, until, at last, they took a position at Vittoria, a town in Biscay, near the north-east frontier of Spain.

The position of the French extended from north to south, and was of great length. Their left rested on heights; part of their centre was also on heights, and their right was near the town of Vittoria. The Zadora, a stream of considerable size, but crossed by several bridges, ran nearly parallel to their front. Both armies were numerous, particularly that of the allies. It was the first time that nearly 40,000 British had fought together in Spain. Lord Wellington acted on the offensive throughout, and began the operations by taking possession of the heights near the extreme left of the enemy. This was easily effected; but their importance being soon perceived by the French, an attack was made to recover them. An obstinate contest took place, but the British on the heights repelled every assault. Under cover of these heights, our right wing advanced, and took a village (Sabijana) in front of the enemy's centre. It was in vain the French attempted to retake this village. The centre of the allies crossed the river near it, and the centre of the French withdrew from their position, retreating to the town of Vittoria. At first this retreat took place in good order, but an alarming account was soon received from the French right. That part of their position had been defended by the river and two *têtes-de-pont*, but the troops of our left wing had taken, first the heights commanding these forts, and soon after the forts themselves, baffling every effort of the enemy to retake them. The great road leading to the north was thus in possession of the allies; hence a general alarm and confusion throughout the French army. Their reserve was hastily withdrawn from its position, and pressed, with the whole army, along the only remaining road to the eastward; abandoning all their artillery, their ammunition, and their baggage. The loss of the battle was imputed by the French to Jourdan, whom Buonaparte, in a luckless hour, had allowed his brother to substitute to Soult; and who here, as at Talavera, was too late in discovering the importance of commanding positions. The loss in men was not particularly severe; that of the allies in killed and wounded was under 4000, and that of the French probably not much greater. The temptation afforded by the plunder of the baggage prevented our troops from making many prisoners; but the spirit of the enemy was shaken, and the loss of their artillery and stores obliged them to retreat across the Pyrenees.

The next operation of consequence was the siege of San Sebastian, a frontier fortress of great importance, which the French made the most vigorous efforts to relieve. Their army, provided anew with ammunition and cannon, advanced under the command of Soult, and drove back, after some sharp actions, the British corps posted in the passes of the Pyrenees. Our troops retreated to the vicinity of Pamplona, where, on the 27th, and still more on the 28th, they sustained a succession of impetuous attacks from the enemy. On the 29th Lord Wellington resumed the offensive, drove the French from their position, strong as it was, and obliged them to retrace their steps through the Pyrenees.

Our loss in these actions was about 6000 men in killed and wounded; that of the enemy was still greater, exclusive of 4000 prisoners.

At San Sebastian we had been repulsed in an assault on 25th July; the siege was continued, and a final assault on 31st August led to the capture of the place, though with the loss of 2500 men. The farther operations were the entrance of our army on the French territory on 7th October; the capitulation of Pamplona on the 26th, and a general attack on the position of the French near St. Jean de Luz on 10th November, after which they retreated across the Nivelle. But this mountainous country afforded a number of positions, and our next task was to drive the enemy from behind the Nive, a large river flowing northward from the Pyrenees. This was partly accomplished on 9th December; but on several succeeding days the French commanded by Soult, made impetuous attacks on the allied army, all anticipated by Lord Wellington, and all repulsed with heavy loss. Still the rains of the season, and the size of the mountain streams, retarded our operations. In January (1814) our army made some farther progress, and on 25th February, attacked the French in a position near Orthes, behind the Gave de Pau, another large river flowing from the Pyrenees. This attack was successful; and the retreat of the French was followed by the desertion of a number of their new levies. Soult's army now drew back, not in a northerly but easterly direction, to join detachments from the army of Suchet in Catalonia. At Tarbes, on 20th March, the fighting was of short duration, but a sanguinary battle took place at Toulouse, on 10th April;—a battle attended with a loss to the allies of nearly 5000 men, which, as well as a great sacrifice of lives on the part of the French, might have been prevented, had earlier intelligence arrived of the overthrow of Buonaparte, and the change of government at Paris.

We shall now retrace our steps to give some account of the civil history of Spain, during the period we have just described. In the year 1811, the new constitution was established, of which the following is an abstract:—

The sovereignty is declared to reside essentially in the nation which, being free and independent, neither is, nor can be, the patrimony of any person or family.—All Spaniards, without distinction, are subject to taxation.—“The religion of the Spanish nation is, and shall be for ever, the Catholic, Apostolic, and Roman, which is the only true religion.”—“The nation,” it is added, “protects it by wise and just laws, and forbids the exercise of any other whatever.”—The government of the Spanish nation is stated to be “a limited hereditary monarchy.”—The power of making laws is vested “in the Cortes, jointly with the King.”—In describing the class of Spaniards who enjoy the privileges of citizenship, persons “reputed of African origin, either by the father or the mother's side,” are excluded. A similar exclusion is given to Spaniards who obtain naturalization in another country, or who, without leave, absent themselves five years from Spain. The only basis for the number of representatives in the Cortes is Population, to be taken from the census of 1797, till one more correct can be made. For every seventy thousand souls there is to be one deputy in the Cortes. The returns of the members are made by three successive elections. Every parish appoints electors for the district to which it belongs. These repair to the chief town of the district to choose another set of electors, who, lastly, meeting in the capital of the province, make the final appointment to the Cortes. The Cortes is triennial. No member can be elected for two successive representations. No debate can be carried on in the presence of the king; his ministers may attend and speak, but are not allowed to vote. There is a permanent deputation, or committee of the Cortes, composed of seven members, appointed by the whole body, before a prorogation or dissolution, whose duty is to watch over the executive, and report any infringement of the constitution to the next Cortes. It also belongs to them to convoke an extraordinary Cortes in the cases prescribed by the constitution.

The powers of the Cortes are chiefly these: 1st. To move and pass the laws; and to interpret and alter them when necessary. 2d. To administer the constitutional oaths to the King, the Prince of Asturias, &c. 3d. To determine any doubt or fact relative to the succession. 4th. To elect a regency, and define its powers. 5th. To make the public recognition of the Prince of Asturias. 6th. To appoint guardians to the king while a minor. 7th. To approve or reject treaties previous to ratification. 8th. To allow or refuse the admission of foreign troops into the kingdom. 9th. To decree the creation or suppression of offices in the tribunals established by the constitution, as well as of places of public trust. 10th. To fix, every year, by the king's proposal, the land and sea forces. 11th. To regulate the military code in all its branches. 12th. To fix the expenses of the government. 13th. To impose taxes, contract loans, and direct every thing relating to the revenue. 14th. To establish a plan of public instruction, and direct the education of the Prince of Asturias. 15th. To protect the political liberty of the press. 16th. To enforce the responsibility of the secretaries of state, and other persons in office.

Laws may be proposed, in writing, by any one of the deputies. Two days after the motion, the bill is to be read a second time. It is then determined whether the subject is to be debated, or to be referred to a committee. Four days after the bill has been voted worthy of discussion, it is read a third time, and a day is appointed for the debate. A majority of votes decides the fate of the bill: the members present on these occasions must exceed the half of their total number by one.

The powers of the king are, 1st. To suspend the passing of a law by withholding his sanction. He can exercise this power against any decree of the Cortes, for two consecutive sessions; but is compelled to give his assent if the same law is passed by three Cortes successively. 2d. The executive power resides exclusively in the king, and extends to whatever relates to the preservation of public order in the interior, and to the external security of the state, according to the constitution and the laws. The privileges and duties of the executive are thus detailed in the constitution: the king may issue decrees, regulations, and instructions, for the more effectually enforcing of the laws;—it is his duty to watch over the administration of justice;—he declares war, and makes peace, under the control of the Cortes;—he appoints judges to all the civil and criminal courts, on the presentation of the council of state;—all civil and military employments are of the king's appointment;—he presents to all bishopricks, ecclesiastical dignities and benefices which may be in the gift of the crown; all by the advice of the council of state;—the king is the fountain of honour; the army and the navy are at his command, and he has the appointment of generals and admirals;—he has the right of coinage, and the privilege of impressing his bust on the metallic currency of the realm;—the king can propose new laws, or amendments to those in existence.—It belongs also to him to circulate or withhold the Pope's rescripts and bulls;—he can choose and dismiss his own ministers.

The following checks are laid on the king's authority by the constitution:—

1st. The king cannot prevent the meeting of the Cortes at the periods fixed by the constitution; neither can he dissolve them or disturb their sittings. His advisers and abettors in such attempts are guilty of treason. 2d. If the king should quit the kingdom without the consent of the Cortes, he is understood to have abdicated the crown. 3d. The king cannot alienate any part of the Spanish territory. 4th. He cannot abdicate the crown in favour of his successor without the consent of the Cortes. 5th. He cannot enter into any political alliance, or make commercial treaties without the consent of the Cortes. 6th. He cannot grant privileges or monopolies. 7th. The king cannot disturb any individual in the enjoyment of his property, nor deprive him of his personal liberty. If the interest of the state should require the arrest of any individual by virtue of a royal order, the prisoner must be delivered over to a competent tribunal

within eight-and-forty hours. 8th. The king cannot marry without the consent of the Cortes; he is supposed to abdicate the crown by taking a wife against their will.

The Council of State is composed of forty individuals, viz. two bishops, two priests, and four grandees; the other thirty-two must not belong to any of these classes. The members of the Council of State shall be chosen by the king out of a triple list presented to him by the Cortes. The Councillors of State cannot be removed without a trial before the Supreme Court of Justice. Their salary is fixed by the Cortes. The functions of this Council of State are to advise the king on all important matters of government, and especially upon giving or refusing his sanction to the laws, declaring war, or making treaties. The king, besides, cannot bestow any ecclesiastical benefice, or appoint any judge, but at the proposal of the Council of State, who, upon every vacancy, are to confine his choice to one out of three individuals, whose names they are to lay before his majesty.

The laws for the security of personal liberty are these, 1st. No Spaniard can be imprisoned without a summary process, wherein he is credibly charged with the infraction of some law which subjects the offender to corporal punishment; 2d. The arrest cannot take place without the warrant of a competent judge; 3d. Prisoners are not to be examined upon oath; 4th. The gaoler shall keep a register of the prisoners, expressing the warrant, and the alleged cause of confinement.

Such are the main articles of the Spanish Constitution; a production which, considering the circumstances of its appearance, highly deserves the attention of the politician and the philosopher. Spain had been for ages under the most effectual restraints which can be laid on the human mind, to prevent its dwelling upon subjects connected with the authority of civil and ecclesiastical rules. Few Spaniards, out of the learned professions, devoted any part of their time to reading. The knowledge of the clergy was generally limited to scholastic divinity, as that of the lawyers to the forms of the civil courts. A small proportion of both classes had privately ventured to look beyond the bounds which church and government had set to their speculations, and, books being smuggled from France, an inconsiderable number were become initiated in the principles of the French Philosophical School. The seeds of doubt and dissent, in matters of religion and policy, had greatly spread for the last forty years; but the bulk of the nation was still without a thought on these subjects, and blindly followed the impulse which time and habit had given them. The events which dethroned Charles IV. had no farther broken these habits than merely to show the people how effectually they could oppose their own will to the constituted authorities. But their loyalty was not impaired by their successful efforts. The name of Ferdinand VII. was the great bond of union which preserved the Spaniards from anarchy. To defend the authority of the crown was the only object of their general insurrection; and, having deposited its unbounded powers in the hands of a few, the people retired to their homes, setting no limits to their obedience.

Had not the progress of the French armies dispersed the *Central Junta*, and concentrated the fugitive patriots at Cadiz, it is more than probable that the Cortes would have been assembled according to the ancient forms, and that the privileged classes, supported by the majority of the nation, would have defeated any attempt to alter the old constitution. But Cadiz offered to that party, which has been since known by the name of *Liberal*, the most favourable opportunity of striking a deadly blow at the very root of the monarchical power, under which they had so long groaned.

From its maritime position, its commercial interests, and the foreign extraction of many of its inhabitants, Cadiz has, at all times, exhibited a scene of life so different from that which strikes the observer in the interior, that, upon entering its walls, he might imagine himself suddenly transported out of the kingdom. There, instead of the national prejudices in favour of birth, he might perceive the pride of wealth, and an ill disguised impatience of all other claims to respect

respect and influence. But if the rich merchants decked themselves with the marks of distinction so eagerly coveted by Spaniards, they still wore them without ease or satisfaction. Apparently raised by these externals to the ranks of the old titled gentry, the new marquis or knight still found himself but little removed above those of his former condition. He could not meet with the hereditary deference which the *Caballero* of the interior found in the labouring classes. Cadiz, in its days of prosperity had no poor; for, while a stream of wealth was poured in from the American colonies, the sea forbade its population to spread beyond the limits of comfortable subsistence. The line of distinction between the higher and the lower classes was, therefore, less marked than in other large towns of the peninsula; and, when the season of mercantile prosperity was over, as the depression was general, it left the various classes at the same proportionable distance. Cadiz cherished, thus, a republican spirit. The line which divided her rich and her poor, her workmen and their employers, was almost imperceptible when compared with the gulf of prejudice and pride which separated the merchant from the grandee. Thus, undivided by jealousies of rank, and feeling in common that impatience of political superiority which is inherent to the human heart, the people of Cadiz were ready to greet any prospect of change in the monarchical and aristocratical system of the country.

All that was wanting to bring these dispositions into action, and give them a definite aim, was driven into Cadiz by the advance of the French armies within sight of its walls. Madrid had, for a long time, been the resort of the most enlightened Spaniards; the only spot where persons, who had embraced *liberal* principles, could feel the oppressive yoke of religious tyranny somewhat eased on their necks. As they generally belonged to that numerous class of the Spanish gentry who look up to the patronage of government for the means of subsistence, the court drew them together from the provinces. On the prospect of the political changes which the captivity of Ferdinand opened to the country, these men attached themselves to the Central Junta, and finally followed its members in their flight from Seville to Cadiz. Thither, too, flocked all the stragglers of the philosophical party; and, on the dissolution of that dull, dilatory knot of ill-assorted men, who, under the veil of dignified gravity, had for a time concealed their unfitnes to direct the nation, the Spanish speculatists found themselves in the midst of a population highly disposed to listen to their doctrines, to embrace their views, and constitute them the organs of the new laws which were to remodel the kingdom.

The majority of the first Cortes being composed of the class of men whom, by anticipation, we have called *Liberales*, the project of a Constitution was immediately set on foot, and a committee of the ablest members appointed to draw up the fundamental code of the monarchy. Such a task, at all times arduous, was, in the present circumstances of the country, beset with peculiar difficulties. The legislators, confined within the walls of a town where innovations could not fail to be popular, went through their task under a strong delusion, mistaking their own wishes and the applause of the surrounding multitude for the sense of the nation. Encouraged by the absence of the king, placed beyond any check from the privileged classes, and the weight of the landed property of the country, it is surprising that the framers of the new constitution were not more rash than they appear in the code, of which we have laid an abstract before our readers.

We strongly suspect, however, that the authors of the Spanish constitution were less disposed to consider the real sense of the nation, than to prepare, in their code, the most effectual means of working a radical change in the public mind.

On one subject alone the authors of the Constitution yielded to national prejudice without reserve or modification. The article on religion is, unfortunately, an accurate expression of the opinions which the mass of the Spanish nation hold upon that point. But the *Liberales* meant more than they dared to express—the bigots gained all they wanted.

Thus, while victory was apparently on the side of the former, the latter held, in the religious intolerance of the country, now raised into a constitutional law, the strongest pledge of a future and more permanent triumph. The events which followed the return of Ferdinand must convince every impartial judge, that the great mass of the Spaniards were not disposed to second the views of the *Liberales*; and that, if the constitution has, at a later period, had influence enough to arm one part of the kingdom in its defence, it owes this support to the injustice and misconduct of the court faction after the restoration, and not to an original attachment on the part of the people.

The rapid series of misfortunes which had shaken the imperial throne of France to its foundations, opened the way for the return of the captive Ferdinand to Madrid. But an absence of six years, employed by the friends of constitutional liberty in disseminating the principles of political reform, and fomenting a spirit of jealousy against the crown, had now created an active party, who dreaded the appearance of a monarch, born and bred a despot, among a people whose habits were those of implicit obedience.

By a decree of the Cortes, the king was suspended from the exercise of all power till he should take the oath which the new constitution prescribed. A route was made out for his journey from the frontiers to Madrid, and an escort directed to watch over him in his progress. The Cardinal, president of the Regency, was to meet his royal relative on the road, under strict injunctions not to perform the usual ceremony of kissing the king's hand. General Copons, the military commander of Catalonia, was made the bearer of copies of the constitution, and of the decree which suspended the royal authority. These he was to deliver into the hands of Ferdinand on the frontiers of the kingdom.

The king entered the Spanish territory on the 24th of March, 1814, and followed the route prescribed by the Cortes, till the vicinity of Zaragoza afforded him a pretext for visiting that renowned scene of Spanish patriotism. He soon perceived a general indifference to the constitution among the lower classes; a jealousy of the new men who had risen into importance by means of the late changes; and a revival of those feelings of passive loyalty which the unbounded power of the Spanish monarchs, during so many centuries, had blended with the national character. From Zaragoza, Ferdinand repaired to Valencia, a city well affected to the crown, where Elio, a royalist general, had the command of a considerable body of troops. Thither flocked many grandees and dignitaries of the church, anxious to inform the king of the turn of public opinion in favour of an absolute monarchy.

Elio, in the name of his military division, presented a memorial to the king, in which he was entreated to govern in the manner of his ancestors. A petition, signed by sixty-nine members of the sitting Cortes, reached the king, about this time, describing that body as a mere tool in the hands of a republican party, without freedom of debate, and acting under the controul of a mob.

On the 4th of May, 1814, a decree was solemnly promulgated, in which the Cortes were declared illegal, and all their laws consequently rescinded. The spirit of the worst times of the Spanish monarchy seemed to have dictated this first act of the restored Ferdinand—that king for whom Spaniards of all classes, opinions, and denominations, had been lavish of their blood. Having thus announced his intention to wipe off the memory of constitutional freedom, he set off for the capital, preceded by a division of Elio's army, under the command of General Eguía. These troops found no resistance either on their way to Madrid, or upon entering that town. The people, on the contrary, seemed generally disposed to greet the approach of the absolute king. The Cortes, thus despised and neglected by the majority of the Spaniards, and internally cankered by the presence of a strong party, who had constantly aimed at the destruction of the system which they had sworn to support, were instantly dispersed by the soldiers. The arrest of the two inferior agents, Agá and Ciscar, and of the president and

secretary of the Cortes, which took place on the nights of the 10th and 11th, seem to have been considered as preparatory steps to the re-appearance of Ferdinand in the capital.

The news of these events had scarcely reached the chief towns in the provinces, when the mob, headed by their usual leaders, the priests, broke out into fierce demonstrations of joy, calling for the instant restoration of the Inquisition, and hastening to demolish the lapidary inscriptions, which the Cortes, from the vanity of displaying their triumph over their opponents, had caused to be erected in every town and village. It is fortunate, indeed, that no bloody scenes followed this reaction of a long suppressed popular feeling; though a desperate attempt was made at Corunna against the most active members of the Liberal party in that town, who had been previously committed to prison.

Had Ferdinand and his advisers allowed their judgment to prevail over their resentment, they would have readily perceived that their future security was not consistent with the habits of insubordination which the Spanish mob was so rapidly acquiring; and that leniency and forgiveness were the most effectual means of thinning the ranks of their enemies. The court party, however, showed a fixed determination of allowing full sway to their revengeful spirit. The arrest of between thirty and forty deputies of the late Cortes, attended with seizure of papers and sequestration of property, was decreed by the king, who appointed a commission of three judges, two of whom had been fellow-deputies of the prisoners, to collect evidence against them. By another order, the members who had subscribed the above-mentioned petition for the repeal of the constitution, were invited to criminate the Liberal deputies for their conduct and opinions during the last session.

In the course of this persecution, not one was spared who had, directly or indirectly, contributed to the establishment of the constitutional system. The number of state prisoners was increased in the month of June, by the arrest of forty-five individuals, formerly members of the Cadiz Cortes, and literary men of eminent talents, who had assisted the popular government with their pen. The trial of the prisoners, if such a name can be given to judicial proceedings which precluded all chance of acquittal, was conducted with more than Spanish dilatoriness. Three sets of judges were successively appointed and removed; till the king, impatient of further delays, ordered a list of the prisoners to be laid before him; and in a decree of the 15th of December, 1815, each of the names (about seventy in number) appeared before the public, bearing the sentence which Ferdinand, in his own writing, had affixed them. We shall give the following by way of specimens. Count Toréno, Mina, and Florez de Estrada, who had evaded pursuit, and fled the country, were condemned to death. Arguelles, who may be considered the author of the constitution, was sentenced to eight years' exile at Ceuta, on the coast of Africa. Canga Arguelles was confined to the fortress of Peníscola, in Catalonia, for an equal period. The same length of confinement was assigned to Martínez de la Rosa, and to Calatráva, two distinguished members of the Cortes. The four ecclesiastics, Villanueva, Muñoz-Torrero, Olivéros, and Cepéro, were sentenced to six years' imprisonment in different convents, and to the loss of their benefices. Alvarez-Guerra and García-Herreros, who were ministers to the Regency on Ferdinand's return, and Generals Valdés, O'Donoghue, and Villacampa, who had evinced a firm attachment to the new system, were to be imprisoned for periods of eight, six, and four years. Quintana, one of the first ornaments of modern Spanish literature, who, probably from his great moderation, and love of studious retirement, had never been elected a member of the Cortes, was sentenced to be imprisoned six years in the fortress of Pamplona. Strict orders were issued to deprive the prisoners of all communication, and not to allow them pen and ink. The persons contained in the list, who had not escaped, were seized in the night of the 17th December, and subsequently removed to their destinations.

The court party having gratified their spite, wished now to

secure the support of the clergy, whom the Liberals had offended. By a royal order of the 20th of May, 1814, all purchasers of church property were compelled to restore it, without receiving compensation. The Inquisition was regularly re-installed, and urged to exert its powers against all persons suspected of Liberal opinions. A bull was obtained from the Pope for the restoration of the Jesuits in Spain. Monks and bigots were the sole directors of the king's conscience. Conceiving that the times when Spanish monarchs could trample down their subjects, without being disturbed by a single murmur, had returned, Ferdinand publicly declared himself, "not accountable to any, except God and his confessor," and thus proclaimed his will to be the law.

But though this conduct was in accordance with the opinions of the most bigoted Spaniards, it soon created partial symptoms of disgust. The court had found the treasury doubly drained, from the effects of former extravagance, and the demands of the late war. Bribery and venality were soon seen to prevail round the throne. The army, who had been hitherto amused with promises of regular pay and promotion, began to groan under want and neglect. Officers of high rank appeared about the streets in the night, imploring the charity of their fellow countrymen. The armed bands, or *Guerillas*, who had assisted in the defeat of the French, having now nothing to expect from Ferdinand, and being unfit to resume habits of industrious labour, became regular and organized banditti, who set the helpless magistrates at defiance, and committed all sorts of atrocities.

A government so incapable of affording protection to the people, could not employ restrictive measures without hastening its own destruction; many of the Spanish officers who were prisoners in France, had become Free-masons in that country, and numerous lodges were established in Spain, during the occupation by Napoleon's armies. Masonry had at all times been held in the utmost abhorrence by the church and government. A sentence of excommunication was obtained from the Pope against Free-masons. The Inquisition traced out, in every province, the officers who had been initiated in France, as well as the members of the Spanish lodges. Fortunately, they were too numerous to be punished with all the rigour of the law. But the imprisonment of some, and the fears of all, were sufficient to prevent the Spanish masons from acting collectively.

It was however, about this time, that another kind of secret societies, exclusively political, were formed in Spain. The members assumed the name of *Comuneros*, to denote that they met in the spirit of Padilla and his followers, who, under the same appellation, rose against the encroaching despotism of Charles V. An extensive correspondence was established between the associates in the different provinces, who, acting in concert, and according to a fixed plan, were ready to seize the first opportunity of restoring the constitution.

Their efforts were seconded by Ferdinand's counsellors, who took the course which was most apt to raise the new code in the estimation of the country. As many copies as could be obtained at Madrid were heaped on a cart, together with the journals of the Cortes. The guilty volumes were thus conducted, with ludicrous solemnity, to one of the public squares, and there committed to the flames by the hands of the hangman.

The effect of prohibitions against books is well known; it gives them reputation in all countries; how much more in a country, where the notion that the merit of a work should be judged by the anathemas it lay under, was making a rapid progress.

The effects of the new Constitution, considered as a political pamphlet, could only be checked by the dignified and judicious conduct of a court supported by the most respectable classes. But Ferdinand was surrounded by a medley of cowed courtiers, intriguing priests, and old placemen, all poor, and all ambitious. The king himself had much to ask for, and but little to give, save empty titles. The army, who had now learnt their irresistible weight in political changes, became

became dissatisfied and restless under a state of things which doomed them to neglect and poverty. The inferior gentry, of which a great portion depend on court favour for places, saw, with dismay, that while the late reform had swept away many of the situations under government, such as remained were reserved for those only who had never wavered in their allegiance to monarchical despotism. The young men, lastly, of the middle classes, who, during the existence of the Cortes, had had a taste of the agreeable excitement of a popular system, could not brook the death-like apathy which followed the restoration.

The malcontents, though numerous, and constantly augmenting, would have found it difficult to communicate with each other, to calculate their strength, and direct it with skill, if the secret societies had not created among them something like the union and activity which, in free states, are the effects of a well regulated party. In spite of the Inquisition and its emissaries, the *Comuneros* held meetings in most of the head towns, and kept up an active correspondence among their lodges. Cadiz, whose political temper had been described already, was, it seems, the head-quarters of the conspirators. They could not have fixed upon a more advantageous position; for, besides the opportunities which its numerous and changing garrison constantly afforded of tampering with the officers, some wealthy merchants of that place had devoted their fortunes to the restoration of liberty.

Cadiz and its neighbourhood had been made the rendezvous of the troops which, under the command of General Morillo, were ordered by Ferdinand's government against the revolted provinces of South America. It being now agreed among the Liberals that the intended revolution should be effected by the army, the presence of a strong military division reluctantly engaging in a dangerous service beyond the seas, must have greatly raised their hopes and increased their activity. Morillo's loyalty was tried, and he seemed for a time to waver between the obvious duties of his station and the suspicious call of revolutionary patriotism; but ultimately embarked with his troops while the secret societies continued their labours.

Gallicia was one of the provinces to which the Cadiz patriots had extended their secret influence. Don Juan Diez Porlier, an officer who had distinguished himself against the French, was at this time confined, under suspicion of disaffection, to the castle of San Antón, near Corunna. His health being impaired after a year's imprisonment, he obtained leave to proceed under an escort to a watering-place in the neighbourhood. The officer, to whom the prisoner was given in charge, was a member of the secret societies, in correspondence with the head lodge at Cadiz. He soon put Porlier in possession of the plans for a military insurrection which were then under discussion among the patriots, and earnestly urged him to strike the first blow in the province of Gallicia. Many officers in garrison at Corunna and Ferrol offered also their services to Porlier, who, miscalculating his means, and judging of public feeling from that which prevailed among his friends, was not long in accepting the dangerous command to which he was invited. Attended by the officer, whose duty it was to prevent his escape, and the twelve soldiers commanded by that officer, Porlier entered the city of Corunna, about midnight of the 18th of September, 1815, and was soon joined by most of the troops in that town. Supported by his associates, he arrested the governor and the principal supporters of the servile party. The imprisoned Liberals were set free, and such proclamations as are usual on these occasions were posted about the town. The oath of the constitution of 1812 was repeated, and a detachment of 800 men was ordered to march on Ferrol, where the garrison, it was said, only awaited the presence of Porlier to declare in favour of the constitutional system. But the royalist party had been actively employed in that town since the arrival of the news from Corunna. Emissaries were sent to mix with Porlier's troops on their march. They found him with his detachment at the village of O'rdenes, where the troops were to pass the night. The

non-commissioned officers were soon gained over, and the men yielded to the first suggestion of making their peace with the king's government by the seizure of their leader. Porlier and some of his officers were at supper when the soldiers surrounded the house. The officers, it should seem, were able to escape; but the General, being obliged to surrender, was executed at Corunna, on the 3d of October. Porlier met his fate with the dignity and composure of a man who feels conscious of the justice of his cause and the purity of his intentions. Had that unhappy officer possessed means to keep his ground till Cadiz, Barcelona, Valencia and Zaragoza, had declared themselves, the revolution would have been complete, as it happened at a subsequent period.

Our limits do not permit us to mention the numerous conspiracies which were discovered and quelled after the death of Porlier. But we cannot omit a brief account of the unfortunate attempt made by General Lacy, in Catalonia, where, during the latter part of the war against France, he had commanded the Spanish army against the invaders. As a reward for his services, Lacy had been appointed Captain-General of Gallicia; but being suspected by Ferdinand's government, he was removed to Catalonia, and confined within the limits of a certain district. In the spring of 1817, Lacy obtained leave to visit the mineral waters of Caldetes, near Barcelona. He there met with several discontented officers, with whom he planned an insurrection. It was expected, that all the garrisons of Catalonia would mutiny on the 5th of April, a day on which Lacy was to raise the standard of rebellion by the assistance of the regiment of Tarragona, which was stationed at a short distance. Two companies had been gained over by the lieutenant-colonel, when the whole plan was disclosed to the colonel by two subalterns in Lacy's confidence. The colonel appealed to the loyalty of the yet undebauched part of the regiment, and he was answered by a display of zeal in the royal cause. The two revolted companies joined Lacy, who, perceiving no other movements in his favour, began a march to Mataró, proposing to raise the peasantry, or to escape into France if he failed of support. The peasants appearing everywhere either hostile or indifferent, the soldiers were disheartened, and fell off to a man. Lacy took shelter in a cottage; but was soon betrayed and taken. It was not deemed safe by the government to execute the sentence of death which a court-martial pronounced against him, within the walls of Barcelona, where a strong feeling of compassion had shown itself towards the unfortunate general. It was, therefore, reported, that the king had commuted the sentence into that of imprisonment for life in the fortress of Majorca. Lacy's removal took place under that impression. He was cruelly deceived, on his arrival, and desired to prepare for death within a few hours. Lacy was shot in the ditch of the castle at five o'clock in the morning of the 4th of July, 1817.

From the character of these attempts, and the temper manifested by the bulk of the people, a dispassionate observer will readily adopt the conclusion, that the endeavours of the patriots depended for success on some happy combination of circumstances, which, by once disconcerting the weak government of Ferdinand, and making him yield even for a moment, would give an impulse to that impassive mass who had hitherto beheld the contest unwilling, to share its dangers. For it is clear, that a great majority of the nation, though determined not to make or modify a government for themselves, would readily submit to any political system which might happen to obtain the ascendancy. The chances were, therefore, in favour of the active party, who, though so often defeated, had still sufficient courage and perseverance to renew their attacks on a dull enemy, who adhered, from ignorance and weakness, to a plan of defensive warfare.

It was not long before the erroneous policy of the court of Madrid, in regard to the revolted colonies, presented to its enemies at home the means of re-establishing the constitution, and making their party paramount in the state. Instead of paying the arrears or the army, the only body of men which could effect a revolution, the blind obstinacy of Ferdinand and his advisers employed all the money they had been able

to collect, in fitting up a second expedition, which was to reinforce the royalists at Venezuela. The troops which were to embark in the autumn of 1819, had been collecting in Andalusia, then governed by Henry O'Donnell, Count of Abisbal, whose assistance in the restoration of arbitrary power had been rewarded with the military command of that province. The expeditionary army was, consequently, under his command till it should sail from Cadiz, and the various corps had been quartered at no great distance from the residence of the Captain-General.

It will be readily admitted, that a more favourable opportunity could hardly offer itself to the patriots than the presence of a military division, whose officers were favourably inclined to their cause, and where a general dislike of the service, for which it was intended, was prevalent. The prospect appeared the more favourable as it was credibly reported that O'Donnell, wishing to atone for the mischief he had done by an excess of loyalty, had volunteered to be the leader of the insurrection. The report was, indeed, well-founded. The Captain-General himself had fixed a day for proclaiming the constitution, and meetings had been held at his residence for the organization of a temporary government. Some offence, it seems, had been given him at one of these conferences, by the determination of separating the civil from the military command, when the revolutionary government should be established. He had continued, nevertheless, at the head of the conspiracy, and even urged the necessity of anticipating discovery by striking the blow on the 8th, instead of the 15th of July. On the 7th, O'Donnell repaired to Port St. Mary's, where all the infantry had been collected by his orders. Sarsfield, his second in command, was to join them, the next morning, in the plain of Palmár, with the cavalry which was quartered at Xerez.

Soon after sunrise, on the 8th, the infantry was drawn up in the place of their rendezvous. The officers who were in the secret could hardly refrain from breaking it to the troops under their command; yet waited with impatience the arrival of the cavalry, and the presence of their general. Both were at length seen at a distance, and approaching in opposite directions. O'Donnell, with his staff, and Sarsfield at the head of the horse, came up at the same moment. But, instead of the expected signal, the cries of *Viva el Rey*, which were raised by the cavalry as they galloped along the line, were instantly re-echoed by the infantry. The deluded conspirators were immediately called in front of the troops, and Abisbal himself gave the necessary orders for their removal under an escort, to some of the neighbouring fortresses.

The duplicity of Abisbal had rendered such an effectual service to the cause of despotism, and the repeated defeats of the Liberal party had so clearly shown the difficulty of giving an impulse to the lower classes in its favour, that it is quite surprising to find a complete revolution effected within a few months of the event we have related. But the court party were not stupid enough to mistake Abisbal's conduct for pure unalloyed devotion to the crown; nor yet sufficiently politic to secure his services to the king by such rewards as might satisfy his ambition, and make him seal, by his subsequent conduct, the well-merited distrust and hatred to which he was exposed among the patriots. He was removed from the command of the expeditionary troops, and a man scarcely known by his title of Count Calderon, and much less by any talents displayed in the service, appointed to succeed him.

The reappearance of the yellow-fever at Cadiz, soon after the imprisonment of the patriot officers at Palmár, obliged the government to remove the troops to more healthy spots, at some distance. Arcos was made the head-quarters; the rest of the army was divided between Las Cabezas de San Juan, to the north of that town, and Alcalá de los Gazúles, in the opposite direction. This was considered a favourable opportunity for carrying into execution the same plan which had failed through the treachery of O'Donnell. The members of the secret societies, at Cadiz, engaged to procure the escape of the prisoners, one of whom, Quiroga, had been appointed to be the commander-in-chief of the revolted

army. Riego was, in the mean time, to be placed at the head of the insurrection.

The 1st of January, 1820, being fixed upon, the soldiers were gradually gained over by means of the gold with which the officers were supplied from Cadiz. On the morning of that day, Riego drew out the battalion of Asturias, of which he had a temporary command, and having proclaimed the constitution, began his march towards Arcos, where, by the assistance of part of the officers in that town, he intended to seize the general-in-chief. Quiroga, who, it was expected, would be at liberty, by that time, was to march with the forces stationed at Alcalá, to the Isla, and from thence to the gates of Cadiz, which, if he could reach before the news of the insurrection, would be thrown open by some officers of the garrison, now enrolled in the bands of the insurgents. Riego, though arriving at Arcos much later than he had expected, effected the arrest of Calderon, with scarcely any difficulty. Quiroga, being much longer detained in his march, could only take possession of La Isla. Riego advanced to Xerez, thence to Port St. Mary's, and finally joined Quiroga. The strength of the patriots was about 5000 men, unsupported by either artillery or cavalry.

The period which followed this junction is one which throws considerable light on the state of the public mind in Spain, and shows the difficulty, which we have pointed out already, of giving an impulse to the great mass, who, influenced by inveterate habits, will take no side in these political struggles.

Five and twenty days had elapsed since the proclamation of the constitution at Las Cabezas, without the revolution making any visible progress. A paper warfare was carried on by the leaders at the Isla, and the authorities at Cadiz; but the patriots were left to their own resources within a very limited spot, while troops were collecting about them, and the activity of the loyalists at Cadiz precluded all hope of assistance from the revolutionists who were within the walls. To rouse the spirit of the country, and spread the flame of the insurrection, Riego proposed to lead a flying column of 1500 men, in such direction as circumstances would allow. Followed by a division of the royalists, who seemed more determined to harass him than to fight, he successfully proclaimed the constitution at Chiclána, Conil, Vejér, and Algeciras. Though ordered by Quiroga to march back to the Isla, Riego found it necessary to proceed in the only direction which the royalists had left him. In this situation, however, he spent three days at Vejér, in public balls and banquets, where officers and privates mixed indiscriminately with the town's people. From thence, the flying column advanced to Malaga, closely pursued by the enemy. Meeting with no support from the inhabitants, Riego proceeded to Antequera. Harassed by incessant marches, and having sometimes to fight their way through detachments of the enemy's forces, Riego took the determination to push, with the remnant of his force, now reduced, by desertion, to about 300 men, into the fastnesses of Sierra Morena, where they eluded further pursuit by dispersion.

The patriots of the Isla had seen three long months elapse without any prospect of support from their countrymen, and trusting merely on the efforts of the secret societies, which had hitherto appeared unavailing. Mina had, however, entered the valley of Bastán, in Navarre, on the 25th of February. He had been, long before, obliged to fly into France, in consequence of a fruitless attempt to overturn the government of Ferdinand, and now he hastened to lend his assistance to the patriots. He found a numerous band ready to follow his standard.

The garrison of Corunna, headed by Don Carlos Espinosa, a colonel of artillery, had risen, about the same time, against the Captain-General of Galicia, and proclaimed the constitution throughout the whole province. Similar movements took place on the first days of March, at Zaragoza, Carthágena, Valencia, Murcia, and Granada.

These insurrections, though partial, could not but appeal to the weak, ignorant, and unpopular party, which surrounded the throne. Had Ferdinand been able to depend on the loyalty

loyalty of an able general, he still would have found fidelity among the soldiers, and a great part of the officers.

Abisbal was still at Madrid; and his late important service gave hopes that he would be faithful to the king, for whose sake he had sacrificed the honour he had pledged to the patriots. It was considered improbable that he would change a fourth time in his politics; and he was, accordingly, invested with the command of the army of La Mancha. But, before he quitted Madrid, on the 3d of March, he had plotted with the colonels and superior officers of the garrison, engaging to declare for the constitution as soon as he should reach Ocana, where one of his brothers commanded a battalion of infantry. True to this last engagement, Abisbal proclaimed the constitutional system, the day after he had quitted the court. He established a communication with the patriots of La Isla, and left the final completion of the revolution to his reconciled friends, the liberals of Madrid.

The account of the military insurrection at Ocana did not fail to produce the effect which had been prepared by the constitutionalists of the capital. An immense crowd surrounded the royal palace, who called on Ferdinand to accept the constitution. Things had now come to a point where there was no room for deliberation. The king appeared at the balcony, holding a copy of the constitution in his hand, as a pledge of his readiness to swear observance to its laws. As, according to that code, the monarch cannot exercise his portion of authority till he has taken the oath therein prescribed, a committee of government was installed, who should convoke the Cortes, in whose presence alone the king can perform those acts which put him in full possession of his constitutional rights.

The instant dispersion of that abominable tribunal, the Inquisition, and the liberation of the state prisoners, whom Ferdinand allowed to linger in confinement, were the first acts of the Spanish Liberals.

As it has been our study so to perform this rapid sketch, as to put the reader in possession of such facts as may enable him to understand the principles and temper of the two great parties which contend for political power in Spain, we cannot omit the bloody and disgraceful scene which took place at Cadiz on the 10th of March, the day which had been appointed to proclaim the Constitution.

The Captain-General Freyre, on the receipt of dispatches announcing the king's acceptance of the Constitution, repaired to Cadiz from Port St. Mary's, in the afternoon of the 9th of March. The impatience of the triumphant party to have the Constitution proclaimed, scarcely allowed him to postpone that ceremony till the next morning. But a desire that the chiefs of the patriotic army, whom he had invited, should be present, was a sufficient reason to check the eagerness of the people. Quiroga, the patriot general, was, however, too well acquainted with the temper and dispositions of his enemies, to acquiesce in the demand that he should disband his troops, and allow the unarmed soldiers to mix with the citizens, at the ensuing solemnity. Four officers alone, preceded by a flag of truce, were sent to witness the proclamation. Being admitted to the presence of the Captain-General, the evident uneasiness under which they perceived him labouring, and some expressions indicating a degree of anxiety for their safety, had just begun to raise their fears, when the report of musquetry, mixed with the cries of the suffering, or affrighted multitude, suddenly changed suspicion into the most appalling certainty. Freyre hastened out of the house, without providing for the safety of the deputies, who were yet so fortunate as to find the means of escaping the fury of their enemies.

In the mean time, the most atrocious massacre was taking place in the streets, and in the principal square of Cadiz, where the people had assembled to witness the proclamation. The instruments of this barbarous deed were the privates and non-commissioned officers of two battalions of infantry, called the *Guides*, and the *Loyalists of Ferdinand the Seventh*. Instigated, as it is believed, by the governor of the town, and the chiefs of the royalist party, the soldiers

had engaged to disperse the multitude, and prevent the intended ceremony. Large quantities of wine and spirits had been sent to the barracks, so that the men were in a state bordering upon intoxication, when they broke out with their arms. From the moment these monsters were loosed, they continued firing, indiscriminately, upon the people, till their ammunition was exhausted. About five hundred persons, men, women, and children, were seen in the streets of Cadiz, dead, dying, or wounded, before the authorities of the place had taken any measure to stop the massacre. Some officers of the Andalusian militia, not on duty, ran, of their own accord, to their barracks, and, drawing up in great haste part of the men, sallied forth into the streets, where they exercised themselves, with the utmost zeal, in protecting the lives of the defenceless citizens, and giving help to the wounded. The deputies from the patriotic army, coming forward from their places of concealment, surrendered themselves into the hands of the Captain-General, who, still hoping some favourable turn in the affairs of the royalists, confined them within the Castle of Saint Sebastian. Indeed, so blindly confident were the leaders of that party that the insurrection would yet be quelled, as to have ventured on giving public thanks to the assassins. But the next dispatches from Madrid put an end to their hopes. The deputies were set at liberty.

The Constitutional System being now completely restored, and in action, the Cortes assembled at Madrid in June, 1820, and the king took his solemn oath, before them, on the 9th of the following month.

The Cortes Extraordinary, which were convened on the restoration of the constitution, contained most of the patriots who had suffered during the arbitrary reign of Ferdinand—the original contrivers and supporters of the constitution. This was a measure which the military reformers of the Isla could not, and, probably, were not disposed, at that time, to oppose. But the seeds of jealousy between the two parties, the contending claims of the liberators, and those they had set free, could not remain dormant and inactive. The *Isla Patriots* naturally aspired to the first places and influence in the state: the Old Liberals soon felt their own dependence and inferiority. The Secret Societies were now more active than ever, and a rivalry between the Free-masons and the Comunos grew out of the different principles adopted by each of these parties, who, in their character and views, might be compared to the Old Whigs and the Radical Reformers in England: The Free-masons, however, soon found themselves defeated; and those who had been forced upon Ferdinand, as his ministers, were displaced to make room for the friends of the revolutionary army.

The Cortes, though elected under the influence of the triumphant party, and acting under the direction of the popular leaders and their emissaries, who were regularly stationed in the galleries of the House, exhibited a degree of moderation which does honour to the national character. The measures of retaliation were limited, and infinitely less severe than those in which the king's friends had indulged. Even the most violent democrats, those who had placed themselves at the head of the populace, were satisfied, for a time, with the awe into which the Revolution had thrown their opponents. Still it has not been in the power of the new government to establish themselves without encroaching upon the rights of the church, and, thereby, confirming the suspicions of infidelity, under which all denominations of Liberals have long lain among the Spaniards.

To steer clear of this rock exceeded the powers of human wisdom. The Cortes Extraordinary, as well as the Ordinary, which succeeded them, contained a large proportion of the talent, though scarcely any of the rank and property of the country. Most of the clergymen, and perhaps all the lawyers, who had obtained seats, belonging to that class of Spaniards, who, free from religious prejudices, but having no system of their own to support upon these points, would shrink from an open contest with the zealots, without, however, letting pass an opportunity of showing their spite,

by a side blow. The pecuniary wants of the government; the desire of gaining partisans to the constitutional system by the transfer of property, exclusively under its sanction; together with the opportunity which the existing circumstances presented, of indulging the secret, though strong, feelings of aversion to the national system of religion, which rankle in the bosom of every liberal Spaniard, betrayed the Cortes into measures which could not fail to drive the bigots into an open and desperate resistance.

Whatever might be the caution and timidity of the middle classes of Spain, especially those that were possessed of some wealth, or exercised any lucrative branch of industry, it was impossible that the more violent and daring of the sincere Catholics should remain perfectly inactive under a state of things so discordant with the truly national sentiments and habits. The rabble of the large towns, which is numerous and quite worthy of that name, had, since the revolution of 1820, been gained over to the constitutionalists; but the peasantry, who, to this day, have shown a general dislike of the new system would afford a considerable number of active and determined partisans to any who should be ready and able to marshal them under the standard of the Faith,—a word by which the Spaniards denote the Catholic religion, such as it was established in their country. Few months, indeed, had elapsed, when conspiracies were detected in various parts of the country; and Guerilla parties, in support of Religion and the King, were found ranging over the provinces. The seeds of a civil war had thus been brought into activity, and in the opinion of all who are well acquainted with the dilatoriness and obstinacy of the Spaniards, the character and circumstances of the contending parties were, alone, enough to threaten the destruction of every source of power, wealth, and happiness, in that devoted kingdom.

It was not long, however, before a determination was observed, on the part of France, to encourage and support the Spaniards, who were actually in arms, or ready to take them up, against the new system of government. Emigrants were protected on the French side of the frontiers, and enabled to organize themselves into military divisions. The yellow-fever, which attacked Catalonia, in the summer of 1822, afforded a pretext for establishing a Cordon Sanitaire, which might act as an army of observation. French money was employed in raising fresh disturbances in the kingdom; and, it is more than probable, French influence fomented the conspiracy of the Guards, which, on the 7th July of the same year, would have placed the king out of the hands of the Cortes, if he had had either the will or the courage to join the troops, who awaited his presence at a short distance from the palace.

A congress of the powers which compose what is known by the name of the Holy Alliance, was, at this time, about to be assembled at Verona. From the character of the governments of Austria, Prussia, and Russia, and their habitual fears of the spirit of political reform, which for the last thirty years has shaken the foundations of all absolute monarchies, it could hardly be imagined that Spain should pass unnoticed at this meeting. Nor was it long before the disclosure of their views and principles, joined to the open avowal of hostile intentions against Spain, on the part of France, evinced a settled and systematic plan for restoring absolute monarchy in the former kingdom, and opposing, throughout Europe, every curtailment of monarchical power however exorbitant and oppressive, and every attempt to establish the liberties of the subject, upon permanent and definite grounds. The French king, on the 28th of January, 1823, announced to the Chambers, that he had one hundred thousand troops ready to march into Spain, unless Ferdinand VII. were allowed "to give to his people institutions which they cannot hold but from him."

On the 9th of January, 1823, the Minister of Foreign Affairs, San Miguel, appeared in the Cortes, and informed them that the king's government had received the abovementioned official communications from the cabinets of France, Russia,

Austria and Prussia, and that the king had returned an answer expressive of surprise at the unfounded representations they contained, remonstrating strongly against the principle of foreign interference, and indignantly refusing the least compliance with the wishes of the allied powers. The reading of this document was followed by the loudest applause from the hall and from the galleries, mingled with tumultuous cries of "The sovereignty of the people for ever! Death to tyrants!"

M. Galliano proposed, That the King should be assured that the Cortes were resolved to make every possible sacrifice for maintaining in its full integrity the Constitution of 1812, as well as the splendour of the Constitutional throne; that the Cortes would furnish to the government every assistance necessary for repelling every hostile attempt on the part of the Powers whose notes had been read; and that all Spaniards would contribute with pleasure to an enterprize which had for its object to defend the national liberty and independence.

The deputies were unanimous in favour of the motion of M. Galliano, and the congress adjourned till the 11th, when an address to the king was unanimously voted, declaring the surprise and indignation which the congress felt at the strange doctrines, the manifest falsehoods, the calumnious imputations contained in the notes of the four foreign powers; they expressed the satisfaction with which they had heard the frank, honourable and energetic answer, which had been given to these notes, and they approved the noble disdain with which the government, without descending to refute assertions notoriously false, had confined itself to a statement of the principles by which it is guided.

"The Cortes are further bound to assure your Majesty, and they do assure your Majesty, that to attain so sacred an object, they are ready to decree every species of sacrifice, certain that the Spanish people will bear them with joy—with enthusiasm; and that they will resign themselves to all possible evils, rather than enter into terms with those who would pretend to taint their honour, or to attack their liberties."

While the Spanish government was thus breaking off all relations with the rest of the continent, it had not forgotten to take measures for conciliating the good will of England. A decree was passed (Jan. 8th) by the Cortes, authorizing the executive to arrange all the existing differences between the two cabinets. On the 12th of March, a convention, founded upon this decree, was agreed upon between Sir W. A'Court and the Spanish Minister for foreign affairs.

It might readily have been foreseen, that the critical circumstances under which the Spanish government was at this moment placed, would afford fresh encouragement to the royalist insurgents in the different provinces. The several divisions of the Army of the Faith, had, however, been so completely beaten and dispersed at the conclusion of the last year, that they had not yet been able to reassemble their bands in any considerable degree. Of all the fortresses of Catalonia, they possessed Urgel and Mequinenza only; of these, the former soon after (February 3d.) fell into the hands of Mina, and had it not been for the hopes entertained of the approaching assistance of a French army, the cause of royalism would have appeared to be in a state not much short of desperation. A bold attempt had been made by a couple of royalist partisans, Bessieres and Ullman, to make a dash at Madrid, and carry off the royal family; and in the prosecution of this daring enterprize, they arrived at Guadalaxara, within fifteen leagues of the capital. The government, however, took instant measures to repel the attack; the garrison and militia were immediately put in motion against them, under the Count del Abisbal, who drove the enemy (Jan. 24) from the position they had taken up near Alcala de Henares, and compelled them to fall back upon Sacedon, the heights of which they occupied with a force of about four thousand infantry, two hundred cavalry and three pieces of cannon. On the 29th, Abisbal again came up with them, and attacked their position, which was defended with much firmness. In the result, however, the insurgents were

were driven from their position with considerable loss, and retreated in the direction of Cuenca.

The speech pronounced by the King of France to his Chambers, being justly considered as tantamount to a declaration of hostilities, the ministers now took measures for placing the army on a footing of war; and on the 5th of February they proposed, that the Cortes should decree an additional levy of thirty thousand men. This was done on the following day; at the same time the active militia, calculated to amount to 58,000 men, was rendered disposable, and 200 gun-boats were ordered to be fitted out and manned for the defence of the coasts and harbours.

Upon the same occasion, the minister of finance proposed, that the government should be authorized to receive the contributions, in corn, if necessary; a proposition that strikingly marks the difficulties under which the public treasury must have been labouring.

As the close of the session of the extraordinary Cortes was approaching, it was thought right to provide for the removal of the government from Madrid, if circumstances should occur to render it necessary. This was opposed by several deputies as premature, and only calculated to alarm; it was, however, strongly supported by Arguelles, and finally adopted, (Feb. 15) by 84 voices to 63.

On the 19th, the close of the session took place. The king declined to appear in person on this occasion; and the ministers sent to the congress a speech in his name, in which his Majesty, after shortly running over the late succession of events, ended by assuring them of his unalterable determination to support the rights of the nation. But no one supposed that the ministers in this spoke the real sentiments of the king; and when he was requested to transfer the seat of government to some other part of the kingdom, he betrayed an invincible repugnance to comply, accused the ministers of having acted contrary to his commands in making the proposition which had received the legislative sanction, and immediately dismissed them from office. As soon as these events became public, great agitation took place. A crowd collected around the palace, vociferating menaces against the person of the king, calling out for a regency, and testifying, in every way, their indignation at the dismissal of the ministers. The ministers were therefore replaced in their respective situations, and the public tranquillity was restored. On the following day (the 20th), a multitude met in the Place Major, and signed a petition demanding a regency. During this scene of turbulence, which created little alarm, and was attended with no excesses, the great body of the citizens remained calm and orderly.

The opening of the ordinary Cortes took place on the 1st of March. It was again stated, that the health of the king did not permit him to be present in person on this occasion; and accordingly his speech was read to the assembly by the president. The tenor of it was similar to that of the former communications of which this weak prince had so often been made the channel. After indignantly adverting to the principles avowed by the allied powers, and to the threats conveyed in the speech of the King of France, Ferdinand was made to go on thus:—

“For my part, I once more offer to the National Congress the co-operation of all my efforts to realize hopes which the friends of liberal institutions place in Spain, by carrying into execution all the measures within the compass of my authority to repel force by force. The seasonable removal of my person and the Cortes to a point less subject to the influence of military operations will paralyze the enemy's plans, and prevent any suspension in the impulse of the Government, the action of which ought to be felt in every point of the monarchy.”

Ferdinand did indeed avail himself of the only means which remained to him of publishing his disavowal of the speech which he had been made to sign. On the very same day he dismissed the whole body of his ministers; but as the newly-nominated ministry signified reluctance to take office, under the present circumstances, the former ministers re-

mained provisionally in the direction of their several departments.

On the 2d, a discussion took place in the Cortes, in which the necessity of removing the king was violently insisted upon. One of the deputies, Senor Rico, openly declared that the time was come for pronouncing the physical incapacity of the king; which was, in other words, his deposition; and this proposition was received with a thunder of applause from the galleries. The Cortes, however, contented itself with unanimously adopting a proposition of Senor Canga, as amended, by Senor Arguelles, in the following terms:—“That the Government shall to-morrow inform the Cortes of the place which his Majesty has been pleased to point out for the removal of the Government and the Cortes; and also of the measures which have already been adopted for carrying the removal into effect.”

To this short and peremptory intimation of the will and pleasure of the Cortes, the king did not think it prudent to offer any resistance; accordingly, on the following day, the secretary of state for the interior handed to the president a communication, which stated that his Majesty, being informed of the resolution of the Cortes, respecting the removal of the government, had been pleased to appoint the city of Seville, as the place to which the transfer should be effected. The ministers now pressed the immediate departure of the king, but Ferdinand still urged the state of his health, and his physicians declared that they could not be answerable for the safety with which his Majesty could undertake the journey at present.

The Cortes, somewhat incredulous as to the serious nature of a malady that seemed to occur so conveniently for what were known to be his Majesty's real wishes, appointed a commission of nine members, (six of whom were physicians) to inquire into the case. They reported—they were of opinion that his Majesty was under no impossibility of commencing his journey, while all the cares which were necessary to the convenience of his royal person might be lavished upon him; and that it was not credible that a journey undertaken under such auspices was impracticable, or likely to lead to any unpleasant results.

They proposed, therefore, that a deputation be sent to the king to announce to his Majesty that the Cortes hope that he would deign to arrange his departure before the 18th of the month, and to fix, at present, the precise day and hour which he might deem fit to take to begin his journey.

A deputation was immediately sent from the Cortes to the king, and on their return to the hall, they announced that his Majesty would be ready to set out on the 17th; but that he wished that the journey should be put off to the 20th, if the Cortes saw no inconvenience in the alteration; and, after a short discussion, the Cortes decreed that this farther delay should be accorded.

On the 20th, accordingly, at eight in the morning, the king, with his family, left Madrid, on the road to Toledo, escorted by a detachment of cavalry and infantry, which was subsequently reinforced to the amount of above 5000 men. Two days after, he was followed by the diplomatic body, now reduced to the ministers of England, the Netherlands, Sweden, Portugal and the United States.

In the meanwhile, the Duke of Angouleme had already left Paris, March 15th, in order to take the command of the invading army. He proceeded, in the first instance, to Toulouse, and from thence to Bayonne, where he arrived on the 30th. Here the French army was assembled in five bodies; the first corps under the Marshal Duke of Reggio, was destined to move on Madrid; supported on its left flank by the second corps under Count Molitor, and on its right and rear by the third, under Prince Hohenlohe; the fourth corps, commanded by Count Bourdesoulle, was to act as a reserve; besides this, a fifth corps, under the command of Marshal Moncey, Duke of Cornegliano, was destined to occupy Catalonia. The whole army was computed to amount to about 92,000 men, including the Spanish royalist division under Espana and Quesada.

On the 2d of April, the Duke Generalissimo published from Bayonne a proclamation announcing the motives from which he was about to cross their frontiers. On the following day, a general order was issued to the army, explaining the objects of the war, and enjoining to the troops that the strictest regard should be paid to the religion, laws, and property of the Spanish people.

While the French army yet lay encamped on the right of the Bidassoa, an attempt was made by a party of French military refugees on the opposite bank, to shake their allegiance by raising the tri-coloured flag, and the cry of "The Emperor for ever!" The French troops, however, replied only by a discharge of grape. The next day, the whole army crossed the river, and the Duke d'Angouleme entered Irun the same evening, amid the congratulations, it is said, of the clergy, and the acclamations of the populace. This reception was hailed as of favourable promise for the disposition of the nation in general; nor, in truth, were the expectations thus created disappointed by the event.

We have no very precise accounts of the amount of the Spanish army at the commencement of the war, but it has been roughly estimated as follows:—the army of the North, under Ballasteros; that of Catalonia, under Mina; and that of the centre, under Abisbal, are computed to have consisted of about 20,000 men each. The armies of Galicia and Asturias, under Morillo, might amount to 10,000 men, and about 50,000 might be dispersed in the several garrisons. It was upon these last that the Spanish Government chiefly relied. As soon as the French had crossed the Bidassoa, Ballasteros immediately fell back behind the Ebro, leaving strong garrisons in the fortresses of Saint Sebastian and Pampeluna. Having in vain summoned these places to surrender, it was found necessary to blockade them; and the third corps of the French army was left behind, charged with that duty.

On the 17th, the head-quarters were established at Vittoria, and remained there for some short time. Here they learnt that Bilbao had surrendered to Gen. Canuel, and Pancorbo to the Duke of Reggio, who had crossed the Ebro, and moved upon Burgos. The population in general, seemed to evince the same friendly disposition towards their invaders, as had been manifested upon their first entrance into Navarre. The strictest discipline was observed in the French army, and immediate payment was regularly made for all that they consumed.

Ballasteros, in the meanwhile, retired down the course of the Ebro, followed by the second corps under Molitor. He did not attempt to defend Saragossa, which was evacuated by the garrison and the militia on the approach of the French; but continued his retreat in the direction of Valencia, with the purpose of attacking the castle of Murviedro, which had, early in the year, been surprised and taken by a corps of royalists. Molitor followed, but more slowly, and with precaution, leaving a corps of the royalist force before the fortresses of Monzon and Lerida.

The fourth corps, under Moncey, had not entered Spain until the 18th of April. Mina fell back to a strong position upon the right bank of the Fluvia, between Castel-follit and Bezalu; the French general immediately took measures to attack him; but his movements were delayed by the swelling of the river; and before they could be brought to bear upon his enemy, Mina thought proper to abandon his position, and retreat by the way of Olot, upon Vich. Moncey then moved upon Gerona, May 2d, which spontaneously opened its gates at his approach, as did most of the neighbouring towns in Upper Catalonia.

In the meanwhile, the necessary measures having been taken for effecting the blockade of the fortresses of Pampeluna, St. Sebastian, Santona, and Santander, the first corps with the reserve moved upon Burgos, which they entered on the 9th of May, and thence proceeded towards Madrid in two columns; the one under the Duke of Reggio, marching by Valladolid; the other, under the Commander-in-chief in person, by Aranda and Buitrago. It was at this last place,

where he arrived on the 17th, that the Duke d'Angouleme received a flag of truce from the Count del Abisbal and the municipality of Madrid, proposing that a part of the garrison should be allowed to remain in the capital until the arrival of the French army; with the view of preventing the disorders which might arise among the various parties which divide the populace, if they were left to themselves. Accordingly, a convention was agreed upon, by which it was arranged that a corps, under the command of General Zayas, should remain at Madrid until the 24th, on which day the French were expected to enter the city.

Circumstances however occurred to prevent the execution of this arrangement. Ever since the departure of the king and the Cortes, the capital had been the prey of violent agitation. As in all periods of public misfortune, the populace began to attribute their reverses to the treachery of their chiefs. The Count del Abisbal was reproached with having made no dispositions to arrest the progress of the enemy at the passes of Guadarrama and Somo-Sierra; and it was rumoured that he had entered into negotiations with several individuals of the opposite party, with the view of bringing about a change of the Constitution. Two letters, which appeared in the public papers at this time, sufficiently indicated what were the grounds of these suspicions. The one dated May 11, was addressed by the Count de Montijo to Abisbal. In this, the Count described the desperate state of the constitutional government, and the evident disaffection of the public mind, contrasting, in that respect, the circumstances under which the country now stood, with those in which she was placed at the period of the French invasion of 1808. He therefore called upon Abisbal to come to a decision which alone could save the country.

Abisbal's answer to this appeal was dated the 15th. He observed, that it was his duty as a soldier to obey the king's government, whatever might be his persuasion of incapacity of the present ministry. And this duty he was resolved to observe; but he added, that, as a Spanish citizen, he was of opinion, that the majority of the nation was unfavourable to the Constitution; and he stated the means which he thought might be employed to re-establish peace and union.

Abisbal appears to have sent copies of these letters to Mina, Morillo, and Ballasteros, and also to have communicated them to several of the superior officers of his army; meeting, however, with an evident manifestation of dissent on the part of these last, he endeavoured to counteract the bad impression he had made, by publishing in the papers a disavowal of the interpretation which had been put upon the expressions of his letter, and a declaration of his unqualified adherence to the Constitution of 1812. His officers, however, had by this time lost all confidence in their chief; and on the morning of the 18th, they waited upon him in a body, and reproached him for the treachery of his procedure. A violent altercation ensued, the result of which was, that the Count resigned his command, and shortly after left Madrid and retired to France.

Upon the departure of Abisbal, the Marquis of Castellaros took the command; and immediately adopted measures for evacuating the capital, leaving behind Zayas, with a corps of reserve, according to the arrangements that had been agreed upon. The 24th was, as we have said, the day fixed for the arrival of the French. On the 20th, however, the celebrated partisan Bessieres, unexpectedly made his appearance at the gate of Alcalá, at the head of a column of about 1200 cavalry and infantry; having succeeded by forced marches in pushing on considerably in advance of the French. Zayas, immediately proceeded to the gate and entered upon a parley with the royalist chief; informing him of the convention which had been entered upon with the Duke d'Angouleme, and stating his determination not to deliver up the city, except according to the terms of that convention. He therefore desired Bessieres to withdraw his forces; but meeting with a positive refusal on his part, and finding there was a disposition on the part of some of the populace to favour the entrance of the royalist troops, Zayas gave

gave orders to the garrison to advance; a fire of grape-shot soon dispersed the populace; and a charge of cavalry was equally effectual in driving back the column of Bessieres, who was obliged to fly, leaving two or three hundred prisoners behind him. In consequence of this event, the French advanced-guard entered Madrid on the 23d, a day sooner than had been originally determined upon; and Zayas was suffered to effect his retreat uninterruptedly, in the direction of Talavera de la Reyna.

On the following day the Duke of Angouleme made his entrance into the capital, amidst the unequivocal demonstrations, as we are assured, of popular delight and enthusiasm. He convoked the ancient Supreme Council of Castile, and the Supreme Council of the Indies, and intrusted to these bodies, the care of selecting the members of a Regency.

Accordingly the two Councils met. But not considering themselves authorized by the laws of the kingdom to erect a Regency, they merely recommended to the duke, a list of the persons whom they held to be the best fitted for the office. The persons thus named, were the Duke of Infantado, president of the council of Castile; the Duke of Montemar, president of the council of the Indies; the Bishop of Osmá, the Baron d'Erolles, and Don Antonio Gomez Calderon; and they were on the 25th formally recognized by the Duke d'Angouleme as forming the Regency of Spain, during the captivity of the king.

One of the first acts of the new Regency was to form a ministry; and with the view, it should seem, of restoring every thing, as much as possible, to its former situation, they reinstated in their offices, the individuals who had composed the king's cabinet at the period of the revolution in 1820, with the exception of the minister of foreign affairs, Vargas, in whose absence the department was intrusted to Don Victor Saez, the king's confessor. The General Eguia was nominated commander-in-chief of the Spanish forces. At the same time a decree was issued, annulling all the acts of the constitutional government, declaring all persons who had accepted office under that system, incapable of exercising any functions under the king; enjoining an immediate suspension of the sale of the property, whether of the Crown or the Church, which had been assigned for the payment of the public debt, and restoring all the rights and tithes of the regular or secular clergy.

In the mean time the French followed up the pursuit of the corps, which had lately formed the garrison of Madrid. A detachment under General Vallin, was dispatched in pursuit of Zayas, and came up with him at a short distance from Talavera. A skirmish ensued, which ended in the Spaniards withdrawing beyond the Tagus, by the bridge of Alberche, leaving a part of their baggage in the hands of the enemy. Count Bourdesoulle, with a column of seven thousand men, moved upon Seville by Aranjuez; another commanded by Count Bourmont marched by Truxillo, in the direction of Estremadura, in connection with the corps under Vallin. Neither of these columns experienced any serious opposition in their advance. That of Bourmont, supported by the royalist bands under Merino, occupied Truxillo, on the 11th, and San Lucas la Mayor on the 19th, where it came up with the rear guard of the force under Lopez Banos, and took a considerable number of prisoners, with a part of his baggage. The other column after routing a division of about 1500 Spaniards under General Plasencia, at Santa-Cruz, continued uninterruptedly its march upon Cordova.

It is now necessary to revert to the proceedings of the constitutional government. The king arrived at Seville on the 10th of April; but it was not until the 23d that a sufficient number of the Cortes had reached that city, to enable them to enter upon their deliberation. Upon reopening their sessions, the President, Florez Calderon, congratulated the members of the assembly, upon the general and lively manifestations of public confidence and attachment, on the part of all ranks of the people which had greeted them on their journey, and found in those demon-

strations of popular feeling new grounds of assurance as to the ultimate triumph of their cause.

On the same day the government issued a formal declaration of war against France. Orders were at the same time sent to all the ports to issue letters of marque and reprisal against the vessels employed in French commerce. It had been expected that the French would have suffered much from this kind of hostility; very few Spanish privateers, however, appeared on the seas; and the trade of France did not undergo any material damage or interruption.

On the 24th, the minister of foreign affairs presented a memorial of the state of the diplomatic relations of Spain, including an account of the conduct of the government in the late negotiations with France and England. The Cortes approved of that conduct, and a manifesto was drawn up and published in the name of the king, setting forth the principles upon which the government had been guided throughout the whole transaction.

In the meanwhile the Cortes busied itself in the promulgation of a variety of decrees, of the nature of those commonly issued in cases of great public emergency. Some of them, indeed, were marked with a degree of severity sufficiently characteristic of the spirit of revolutionary administration.

A new ministry was at length formed (May 15th), composed of the following persons:—Senor Pando, for foreign affairs; Calatrava, for grace and justice; Don Garcia Herreros, for the interior; Zarco del Valle, for war; Capaz, for the marine; Vadillo, for the colonies; and Yandiola, for finance. Zarco del Valle being absent with the armies, his post was provisionally occupied by Don Sanchez Salvador. These persons were for the most part of what is called the moderate party; but they had scarcely any time allowed for the exemplification of the character which was given them. On the 9th of June the news arrived of the defeat of Plasencia, and the march of the French upon Cordova. The ministers immediately declared that it was necessary that the government should be transferred to Cadiz. The king referred the matter to his council of state, which was immediately convoked. The Prince of Anglona proposed that a negotiation should be opened with the Duke d'Angouleme. The council rejected the proposition, and continued in deliberation until late that night, but without coming to any definitive conclusion. On the following day (June 10th) they met again, and at length, about nine at night, they reported to the government their entire concurrence with ministers, respecting the absolute necessity of removing the king and the Cortes; differing solely with regard to the point to which the seat of government should be transferred, for which purpose the council preferred Algeiras to Cadiz. This result was immediately notified to the king, who, however, very unequivocally declared his resolution not to submit to this second transfer of his person.

On the 11th the Cortes met; and ministers, being called upon, stated to the assembly what they had been able to learn of the number and station of the French troops in Spain; and further detailed what had been the result of the deliberations of the council of state on the preceding day. With respect to the intentions of the king, they said that they could say no more; but that at the time of their coming to the hall, his Majesty had not taken a definitive resolution upon the proposition that had been made to him.

Upon this, several questions were put to the ministers, tending to elicit their opinion whether they thought that the Constitution could be maintained, if the removal was not effected.

The Secretary for grace and justice replied, that the ministers were firmly convinced that the safety of the country depended upon the removal of the government and of the Cortes to a place of greater security.

The Deputy, Galiano, then moved that a deputation should wait on his Majesty, and state to him the necessity for his removal.

This motion was agreed to without discussion.

Arguelles proposed that the Isle of León should be fixed

on for the place of removal, and that the time of departure should, at the latest, be to-morrow at noon.

After some discussion this motion was also agreed to.

A message from one of the ministers intimated that his Majesty had appointed five o'clock that evening for receiving the deputation. Soon after the deputation went forth.

On its return from the palace, the following statement was made by the President, Don Cavetano Valdes:—"The deputation of the Cortes having waited on his Majesty, represented to him that the Cortes had resolved on their removal to-morrow, as, according to the accounts which had been received, if the enemy made a few forced marches, the removal could not be accomplished, and that it was therefore fit that his Majesty and the Cortes should proceed to the Isle of Cadiz.

"His Majesty answered, that his conscience and the interests of his subjects did not permit him to leave this city; that as a private individual, he did not think his removal inconvenient; but that as a King, his conscience did not permit him to accede to it.

"The deputation represented to his Majesty that his conscience was safe, since, though as a man he might err, as a constitutional King he was subject to no responsibility; that he should hearken to the advice of his counsellors, and the representatives of the people, on whom lay the burthen of the responsibility for the salvation of the country.

"His Majesty signified that he had given his answer.

"The mission of the deputation being completed, they now stated to the Cortes, that his Majesty did not think the removal convenient."

Senor Galiano, after a short speech, submitted the following proposition:—"I pray the Cortes, that in consideration of the refusal of his Majesty to place his Royal person and family in safety from the invasion of the enemy, it be declared that the provisional case has occurred for regarding his Majesty in the situation of moral impediment, contemplated by article 187 of the Constitution; and that a provisional Regency be appointed, which, solely for the case of the removal, shall possess the faculties of executive power."

The motion was opposed by Senores Vega-Infanzon and Romero; and supported by Arguelles and Oliver. It was finally adopted.

On the motion of Senor Infante, a commission was appointed to nominate the individuals who should compose the Regency. This commission consisted of Senores Arguelles, Gomez, Becerra, Cuadra, Alava, Escovedo, Infante, Isturiz, Salvato, and Fores Calderon.

This commission reported that the Regency should consist of three members, and recommended for that purpose the following persons, viz.:—Don Cavetano Valdes, deputy of the Cortes, to be the president, Don Gabriel de Ciscar, councillor of state; Don Gaspar de Vigodet, councillor of state.

This recommendation was adopted, and the above individuals were formally installed and sworn as regents.

On the following day all was confusion and agitation at Seville. The king was no longer able to resist the removal, but it was not till late in the evening that the preparations for his departure could be completed; he set out about seven o'clock, and slept that night at Utrera. None of the foreign ministers either accompanied or followed him, with the exception of the Saxon envoy, who felt it necessary to watch over the safety of the queen. Sir William A'Court sent a note to the government stating, that he was accredited to the king and not to a Regency, and that he could not therefore proceed to Cadiz, without further instructions. The ministers answered by a declaration, that his Majesty would be under restraint during his journey only, and that he would resume his functions in Cadiz. Sir William, however, repeated his former resolution, and proceeded to Gibraltar, where he proposed to await the arrival of an answer from England.

The king left Seville with an escort of six or seven thou-

sand men, under the command of General Zayas. No sooner had the troops evacuated the city, than it became a prey to the most violent disorders. Bands of the populace scoured the street, amid cries of "*the King for ever*," "*the Inquisition for ever*," and the confusion hourly increased, till it became difficult for the members of the Cortes and of the Council to make their way out of the place; all the emblems of constitutional authority were directly destroyed, a new municipality was formed, and a deputation sent, conveying their homage to the Regency at Madrid, together with a message to the French generals, begging them to hasten their march upon Seville. The triumph of royalism, however, received a serious check, by the sudden arrival (June 16) of a constitutional division, under the command of Lopez Banos, who forced his way into the city in spite of the resistance of the populace, re-established the constitutional authorities, and levied a considerable contribution on the inhabitants. After a stay of about eight-and-forty hours, Lopez left the place, retreating in the direction of Portugal, and the French force, under Count Bourmont, arrived three days after.

When the news of what had taken place at Seville reached Madrid, the Regency expressed its indignation by issuing a decree (June 23), which ordered, that a criminal prosecution should be instituted against all the members of the Cortes who had taken part in the proceedings of the 11th, as having incurred the penalties of the crime of high treason. This was not, however, the worst consequence of these transactions. Morillo, who commanded in Galicia and Asturias, had for some time past been an object of suspicion and distrust to the more zealous portion of his officers and troops. The event at Seville gave him, in some degree, a pretext for avowing his defection. At Lugo, on the 26th of June, he issued a proclamation, in which he declared he had come to a resolution, in concert with the chiefs and officers of the second and third divisions and with all the civil, military, and ecclesiastical authorities of the place, not to recognize the Regency which had been appointed by the Cortes, without the case foreseen by the Constitution having arrived.

A provisional Junta was constituted by him, *ad interim*, and a suspension of hostilities agreed to with the French. Quiroga, however, who commanded in Galicia, openly protested against these proceedings; and invited Morillo's troops to hasten to range themselves under a standard that was yet faithful to the cause of liberty; an invitation that appears to have influenced a considerable defection of the soldiery under Morillo. Quiroga threw himself into Corunna, which was garrisoned by about five hundred regular troops, and fifteen hundred militia and volunteers. Among these last may be mentioned Sir Robert Wilson, who had arrived from England, in the month of May.

Soon after the French army came in sight of Corunna, they immediately attacked the advanced posts of the Spaniards, upon the heights which command the town; a hot conflict ensued, which lasted five hours, and in the course of which Sir Robert Wilson was severely wounded in the thigh. The Spaniards afterwards retired within the works, when they were summoned by the French general, with the offer of terms of honourable capitulation. Quiroga, however, indignantly rejected the proposition, and after arranging the means for the defence of the place, he proceeded himself to Cadiz.

In Catalonia, the progress made by the French was slow and painful. The gallant Mina employed to resist them all the resources of genius and activity. After a month of marching and counter-marching, Monecy still found himself at his head-quarters at Gerona; but of the details of the operations on either side, we find it difficult to give any clear or precise account. It would seem, that upon quitting his position on the Fluvia, Mina had divided his force into two parts; the first of which, under Milans, fell back upon Hostalrich, with the view of covering Barcelona, while he himself marched with the other into Upper Catalonia. D'Erolles, with the royalist's force, pursued him up the

Ter towards Campredon and the French frontier, while the French strove to intercept him on the left; a combination which it was expected that Mina would not be able to escape. The next news they heard of him, however, was, that he had already got beyond their reach at Berga, from whence he could descend the Llobregat to Barcelona. In order to cut him off from this outlet, General Donnadieu was ordered to march upon Manresa. At Casteltorsol, Donnadieu fell in with a body of 3000 troops, under Milans, and an engagement took place, the result of which was, that the Spaniards were compelled to fall back upon Barcelona.

In the meanwhile, Mina was between Cardona and Manresa, and while his enemies were engaged in intercepting his route to Barcelona, he suddenly marched by Sasserias upon Vich, where he arrived in the morning of the 26th. After an ineffectual attempt to carry this place by escalade, he pursued his march across the mountains to Urgel (May 3). Here he reinforced the garrison, and having placed his wounded, his ammunition, and the contributions he had levied, in a place of safety, set out on an inroad on the French frontier, at a moment when the enemy were expecting him in the direction of Cardona. He crossed the Pyrenees, entered France, and threw the whole country, as far as Andorre, into alarm and confusion; but, contenting himself with this demonstration, he soon after re-entered Catalonia by the road of Campredon, and notwithstanding all the combinations that had been made to intercept him on his return, he succeeded in making his way to Urgel (June 15), after some arduous marches, in course of which his column suffered considerably from the repeated attacks of their pursuers. Four days after, he again left this town with a body of 1200 men, and descended the course of the Segre. It was supposed that his object was to throw himself into Lerida, but, in fact, he marched by Pons and Cervera upon Tarragona, where he arrived sick and wounded, and exhausted by the effect of his late exertions. On the 26th of June, he established his headquarters at Sans, about a mile from Barcelona, having succeeded in completely baffling all the combinations and calculations of his enemies, who had repeatedly so surrounded him by their various divisions, that his escape had been announced as impossible.

Soon after (May 8), the 5th and 10th French divisions were ordered to form the investment of Barcelona. The corps of Milans and Llobera fell back, as the enemy advanced, upon Molins del Rey and Martorell, and finally took up a position at Igualada, on the road to Lerida. Marshal Moncey found it necessary to secure his flanks by driving them from this post; and after some skirmishing, Milans retreated by Jorba and Cervera, and encamped in the neighbourhood of Tarragona. A much more decided character of success was seen to mark the operations of the second French corps under Count Molitor. After raising, as we have already described, the siege of Mequinenza, and establishing his communications with the army of Catalonia, Molitor entered Arragon about the beginning of June, in pursuit of Ballasteros. That general was vigorously pressing the siege of the fortress of Murviedro, when the approach of the French (June 11) compelled him to break up and retire upon Valencia; which, however, he almost immediately evacuated, and took up a position at Alcira and Cargante. Here his rear-guard suffered considerably from an attack of the enemy, and a considerable desertion took place among the newly levied regiments of his army. He continued his retreat somewhat precipitately by Murcia, Lorca, and Grenada, and at length (July 27) encamped in a strong position on the mountains of Campillo de Arenas. Molitor first occupied Grenada, which the general commandant, Zayas, evacuated at his approach. He then proceeded to attack Ballasteros (July 28), who, after an obstinate resistance, was driven from his position with the loss, says the French bulletin, of four or five hundred killed and wounded, and three hundred prisoners. The event of this day had a most discouraging effect upon the Spanish army, of which it is calculated above fifteen hundred deserted in the course of the two following nights.

On the 4th of August, a convention was agreed upon between Ballasteros and Molitor, by which the Spanish army was made in some sort to recognize the authority of the Regency; and a guarantee was given, that the generals and officers should retain their rank and their pay, and that no individual of it should be prosecuted or molested on account of his acts or opinions previous to this convention. Hostilities then ceased on both sides, and Ballasteros sent orders to the Governors of Alicante, Carthagena, and other places included within his command, to recognize the authority of the Regency of Madrid; his orders to this effect, however, were in very few instances obeyed.

These conventions, infinitely more than any military successes which had been achieved by the French arms, were of decisive import as to the result of the war. It was clear that the constitutional cause was falling to pieces by the successive defections of the Generals, on which it most depended for its support; and the most difficult part of the task which now remained to the French, was that of protecting the vanquished against the insolence of victory and the rage of party re-action, on the part of their own allies. The Regency of Madrid, and the provincial Junta, formed under their authority, evinced every disposition to go all lengths in the expression of their triumph and the gratification of their political antipathies. At Saragossa it was with the utmost difficulty that the fanatical populace were prevented by the French garrison from indulging in the most horrible outrages upon the opposite party. A similar spirit prevailed at Madrid, although considerably checked and awed by the decided discountenance of the Duke d'Angouleme. The Regency, on its part, continued to issue the most violent decrees against the partisans or adherents of the late government. That of the 23d of July, may be cited as a sample of the spirit which predominated in the drawing up of these ordinances. By this instrument, all persons, and especially those employed under government, who, since the 20th of March, 1820, should have presented themselves to serve in the volunteer militia, and all those who should have belonged to secret societies, were, by that act alone, deprived of the pay of any civil or military employment which they might have obtained, and of all honours or decorations which might have been accorded to them, until the liberation of the king.

In the meanwhile, the Duke of Angouleme proceeded to leave Madrid in order to put an end to the campaign by the reduction of the Isle of Leon.

He made a short stay at Andujar, from whence, August the 8th, he published an ordinance which created a considerable sensation throughout the Peninsula. By this the Spanish authorities were strictly forbidden to make any arrests, without the sanction of a French commanding officer of the district, and these last were enjoined to set at liberty all individuals who had been arbitrarily arrested on political grounds, and more particularly the disbanded militia men. By the same ordinance the journals were placed under the care and inspection of the French commandants.

The immediate object of this measure was no doubt to give confidence to such of the constitutional troops as were disposed to capitulate, and whom the violence of the royalist party might otherwise deter from venturing upon any engagement of that nature. But it excited, as might have been expected, the utmost irritation among those whose excesses it was in fact directly intended to restrain.

Conferences upon the subject were opened between the Regency and the French commanders; but in the meanwhile these last so far obeyed the rescript of the Prince Generalissimo as to proceed to set at liberty some twenty individuals confined in the prisons of the city. The Regency formally protested, August the 13th, against this act as a manifest outrage upon their authority; a compromise of the matter, however took place, and on the following day a decree appeared, by which the Regency of its own authority, ordered that all the persons detained should be discharged, with the exception of those who had been guilty of excesses for the purpose of overturning the fundamental constitution

constitution of the kingdom—a somewhat vague principle of exception, and which seemed susceptible of a very comprehensive latitude of interpretation.

A still more undissembled repugnance to the ordinance was manifested in the provinces, and did in fact prevent its taking effect. At Vittoria, the Trappist at once told the French commander, that he would not co-operate in the execution of such a measure; and the royalist force engaged in the blockade of Pampeluna sent an address to the Regency, in which they said that they could not see with indifference, the supreme authority of the government overturned, the laws violated, and the nation outraged by those who had only come to protect it.

The Duke d'Angouleme perceived that he had somewhat imprudently shocked the national pride by his Andujar ordinance; and accordingly a second was issued, (August the 26th,) explaining, and in some measure modifying the former; the application of which was restricted to the individuals comprehended in the capitulations; and the superintendence of the Spanish journals was stated to mean nothing more, than to prevent the insertion of articles calculated to irritate the public mind, or to embarrass the measures adopted by the prince for the pacification of Spain and the liberation of the king.

About this time the war in Galicia was brought to an end by the capitulations, which under the mediation of Morillo, the garrison of Corunna (August 13) and Vigo (August 27) were induced to accept from the French general. By these it was stipulated, that no inhabitant or militia-man should be in any way molested, for any thing he had done or said previous to the period of the capitulation.

The king arrived at Cadiz on the evening of the 15th of June; on the next day, a portion of the deputies to the cortes assembled in an extraordinary sitting in the church of San Felipe-Neri, where the Cortes of 1812 had held their sittings; and the provisional Regency which had been created by the decree of the 11th, then declared that their functions had ceased, inasmuch as the king had arrived at Cadiz, and that the Cortes were in numbers sufficient for deliberation. Accordingly, the assembly resumed its ordinary sitting on the 18th. A shocking event occurred on the morning of that day. The minister of war, Don Sanchez Salvador, put a period to his existence by cutting his throat with a razor. He left behind him a paper, stating that life had become insupportable to him, but that he died with a clear and unrepining conscience.

The executive, in concert with the Cortes, then proceeded to take measures for the defence of the town and the island. The French corps of Bordesoulle arrived at Port St. Mary on the 24th of June, and was shortly after reinforced by the division of Count Bourmont. Nothing was attempted in the way of active operation by either party, until on the 16th of July, when the garrison made a demonstration of attack upon different points of the French line from Puerto Real to Chiclana, and some skirmishing ensued, in which both sides attribute to themselves the honour of success.

But during this suspension of military conflict, the Cortes was not idle. It is not necessary to recapitulate the decrees which it issued for the military organization of provinces which were for the most part no longer under its authority—one of these acts, however, deserves mention, as marking the uncompromising spirit which still animated the assembly. The Duke d'Angouleme had been greeted (May 18) by an address of congratulation and acknowledgment on the part of the grandees of Spain, and signed by the names of thirty-one noblemen. The Cortes now declared the individuals who had signed that paper, unworthy of the Spanish name, and traitors to their country and their king; and they decreed that they should be deprived of their titles, honours, rank and employments; and that their property of every kind should be sequestered to the use of the public treasury during their lives.

This decree, like every other, was signed by the king, who had, in fact, for some time past abandoned all notion of objecting to or resisting the promulgation of the will of the

Cortes. On the 5th of August, that assembly closed its ordinary session for this year.

The Duke of Angouleme soon after arrived at Port San Mary. On the morning following his arrival, August the 17th, he sent one of his aides-de-camp, with a flag of truce to the Spanish lines, charged with a letter to the King of Spain, which he was ordered to deliver to his Majesty in person. After some difficulties on the part of the Spanish authorities, the messenger was admitted to an audience of the king, to whom, in the presence of the members of the government, he presented the prince's letter. In this his Royal Highness expressed, in the name of the King of France, his desire that his Catholic Majesty be restored to his liberty and to his just authority; should accord a general amnesty for the past; and should give to his people, by the convocation of the ancient Cortes of the kingdom, the best guarantees of order, justice, and good government; and the duke offered to engage for the concurrence of all Europe in the consolidation of this act of wisdom. It was added, however, that if within five days a satisfactory answer was not given and the king set at liberty, recourse would necessarily be had to force, and that they who consulted their passions rather than the interests of their country, would be answerable for the consequences.

To this, the king was made to reply that he was in fact free; that the old Cortes which had been alluded to were no longer compatible with the Spanish nation, and the like.

The French now proceeded to take measures for the attack of the island. With this view, the possession of the Trocadero was the first object to be effected; and the works were pushed with such activity, that before the end of the month, five batteries were erected within the reach of the position. On the 30th, a warm cannonade was opened and continued for some time, without producing any other effect than that of fatiguing the garrison. But at two o'clock on the following morning, August the 31st, the French line was put under arms; a strong column of attack advanced in silence and unperceived till within forty paces of the ditch; into which it threw itself, and gained the opposite bank in spite of a hot fire of grape and musquetry from the garrison. They then carried the entrenchments at the point of the bayonet, and soon after the Fort St. Louis; so that, by nine o'clock, the whole of the isthmus was in their hands.

The effect of this reverse upon the city was manifested the same day by the dispatch of General Alava with a flag of truce to the French head-quarters, bearing a letter from the king to the Duke of Angouleme, which contained a proposition for an armistice. The Duke, however, answered that he could listen to no proposal of the sort, until the king was free and under the protection of the French army; and the Spanish ministers then determined to lighten the responsibility which the crisis imposed upon them, by convoking an extraordinary meeting of the Cortes.

They must, indeed, by this time have felt that their cause was utterly desperate. The successive defections of Abisbal, Morillo and Ballasteros, had as it were delivered it, bound hand and foot, to the French. An expedition had been undertaken by Riego, with the purpose of attempting to bring back the troops of Ballasteros to their duty to the Constitution, but although the enterprize was marked with all the courage and decision that have distinguished the military career of that celebrated partisan, it eventually failed of success. On the 17th of August, Riego, having evaded the blockading squadron before Cadiz, disembarked at Malaga, where he superseded Zayas in the command of the 2000 men who composed the garrison; and proceeded to raise, by the most violent means, a contribution of money in the shape of a forced loan, on the inhabitants. He left Malaga with a force of about 2500 men on the 3d of September, and in order to avoid the French divisions of Bonnemains and Loverdo, took the resolution of throwing himself into the chain of the Alpujarras, the passage of which he effected by a route never before attempted, and after a march of three days, found himself (Sept. 8) in the plains of Grenada. On the 10th, he came up with the advanced posts of the cantonments of Ballasteros

lasteros at Priego. Ballasteros, advised of his approach, immediately ordered his troops to fire; but just at the moment, when the infantry was putting itself in line for a general action, Riego's soldiers lowered their arms, and waving their caps in the air, advanced amid cries of "Long live Riego and Ballasteros! The Constitution for ever!" The sympathy instantly caught the other party; they joined in the cry, and both sides met in each other's embrace. Riego then entreated Ballasteros to join with him against the common enemy, offering to serve under his command in any capacity he might choose to assign. Ballasteros, in order to gain time, said he would confer with his officers on the subject, and the two chiefs dined together; in the meanwhile, Ballasteros dreading the danger of further contact with the constitutional force, gave orders to his division to retire in the direction of Lucena and Cabra, reserving merely a piquet for his own guard. Riego was soon made aware of this movement, and perceiving the object of it, he, in the first instance, arrested Ballasteros at his head-quarters. The officers of this last, however, remonstrated so strongly against the indignity thus offered to their general, that Riego found it necessary to liberate his prisoner; and finding that nothing more could be done in this part, he moved in the direction of Alcantete and Martos. A considerable portion of the regiments of Numantium and Espagna now abandoned him, and all hope of effecting the original object of his enterprise being lost, he turned towards the Sierra Morena with the view of crossing that range, and of making the best of his way for Catalonia. But he was surrounded on all sides by French divisions; that of General Bonnemains came up with him on the 13th, near Jaen; after a long and obstinate conflict, Riego was compelled to abandon his position with great loss, and to retreat in the direction of Jodar. Here, however, he fell in with another French detachment (Sept. 14); and the Spaniards, now thoroughly disheartened by their repeated reverses, dispersed on every side without a waiting the onset; Riego himself was compelled to seek safety in flight, accompanied only by three of his officers. They endeavoured to gain the mountains of the Sierra Morena; but were recognised on their way at a farm house near Carolina d'Arguillos, and information being given to the neighbouring authorities, they were arrested and sent to Andujar. A dispute arose between the French staff and the Spanish authorities as to whose jurisdiction Riego properly belonged. The latter claimed him as having been captured by Spanish peasants; the former, because he was taken in his flight after a rencontre, in which the French troops exclusively were engaged. The question was decided in favour of the Spaniards; to whom Riego was delivered over, and soon after conducted a prisoner to Madrid.

The capture of Riego seemed to decide the fate of the war in the south, where two places only, Alicante and Carthage, still acknowledged the Constitution. In Navarre, Pampeluna and St. Sebastian yet held out, but the investment of the former place had been pushed with additional vigour, since Marshal Lauriston arrived to assume the direction of the operations before it; and on the 16th of September, a capitulation was agreed upon, by which the garrison became prisoners of war, and the French general engaged to employ his utmost influence to prevent individuals from being subjected to molestation on account of their preceding political conduct. St. Sebastian capitulated upon the same terms on the 27th, which had already been granted (11th) to the garrison of Santona.

In Catalonia, however, the constitutional cause still maintained its ground, and, indeed, the French seemed to have made little or no essential progress in this quarter since the beginning of the campaign. The fortresses of Figueras, Urgel, Hostalrich, and Lerida, continued to hold out; and the forces employed in the blockade or siege of these places, were kept in continual alarm by the sorties, made from time to time by the garrisons of Barcelona and Tarragona. One of these expeditions deserves particular commemoration. On the 10th of September, at the moment when the blockading force at Barcelona was occupied by an attack upon their

whole line on the part of the garrison, a body of about two thousand four hundred men, under the command of Brigadier Gen. Fernandez, embarked from the fort, and landed the same evening a few leagues to the north, between Mongat and Masnou. They marched rapidly upon Hostalrich, and after revictualing that place, proceeded by San Seloni, in the direction of Urgel, as though with the purpose of throwing similar succours into that fortress; but on reaching Olot, they turned suddenly to the right towards Figueras. In the meanwhile, however, the enemy had taken the alarm; and the Spaniards found the several roads strongly occupied by his troops. Fernandez in vain endeavoured to cut his way through them, on the 15th at Llado, and again on the following day at the defiles of Tarrades. In these combats he lost above five hundred men killed and wounded, and finding himself surrounded on all sides by superior numbers, was compelled to accept an honourable capitulation from the French commander, the Baron du Damas. Nearly two thousand men became prisoners of war. Among them were the remains, about 120, of the battalion composed of French refugees, who were not included in the capitulation, but were induced to surrender upon a promise of their lives from the French general. Figueras capitulated a few days after.

The remaining history of the Spanish revolution is a tale soon told. The fall of the Trocadero had thrown the garrison and the citizens into the utmost discouragement; and on the 4th of September, the king was made to write a letter to the Duke d'Angouleme, proposing a suspension of hostilities, in order that the two governments might treat together for an honourable peace. The prince answered, that he could only treat with the king himself being at liberty.

A second messenger was then despatched from the city, to beg the prince to state what it was necessary should be done, in order that the king should be considered free; and also in what manner it was intended to treat with him. To this the duke d'Angouleme answered by a memorandum, in which he desired that the king and the royal family should be allowed to proceed either to Chiclana or Port St Mary, and repeated that he would then exert all his influence with the king, to induce him both to forget what was past, and to give such a constitution to the nation as he might think to consist with its peace and happiness. Orders would be given to the admiral to allow all those who wished to leave Spain, to embark, and go whither they pleased; and a French division would enter Cadiz to maintain order, and prevent reaction.

It was now endeavoured to induce the English minister, who still remained at Gibraltar, to proceed to Cadiz, and interpose the mediation of his government for the arrangement of a general pacification. Sir William A'Court evaded the proposition, on the pretext of the French blockade; he sent, however, his secretary of legation to the French headquarters, with the view of ascertaining the disposition of the Duke d'Angouleme; but the prince was too well aware of the straits to which his adversaries were reduced, to be inclined to relax from his original demand.

In the meanwhile, the Cortes assembled, for the last time, (Sept. 6) in an extraordinary session, which was opened, as usual, by a speech read in the name of the king, in which his Majesty, after adverting to the dangers which menaced the vessel of the state, observed, that their enemies refused to treat with him unless he were free, and had declared that they would not consider him as free, until he was in the midst of their bayonets; a kind of liberty which his Majesty designated as inconceivable and ignominious.

On the following day, a report was read from the committee charged to inquire into the state of the kingdom. The committee stated, that the documents which had been submitted to them by the executive, exhibited the deplorable state of the nation; but added, that the propositions made by the enemy were so dishonourable and humiliating, that they concurred with his Majesty's government in the determination it had expressed, to perish rather than accede to them.

The report was sanctioned by the Cortes; additional and almost unlimited powers were given to the government, and to the junta, which was specially charged with the arrangement and enforcement of the measures judged necessary for the defence of the town. It is difficult, however, to believe that either the minister or the Cortes could seriously entertain any hope of being able to hold out much longer; and the loss of the fort Santi Petri (Sept. 20), which formed the key of the right of their position in the island, seemed to render their situation nearly hopeless. On the 23d, the French fleet opened a bombardment on the town, which was set on fire in several places; and the despair of the citizens now became almost universal; a disposition to revolt was manifested by the regular troops, and was only kept down by the militia of Madrid, which alone seemed to retain something of determination and courage amid the despair which depressed all around them.

In the meanwhile, the besieging army were hastening on every side their preparations for a general assault; and neither the naval or military commanders, when required by the minister to state their opinions as to the means of defence possessed by the place, attempted to dissemble the inadequacy of them. The report of their opinions were laid before the Cortes on the 28th; and the members could no longer resist the conviction, that all farther resistance was unavailable. Accordingly, a resolution was passed, by a majority of sixty votes to thirty, declaring that the king was restored to his former authority, and that a deputation should be sent to him, begging his Majesty to proceed to the French head-quarters, there to stipulate such conditions as should be most favourable to the welfare of his afflicted people. The deputation proceeded immediately to the custom-house, where the king had resided since his arrival at Cadiz, and were admitted to an audience. Ferdinand is said to have expressed his satisfaction at the decree of the Cortes, and to have promised his pardon and protection to all persons concerned in the late events.

At eleven o'clock on the 1st of October, Ferdinand, accompanied by his family, embarked on board a sloop, and in half an hour reached the port, where he was received on his landing by the Duke d'Angouleme, surrounded by his staff, and backed by an immense multitude of people.

The first exertion of Ferdinand's recovered authority, gave but an unfavourable augury of what was to follow. On the same day of his arrival at Port St. Mary, he issued a decree which pronounced all the acts of the government called Constitutional (of whatever kind and description they may be), from the 7th of March, 1820, until the 1st of October, 1823, null and void, declaring, that during the whole of that period he had been deprived of his liberty, obliged to sanction laws and authorize orders, decrees, and regulations, which the said government framed and executed against his will.

The king then ordered that Cadiz and the Isle of Leon should be delivered up to the occupation of the French troops. A considerable emigration had already taken place from the city; between four and five hundred individuals, including most of the members of the Cortes and the late constitutional government, together with the principal officers of the army, embarked in the port, and sought refuge, for the most part, at Gibraltar, from whence they afterwards proceeded either to England or America.

On the 3d, the principal posts were given up to the French. On the same day the king left Port St. Mary for Seville. The news of the events which had taken place at Cadiz, soon spread throughout the Peninsula, and of course, all purpose of further resistance was abandoned by the constitutionalists. Lerida surrendered on the 18th of October—Seo d'Urgel three days later. The remaining fortresses of Catalonia were given up to the French, by a convention signed the 1st of November, by which the local militia agreed to lay down their arms, and return to their several homes; but the troops of the line and the militia were to be sent to cantonments.

A considerable number of individuals concerned in the late events, thought it prudent to leave the country. Mina

himself embarked for England. The campaign was now brought to a close, and the Duke d'Angouleme set out on his return to France.

On the fourth day after his leaving Port St. Mary, the king published from Xeres a second decree, ordaining that on his journey to the capital, no individual who, during the existence of the system styled Constitutional, had been a deputy to the Cortes in the two last legislative sittings, should present himself, or be within five leagues of the route to Madrid.

At Seville, his Majesty published (Oct. 11) a third decree, constituting a junta of censure, under the presidency of Don Victor Saez, which was ordered to examine all works, and determine upon those which they conceived would be proper for instilling into the people sentiments likely to render them the proper supports of the altar, the throne, and of their country. At Seville, too, the king received the congratulations of Sir William A'Court, upon his restoration to his authority. Our court, however, mixed little in this matter, and prudently kept aloof. The regency of Urgel addressed the King of England twice, and Angouleme's regency once; but to the former no reply was sent by our ministry, and Mr. Canning flatly refused to present the letter of the second to his king, and returned it.

Riego was no sooner sent to Seville, than the regency immediately decreed that he should be tried by the second tribunal of the Alcades of the household, for having, as a deputy to the Cortes, taken part in the deliberation of the 11th of June, which declared the suspension of the king. Riego denied the competence of the tribunal, but he was found guilty, and condemned to be hanged, and his goods confiscated. The sentence was executed on the 7th of November. The widow of Riego went to England, where she excited much sympathy.

The King and Queen of Spain made their solemn entry into Madrid on the 13th of November, and their return was made the subject of popular festivity for some days after. The amnesty, however, so necessary to quiet the public mind, did not appear. On the 27th, a decree was published, ordering all possible reductions to be made in the number of persons employed in all the branches of administration, and likewise that the salaries should be reduced to the *minimum* necessary to a functionary to preserve the decorum of his place; and this was followed, on the next day, with another, directing the disbandment of the royal volunteers.

A change of ministers took place a few days after, and the Madrid Gazette of the 4th of September contained four decrees.

By the first, his Majesty appointed as first minister of state, the Marquis of Casa Irujo; as minister of grace and justice for Spain and the Indies, Don Narciso de Heredia; as minister of war, Major-General Don Josef de la Cruz; and as minister of finance, Don Luis Lopez Ballasteros. The minister of marine remained.

By the second decree, his Majesty appointed as president of his council, Don Ignacio Martinez de Vilella. This place was still vacant; the Duke del Infantado having refused to accept it.

By the third decree, Saez, the king's former prime minister and confessor, was nominated to the bishopric of Tortosa, vacant by the death of Don Manuel Ros y Medrano. At the same time that he ceased to be minister, he ceased to be confessor to the king.

By the fourth decree, his Majesty, "seeing the absolute necessity for the good government of his vast monarchy, of establishing a council of state which might unite the knowledge and the experience requisite to guide the resolutions of his sovereign authority," nominated ten individuals, composed of persons selected from the old council of state, existing on the 7th of March, 1820, and others, to be a council of state. His Majesty reserved the power of adding to their number. The counsellors named were—Eguia, the Duke of San Carlos, Don Juan Perez Villamil, Don Antonio Vargas Laguna, Don Antonio Gomez Calderon, Don Juan Bautista

tista de Erro, Don Josef Garcia de la Torre, and Don Juan Antonio Rojas.

These nominations were attributed chiefly to the suggestions and representations of the foreign ministers; particularly those of France and Russia; M. Pozzo de Borgo, the Russian ambassador at Paris, having been charged by his master to proceed to Madrid, for the special purpose of congratulating Ferdinand on his restoration to his capital and to his crown. The individuals composing the new ministry were men for the most part of known liberal principles. Casa-Irujo occupied the place of Ambassador from the Cortes at the court of France, before the attempted counter-revolution of the 7th of July, 1822; but he was supposed to have had understanding with the French government in the machination of that plot; and had in consequence been superseded in his embassy by the Duke of San Lorenzo. The minister of grace and justice, Heredia, had ever been stigmatized as an *Afrancesado* or *Josephino*. It might have been expected that the dismissal of Saez, and the nomination of such a ministry to succeed him, would not be popular with the violent royalist faction by which Ferdinand was surrounded. And it is said that the remonstrances of this party on the subject, were so strong, that Ferdinand was upon the point of turning out his new cabinet within four-and-twenty hours after the nomination of it. He was saved, however, from this step by the renewed interposition of the ministers of those allies, to whose exertions he owed his throne; and of whose representations it would have been neither prudent nor decent so soon to have manifested his disregard.

In the year 1824, treaties were concluded, in the month of January, with the court of France, for the mutual restoration of vessels taken in the late war; for the assignment of the amount of debt due by Spain to France, and for the further occupation, for six months, of the Spanish territory, by a French corps of 45,000 men. Soon after a circular dispatch was sent by the court of Madrid to the allied powers, proposing to establish a conference at Paris, for the arrangement of the affairs of the revolted provinces of America. Mr. Canning, on the part of the British government, positively refused to take part in such congress, and intimated, in no very equivocal terms, that any attempt on the part of foreign powers to mediate by force, in the pending quarrel between Spain and her colonies, would be met by Great Britain with an immediate and unqualified acknowledgment of the independence of those colonies. This declaration had its intended effect in at once precluding any further entertainment of such a project. A second invitation, indeed, to the same effect, was made to the British government in the course of the year; but met with no better success.

On the 9th of February, the king issued a decree opening the ports of his American possessions to the subjects of European powers, his friends or allies. As the mother country had long since lost all effective authority over the regions in question, the instrument was ridiculous enough.

The new administration, though for the most men of safe principles and moderate views, were but little able to restrain the violence of the party which late events had made triumphant. The Marquis de Casa-Irujo, indeed, was soon released from the embarrassment of such a service by his death, which took place on the 11th of January. He was succeeded in the direction of affairs by the Count Ofalia. Senor Calomarde, the secretary of the council of Castile, then became minister of grace and justice; an appointment which was considered as unfavourable to the hopes of the moderate party, as Calomarde was known to be one of the leading members of the ultra faction, which went by the name of the apostolic junta. The man who at this time was supposed to enjoy the most personal favour with the king, was M. Ugarte, who did not, however, occupy any ministerial function, but assisted at the council in the ostensible capacity only of secretary of the board.

Enjoying, as they seemed to do, little of the confidence of the king, and deprived by the penury and general disorgan-

ization of the state of all means of active operation against the disturbers of the public peace, the ministers were able to effect little for carrying into effect the good intentions for which they had the credit. The royal volunteers who had been ordered to disband, still remained in arms in many provinces, and continued to indulge in every act of violence against all whom they chose to suspect of abetting the constitutional system. In this state of things, it must be admitted that the voice of French influence was uniformly heard in favour of measures of mildness and mercy; it was, however, too often disregarded; and the Marquis de Talaru, the French ambassador, is supposed to have at length sought a respite from the continual rebuffs and disgusts which he experienced in his residence at Madrid, by an indefinite leave of absence.

We do not know any better mode of illustrating the spirit of government at this period, than by giving two or three of the decrees which it issued from time to time, and the enumeration of which, indeed, composes nearly the whole history of Spain for the present year. A circular was issued from the war department, in which, after complaining of the existence of the armed bands which infested the high roads, and of the obstinacy of the enemies of the monarchy, who continued to pour forth invectives against the sacred rights of the throne and eulogies of the abolished constitution, directions were given for instituting certain paramount military commissioners, who were to take summary cognizance of the proceedings, among others, of the following persons:—Those who, since the 1st of October, of the last year, had declared, or should declare, themselves, by taking arms, or any other overt act, the enemies of the legitimate throne, or the partisans of the constitution:—those who, since the same period, had written, or should write, pamphlets of a similar tendency:—those who, in public places, should speak against the sovereignty of the king, or in favour of the said unhappy constitution:—finally, those who endeavour to seduce their fellow-citizens, with the design of forming a party.

Shortly after, a decree was issued for the suppression of all political journals, except the official gazette and the *Diario* of Madrid. This measure, however sweeping and arbitrary, was probably conceived in the interest of the moderate party, as the journals of the *exaltado's* were of course silenced with the rest. At the same time, more vigorous measures were taken for enforcing the disbandment of the volunteers, and the Baron d'Eroles, who had refused to dissolve his army, was recalled from Catalonia and replaced by the Marquis of Campo Sagrado.

The finances of Spain had, by this time, reached the last term of penury and discredit; and all the efforts of the ministers could effect little for their re-establishment. Their propositions for a loan were at once indignantly rejected, on the exchanges of London and Paris; no capitalists could be found to make advances to the government, which refused to acknowledge the engagements contracted by the Cortes; and to such an extremity of disorganization was the country reduced, that the ordinary resources of taxation afforded little or nothing to the state. The old system of indirect impost was now resorted to; at the same time, the *frutos civiles*, a sort of land-tax, amounting to about 5 per cent. on the net income, was re-established, and levied with rigour throughout the kingdom; the clergy themselves not being exempted from its operation. A singular resource employed by the government for the restoration of the finances, was the establishment of a sinking fund. The king's decree ordained, that an annual sum of 80 millions of reals should be assigned to the sinking fund. This fund was to answer for the payment of the new obligations, which the treasury might contract, in order to meet the current wants of the government.

On the 27th of March, the king and royal family set out on a visit to Aranjuez,—a journey, to pay the expenses of which, the court had been under the necessity of raising a sum of 30,000*l.*, upon a particular pledge. The departure

of the king from Madrid, seemed to be the signal for the ultra-royalists and fanatic party to indulge in fresh violences against their fellow subjects, and it required all the firmness of the French commandant, Count Bourmont, to repress their outrages. Incendiary placards were affixed in the streets, some calling upon the Spaniards to deliver their monarch, who was declared to be in a state of imprisonment at Aranjuez; others pointing out, in no equivocal terms, the Infant Don Carlos, as more worthy of the throne than his brother. In the meantime, the public was in anxious expectation of the act of amnesty for past offences, which it was known that the allied powers had from the beginning urged the king to issue, as the only mode of calming the public mind, and with the drawing up of which the cabinet, it was understood, had been for sometime engaged. At length, on the 1st of May, this instrument made its appearance; a pardon was issued for past political offences, but this act of grace was loaded with so many and important exceptions as completely to reverse its character:—It excepted

“ 1. The principal authors of the military revolt of Las Cabezas, the Isle of Leon, Corunna, Saragossa, Oviedo, and Barcelona, where the constitution of Cadiz was proclaimed before the royal decree of the 7th of March.

“ 2. The principal authors of the conspiracy at Madrid, at the beginning of March, 1820, for the purpose of wresting from the king the abovementioned decrees.

“ 3. The military chiefs who took part in the revolt of Ocagua, and particularly lieutenant-general Henry O'Donnell, Count of Abisbal.

“ 4. The principal authors of the measure which compelled his Majesty to establish the provisional junta mentioned in the decree of the 9th of March, and the individuals who composed it.

“ 5. Those who made propositions in secret societies, or who still adhere to these unions since the abolition of the revolutionary regime.

“ 6. Those who, during the constitutional regime, signed or authorized the dethronement of the king, the suspension of his authority, or the nomination of a regency, or that his Majesty and the princes of his family should be brought in judgment before the Cortes, or any other tribunal; and finally, the judges who dictated decrees for that object.

“ 7. The writers who have attacked the Catholic religion.

“ 8. The judges who condemned general Elio and lieutenant Giorffieu.

“ 9. The assassins of the canon Vinuesa and the bishop of Vich, and of the prisoners at Granada and Corunna.

“ 10. The chiefs of the Guerillas who have taken arms since the entry of the French Army.

“ 11. The European Spaniards who signed the convention concluded at Mexico between the Viceroy O'Donoju and Augustin Iturbide.

“ 12. The deputies of the Cortes, who on the 12th of June, 1823, voted the dethronement of the king.”

At the same time further measures of security were adopted to prevent the importation of foreign works, and journals of a dangerous character.

The ultra party seemed every day to assume a more menacing attitude; the French army of occupation, which indeed was the means by which the government could oppose any effectual restraint to their outrages, became the object of their peculiar hatred. The apostolic junta, encouraged by the success which in the first instance had attended the movement of Don Miguel at Lisbon, redoubled its intrigues, and it is believed was actually contemplating to take measures for placing what they believed to be a more fitting instrument of their passions on the throne, in the person of the infant Don Carlos. A body of royalist volunteers, under the lead of one Capape Royo, formerly a blacksmith, actually took the field in the neighbourhood of Teruel, with the device inscribed on his colours of “ War against the French.” He was however, in a short time overtaken, routed, and made prisoner by a French detachment; and the government, apparently alarmed by the audacity of the enterprise, thought it

necessary to mark, in a still stronger manner, its discountenance of the faction by exiling Saez, Eroles, and other of its supposed leaders from the capital; at the same time an order was issued commanding all persons who had not resided six years in the city to leave Madrid—an extraordinary measure of policy, and which it is difficult to suppose it had ever been intended to be put into strict execution. Soon after it was found necessary to induce the French government to consent to a prolongation of the loan of its army of occupation; and on the 30th of June, a convention was concluded, providing for the continuance in Spain of the French force till the 1st of January following.

The contradictory and inconsistent course pursued by the government, sufficiently indicated the divisions which prevailed in the councils of the king, whose measures seemed from day to day to alternate between the suggestions of one and the other party. On the 5th of July, the royal family left the capital for Sacedon; on which occasion, the king was accompanied by one only of his ministers, Senor Calomarde; and on the 11th following, Count O'alia resigned his office, which was confided to M. Zea Bermudez, who had formerly been minister plenipotentiary in Russia, and at present filled that post in London. M. Salazar was charged with the portfolio of foreign affairs *ad interim* until the arrival of the new minister. It would appear that this ministerial resolution was the effect of the triumph of the more violent party: at least it was immediately followed by a series of measures which we think clearly showed the ascendancy of that faction in their origination. The liberation of the individuals under the act of amnesty was postponed, and the execution of some of the more decisive decrees issued against the royalist volunteers was suspended.

At the same time the rancour entertained by the fanatic populace and soldiery against the French, broke out into acts of open violence. A quarrel took place between a party of French chasseurs and some soldiers of the Spanish garrison, in a tavern at Madrid; both parties had recourse to arms, and each receiving reinforcement from their friends, the affair began to assume a most alarming character, when it was put an end to by the interference of the French and Spanish commanding officers. Five or six Frenchmen were killed in the scuffle, and about a dozen wounded.

During the stay of the king at Sacedon, various decrees were issued. One of these had for its object the adoption of additional measures for the suppression of secret associations, particularly of free-masons. All persons who had belonged to such were called upon to come forward and point out the lodge or society to which they had belonged, and to deliver up all diplomas, symbols, or papers connected with it; and those who should continue to frequent such meetings were declared liable to the penalties attached to high treason. Moreover, all persons of whatever class or condition employed under government, were summoned to declare *under oath*, that they neither did belong nor had belonged to any such association; and further, that they *did not acknowledge* “the absurd principle that the people is competent to change the established form of government.”

On the return of the king from Sacedon, August 19th, another decree was issued, subjecting all military officers, whether on active service or half-pay, to the test of *purification* before commissioners consisting of military officers who had already undergone the same purification. The parties to be thus tried were compelled to give in written answers to interrogatories on the following points:—1st. What were their employments on the 1st of January, 1820. 2ndly. Where were they at that period, and to what corps they belonged? 3dly. The day and place where they swore fidelity to the constitution, and after what orders? 4th. What ranks, commands, or commissions they had obtained up to Dec. 31st, 1823; the time they had served in each employment; the places they had inhabited during the three years, and how long in each place? 5thly. Whether they had been members of any secret society? 6thly. Whether they had been national volunteers, journalists, or orators of any patriotic society; and whether

whether they had served against the royalist troops, in what corps, and in what province? 7thly, if they had been members of any court martial sitting upon royalists; what had been the sentence of such court, and who were the other members of the court martial? finally, the period at which they returned to their obedience to lawful authority, and under what manner? The commissioners were authorized to take secret informations for the purpose of authenticating the answers which might be given to these questions, or of otherwise guiding their decision upon each particular case. The only officers excepted from the necessity of undergoing this purification, were those who had uniformly served in the royalists corps, or those who had always remained near the persons of the king and of the royal family.

Impatient and irritated as the constitutional party must be supposed to have felt, under the multiplied vexatious and oppressions to which they were subjected throughout Spain, there was little doubt but that they would avail themselves of the first opportunity of rising against the yoke. At present, however, such an occasion seemed far distant; the great mass of the population was evidently disposed to take part with the royalists; and imbecile and impotent as was the government in its own resources, it possessed, in the French army of occupation, the means of opposing an immediate and effective resistance to any thing of a counter-revolutionary movement on the part of the liberals. Nothing, therefore, could be more ill-judged, and, indeed, desperate, than some attempts which were ventured on by the constitutional officers, who had sought shelter at Gibraltar, for raising the standard of revolt in the provinces of Andalusia and Granada. These refugees had found means to equip some small vessels under Colombian colours, with which they determined to make a descent on the neighbouring coast, in the hope of being joined by the bands of smugglers, which swarmed in that part of the country, and by other malcontents, the number of whom, it was inferred, was daily increasing under the disgusts given by the present system of government. A first attempt was made at Marbella, but it would seem that the citizens of Malaga had been warned in time, and appeared in arms to oppose the landing, which was therefore desisted from. A second enterprise, directed against Tarifa, was more successful. A body of nearly 300 men landed on the island in the night, and at day-break, on the 3d of August, they surprised the place at the moment that the garrison was opening the gates. The garrison was very weak; but it is not known whether any part of it had an understanding with the enemy; the commandant himself was absent at the time at Algeiras. Valdez immediately took measures for strengthening the works of the place; and having re-inforced his little troop by a part of the garrison and a levy of the inhabitants of the town, he hastened to publish his success in the "first bulletin of the liberating army," in which he announced, that the friends of the constitution were flying to arms on every point; that other divisions of the army of liberty were disembarking on other parts of the coast; and that measures were every where taken for a general rising against the present system.

Upon receiving intelligence of this enterprise, General O'Donnell, who commanded a small force at the camp of San Roche, ordered a detachment of infantry and cavalry to march on Tarifa, and blockade the place by land: on the evening of the 6th, a French frigate arrived from Cadiz, with troops of all arms; and at the same time three French ships of war, with a Spanish schooner, and some gun-boats from Algeiras, cut off all communication with the sea. An attack was made on the 7th, but repulsed by the garrison. Two days after it was repeated, but with no better success. The besiegers now found it necessary to send for battering artillery and in the mean time Valdez, flushed with his success, published a second bulletin, in which he spoke with an absurd confidence of his future operations. On the 14th, a party of about thirty men landed near Almeria, and were joined by some bands of smugglers; the royalists in the town, however, assisted by the inhabitants of the neighbouring villages, collected to attack them. The smugglers fled and dispersed

at the first fire; the rest made an obstinate resistance; but, in the result, were all either killed or made prisoners. These last were immediately shot.

The ordnance having arrived from Cadiz on the 16th, a battery was opened on Tarifa; on the 19th, the breach being practicable, an assault was given, and the place carried after a stubborn resistance against very superior force, of more than two hours on the part of the garrison. A part of them escaped, during the confusion, in boats; the rest took refuge in the small island in front of the fort; and which was defended by twenty pieces of cannon. On the following morning the insurgents were attacked in this position; a considerable number of them were killed, about 160 taken prisoners, and the rest, with Valdez himself, contrived to escape in boats. Of the prisoners the greater part were, a few days after, tried by a military commission, and condemned to be shot. This sentence had already been put into execution when a decree was received from Madrid, declaring that every individual, whether Spaniard or foreigner, who should land on the coast of Spain, and either by force of arms, or the diffusion of seditious writings, should seek to re-establish what was called the constitutional system, should be shot immediately after being taken prisoner; and that all persons joining the rebels after their landing, should be liable to the same summary method of punishment.

The expedition against Tarifa had the only effect which might have been expected from it, that of inflaming the rage and aggravating the severities exercised by the royalists. The minister of war, Don Josef de la Cruz, who, on account of his moderation, had long been an object of aversion with that party, was now obliged to give in his resignation, and shortly after was put under arrest, and his papers seized. He was succeeded in his department by Don Juan Aymerich, who signalized his accession to office by issuing various orders in favour of the royalist volunteers, and recommending the captains-general of the several provinces to augment, by every means, the number, and enforce the discipline of these bands, which he designated as the best safe-guards of the throne.

On the 15th of September, M. Zea Bermudez arrived to take the direction of the department of foreign affairs. Some hope was entertained, that his influence would contribute to moderate the violence of the ascendant party in the government; but such was not the immediate effect, at least, of his accession to the council. Some of the royal decrees issued at this time bore a character more violent, if possible, than that of any which had preceded them. An individual, of the name of Salvador Lloveno was tried at Almeria, for having called out, "Death to the king." Some doubts, which were entertained by the commission, as to the punishment to be awarded against this offence, occasioned the publication of a royal decree, which contained the following regulations: "All those who, since October 1, 1823, have declared or proved themselves, *by any acts whatever*, to be enemies to the legitimate rights of the throne, or partizans of the self-called constitution of Cadiz, shall be considered guilty of high treason, and, as such, subject to the punishment of death. All those who shall *write* pamphlets or journals, with the same object in view, shall be comprehended in the preceding article, and subject to the same penalty. Those who, in public places, shall *speak* against the sovereignty of his majesty, or in favour of the abolished constitution, in cases where the speeches produce no overt act, shall be punished with from four to ten years' confinement. Those who shall attempt to seduce their fellow citizens to form parties, and to procure for themselves the means of acting offensively, such as money, arms, horses, and munitions of war, shall be considered guilty of high treason, and punished with death. Those who shall excite insurrections, for the purpose of constraining the king to perform any act contrary to his will, shall be likewise considered guilty of high treason; but where the object of the insurrection is not of so culpable a nature, the punishment shall be only from two to four years' confinement. The cry of "Death to the king!" is considered to be high treason. The freemasons, comuneros, and sectarians,

tarians, being necessarily regarded as enemies of the throne, are subject to the punishment of death, and confiscation of all their goods, excepting those who are comprehended in the amnesty.

Towards the end of October, another decree was published, which deprived the freemen of the various cities and corporations of their ancient and accustomed right of electing their respective mayors and other municipal officers; and the reason specifically assigned for this measure in the preamble of the decree is curious; it was in order to erase from the Spanish soil even the remotest idea that the sovereignty resides elsewhere than in the person of the king; and to make it known to the people that his majesty would never consent to the slightest alteration of the fundamental laws of the monarchy.

As this year drew towards its close, the period assigned for the departure of the French army was approaching. That epoch, indeed, was looked forward to with impatience by a large party in the country; and there were not wanting persons about the king, to assure him that he might now safely dispense with the presence of the allied force.

The cooler part of the cabinet, and, it is to be believed, the king himself, saw the real state of things in a different point of view. Accordingly, fresh negotiations were opened with the French government, which was induced to sanction an arrangement, (signed at the Escorial, Dec. 10th,) by which a French corps of 22,000 men were to be left in Spain, and stationed in the fortresses of Cadiz, Barcelona, St. Sebastian, Pampeluna, Urgel, Jaca, and Figueras; besides two Swiss regiments, which should remain at Madrid or any other of the royal residences, to do service near the person of the king and royal family, jointly with Spanish troops.

Whether it was a condition exacted by France, in making this arrangement, or whether we are to attribute it to the influence of the queen's father, prince Maximilian of Saxony, who arrived on a visit to the royal family, at the Escorial, on the 3d of December, does not appear; but it is certain that the proceedings and language of the government were marked by a character of greater moderation towards the close of the year; on the last day of which, M. Zea Bermudez was named president of the council.

This appointment was said to have been almost forced upon Ferdinand by the influence of France, and by the extreme difficulties in which the court found itself placed. Zea was conceived to be a man of ability, and of moderation in politics; and hopes were entertained that he would follow a more enlightened policy than that of his predecessors in office. But he had not sufficient strength to effect any good. As he refused to go all the lengths of the fanatical party, he was from the commencement of his ministry obnoxious to the church and the leading courtiers; and as, from the very nature of his situation, he could not obtain the support of public opinion in a country where there was no public, he was obliged, in order to maintain himself in office, to oppose intrigue to intrigue; to make a compromise with wrong, when he could not carry what he thought right; and to render ineffectual the measure of one day, by the promulgation of a modifying or counteracting decree on the morrow. His almost total want of personal influence, of family connections, or of party support, made it necessary for him to consult the caprices of those whose erroneous views and mischievous passions he should have been able to control, and thus rendered it impossible for him to observe any consistent line of conduct in attempting to restore public credit or to suppress dangerous disturbances. The consequence was, that the fanatical party, imagining that they had now something to apprehend, and at the same time freed from the check of the French army, became more violent than before: and most of the principal towns in Spain exhibited scenes of anarchy and tumult. The disorders were increased by the poverty of the government, who were without either money or credit.

Many negotiations were set on foot for the purpose of raising a loan, but without effect. In March, Ugarte, whose private influence had long been great, was dismissed from

his office of secretary of the Council of State, for having, without the king's authority, introduced a clause into the draught of a contract for a loan, fixing a rate at which the bonds of the Cortes should be received.

A report on the state of the finances, made to the minister of that department by the treasurer general, gave the following lamentable picture of the wants of the country, but suggested no mode of remedying the evil.

"The general treasury has to provide for the arming, maintenance, and other expenses which the formation of a respectable army requires; to attend to the navy, at present in a most deplorable state, by taking care at least of the outfit of the vessels, and the subsistence of the officers and crews; to give attention to the serious representations of France for indemnification; to pay the anticipated interest on Guebhard's loan; and, finally, to cover the ordinary demands, which are greatly increased by particular circumstances.

"On the other hand, the resources have diminished and are daily diminishing; the great sums which used to be received from America, and which in tranquil times amounted annually to more than 160 millions of reals, have ceased to be paid: besides, the customs, the tobacco duties, the salt duties, and other branches of the revenue, have sustained a defalcation, amounting by estimate to about another hundred millions, which it has been found impossible to stop, as unfortunately the measures adopted for that purpose have not been followed by the expected results; so that it is not too much to assert, that scarcely enough is received to cover the half of the expenditure. Public credit, also, is ruined by the enormous weight of the debt, and by the impolicy of making promises which could not be fulfilled."

In a subsequent part of the report, a complaint is made of "the arbitrary practices which are exercised by some authorities and corporations of the provinces, who, in the most shameful manner, impose and exact duties on articles of consumption." It concluded with stating, that, "The Treasurer-General was exposed to continual insults from the impossibility of satisfying all demands amidst the great wants which surrounded him, and that, in the existing state of the treasury, it was impossible for him to support a charge so superior to his strength."

The appointment of Zea had encouraged a notion, that an attempt might be made to mitigate the caprice of despotism, and to introduce into the country something which might approach to a regular government. Ferdinand, however, was anxious to convince the world, that all projects of reform were far from his thoughts.

"I have learned with the most lively grief," said he, in a decree dated the 19th of April, "that for some time alarming reports have been insidiously spread, that it is intended to oblige or to counsel me to make reforms and innovations in the regime and government of my kingdoms, by altering its ancient and respectable fundamental laws, and limiting my royal authority. It is a duty, and at the same time a satisfaction to me, to contradict a fiction as malicious as it is criminal. I declare, in consequence, not only that I am resolved to preserve entire, and in all their plenitude, the legitimate rights of my sovereignty, without giving up now, or at any other time, the slightest particle of them, and without permitting the establishment of chambers or of other institutions of whatever denomination, which may be contrary to our laws and usages; but that, on the contrary, I have the most solemn and the most positive assurance that all my august allies, who have given me so many proofs of their sincere affection, and their efficacious co-operation in the welfare of my kingdom, will continue to support, on all occasions, the legitimate and sovereign authority of my crown; without advising or proposing to me directly or indirectly, any innovation in the form of my government.

"I also declare, that I have taken the firm and immoveable resolution to cause the laws to be kept and respected, without tolerating abuses of any kind, without permitting violence and intrigue to take the place of justice,

justice, and without consenting that, under the pretext or appearance of attachment to my royal person, and to my authority, those who shall seek by those means to cover their disobedience and insubordination shall escape just punishment. Strict observance of the laws, the prompt execution of my decrees and ordinances, and respect for the authorities, are the solid foundations of order and prosperity; those which every Spaniard who is truly a royalist, and devoted to the sovereign, ought to make the rule of his conduct; and those which, notwithstanding the acts and attempts of malevolence, will secure the peace of my kingdoms, and the happiness of my beloved subjects, which are the objects dearest to my heart."

In accordance with the principles of this decree was an ordinance, issued by the intendant-general of police on the 26th of May, which, after a long preamble on the necessity of repressing the plots still carried on by the revolutionists and by the enemies to the king and to order, contained seven enacting clauses:—"1. No person whatever shall attack in an insulting manner the measures of his majesty's government: and every person taken in the act, or convicted of so doing shall be immediately arrested and delivered to the competent tribunal.—2. He who, by words or by writing, shall insult the agent of the civil, military, or ecclesiastical authority, shall be treated in the manner prescribed by the first article.—3. Keepers of hotels, coffee-houses, taverns, and other public establishments of all kinds, shall hinder political discussions in their houses, and the quarrels to which these discussions might lead, and shall denounce to the inspector of the quarter the censures passed on the government, and the plans formed against the safety of the inhabitants, against our holy religion, against the authorities, and against good morals. All who offend against this article shall be punished the first time by a fine of 100 ducats, and of 200 for the second; for the third, their establishments shall be closed.—4. Every person who shall spread reports against the sovereign authority of his majesty, and against his government, shall be arrested and punished according to the laws.—5. Every person who shall receive by the post, or otherwise, pamphlets on political subjects, shall immediately deliver them to the police, to do with them as it shall think proper; and no copy shall be taken, on pain of a fine of 100 ducats. The same penalty shall be inflicted on those who shall have read or known of such pamphlets, without giving information of them.—6. The same penalty shall be inflicted on those who shall receive, copy, and read pamphlets or letters signed, which treat on such subjects in a revolutionary manner, without immediately giving notice to the police.—7. Those who shall hold public or private meetings, in which the measures of the government shall be criticized, or in which attempts shall be made directly or indirectly to decry it, shall be prosecuted; and, besides the penalties which shall be inflicted on them by the laws, each member shall pay a fine of 100 ducats."

The *ultra* party, however, were far from being satisfied; and complained loudly of the government as too liberal. The monks were especially active in exciting the spirit of fanaticism; and at last M. de Zea Bermudez, suspected by all and aided by none, yielded to the intrigues of the adverse courtiers, and in the beginning of August tendered his resignation. Ferdinand refused to accept it, and Zea continued in his post. The discontent became more general, and a project was now entertained of setting up the Infant Carlos as king. There was scarcely a town in Spain, in which great numbers of persons were not thrown into prison. At Seville, nearly two hundred persons were placed in confinement on the 5th, 6th, and 7th of August: and as all the prisons were filled, orders were given to the superiors of convents, to place at the disposal of the civil authorities, all such parts of their respective houses, as they had no immediate necessity to use.

The arrests were exceedingly numerous in all the towns of upper Andalusia, and particularly at Cordova, Carmona, and Eciija. In the capital, many monks were sent to prison.

A Junta of public safety was created, and the Duke de l'Infantado was appointed its president.

In spite of all these precautions, the zeal of the fanatical party did not abate, and they openly avowed their purposes. On the 13th of August, a monk haranguing in the public square a very numerous collection of people, said that all was lost in Spain, as it appeared beyond doubt that the king was a freemason; and that in such a state of things the object of all Spaniards, who were the friends of their country and of religion, should be, to place on the throne the Infant don Carlos, whose good principles and whose Catholicism were well known. "Ah!" said he, "if we could, with the assistance of God, effect so important a change, the state of unhappy Spain would not yet be quite desperate." It was asserted that upwards of 200,000 reals had been expended by conspirators in corrupting the guards.

At length, on the 16th of August, a decisive step was taken by the factious. Upon the morning of that day, at sun-rise, the cry of "to horse" was heard at Getafa, a village about a league distant from Madrid; and a few minutes afterwards, three companies of the regiment of Santiago, who were quartered there, were discovered arrayed upon the public square, their officers at their head, and with accoutrements and baggage ready for their march. They were soon in motion, and took the road towards Alcala, saying, that "they were going to deliver the king, whom his ministers detained a prisoner." The moment that the colonel of the regiment, the different companies of which were quartered in the three several villages of Getafa, Leganez, and Carabachel, became apprised of this movement, he immediately reported the circumstance to the minister at war, by whom it was in turn communicated to the Junta of public safety.

On the preceding evening, Bessieres had left the capital; and had pursued the high road to Alcala, until he arrived at Torrejon Dardo, which is about three leagues from Madrid. There, having had a conversation with the Alcalde, and having received from him a large sum of money, he returned on the 18th by a cross-road to Torrija, where the rebels had stationed themselves, and on the same day assumed the command of them. He was joined by considerable numbers, and published a list of persons who were to be proscribed and put to death. The first name on the list was that of Zea Bermudez.

In the mean time, the count d'Espagne had been despatched with a considerable force in pursuit of the rebels. On the 25th of August he overtook and arrested Bessieres and his accomplices, one league from Molina d'Arragon. On the following day, Bessieres, notwithstanding his former services, was shot with seven of his associates. They all met death with the greatest fortitude. They made no disclosures.

The revolt of Bessieres was not a solitary unconnected event. It was followed, or rather accompanied, by an insurrection in Valencia, headed by general Chambo, and one in La Mancha excited by general Locho. Ortiuela in the province of Burgos, and another chief in the province of Grenada, followed the example of Locho, and proclaimed the Infant don Carlos. But the parties which joined the standard of these leaders, were very insignificant; and they were soon dispersed. At Tortosa, the chief of the conspiracy was a Catalonian, named Wach, the commander of a battalion in garrison in that city. His plan was, by an insurrection of the inhabitants of the country, and part of the population of Tortosa, to depose the governor, to seize the citadel, to fall upon the constitutionalists, and to pillage their houses. But the captain, who commanded the fort, having caused the bridge to be drawn up, instead of favouring the projects of the conspirators, their accomplices in the city did not venture to make any hostile attempt, and the country people, who were already arriving at the gates, thought it prudent to retire. Wach, with two officers, immediately fled; and in the evening two battalions sent by the marquis de Campo Sagrado, in consequence of previous information, entered Tortosa, and secured the tranquillity of the place. In Biscay, in Alava, in Galicia, throughout Arragon, and indeed

indeed in every quarter of Spain, symptoms of revolt displayed themselves; and it was said, that it had been ascertained from the papers of a monk, who had acted as treasurer to the faction, that the chapters of all the metropolitan churches of Spain, and many rich convents of the orders of Carthusians, and of St. Bernard, St. Jerome, St. Augustin and St. Basil, had taxed themselves to raise 14,000,000 of reals for the support of the conspiracy. Though the open progress of revolt was checked, it can scarcely be said, that order was restored. In every province disturbances either occurred or were apprehended; and no man's person or property was safe, either from the fanatical zeal of the people, or from the suspicions of the king. The royalist volunteers of Salamanca voted an address to Ferdinand, soliciting from him the re-establishment of the holy office, as the surest method of securing the public tranquillity. In September, various plots for placing the crown on the head of don Carlos, were formed and detected in Valencia, Grenada, and divers other places. In these plots, as well as in the previous commotions, the name of don Carlos was used, it was believed, without any approbation or concurrence on the part of that prince.

To cure the miseries of Spain, Ferdinand and his advisers could devise no better expedient, than to create a Consultative Junta of government, who were to aid the council of ministers. This new body was formally installed on the 26th of September. Among other arduous duties imposed on them, they were to discover "What were the means calculated for conciliating the colonies, and bringing them back to their former obedience to the mother country? and what means should be adopted to facilitate the negotiation of a loan, and to render its conditions less onerous?" The Junta promised to do their utmost for their suffering country; but in spite of their good intentions, they were unable to do any service; and even the advice which they presumed to give, was not followed. They recommended the publication of an amnesty, and the cessation of political prosecutions, as one means of restoring order; but the council of Castile opposed this recommendation, and the ministry joined the fanatical party. In this spirit, one of the ministers, having adopted or pretended to adopt the notion that Freemasons were the great cause of national anarchy and public misery, demanded a more severe set of enactments against masonic aprons and symbols. A body of persons, calling themselves "defenders of the faith and of the king," had been lately detected at Grenada in possession of secret symbols: for this offence, they were ordered to be tried and executed as Freemasons. Sufficient evidence was sent to Madrid to prove that the place where they met was not a lodge, that the badges which they were were not masonic, and that the objects which they had in view had nothing in common with the subjects generally discussed in the conclaves of the craft; but the order was peremptory, and the "defenders of the faith" suffered as masons. Zea being himself suspected of *liberalism*, could not venture to put down the rebellion of fanatics, without at the same time proving that he was ready to support the faction, whose furious excesses had alarmed the fears, and endangered the throne of his master.

But even these sacrifices to the bigotry and alarms of his master, and to the fanaticism of the courtiers and of the people, were insufficient to secure his power. In October, Zea and the whole cabinet, of which he was the head, suddenly received their dismissal; and the ecclesiastical and fanatical faction came into full possession of power. The Duke de l'Infantado, who was high in credit with that party, and was supposed to be on bad terms with the French cabinet, now became the chief of a new ministry. Notwithstanding the bigotry of his character, the general opinion was, that his administration would be more steady than that of his predecessor: for, though he might be willing, in general, to be the prompt instrument of the priesthood, and might thus longer oppose salutary reforms; yet as the church could place reliance on his zeal, they would more readily

listen to his counsels, and he would possess more power to execute moderate measures, if so inclined, than a man like Zea, and if any portion of the property of the church was to be mortgaged for the relief of the nation, the proposition was more likely to be heard with favour from him than from any other person.

During the year 1826, little change took place in the measures of the king of Spain, or in the feelings of the nation. Several bands of Guerillas appeared in the remote provinces, and the miserable people of Madrid, threatened with famine, created a tumult, which the French troops and Ferdinand's promises quelled. But the general mass still seemed favourable to the royal and sacerdotal party; and executions, too numerous to detail, took place on those who were accused, unjustly or not, of liberal opinions. In the early part of the year, the Dey of Algiers declared war against Spain, and added some blows to those already inflicted by the South American cruisers, on the commerce of this unfortunate country. Bands of smugglers, often too powerful for the militia, swarmed on the coasts. The professions of robbery and priesthood seemed alone to flourish amidst a general decay of agriculture, manufacture, and commerce. These evils were still further aggravated by the withdrawing a part of the French troops.

A French merchant, writing from Paris, in September, draws the following picture of the country:—

"The wretchedness of this people exceeds all limits—it is frightful. Two-thirds of the population at Tolosa, Vittoria, Burgos, Aranda, and Buytrago, are literally without trowsers, shirts, stockings, shoes, and hats. A dirty cloak, consisting of a thousand filthy rags, coarsely patched together, covers their squalid skeletons of bodies; rendered more gaunt-looking by a long beard, a haggard countenance, and a ferocious eye. At Irene, the soldiers, priests, public officers, all asked alms. At Briviesca, a comical figure, holding in one hand a plate, and a little holy sacrament in copper in the other, asked charity for God. At Burgos, I saw a horrible sight;—the distribution of the dinner fragments of a convent, situated on the road leading out of the city; two hundred ragged wretches, rushing promiscuously into the middle of the convent court-yard, and commenced fighting with each other for bones, bread, and chick peas. The women were drawn back by the old men, and they again by the young men. The horrible cries, mixed with acclamations, "For God's sake!" and the "Holy Father!" rendered this scene a spectacle, of which the distributions of sausages during the fêtes at Paris, can give but a slight idea. On the other hand, to compensate for this, I saw, in the cathedral at Burgos, six candlesticks of massive silver, five feet high, which must be worth a hundred thousand crowns; six lamps, of the same metal, all new like the candlesticks, were burning night and day, while the poor have not a rushlight in their hovels. At Aranda, Buytrago, and Somo Sierra, was the same frightful misery;—the shops are enough to make one shudder,—filthy, empty, deserted—nothing in them but trash, and that at the highest prices. At Madrid, no person is admitted into the city, unless he is the bearer of a passport, or a letter of security; and it is even necessary to furnish one's self with the protection of a passport, if you intend to go any distance more than six leagues. If a person wishes to leave the city, he must present himself to the Commissary, who marks it in his book, called *El Papaete*, the gate at which you are authorized to pass out. There is not a peasant, a workman, a traveller, on foot, on horseback, or on a carriage, but must submit his papers to a police office outside the gate. I have seen farmers and gardeners of the liberties, obliged to go home because they had forgot their *carta de segusidad*, or passport. Foreign travellers, provided with passports from their government, have been forced to wait five hours between two police-men at the city gate, until it should please the Intendant to write at the bottom of their passports, "permit him to enter;" merely because, going to Spain had been written instead of going to Madrid. At length, having arrived, every one of them is obliged to make his purpose known

known to the Police Commissary of the district, in which he lives. At each station on the road, stupid and staring police officers demand the passports, and inspect them to such a degree of minuteness, that the entire back of the paper is covered over with their signatures; and it becomes necessary to join it to three or four more leaves, which are soon written over in the same manner.

"They tell you, the government suspects every man moving from one place to another, to be a public enemy.

"Popery proceeds in Spain with a firm step to recover all her ancient terrible authority. At Valencia, where a school-master was lately hanged for heresy, a Jew has been since burnt for Judaism. A letter from Madrid says, "the human sacrifices which Rome abolished in her treaty with Carthage, have been revived at Valencia."

The secret prisons of the Apostoliques are filled with heretics, consisting of witches and magicians, accused of being connected with the devil. In short, the priesthood have the satisfaction to light up again the funeral pile. To the present time, they were contented with forcing the Jews to frequent their churches, and to assist in their Catholic ceremonies, which was in itself an absurdity, they being strangers to that religion; and now in this enlightened age, they have condemned one of them to be burnt to death. "For a long time past," says the before-mentioned writer, "they had been informed at Madrid, that an auto-da-fé would soon take place: the brotherhood of St. Hennadad took the road to Valencia, followed by numbers of associates to sacrifice an unfortunate Hebrew. All the thieves and assassins surrounded the pile, carrying the banners of the Inquisition and St. Dominique, preceded by monks, singing the psalms of David. Between them was placed their unfortunate victim, who was clad in a round frock, upon which was painted various devils, having on his head a pasteboard cap, decorated with flames of fire. He was escorted by two Dominican friars, who complimented him on his being about to be burned for the salvation of his soul, and, previous to his ascending the faggots, they embraced him. The wretched man having been gagged and tied down, the torch was applied, and the torturers surrounded the pile, singing hymns to drown his cries!"

But not this distress of his people, nor the successes of the Dey of Algiers, nor the loss of South America, nor the penurious state of his treasury, could restrain Ferdinand from engaging in further broils to uphold the despotism of the sceptre and of the mitre. The constitution established in Portugal (see PORTUGAL), was naturally viewed with a jealous eye from the first moment of its establishment; but when its quiet and salutary operation began to be felt in the country and observed abroad, Ferdinand determined to overturn, by any stratagems, a government which held up so seductive an example to his subjects. Some Portuguese nobles revolted, and organized several bands of peasants, and attacked the newly constituted authority. Beaten, however, and repulsed, they retired into Spain, where they received reinforcements of men, and supplies of arms and provisions. They advanced again, and though again repulsed, they returned after each defeat stronger than before. This went on so long, that the Portuguese government found itself obliged to solicit the assistance of its old ally, England, against the aggressions of Spain. The Court of St. James's waited but till the aggressions of Spain were clearly proved, and then sent 10,000 chosen troops to Lisbon. In the mean time, the English ambassador at Madrid, was instructed to demand, firmly but peremptorily, of Ferdinand, that he should no longer harbour the Portuguese troops. This he agreed to; denying, however, that they had ever received any countenance by his desire: and he promised to take steps to prevent his subjects from affording the rebels any assistance. These promises continually repeated, are as often broken. The English troops remain in Portugal, and the rebel force is by no means destroyed, though often defeated. On the other hand, the constitutionalists of Spain are again raising their heads in the provinces.

STATISTICS.—Spain may be considered as composed of a

series of mountain terraces, which, projecting successively their rugged edges towards the south, present a flight of gigantic steps from the Pyrenees to the Mediterranean.

The chains of mountains which terminate and divide the great plains of the peninsula, are branches of the immense ridge that, from the most elevated part of Tartary, runs across Asia and Europe, penetrates into the south of France, by Switzerland, and, entering Spain in the direction of the valleys of Roncal and Bastan, separates Navarre from Guipuscoa; Biscay from Alava; the highlands of Burgos from the plains of Old Castile; and Asturias from the kingdom of Leon; it then crosses Galicia, and dips into the ocean at the Capes Ortegal and Finisterre.

The Pyrenees are lateral ramifications of this great trunk, which run east and west, on the eastern side of Spain, and take a south-west and north-west direction on the confines of Arragon and Navarre. The accumulated mass of these mountains presents, towards the peninsula, the convex side of a spherical segment, which, like a shield with its boss to the south, rounds its edges near the Atlantic and the Mediterranean, and rears the highest part of its curve on the Spanish territory, between the springs of the rivers Cinca and Ara. This eminence, called Mont Perdu by the French, is known, in Arragon, by the appellation of Tres Sorores, alluding to its three peaks, distinctly seen from Zaragoza, of which the highest, according to the French naturalist, Ramond, who examined it in 1802, rises 4114 Spanish yards above the level of the sea.

In the minor branches which strike off from the Pyrenees in a south direction, without forming a part of the great secondary chains, there are some mountains too remarkable to be left unnoticed. Such are the Monsein, on the coast of Catalonia, near the town of Arens, and the well-known Monserrat, which rises, on the same coast, to the height of 1479 yards above the sea:—such the Sierras of Ribagoza, Barbastro, Huesca, and Jaca, which take their names from the principal cities in their neighbourhood:—such, finally, those numerous spurs of the great ridge which run into Navarre, whose various appellations would only tend to confuse the reader. The most remarkable object, among these hills, is the Higa de Monreál, probably so called from the fancied resemblance of its highest rock to a fig.

Of the main ridges which run across the peninsula, that which rises to the west of the source of the Ebro was called *Idubeda* by the Romans, and formed the limits of the ancient *Celtiberia*. In its course towards the Mediterranean, the natives, according to a general custom, distinguish the various portions, or great links of the chain, by the appellation of *Sierras*, adding the name of some town or notable height in their vicinity. Such are the Sierra de Oca, of Urbión (the *Distertia* of the middle ages), of Moncayo (*Mons Caunus*), of Molina, Albarracin, and Cuenca.

It is this chain, which Antillon calls the *Iberian*, that, by its direction from its origin to the heights of Moncayo, drives the Ebro to the east, and feeds the Duero towards the west. The Duero proceeds, however, to the south till it comes to Almazán, where the great ridge, forming an elbow to the south-south-west, forces the stream into its westerly bed. Farther south, near the sources of the small rivers Xalón and Tajuna, the Iberian ridge, bearing the name of Sierra Ministra, divides the waters between the Tagus and the Ebro.

The first point where this great ridge splits into the minor chains which lose themselves in the Mediterranean, is to the north of Albarracin, in Arragon. Of these branches the most remarkable is that which, entering the province of Valencia, is again subdivided into the smaller ridges which terminate at Peniscola and Cape Oropesa. The waters that descend from these heights, to the north, mix finally with the Ebro, while the Turia and the Mijares are swelled by those which flow from the southern declivities. On the branch stretching towards Peniscola, and in the limits of Arragon, rises the Muela de Ares, a conical mountain, deprived of its apex; whose top is an extensive plain covered with luxuriant pasture,

and surrounded by fearful precipices, at the elevation of 1562 Spanish yards above the sea. This is one of the highest spots in the peninsula; the Tagus, the Xucar, and the Cabriel, take their rise among these mountains, and divide the waters which flow from their sides, between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. Numerous flocks of sheep, both itinerant and stationary, find, in the valleys formed by this chain, the most abundant summer pastures.

From Albarracin, this chain strikes into the territory of Cuença in a direction nearly north and south. It then sends off a branch to the east-south-east, on which the Collado de la Plata, or Silver Hill, rises 1598 yards above the sea. It contains a quicksilver mine, which was worked a few years ago, at the distance of four leagues west of Teruel. From the neighbourhood of this town the Sierra de Espadano runs, like an unbroken bulwark, to the sea near Murviedro, in a direction between south-east and north-west. The ruggedness of the hills, the terrific depth of the precipices, and the intricacy of the mountain passes, overhung with perpendicular rocks of black marble, are described in glowing colours by the great Spanish botanist, Cavanilles, whose account of a scientific tour in these highlands of his native province, Valencia, is quoted by Antillon. The Pico, which is considered the most elevated point in these mountains, rises 1303 yards above the sea. Its latitude has been determined by accurate observations to be $39^{\circ} 31' 38''$. Its longitude $3^{\circ} 0' 36''$ east of the meridian of Madrid.

Near the source of the Tagus, the Iberian ridge sends off another branch which, stretching in almost a southern direction, separates La Mancha from the province of Murcia, to the west of the town of Albacete, and rises into the lofty mountains of Alcaez and Segura (the ancient *Orospeida*), dividing the waters between the Guadalquivir and the Segurra, the two main streams which severally and finally convey them to the ocean and the Mediterranean. One of the two great limbs which terminate the Iberian ridge runs into the sea at the Cape Cervera; the other, bending to the south, skirts the kingdom of Granada, and disappears at the Cape Gata. To the latter belongs the mountain called Cabezo de Maria, between Carthagena and Cape Gata, one league west of the town of Vera on the coast of Valencia. It rises 2287 yards above the sea, and has its summit covered with snow during one-half of the year.

Smaller branches of this chain project between the Turia and the Cabriel, which loses itself in the Xucar at Cofrentes. A ridge runs between the last-mentioned river and Alcoy, another stream, which flows into the sea near Gandia. A minor chain separates the Alcoy and the mouth of the Segura. The province of Valencia is, in fact, divided by mountains into most fertile stripes, watered by numerous streams, and enjoying every blessing which nature grants to the most favoured climates. The mountains on the right of the Xucar, from Cofrentes to the sea, bear the two appellations of Cortes de Pallas and Millares, each applying to a different portion of the ridge. To the left of the same river, the mountains are known by the names of Torres and Dos Aguas, which they change for that of Monte Caballon when they penetrate into Valencia from the province of Cuença. The rock on which the castle of Monserrate stands, near the sea-shore, five leagues west of the lake Albufera, may be considered as belonging to this ridge. The castle is 313 yards above the sea. From the mountains of Millares to the right of the Xucar, another ramification projects between the provinces of Murcia and Valencia. Before reaching Villena it bends towards the sea, on the left of the Alcoy, where it is known by the name of Sierra de Mariola. The number, purity, and copiousness of the streams, which are fed by these hills, render them the main source of wealth and comfort to the neighbouring country. The highest summit of this ridge is called Moncabrer. Another arm stretches from Villena, in which we find the Sierra de Viar, the rock of Xixona, the mountain of Aytana, and the pyramidal mountain of Mongo, near the Capes San Antonio and Martin. The longer duration of snow on its top makes Cavanilles believe that it surpasses Moncabrer in height, especially as

the latter is at a greater distance from the sea. The southernmost part of the chain, which strikes off at Villena, sends out its waters to swell the stream of the Segura.

A great ridge divides the waters between the Duero and the Tagus. It grows out of the Iberian chain, not far from the sources of the Xalon and the Tajuna, to the south of the city of Soria, and the site of the ancient Numantia.

We have next to notice the ridge which divides the waters between the Tagus and the Guadiana. The rise of this branch out of the Iberian chain would hardly be perceptible, but for the separation of the waters, which begins in the vicinity of Huete, south of Cuença. The gradual elevation of the ground from Tarancon to Tembleque, in the province of Toledo, raises the latter town 740 yards above the sea. Bolder hills appear at Madrilejos; and the town of Consuegra has an elevation of 769 yards. Proceeding a short distance to the south-west, the Sierra de Yevenes clearly shows the direction of the ridge, which is soon after known by the name of Guadalupe (Montes Carpetani); it then runs between Truxillo and Merida, under the name of Sierra de Marchal, penetrates into Portugal by Castel de Vide and Portoalegre, is seen to the west of Elvas and Estremoz, and descends to Cape Espichel, having Beja and Setubal to the south, E'vora and the mouth of the Tagus to the north.

The third great branch of the Iberian ridge is the Sierra Morena (*Montes Mariani*), which divides the waters between the Guadiana and the Guadalquivir. It begins in the vicinity of Alcaez, near the eastern limits of the provinces of La Mancha, issuing from that spur of the Iberian chain which terminates in Cape Palos, and, stretching in a direction north-east and south-west, with La Mancha, Spanish Estremadura, to the north, and Jaen, Cordoba, Seville and Algarve (Portugal), to the south, ends in the ocean at Cape St. Vincent.

Rivers.—In describing the principal chains of the Spanish mountains, we have already mentioned the five great streams which water the intermediate plains, the Mino, the Ebro, the Duero, the Tagus, the Guadiana, and the Guadalquivir.

The Mino, or Minho (*Minius* or *Banis*), rises in Galicia, in the district of Lugo, from a beautiful spring called Fuente Mina. This river is navigable only to Salvatierra, two leagues above Tuy.

The Ebro rises near Reynosa, out of so copious a spring, that it works a corn-mill a few steps from its source. After a course of 110 leagues, it flows into the Mediterranean at Alfaques. From the boundaries of Navarre to the sea, the Ebro makes a progress of $1^{\circ} 12' 42''$ towards the south. The chief towns on this stream are Logrono and Calahorra, in the province of Rioja; Tudela, in Navarre; Zaragoza, in Arragon; and Tortosa, in Catalonia. It is a misfortune for Spain that this great river presents strong obstacles to navigation, both in its course and where it joins the sea.

The Duero, or Douro, has its source to the north of the city of Osma, in a deep lake, at the summit of that portion of the neighbouring chain of mountains which has been mentioned by the name of Sierras de Urbion. Its course is at first towards the south, passing by Garay and Soria, where it turns to the west, continuing in that direction till it reaches Miranda. From this town to Moncorvo the river falls again into a south direction. It lastly takes a decided course to the ocean, where it ends near Oporto, having traversed a distance of 150 leagues. The Duero advances $10'$ to the south from Aranda to Tordesillas; from hence to Miranda it inclines $40'$ to the north. Its mouth lies $33' 45''$ south of Miranda. This river is navigable up to the tower of Moncorvo, a space of thirty leagues.

An inconsiderable spring, denominated Pie Izquierdo, is the source of the majestic Tagus. In its course through the province of Cuença it is considerably augmented by the contributions of several streams. Before its waters reach Aranjuez, they surmount the rocky edge of its native mountain, and, dashing upon the plain beneath, sink into a pool of great depth, called Olla de Borlaque. The Tagus, now running placidly through the plains of Zorita and the royal gardens of Aranjuez, at the elevation of 621 yards above the

sea, directs its course to Toledo, passes by Talavera, Alcantara, Abrantes, and Santarem, losing itself finally in the sea, near Lisbon.

The sources of the Guadiana are found north of Alcaraz, in La Mancha, at the pools of Ruidera, well known to the admirers of *Don Quixote*. The course of the river is first to the north-west, for eight leagues. It is then absorbed by the soil, and disappears for seven leagues. The first gathering of its waters, after their subterraneous dispersion, takes place near Daymiel. The spot is called Ojos (Eyes) de Guadiana. The stream now proceeds to Ciudad Real, the head town of the province of La Mancha, to Merida, Badajoz, Mertola, in Portugal, and, re-entering the Spanish territory, terminates in the ocean at Ayamonte. In its course to this point, the Guadiana passes over a space of more than one hundred leagues.

The stream of Guadiana, near Villarta, is only at the height of 710 yards above the sea. It is not navigable higher than Mertola, in Portugal.

The Guadalquivir occupies the centre of the plain which lies between the Sierra Morena and the chain of Granada, where it takes its source to the north-east of Jaen. The chief towns on its banks are Andujar, Cordoba, Seville, and San Lucar (*Templum Luciferi*). At the ferry near Mengibar, on the road from Madrid to Granada, the Guadalquivir is 203 yards above the sea. The Guadalquivir is navigable for large vessels up to Seville; but its bed being constantly raised and obstructed by growing shallows, the navigation is extremely tedious.

On the subject of *population*, the data are greatly deficient in accuracy. We subjoin, however, the Table published by Antillon from documents in the possession of the Commissioners for the Encouragement of Trade in 1803.

PROVINCES.	Total of Inhabitants.	Surface in square leagues, 20 to a degree.	Inhabitants to square league.
Province of Madrid	228,520	110	2,078
Guadalaxara	121,115	163	743
Cuenca	294,290	945	311
Toledo	370,641	734	505
Mancha	205,548	631	326
Avila	128,061	215	549
Segovia	164,007	290	566
Soria	198,107	341	581
Burgos	470,588	642	734
Extremadura	428,493	1,199	357
Kingdom of Cordoba	252,028	348	724
Jaen	206,807	268	772
Seville	746,221	752	992
Granada	692,924	805	861
Colonies of Sierra Morena	6,196	108	57
Kingdom of Murcia	383,226	659	582
Arragon	657,376	1,232 $\frac{1}{2}$	534
Valencia	825,059	643	1,283
Principality of Catalonia	858,818	1,003	856
Island of Majorca	140,699	112	1,256
Minorca	30,990	20	1,550
Ibiza and Formentera	15,290	15	1,019
Kingdom of Navarre	221,728	205	1,082
Province of Biscay	111,436	106	1,051
Guipuzcoa	104,491	52	2,009
Alava	67,523	90 $\frac{1}{2}$	746
Principality of Asturias	364,238	308 $\frac{1}{2}$	1,180
Province of Leon	239,812	493	486
Palencia	118,064	145	814
Salamanca	209,988	471	440
Valladolid	187,390	271	692
Zamora	71,401	133	537
Toro	91,370	165	590
Kingdom of Galicia	1,142,630	1,330	859
	10,351,075	15,005 $\frac{1}{2}$	690

The water carriage in Spain is reduced to the inconsiderable portions which have been constructed of the intended canals of Arragon and Castille, to the slow and laborious navigation of the Ebro from Zaragoza to Tortosa, performed almost exclusively, for the conveyance of wheat, and to the floating of timber down that river, the Tagus, the Xucar, the Segura, and the Guadalquivir. This last river, on which a steam-boat, built and worked under the direction of a British engineer, affords of late, an easy and speedy communication between Seville and San Lucar, is the only one from which Spain derives any considerable advantage in point of trade.

It may be reckoned among the unfortunate combination of circumstances which have hitherto checked the internal prosperity of Spain, that the navigable part of its finest rivers belongs to another kingdom. The Tagus and the Douro may be said to exist for the exclusive advantage of Portugal.

During the short and ill-fated union of the two peninsular crowns, the engineer Antonelli undertook to open the navigation of the Tagus as far as Toledo, and completed that useful work in 1558. After the separation of Portugal from Spain, several plans have been presented to the Spanish government for removing the obstacles which obstruct the bed of that river from Alcantara to Toledo, and even from the latter town to Aranjuez, which, by means of canals, was to be joined with Alcala. Surveys were made by order of the government, from which, as Antillon observes, no benefit accrued to the country except an accession of topographical knowledge, and the fruitless conviction that the communication of La Mancha with the ocean was opposed, chiefly by moral and political obstacles.

The Ebro, under the Roman dominion, is said to have been navigable up to Logrono, a distance of 65 leagues inland. In the 12th century, the emperor Don Alonzo ordered gallies to be sunk near Zaragoza, as a defence against the Moorish navy. Zurita relates, that, in the fifteenth century, King Don Juan sailed down the Ebro from Navarre into Arragon. We find, however, the Cortes of the latter kingdom, under Charles II. of Spain, towards the end of the seventeenth century, deliberating upon plans for expediting the navigation of the Ebro near the sea. A survey was made for the same purpose in 1738, but with no practical result. The grand canal of Arragon was at length begun under Charles III., the grandfather of the present king; and were it completed, it would stand a splendid monument of the spirit of the nation. It is, however, much against the practical utility of the public works undertaken in Spain, that by a natural disposition of the people, they are all begun upon a scale which would require the wealth and power of imperial Rome for their completion. The little that exists of the canal of Arragon might, if we believe Antillon, compete with the works of that period; but, instead of reaching the sea through the Ebro, and terminating in an artificial harbour, as was intended, it has been carried on for the space of eighteen leagues only, and contributes but little to the internal navigation of the country. Whether it is more favourable to agriculture, by the copious irrigation which it affords in its course, is, we find, a point in dispute among the Spaniards. Jovellanos, in his excellent *Informe sobre la Ley Agraria*, mentions the farmers' complaints against the canals for irrigation. It is hard, indeed, upon all land owners within a certain distance to be forced to pay a tax for irrigation, whether they have or not the means, the skill, or the inclination, to avail themselves of the proffered benefit. The farms, for instance, near the canal of Arragon, from Zaragoza to Sastago, pay one-fifth of their corn, and one-seventh of all other produce, for irrigation. Lands newly brought into tillage, pay only one-sixth of the corn, and one-eighth of the other produce.

Such complaints, it seems, were louder in the vicinity of the canal of Castille, where the Spanish practice of allowing the fields to lie fallow every other year was still adhered to, notwithstanding the abundance of water. This canal begins at Alar del Rey, in the province of Burgos. It is fed by the

Pisuerga,

Pisuerga, whose right bank it follows till it joins that stream on the limits of the kingdom of Leon. It then runs to the south and south-west, crossing the river Cierza, and proceeds on its right bank till, passing through the Carrion, it turns to the west of Palencia, and terminates in the same river. The small canal of Campos, running more to the west, joins that of Castille to the north of Palencia.

According to one of these gigantic plans with which the Spanish government have often amused their vanity, providing, as it were, in the magnitude of the enterprise, a ready excuse for their inactivity, the canal of Castille was to reach the sea at Santander, through the river Camesa, through the Ebro, near Reynosa, and finally through the Besaya and the Pas. From its present termination near Palencia, it was, on the other side, to reach Valladolid, to strike off from the Duero, in order to join the Adaja, and then to follow the Eresma as far as Segovia. From thence it was to be directed to the canal of Arragon, and thus to unite the ocean with the Mediterranean, across the kingdom. Don Ramon de Pignatelli, the engineer who superintended the works of the canal of Arragon, laid the plans of this immense work before Charles III. whose sanction they received. We must, however, remind the reader, that the only traces which exist of this mighty dream, attract but faintly the notice of the traveller near Burgos, and in the vicinity of Madrid, where the head of one of the intended branches extends for four or five miles almost undisturbed by barge or boat.

"Such," says B. White, "are the effects of a despotic government, even in its kindest moods, and when it, fairly and honestly, means to promote the good of its subjects. Unwilling to consult, and unable to ascertain the real opinion of those immediately concerned in the result of its measures, it moves with ponderous haste towards the object which dazzles its eyes, often crushing in its way those it meant to relieve. Complaints are heard at length; which, joined to the exhaustion attending all unnatural exertions, never fail to put the despot in a passion with his subjects, and make him repent that he ever was so good and gracious as to try to improve their condition."

Other great obstacles oppose the agricultural wealth of Spain. The want of rural population, and the great distance of the farmers' dwellings from their farms. Independently of the loss of time and strength arising from a walk of four or six miles before the day's work is begun, there are long periods in the year when the fields are scarcely visited by the owners, generally gentlemen farmers, and but seldom by the rustic, who acts as steward. Field work, in fact, is not continued throughout the year, but hastily and slovenly performed, at the sowing and the reaping seasons, by large parties of labourers, for whose accommodation, in farms at considerable distance from any town, there is a building not unlike a large barn, which affords a promiscuous shelter to man and beast. Bands of ploughmen, with thirty or forty team of oxen, are seen at the beginning of winter, slightly turning up the sods in the fields which have lain fallow the preceding year. The sowers walk slowly behind them, scattering the seed by handfuls, of which, part is picked up by the large flocks of birds which hover over those extensive solitudes, and part prevented from taking root by being improperly lodged in the earth.

It was once proposed to the Spanish government to distribute the uncultivated land, amounting to a large proportion of the whole country, among such of the natives as were disposed to bring their lots into tillage. This measure, it was hoped by Jovellanos, would tend to a wider and more equal distribution of the Spanish population, now crowded in towns at great distances from each other. But it is hardly less difficult to alter the original and confirmed constitution of the body politic than of the animal frame.

Nor is it in the power of man suddenly to convert the idle and degraded inhabitants of large cities into sober and industrious farmers. Whenever, says the excellent author before quoted, the Spanish government shall have opened an easy communication between the central provinces and the coast, and joined every important town in the peninsula by

cross roads—when the means of internal traffic shall have opened a market for the produce of the soil—when the laws which fetter the industry of the Spaniards shall have been repealed long enough to allow them to perceive their real interests, and to exert themselves with the steadiness and confidence of habitual freedom, then, and not before, will the productive power of their land be called into action.

The rights of property in land, wherever the feudal system has existed in full vigour, are so exclusive and peremptory, that it must surprise an Englishman to learn, that there are but very few spots in Spain which the landlord can call his own, from the moment he has housed the harvest. The right of driving cattle into the stubble-fields is claimed and maintained with great obstinacy.

From the mountains of Leon to the farthest limits of Estremadura, the members of the *Mesta*, an association composed of the wealthiest Grandees, gentlemen, and religious bodies, have a right to graze their sheep on a broad belt of land called Canada, gradually and slowly changing their stations, as the mild winters of the south clothe the earth with grass, or the heat of summer thaws the snows of the Leonese mountains. The privileges of this body are defended and enforced by a court of judges created for that purpose, and in the appointment and pay of the *Mesta*, who, with a numerous host of dependants, are the terror of the agriculturist wherever their jurisdiction extends. Lands upon this pastoral road are scarcely the property of any but these formidable shepherds, who fix the price of pasture, obtain it by compulsion wherever it is found, and look upon farmers and their labours as the natural rivals and impediments to their gains.

Of the domestic animals of Spain, the cattle are less numerous than the wants of the country require, or the extent of pasture in the higher grounds would afford the means of rearing. Mules are in general use for travelling; and as to horses, the famed breed of Andalusia is considered as degenerating.

Manufactures and Trade.—In a country abounding with the finest wool, and not deficient in provisions, flourishing manufactures of that article might be expected; but such are the pernicious effects of multiplied holidays and an unenlightened government, that Spain is obliged to import part of her broad cloth, her flannel, and her serges, from England and France. In like manner, notwithstanding the productive iron mines of Biscay, she imports great part of her hardware; so that if we except Catalonia, where both silk and cottons are made in large quantities, the only manufactures conducted with spirit in Spain are the twisting of silk, the tanning of leather, and the working of Sparto or Esparto grass (Spanish broom) into mats, baskets, shoes, and other articles. Bad roads, monopolies on the part of government, the enforcement of restrictive laws that ought long since to have been abrogated, are among the principal causes of the backward state of the productive industry of Spain.

In the middle ages the trade of Spain with foreign countries was confined to a few towns of importance, as Venice, Genoa, Ghent, and Bruges. The discovery of America opened a prospect which would have been eagerly embraced by an active people: in the hands the Spaniards, this trade was miserably cramped by the spirit of monopoly. Confined at first to Seville, transferred after 1720 to Cadiz, and relieved from part of its absurd restrictions in 1739 and 1764, it was at last thrown open, after 1778, to a number of the chief seaports of the kingdom. This measure was productive of the best effects, and the mercantile shipping of Spain received a very considerable increase; but the trade in question never acquired an importance to be compared to that of England with the United States.

The Spaniards have long been described as actuated in their transactions, both political and commercial by a high sense of honour; an encomium which probably resolves itself into little more than the characteristic simplicity of a people of few wants; and, in the larger towns, into the habit of straight forward dealing, common to the merchants of Cadiz, as to those of Amsterdam, London, or other cities where commerce

is conducted on ascertained rules, and to the exclusion of petty artifice.

The universities of Spain, formerly 24 in number, have been progressively reduced to 11, and of these, few are either well conducted or much frequented. The antiquated system of logic, and other parts of scholastic philosophy, continued to be taught until the middle of the 18th century, when the government, roused by ridicule at home, and the example of improvement abroad, at last prescribed alterations, which, however, still leave the Spanish universities greatly behind those of France, Germany, or Great Britain. In most of the monasteries are schools instituted for the education of the monks, but open to youth generally. The instruction given there is replete with superstitions and antiquated notions.

Madrid has a public library of fully 100,000 volumes; and there are collections on a smaller scale in other cities.

The Spanish language is founded on the Latin, with a mixture of Celtic, and, in the southern provinces, of Arabic. It is sonorous and harmonious; is pronounced almost literally as it is written, and is a fine language, when exhibited without that tendency to amplification, or rather to bombast, so common among Spanish writers. Of the fine arts, the Spaniards have been most successful in painting and architecture.

In Spain, as in Germany, there prevails a great deal of aristocratic pride, and a scrupulous distinction of classes. The nobility bear, as in Britain, the titles of duke, marquis, or count, and are styled collectively, *Titulador*. The gentry are called *Hidalgos*, a term applied to all who are of genteel birth, or whose designations, such as doctor in law, or doctor in medicine, distinguish them from the mass of agriculturists, merchants, and manufacturers. But these points of etiquette differ materially in different provinces. In Estremadura they are little attended to, while in Biscay and the Asturias, almost all the inhabitants lay claim to rank. Ceremonial is also an object of great attention with the Spaniards: the right of standing covered in the presence of the king, enjoyed formerly by all who were above the common class, was confined, after the accession of Charles V. to the imperial crown, to the *Titulados*. A more substantial privilege, that of entailing their estates, is possessed by all persons of good family. It was abolished by the revolution (1821), but is now restored, being one of the chief causes of the backward state of the country.

National Character, in respect to Spain, exhibits great variety, having been peopled from very different quarters, and the difficult communication between different districts has prevented that approach to uniformity, that blending of provincial peculiarities, which active intercourse introduces into a society like that of Holland or England. The different provinces of Spain have as little connection, and almost as little similarity of character, as those of the Austrian empire, as Bohemia, Hungary, and Carinthia. The characteristics most general among the Spaniards, are a degree of stateliness or gravity, and the more important quality of sobriety. Their backwardness in military affairs arises from want, not of courage, but of activity and a tardiness in adopting improvement. Indolence is the vice of the inland and southern provinces; it may in fact be termed the vice of the nation, though striking exceptions are afforded by the inhabitants of the provinces of Biscay, Galicia, Valencia, and above all, of Catalonia. Towards strangers the Spaniards are in general reserved; in society they are much otherwise. Their dress, formerly national and peculiar, is now similar to the fashions of France and England: the men, however, still occasionally wear the cloak and slouched hat; the women dress frequently in black with white veils. The mode of entertaining is not by dinners, but by evening parties, where the refreshments presented to guests are very slight. The higher ranks keep a number of domestics, who having little to do, are almost entirely lost to productive labour. In their dwellings the great object of the Spaniard is to exclude the heat; and as few precautions are taken against cold, winter, though comparatively short, by no means passes with impunity. Religious processions

in the true Catholic style, are still common in Spain, and are the object of devout attention from a great part of the people. The well known national amusement of bull fighting was discouraged by government in the end of the 18th century, but has since been revived: the national dances the Bolero and Fandango, are still performed as in former ages.

SPAITLEA, a town of Tunis, the ancient *Suffetula*, distinguished in an almost unequalled degree by its magnificent remains of ancient architecture. There are three temples, two of the Corinthian, and one of the Composite order. The roofs, porticos, and façades, are indeed broken down; but the rest of the fabrics, with the columns, pediments, and entablatures, remain perfect and entire. There is a Composite capital, which appeared to Mr. Bruce to be the most perfect of its kind now in existence. There is also a sumptuous triumphal arch of the Corinthian order, with a smaller one on each side of it. From this, all along to the city, there is a pavement of black stone, with a parapet wall raised breast high on each side, which was destined perhaps to hinder the populace from incommoding the emperor in his triumphant entrance into the city. Near the end of this pavement is a beautiful portico, built in the same style with the triumphal arch. The town is agreeably situated on a rising ground, and surrounded by large plantations of juniper; 110 miles south-west of Tunis. Lat. 35. 10. N. long. 9. 10. E.

SPAKE. The old preterite of *speak*.—So *spake* the archangel Michael, then paused. *Milton*.

SPALATRO, a sea-port of Austrian Dalmatia, on the gulf of Venice, and the see of an archbishop, who is metropolitan of this province and Croatia. It stands on a peninsula, in the form of a semicircle, connected with the mainland by a narrow isthmus, and has a harbour spacious and deep, though not protected from all winds. The town is fortified both on the sea and land side, but being commanded by several eminences, is not capable of sustaining a regular siege, and its security depends in a great measure on the strong pass of Clissa among the mountains. The population, about 7500 in number, carry on manufactures of woollens, silk, and leather. The fishery on the Adriatic is considerable, as well as the shipping business. The Turkish caravans from Bosnia and Servia to Venice, usually deposit their goods in the Lazaretto in this place. Spalatro contains several Roman edifices. Dioclesian, on abdicating the imperial crown, retired to Illyria, built a palace in the neighbourhood of Salona; and two-thirds of the present city of Spalatro stand within the walls which surrounded this retreat. They form a regular quadrangle, with a gate on each side. The whole of this part of the city is full of ancient arches and ruins. A temple belonging to the palace, is still in preservation. It is richly ornamented with colonades, figures in relief, and other antique decorations; though considerable changes have been made in the internal arrangements, in order to fit it for its present purpose, a cathedral; 110 miles north-west of Ragusa, and 30 south-east of Sebenico.

SPALDFORD, a hamlet of England, in Nottinghamshire; 7 miles east-by-south of Tuxford.

SPALDING, an ancient and considerable market town of England, in the county of Lincoln. It is situated on the river Welland, in the midst of the great fenny district which extends over this part of the county. The river runs through the town; and having numerous drains in its vicinity, it has much the appearance, and has with propriety been compared to a Dutch town. The houses are neat, and the streets very clean. The church is a large and ancient building, with a handsome spire, having crockets at the angles. Since the Welland has been made navigable to the town, Spalding has acquired a considerable traffic in coals and corn. Sloops from 40 to 60 tons burden come up to the centre of the town; and by these a regular coasting trade is carried on to London, Hull, Lynn, &c. There are two quays for landing goods, and spacious store-houses for their reception. Vessels of greater burden come only to Boston scalp, nine miles distant. Spalding has no manufactures, though attempts

have been made to introduce them. The town derives its chief support from agriculture and the extensive grazing carried on in the neighbourhood. Wool forms on this account a principal article of its trade, and some of the manufacturing towns of Yorkshire are supplied from hence. A literary or antiquarian society, of which Sir Isaac Newton was a member, was established here by Mr. Maurice Johnson, an eminent native of the town; but since his death it has dwindled into insignificance, and is now merely a social club. For many centuries Spalding has been the principal seat of Jurisdiction for the division of Holland. In the Saxon times the courts of law were held here by the earls; and subsequent to the Norman conquest, the priors were invested with the judicial authority. Since the dissolution of religious houses, a court of sessions has been held here. Spalding is a place of great antiquity. Its priory, which, in succeeding times, became a monastery of great consequence, was founded and endowed in 1051, by Thorold de Bukenhale. Market on Tuesday, for cattle and corn. There are five fairs in the year; 8 miles west of Holbeach, 20 from Peterborough, 20 from Stamford, 16 from Boston, and 100 north of London. Lat. 52. 47. N. long. 0. 8. W.

SPALDINGTON, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-by-east of Howden. Population 331.

SPALDWICH, a parish of England, county of Huntingdon; 3½ miles north-east of Kimbolton.

SPALL, *s.* [ancient French, *spaule*; modern, *espaule*.] Shoulder. *Out of use.*

Their mighty strokes their habergeons dismayed,
And naked made each other's manly *spalles*. *Spenser.*

SPALL, or SPALE, *s.* [*spiaell*, Su. Goth. segmentum.] A chip. This is a very old word in our language, and is retained in the Exmore and northern dialects.

SPALMADORI, a small island near the coast of Asia Minor, situated between the continent and the island of Scio. Lat. 38. 36. N. long. 26. 7. E.

SPALMARA, a small town and harbour of the Ionian island of Cefalonia.

SPALT, or SPELT, *s.* A white, scaly, shining stone, frequently used to promote the fusion of metals. *Bailey.*

SPALT, a town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, on the Retzat; 20 miles east-south-east of Anspach, and 48 west-by-north of Ratisbon. Population 1200.

SPAN, *s.* [pan, ponne, Saxon; *spanna*, Ital.; *span*, Dut.] The space from the end of the thumb to the end of the little finger extended; nine inches.—A foot, the length of it, is a sixth part of the fathom; a *span*, one eighth; a palm, or hand's breadth, one twenty-fourth; a thumb's breadth, or inch, one seventy-second; and a forefinger's breadth one ninety-sixth. *Holder on Time.*

Will you with counters sum
The vast proportion of his infinite?
And buckle in a waste most fathomless,
With *spans* and inches so diminutive
As fears and reasons? *Shakspeare.*

Any short duration.

You have scarce time
To steal from spiritual leisure a brief *span*,
To keep your earthly audit. *Shakspeare.*

To SPAN, *v. a.* [pannan, Sax.; *spanna*, Su. Goth.] To measure by the hand extended.—My right hand hath *spanned* the heavens. *Isaiah.*—To measure.—Our thoughts — not only bestride all the sea and land, but *span* the sun and firmament at once. *Donne.*

SPAN. The preterite of *spin*.
Together furiously they ran,
That to the ground came horse and man;
The blood out of their helmets *span*,
So sharp were their encounters. *Drayton.*

SPANANTHE, in Botany. See HYDROCOTYLE.
SPANBERG, a town of Austria; 19 miles north-north-east of Vienna, with 900 inhabitants.

SPANCEL, *s.* A rope to tie a cow's hinder legs. *North.*
To SPANCEL, *v. a.* To tie the fore or hinder legs of a horse or cow with a rope. *Common in the north of England and in Ireland.*

SPA'N-COUNTER, or SPA'NFARTHING, *s.* A play at which money is thrown within a span or mark.—Tell the king, that for his father's sake, Henry V., in whose time boys went to *span-counter* for French crowns, I am content he shall reign. *Shakspeare.*

Boys shall not play
At *span-counter* or blow-point, but shall pay
Toll to some courtier. *Donne.*

His chief solace is to steal down, and play at *span-farting* with the page. *Swift.*

SPANDAU, a fortified town of Prussia, in the Middle Mark of Brandenburg, at the confluence of the Havel and the Spree. It has nearly 5000 inhabitants, mostly Protestants. The manufactures and the agriculture of the neighbourhood are inconsiderable, but the town contains a large workhouse and a manufactory for government account, of arms, which are subsequently finished at Potsdam. The citadel stands outside of the town, and is a regular square, with four ramparts forty feet high, and good casemates. It is chiefly used as a state prison. It was taken by the Swedes in the year 1631, but restored in 1634. In 1806 it was taken by the French; 11 miles north-north-east of Potsdam, and 8 west of Berlin. Lat. 52. 33. N. long. 13. 11. E.

SPANDONCEA, in Botany. See CADIA.
SPANDRIL, in Architecture, the open space between the outward moulding of an arch, from its impost to the horizontal member or line which surmounts it.

SPANFARTHING. See SPANCOUNTER.
SPANGENBERG, a town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 17 miles south-east of Cassel, and 17 east of Fritzlar. It contains 1600 inhabitants, with a fortified castle, which is used as a state prison, and for keeping the archives of the house of Hesse.

SPANHEIM (Frederic), an eminent theological professor, was born in 1600, at Amberg, in the Upper Palatinate, where his father held an office in the electoral court. He passed a very laborious life, and died in the 50th year of his age, and was supposed to have shortened his days by the greatness of his labours. His works were very numerous, and on divers subjects: some were political, as "Le Soldat Suedois," composed at the request of the Swedish ambassador; "Mercure Suisse;" "Commentaire historique de la Vie et de la Mort de Christophe, Vicomte de Dhona;" "Memoires sur la Princesse Louise Juliane, Electrice Palatine." These were all published without his name: of his theological works, the principal is one on "Universal Grace;" "Dubia Evangelica;" "Epistola ad Buchananum de controversiis Ecclesiae Anglicanae;" "De Autore Epistolae ad Hebraeos."

SPANHEIM (Frederic), second son of the preceding, was born at Geneva, in 1632, was likewise a professor of theology of high reputation. Among his works, the most esteemed is a summary of ecclesiastical history of the 16th century.

SPANHEIM (Ezekiel), an eminent scholar and statesman, eldest son of Frederic, was born at Geneva, in 1629. He accompanied his father to Leyden, in 1642, when he was already far advanced in the knowledge of the learned languages, and he soon acquired the esteem both of Saumaise and Helvetius, who, at this period, were residents in that university. In 1651, he was nominated professor of the Belles Lettres at Geneva, and in the following year was admitted into the great council. His high reputation caused him soon after to be invited by the emperor to superintend the education of his only son, and in this situation he applied himself to gain a thorough knowledge of the public law of Germany. Having obtained leave to travel into Italy, he was charged by his master to watch over the political intrigues of the Catholic electors at Rome; and at the same time he made himself acquainted with the science of medals and classical antiquity. While out on this tour, he

was introduced to the celebrated Christiana, then residing at Rome, who favoured him with a gracious reception, and also to the still more illustrious lady Sophia, electress of Hanover, who brought him back with her to Heidelberg, in 1665. The elector-palatine, then engaged in various other projects, permitted Spanheim to enter into the service of the elector of Brandenburg, for whom he resided nine years in the quality of envoy-extraordinary. On his return to Berlin, he was made one of the ministers of the state; and at the peace of Ryswick, he was deputed again to France. The elector, being now acknowledged king of Prussia, conferred upon M. Spanheim the title of baron, and sent him in the character of extraordinary minister to queen Anne, of England. He was received at her court with all the respect and honour due to his merit, and was, on account of his talents, elected fellow of the Royal Society. He died in this country, at the age of 81. It is said of this author, that he filled his diplomatic character as if he were entirely detached from letters, and his literary character as if he had no concern with politics. His erudition was solid and extensive, of which he gave various proofs in his writings. The earliest of these were either theological or juridical; but he is best known as an antiquarian and critic. "His work," says his biographer, "entitled 'De Usu et Prestantia Numismatum Antiquorum,' in 2 vols. folio, is accounted one of the best treatises that ever appeared on the medallic science." His translation into French of the "Cæsars," of the emperor Julian, with illustrations; his edition of the same work, with a preface and notes; and his observations on Callimachus and other authors, with some dissertations on subjects of antiquity in the collection of Grævius, are reckoned extremely valuable contributions to critical literature.

SPANIARD'S BAY, on the east coast of Cape Breton island, is round the point of the south entrance into Port Dauphin, to the southward of which is Cape Charbon. Its mouth is narrow, but it is wider within, till it branches into two arms, both of which are navigable three leagues, and afford secure harbouring. Lat. 46. 20. N. long 58. 29. W.

SPAN-LONG, *adj.* Of the length only of a span. There, in the stocks or trees, white fays do dwell,
And *span-long* elves that dance about a pool,
With each a little changeling in their arms. *B. Jonson.*

SPAN-NEW, *adj.* [See the etymou under SPICK and SPAN.] Quite new.—The tale was aie *span-newe*. *Chaucer.*

Am I not totally a *span-new* gallant,
Fit for the choicest eyes? *Beaum. and Fl.*

To SPANE, *v. a.* "To *spanyn* or *wanym* children, ablacto." *Prompt. Parv.* From the German *spenen*, from *span*, uber, *rpana*, Sax. *ubera*.] To wean a child.

SPANG, *s.* [*spange*, Germ.; *spanghe*, Teut.] A thin piece of gold, or silver, or other shining material; a spangled ornament.

A vesture — sprinkled here and there
With glittering *spangs* that did like stars appear. *Spenser.*

The colours that shew best by candlelight are white, carnation, and a kind of sea-water green; and oes or *spangs*, as they are of no great cost, so they are of most glory. *Bacon.*

SPANGLE, *s.* [*spange*, German, a buckle, a locket; whence *oher spangen*, ear-rings.] A small plate or boss of shining metal.—Ear-rings and *spangles*. *Numbers.*—Any thing sparkling and shining.

As hoary frost with *spangles* doth attire
The mossy branches of an oak half dead. *Spenser.*

Thus in a starry night fond children cry
For the rich *spangles* that adorn the sky. *Waller.*

That now the dew with *spangles* deck'd the ground,
A sweeter spot of earth was never found. *Dryden.*

To SPANGLE, *v. a.* To besprinkle with spangles or shining bodies.

They never met in grove or green,
By fountain clear, or *spangled* starlight sheen. *Shakspeare.*

Then appear'd
Spangling the hemisphere, then first adorn'd
With the bright luminaries, that set and rose. *Milton.*

SPA'NIEL, *s.* [*hispaniolus*, Lat.; *espagneul*, Fr., from *Hispaniola*, where the best breed of this species of dog was. See *Hyde*, Not. on Peristol. Itin. Mundi.—A dog used for sports in the field, remarkable for sagacity and obedience.—There are arts to reclaim the wildest men, as there are to make *spaniels* fetch and carry: chide 'em often, and feed 'em seldom. *Dryden.*—A low, mean, sneaking fellow.

I am your *spaniel*; and, Demetrius,
The more you beat me I will fawn on you. *Shakspeare.*

SPA'NIEL, *adj.* Like a spaniel.
I mean sweet words,
Low crooked courtesies, and base *spaniel* fawning. *Shakspeare.*

To SPA'NIEL, *v. n.* To fawn; to play the spaniel.
To SPA'NIEL, *v. a.* To follow like a spaniel.—The hearts that *spaniell'd* me at heels, is so happy a conjecture [in place of *pannell'd*] that I think we ought to acquiesce in it. *Tollet, Note on Shakspeare.*

SPANISH, *s.* The language of Spain.—The *Spanish* is nought else but mere Latin, take a few Morisco words away, which are easily distinguished by the guttural pronunciation. *Howell.*

SPANISH BAY, a bay on the north coast of the island of Cape Breton. Lat. 46. 15. N. long. 60. 10. W.

SPANISH BROOM, *s.* A plant so called, as being a native of Spain. *Miller.* See SPARTIUM.

SPANISH COVE, a creek of Ireland, on the south coast of the county of Cork, a little to the north-east of Browhead.

SPANISH CREEK, a river of Florida, which runs into the river St. Mary.

SPANISH FLY, *s.* [*cantharis*, Lat.] A venomous fly that shines like gold, and breeds in the tops of ashes, olives, &c. It is used to raise blisters.

SPANISH GROVE, a post village of the United States, in Mecklenburg county, Virginia.

SPANISH LAKE, a lake of North America, in Louisiana, connected with Red river, with which it rises and falls. It is 50 miles in circumference; 18 miles above Natchitoches.

SPANISH MAIN, that part of the Atlantic ocean which washes the north part of South America, from the Leeward islands to the isthmus of Darien. The term is also applied to the coast.

SPANISH NUT, *s.* [*sisyrinchium*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*

SPANISH POINT, a cape on the north-east coast of the island of St. Vincent. Lat. 13. 24. N. long. 61. 12. W.

SPANISH RIVER, a river and settlement on the island of Cape Breton.

SPANISH TOWN, or ST. JAGO DE LA VEGA, a sea-port of Jamaica, capital of the island, and residence of a governor or commander in chief; the seat of the legislative assembly, the court of chancery, and supreme court of judicature. It is situated on the river Cobre, about six miles from the sea, and contains about 550 houses, and 5000 inhabitants. Lat. 18. 1. N. long. 76. 44. W.

SPAN'KER, *s.* A small coin.—Your cure too costs you but a *spanker*. *Denham.*—A person that takes long steps with agility: used in some parts of the north. It is also applied to a stout or tall person.

SPAN'NER, *s.* The lock of a fusee or carbine. *Bailey.*—My prince's court is now full of nothing but buff-coats, *spanners*, and musket-rests. *Howell.*—In the following example it seems to be the fusee or carbine itself.—This day, as his majesty sate at dinner, there came a tall man with his *spanner* and scarf; whereby every man in the presence supposed him some officer in the army. *Sir J. Bowring.*

SPANTIKOW,

SPANTIKOW, a village of Prussia, in Pomerania circle of Anclam.

SPANTON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, near Kirby Moorside.

SPAR, *s.* *Spar* is a mixed body, consisting of crystal incorporated sometimes with various mineral, stony, earthy or metallic matter. *Woodward*.—Some stones, as *spar* of lead, dissolved in proper menstrua, become salts. *Newton*.

To SPAR, *v. a.* [ɹpɑːjɪən, Sax, *sperren*, German; formerly *sper*; "To *speryn* or shut." *Prompt. Parv.*]—To shut; to close; to bar.—He it *sparred* with a keie. *Chaucer*. The other, which was entered, labour'd fast
To *sperre* the gate. *Spenser*.

Calk your windows, *spar* up all your doors. *B. Jonson*.
SPAR, *s.* [*sparre*, Teut. See To SPAR.] A small beam; the bar of a gate.—Trees sprout not cross like dry and sapless beams, nor do *spar*s and tiles spring with a natural uniformity into a roof. *Pearson*.

To SPAR, *v. n.* [perhaps from *sperren*, German, in the sense of to oppose.] To fight with perulsive strokes.

Now ladies shine from phaetons afar,
And very soon perhaps may learn to *spar*!

Prol. to the Dramatist.

SPA'RABLES, *s. pl.* [ɹpɑːjɪən, Sax., to *fasten*.] Small nails.

SPA'RADRAP, *s.* In old pharmacy, a cerecloth.—With application of the common *sparadrapp* for issues, this ulcer was by a fontenel kept open. *Wiseman*.

It is prepared by melting a sufficient quantity of some plaster or unguent, and dipping a linen-cloth therein, till such time as it hath imbibed its fill. It is then taken out, cooled, and polished on a marble.

SPA'RAGE, or SPA'RAGS, *s.* Asparagus: which see.—An argument that like Jonas's gourd, or *sparagus*, is in season only at some times. *Bp. Taylor*.

SPARANISI, a town in the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, with 1500 inhabitants.

SPARAXIS. See IXIA.

To SPARE, *v. a.* [ɹpɑːjɪən, Saxon; *spaeren*, Dutch; *espargne*, French.] To use frugally; not to waste; not to consume.—Thou thy father's thunder didst not *sparc*. *Milton*.—To have unemployed; to save from any particular use.—He had no bread to *sparc*. *J. Strange*.—To do without; to lose willingly.—I could have better *spar'd* a better man. *Shakspeare*.—To omit; to forbear.

Be pleas'd your politics to *sparc*;
I'm old enough, and can myself take care.

Dryden.

To use tenderly: to forbear; to treat with pity; not to afflict; not to destroy; to use with mercy.

Does not each look a flash of lightning feel!
Which *sparcs* the body's sheath, but melts the steel.

Cleveland.

Dim sadness did not *sparc*
Celestial visages.

Milton.

To grant; to allow; to indulge.

Set me in the remotest place,
That Neptune's frozen arms embrace;
Where angry Jove did never *sparc*
One breath of kind and temperate air.

Roscommon.

To forbear; to inflict or impose.

Sparc my remembrance; 'twas a guilty day:
And still the blush hangs here.

Dryden.

To SPARE, *v. n.* To live frugally; to be parsimonious; to be not liberal.—God has not been so *sparing* to men to make them barely two-legged creatures, and left it to Aristotle to make them rational. *Locke*.—To forbear; to be scrupulous.—To pluck and eat my fill I *spar'd* not. *Milton*.—To use mercy; to forgive; to be tender.—Their king, out of a princely feeling, was *sparing* and compassionate towards his subjects. *Bacon*.

SPARE, *adj.* [ɹpɑːjɪən, Sax., *parcus*.] Scanty; not abun-

dant; parsimonious; frugal.—Men ought to beware, that they use not exercise and a *sparc* diet both. *Bacon*.—Superfluous; unwanted.—Learning seems more adapted to the female world than to the male, because they have more *sparc* time upon their hands, and lead a more sedentary life. *Addison*.—Lean; wanting flesh; macilent.

If my name were liable to fear,
I do not know the man I should avoid
So soon as that *sparc* Cassius.

Shakspeare.

Slow. *West of England. Grose*.

SPARE, *s.* Parsimony; frugal use; husbandry. *Not in use*.—Our victuals failed us, though we made good *sparc* of them. *Bacon*.

SPA'RELY, *adv.* Sparingly.

Ye vallies low, where the mild whispers use
Of shades, and wanton winds, and gushing brooks,
On whose fresh lap the swart star *sparcely* looks!

Milton.

SPA'RENESS, *s.* [Saxon, ɹpɑːrɪne] State of being spare; leanness.—A *sparcness* and slenderness of stature. *Hannond*.

SPARER, *s.* One who avoids expense.—By nature far from profusion, and yet a greater *sparer* than a saver; for though he had such means to accumulate, yet his forts, garisons, and his feastings, wherein he was only sumptuous, could not but soak his exchequer. *Wotton*.

SPA'RE-RIB, *s.* Ribs cut away from the body, and having on them spare or little flesh: as, a *sparc-rib* of pork.—Brandish no swords but swards of bacon; trail no spears but *sparc-ribs* of pork! *Brewer*.

SPARGANIUM [Σπαργάνιον of Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order triandria, natural order of calamariæ, typhæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Males numerous collected into a head. Calyx: ament, common, roundish, very closely imbricate on all sides, consisting of proper perianths that are three-leaved, linear, deciduous. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, longer than the calyx; anthers oblong. Females, below the males. Calyx, as in the male. Receptacle, common, roundish. Corolla none. Pistil: germ ovate, ending in a short awl-shaped style. Stigmas one or two, acute, channelled, permanent. Pericarp: drupe, juiceless, turbinate with a point, angular below. Seed: nut, bony, oblong-ovate, angular.—Male and female; ament roundish. Calyx three-leaved. Corolla none. Female: stigma bifid. Drupe juiceless, one-seeded.

1. Sparganium ramosum, or branched bur-reed.—Leaves triangular, at the base; their sides concave; common flower-stalk, branched; stigma linear. Root perennial, creeping. Stem upright, about three feet high; round.—Common in ditches and along the banks of the rivers; flowering in July and August.

2. Sparganium simplex, or unbranched bur-reed.—Leaves triangular, at the base; their sides flat; common flower-stalk simple; stigma linear.—This was considered by Linnaeus as a variety of the preceding.

3. Sparganium natans, or floating bur-reed.—Leaves drooping, flat; heads of flowers in a simple spike, most of them accompanied by leaves; style not longer than the germ. Root perennial, creeping; with long fibres, running deep into the muddy bottoms of ditches or slow streams. Stems ascending; round; leafy.—The natans occurs in Cambridgeshire near Sawston moor, on Wilbraham moor, and Burwell fen; near Norwich; in Yorkshire and Westmoreland; Scotland and Wales; flowering in July. It seems to prefer a muddy or clay soil.

SPARGANOPHORUS, from σπαργάνον, a fillet, and φέρω, to bear, because the seed is crowned with a membranous band or border. See ETHULIA.

SPARGANOSIS, from σπαργάνω, to swell, in Surgery, an abscess of the breast; a milk abscess.

SPARGEFACTIION, *s.* [*spargo*, Latin.] The act of sprinkling.—The operation was performed by *sparc*efactiion, in a proper time of the moon.—*Swift*.

SPARGUS,

SPARGUS, in Ichthyology, a name given by Gaza to the common sparus. See SPARUS.

SPARHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles south-west of Reepham.

SPA'R-HAWK. See SPARROWHAWK.

SPA'RING, *adj.* Scarce; little.—Of this there is with you *sparing* memory or none; but we have large knowledge thereof. *Bacon*.—Scanty; not plentiful.—Good air, solitary groves, and *sparing* diet, sufficient to make you fancy yourself one of the fathers of the desert. *Pope*.—Parsimonious; not liberal.—Virgil being so very *sparing* of his words, and leaving so much to be imagined by the reader, can never be translated as he ought in any modern tongue. *Dryden*.

SPA'RINGLY, *adv.* Not abundantly.—The borders whereon you plant fruit-trees should be large, and set with fine flowers; but thin and *sparingly*, lest they deceive the trees. *Bacon*.—Frugally; parsimoniously; not lavishly.

Commend but *sparingly* whom thou dost love:
But less condemn whom thou dost not approve. *Denham*.

With abstinence.—Christians are obliged to taste even the innocent pleasures of life but *sparingly*. *Atterbury*.—Not with great frequency.—The morality of a grave sentence, affected by Lucan, is more *sparingly* used by Virgil. *Dryden*.—Cautiously; tenderly.—Speech of touch towards each other should be *sparingly* used; for discourse ought to be as a field, without coming home to any man. *Bacon*.

SPA'RINGNESS, *s.* Parsimony; want of liberality.—The same folly it will be in us, if, by the *sparingness* of our alms, we make ourselves a lank harvest hereafter. *Wh. Duty of Man*.—Caution.—This opinion Mr. Hobbes mentions as possible; but he does it with hesitancy, diffidence, and *sparingness*. *Clarke*.

SPARK, *s.* [spearc, Saxon; sparke, Dutch.] A small particle of fire, or kindled matter.—If any marvel how a thing, in itself so weak, could import any great danger, they must consider not so much how small the *spark* is that fieth up, as how apt things about it are to take fire. *Hooker*.—Any thing shining.—We have, here and there, a little clear light, some *sparks* of bright knowledge. *Locke*.—Any thing vivid or active.

If any *spark* of life be yet remaining,
Down, down to hell, and say, I sent thee thither.

Shakspeare.

A lively, showy gay man. *It is commonly used in contempt.*

A *spark* like thee, of the man-killing trade
Fell sick.

Dryden.

The finest *sparks* and cleanest beaux
Drip from the shoulders to the toes.

Prior.

A lover.

To SPARK, *v. n.* To emit particles of fire; to sparkle.
Not now in use.

Fair is my love,

When the rose in her cheek appears,
Or in her eyes the fire of love doth *spark*.

Spenser.

SPARKFORD, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 4 miles south-west of Castle Cary.

SPARK'S ISLAND, a small island in the bay of Honduras, at the mouth of the river Roman. Lat. 15. 54 N. long. 86. 5 W.

SPA'RKFUL, *adj.* Lively; brisk; airy. *Not used*.—Hitherto will our *sparkful* youth laugh at their great grandfathers' English, who had more care to do well than to speak minion-like. *Camden*.

SPA'RKISH, *adj.* Airy; gay. *A low word.* It is commonly applied to men rather than women.—Is any thing more *sparkish* and better-humoured than Venus' accosting her son in the deserts of Libya? *Walsh*.—Showy; well-dressed; fine.—A daw, to be *sparkish*, trick'd himself up with all the gay feathers he could muster. *L'Estrange*.

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SPA'RKLE, *s.* A spark; a small particle of fire.

He, with repeated strokes

Of clashing flints, their hidden fires provokes;
Short flame succeeds, a bed of wither'd leaves
The dying *sparkles* in their fall receives:
Caught into life, in fiery fumes they rise,
And, fed with stronger food, invade the skies. *Dryden*.

When reason's lamp, which, like the sun in sky,
Throughout man's little world her beams did spread,
Is now become a *sparkle*, which doth lie
Under the ashes, half extinct and dead. *Davies*.

Lustre.

I hold my beauty,
Wash but these sorrows from it, of a *sparkle*
As right and rich as hers. *Beaum.*

To SPA'RKLE, *v. n.* To emit sparks. To issue in sparks.

The bold design
Pleas'd highly those infernal states, and joy
Sparkled in all their eyes. *Milton.*

To shine; to glitter.—A hair seen in a microscope loses its former colour, and is in a great measure pellucid, with a mixture of some bright *sparkling* colours, such as appear from the refraction of diamonds. *Locke*.—To emit little bubbles, as liquor in a glass.

To SPA'RKLE, *v. a.* [*spargo*, Lat.] To disperse; to scatter; to throw about.

Cassandra yet there saw I how they hal'd
From Pallas' house, with *sperced* tress undone. *Sackville.*

What's become

Of my lieutenant?—Beaten, and 't please your grace,
And all his forces *sparkled*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SPA'RKLER, *s.* One whose eyes sparkle.—What would you say, should you see a *sparkler* shaking her elbow for a whole night together, and thumping the table with a dicebox? *Addison*.

SPA'RKLET, *s.* A small spark.

Night, spread o'er earth thy sable veil,
Heaven's twinkling *sparklets* to conceal. *Cotton.*

SPA'RKLINESS, *s.* Vivacity. *Not in use*.—Sir John [Suckling] threw his repartees about the table with much *sparkliness*, and gentleness of witt, to the admiration of them all. *Aubrey*.

SPA'RKLINGLY, *adv.* With vivid and twinkling lustre.—Diamonds sometimes would look more *sparklingly* than they were wont, and sometimes far more dull than ordinary. *Boyle*.

SPA'RKLINGNESS, *s.* Vivid and twinkling lustre.—I have observed a manifestly greater clearness and *sparklingness* at some times than at others, though I could not refer it to the superficial clearness or foulness of the stone. *Boyle*.

SPA'RRLING, *s.* [*esperlant*, Fr. a smelt. Cotgrave.] A name for the smelt in the north of England, and in Wales.

SPARLING FOWL, in Ornithology, a name given in some places, by the country people, to the female merganser, called more usually the *dundiver*.

SPARONE, a town of the Sardinian states, in the Piedmontese province of Ivrea, with 2250 inhabitants,

SPARRE (Eric), Chancellor of Sweden, was born in 1550, but from this time we have no account of him till 1578, when he was appointed supreme judge of Westmanland and Dalecarlia; and in 1582 he became a senator, governor of these provinces, and vice-chancellor of the kingdom. In 1583 he was knighted by king James VI. of Scotland; and in 1587 he went as envoy to Poland, respecting the elevation of Sigismund to the Polish throne. Within about two years from this time he fell in disgrace, was deprived of his employments, and thrown into prison. He was likewise accused of high crimes against the sovereign, John III. On this occasion his letter of knighthood was taken from him by the king,

king, and torn to pieces before his face. He was, however, pardoned, on the intercession of king Sigismund; but was again arraigned, in 1592, before a court at which the king himself presided, on a charge of having promised the cession of Esthonia, in direct contradiction to the instructions which he had received, when envoy of Poland. He defended himself with great boldness against all his accusers; which so incensed the sovereign, that he drew his sword, exclaiming, that it was given him by God to punish traitors and breakers of their oath. Duke Charles brought forth other accusations against him; but the court broke up, after coming to this conclusion, that Sparre, and the other senators who had been accused with him, were neither condemned nor acquitted. Sparre fell again under the duke's displeasure, on account of a celebrated book which he wrote, entitled "Pro Lege, Rege. et Grege;" which seemed to be directed against the authority exercised by that prince. Having, however, taken an oath of fidelity to the duke, and made a solemn promise of obedience in writing, he was restored to his employments; and, as chancellor of the kingdom, subscribed, in 1593, the reconciliation between him and Sigismund. Notwithstanding this, he was afterwards delivered up to the duke, and suffered under the hands of the executioner, during the bloody scenes that took place at Linköping, in 1600; but he maintained his innocence to the last, and read a protest against those who had doomed him to punishment. He was author of many books, besides the one already referred to "Pro Lege," &c. among which are the following: "Account of the Coronation of king Sigismund at Upsal, February 19, 1594;" "Sententia Ordinum Regni Sueciæ in quosdam de Collegio Senatorum," &c.; "Adversus Insimulationes et Protestationes a Regis Sigismundi legato Polono, Oratione prolata, Defensio." *Gen. Biog.*

SPARRING, among Cock-fighters, is the fighting a cock with another to breathe him. In sparring, they put botts on their spurs, that they may not hurt one another. Also to box with stuffed gloves on the hands.

SPARRMANNIA [So named in memory of Anders or Andrew Sparrman, a Swede, fellow of the academy of sciences at Stockholm], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of columniferæ, tiliacæ, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, entire, reflexed, villose. Corolla: petals four, equal, wedged-shaped, entire, flat, twice as long as the calyx. Nectaries proper, difform, filiform, torulose; shorter than the stamens: swellings inflated, turbinate. Stamina: filaments very many; inserted into the germ; filiform: outer like the nectaries, but longer, shorter however than the corolla. Anthers ovate-cordate, placed on the top of the filaments. Pistil: germ subglobular, five-cornered, hispid, superior. Style filiform, straight, hanging down among, and much longer than the stamens. Stigma truncate, terminated by elongated papillæ. Pericarp: capsule five-cornered, five-celled, echinate with straight, rigid, hairy bristles, terminated by a pellucid, straight, pungent spine, larger and more pungent at the corners. Seeds two, oblong, smooth, keeled on one side.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-leaved. Corolla of four reflexed petals. Nectaries several, torulose. Capsule angular, five-celled, echinate.

1. Sparrmannia Africana.—This beautiful shrub grows to the height of six feet or more, and is thickly divided into alternate branches, finely clothed with large cordate and lobed pendulous leaves upon erect footstalks, making a very handsome appearance even in foliage, in which state it much resembles a Sida; its fine umbels of flowers are produced plentifully along the young branches, opposite to the leaves, in the same manner as in the common species of Pelargonium, which it resembles much in its inflorescence; the flowers nodding before they are expanded, and becoming erect as they approach maturity.—This shrub is a native of Africa, near the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—It may be readily increased by cuttings, if treated in the same manner as some of the more tender Pelargoniums.

SPA'RRROW, *s.* [*sparwa*, Goth., *греарра*, *греаря*, Sax.] A small bird.

Dismay'd not this
Macbeth and Banquo? Yes,
As sparrows, eagles; or the hare, the lion. *Shakspeare.*

SPARROW, PASSER, in Ornithology, the name of a large order of birds. See PASSER.

SPARROW, Common or House, the *Fringilla domestica* of Linnæus; which see.—SPARROW, Hedge, the *Motacilla modularis* of Linnæus; which see.—SPARROW, Reed, the *Emberiza schoeniclus* of Linnæus: see EMBERIZA.—SPARROW, Lesser Reed, Willow Lark, or Sedge-bird, *Passer arundinaceus minor*, the *Motacilla salicaria* of Linnæus: see MOTACILLA.—SPARROW, Solitary: see PASSER SOLITARIUS.—SPARROW, Tree, the *Fringilla montana* of Linnæus: see FRINGILLA.

SPA'RRROWGRASS, *s.* [*asparagus*.] This is usually considered as a vulgarism, but Dr. Parr always contended for its correctness.

Your infant pease to sparrowgrass prefer,
Which to the supper you may best defer. *King.*

SPA'RRROWHAWK, or SPARHAWK, *s.* [*греарфавок*, Sax.] A small kind of hawk.—He loketh as a sparrowhawk with his eye. *Chaucer.*

SPA'RRY, *adj.* Consisting of spar.—In which manner spar is usually found herein, and other minerals; or such as are of some observable figure; of which sort are the sparry strata, or icicles called stalactita. *Woodward.*

To SPARSE, *v. a.* [*sparsus*, Lat.] To disperse; Sometimes written *sperse*. *Obsolete.*—Making way through *spersed* ayre. *Spenser.*—The *spersed* aire. *Fairfax.*

SPA'RSEDLY, *adv.* Scatteringly; dispersedly. *Coles.*—There are doubtless many such soils *sparsedly* throughout this nation. *Evelyn.*

SPARSHOLT, a parish of England in Berkshire; 3 miles west of Wantage. Population 422.

SPARSHOLT, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 3½ miles north-west of Winchester. Population 317.

SPARTA, in ancient Geography, a celebrated city of Greece, in the Peloponnesus, and the capital of Laconia. It was situated at the foot of mount Thornax, on the banks of the Eurotas, and to the west of it.

According to Strabo, this city was founded by Patrocles; but the most common opinion attributes its origin to Lesles, in the year 1516 before Christ. Some maintain that it originated at Lacedæmon in the year 400 before Christ. However this may be, it was known also by this name. However, the appellation of Spartans is applied to the inhabitants of Sparta and its territory, and that of Lacedæmonians to the inhabitants of the whole country of Laconia (see LACEDÆMONIA.) This country was not equal in extent to Athens, containing only 48 stadia; but it was adorned in a very eminent degree. At first it had no walls, the Spartans confiding in their own valour for its defence. In process of time, however, they constructed walls about it, when the ambition of Cassander, and the violent assaults of some tyrants, had worn out and almost exhausted their fortitude. Pausanias says, that it was fortified on occasion of the wars of Demetrius and Pyrrhus, and he mentions in terms of high commendation some pieces of sculpture, for which this city was distinguished. Sparta was famous for a variety of public institutions, among which were the senate of the aged, the senate of the conservators of the laws, the senate of the ephori, and that of the magistrates, denominated Bidæans. The first of these was the sovereign tribunal of the Lacedæmonians which regulated the affairs of the state; the other senators were, properly speaking, archons; the ephori were five, and the Bidæans of the same number, whose province it was to direct and superintend the exercises of the youth. The public edifices, temples, statutes, and monuments of Sparta, were so numerous and various, that we should far exceed our limits in recounting them. It is not certain at what time this celebrated place was destroyed; but



SPARTIUM, STATICE, STRATIOLIS.



Spartium. Statice. Stratiolis.

it was succeeded by the modern town of Misitra, which is situated about four miles from ancient Sparta. See GREECE.

SPARTA, a post township of the United States, in Ontario county, New York; 25 miles south-west of Canandaigua. Population 1397.

SPARTA, a post township of the United States, in Sussex county, New Jersey.

SPARTA, a post township of the United States, and capital of Hancock county, Georgia. Population 314.

SPARTACUS, one of the scourges of Roman tyranny and cruelty, a native of Thrace, was born of very low parents, entered the army, then became a deserter, and a robber. Being taken, he was confined as a gladiator in a receptacle at Capua for those unfortunate men whose lives were devoted to the pleasure of the Roman people. He escaped the horrid den, and placing himself at the head of a body of gladiators and fugitive slaves, he took a fortified place in the year before Christ, 72, whence he made predatory excursions throughout Campania. His force daily increased, and he defeated several commanders who were sent against him. He marched into Cisalpine Gaul, in order to give the slaves in his army, who were mostly Thracians and Gauls, an opportunity of returning home. Part of them, however, greedy of pillage, separated themselves from their commander, and were cut to pieces. The consul Lentulus, upon this success, which was extremely partial, pursued Spartacus, who turned about and gave him a total defeat; and then, in his turn, becoming the aggressor, he marched against the consul, Gellius, drove him from the field, and obliged him to take shelter in the walled towns. He retaliated the cruelty of the Romans towards the gladiators by obliging a number of his captives to fight with each other round the funeral pyre of one of his commanders. He was now at the head of 120,000 men, and with these he ravaged most of the provinces of Italia, and struck such a terror at Rome, that Crassus, at that time the man of the greatest consequence in the city, was sent against him. He soon confined Spartacus in Lucania, and cut off some of his detachments, so that he would gladly have crossed over to Sicily, but being prevented, he took post in a peninsula near Rhegium, where Crassus enclosed him by a rampart drawn from sea to sea. Spartacus, however, found means to break through this barrier, and gain the open country, but he was here deserted by a large body of his followers, who became the victims of Crassus. Spartacus now retreated towards the mountains, and repulsed with loss some of his pursuers. This success was, however, his ruin, for his men insisted upon his return to give battle to Crassus in the open field. Before the commencement of the engagement, Spartacus stabbed his horse, exclaiming, "If I am victorious, I can easily get another; if vanquished, I shall not want any." After a long contest, the Roman discipline prevailed. Spartacus, during extraordinary exertions of valour, was surrounded, and fell pierced with a multitude of wounds. He was unquestionably a brave man, and something more than a courageous barbarian. He had, says Plutarch, not only strength and elevation of mind, but a discernment and civility much superior to his fortune. It is said that his wife accompanied him into the field, pretended to the gift of prophecy, and probably inspired him with a fanatical confidence in victory.

SPARTANBURG, a district of the United States, in the north part of South Carolina. Population 14,259, including 2391 slaves.

SPARTANBURG, a post township and capital of the United States, in Spartanburg district, South Carolina.

SPARTEL, CAPE, a promontory of Northern Africa, being the point which divides the straits of Gibraltar from the Atlantic. It is about 5 miles to the west of Tangier.

SPARTIANUS (Ælius), a Latin historian, flourished in the time of Diocletian, to whom he dedicated the lives of Adrian, Ælius, Verus, Didius Julianus, Severus, and Pescennius Niger, which, as well as his lives of Caracalla and Geta, are come down to our times. He is one of the writers of the "Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores," but his merits are not very great.

SPARTIVENTO, CAPE, anciently called *Herculis Promontorium*, the most southern promontory of Italy, on the eastern extremity of Calabria Ultra. Lat. 37. 50. N. long. 16. 28. E.

SPARTIUM [*Σπαργίον* of Dioscorides: frutex ex cujus ramulis spartei funes contextuntur], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ, or leguminosæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, cordate-tubular: at the upper edge very short; below towards the tip marked with five toothlets, coloured, small. Corolla papilionaceous; five-celled. Standard obcordate, the whole reflexed, very large. Wings ovate, oblong; shorter than the standard; annexed to the filaments. Keel two-petalled, lanceolate, oblong; longer than the wings; (the carinal margin connected by hairs), inserted into the filaments. Stamina: filaments ten, connate; adhering to the germ, unequal, gradually longer: the uppermost very short: the lower nine-cleft. Anthers oblongish. Pistil: germ oblong, hirsute. Style awl-shaped, rising. Stigma growing to the upper side of the top, oblong, villose. Pericarp: legume cylindrical, long, obtuse, one-celled, two-valved. Seeds many; globe-kidney form.—*Essential Character.* Calyx produced downwards. Filaments adhering to the germ. Stigma longitudinal; villose above.

1. *Spartium contaminatum*, or narrow-leaved broom.—Branches round; leaves alternate, filiform; stained at the base. Stem shrubby, rod-like; branched at the base, round, even.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, in the sands.

2. *Spartium sepiarium*, or hedge broom.—Branches rugged; upper leaves clustered filiform. Branches rugged with the fallen leaves. Racemes terminating. Flowers yellow.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. *Spartium junceum*, or Spanish broom.—Branches opposite round; flowering at the top; leaves lanceolate.—Spanish Broom is native of all the southern countries of Europe. There is a variety of it with double flowers, which is very unusual in his natural order.

4. *Spartium monospermum*, or white-flowered, single-seeded broom.—Branches round; striated, racemes few-flowered; flowers subaggregate; leaves lanceolate, silky.—Native of Spain and Portugal.

5. *Spartium sphaerocarpum*, or yellow-flowered, single-seeded broom.—Branches round, striated; racemes many-flowered; flowers remote; leaves lanceolate, sessile, pubescent beneath.—Native of the South of Europe; and of Barbary, near Mayane.

6. *Spartium purgans*, or purging broom.—Branches round, striated; leaves lanceolate, subsessile, pubescent.—Native of the South of France, the county of Nice, Arragon, and Japan.

7. *Spartium aphyllum*, or leafless broom.—Branches round, striated, smooth rod-like; leaves very short; linear propped.—Found by Pallas, in the driving sand of the Wolga desert.

8. *Spartium virgatum*, or twiggy broom.—Branches round, striated; leaves lanceolate-oblong, silky; calyxes, funnel-form, two-lipped, rough-haired, standard and keel pubescent.—Native of the island of Madeira.

9. *Spartium decumbens*, or trailing broom.—Stem decumbent, branched; leaves solitary, ovate; flowers on long peduncles.—Found in Burgundy, and in part of Switzerland.

10. *Spartium scorpius*, or scorpion broom.—Branches spiny, spreading; leaves ovate.—Native of the South of Europe, and of Barbary.

11. *Spartium aspaletoides*.—Branchlets bowed, smooth, tubercled, flower-bearing; leaves linear-lanceolate; flowers axillary, pedicelled; calyx three-parted; corollas silky.—Native of Barbary, on the hills near La Calle.

12. *Spartium multiflorum*, or Portugal white broom.—Leaves ternate and simple silky, shoots strict, striated; flowering on every side.—Native of the island of Madeira.

13. *Spartium angulatum*, or angular-branched broom.—Leaves ternate and solitary; branches hexangular; flowering at the end.—Native of the Levant.

14. *Spartium*

14. *Spartium scoparium*, or common broom.—Leaves ternate and solitary; branches unarmed, angular; flowers axillary, solitary; legumes ciliate. The common broom grows from three to six feet high or more, very much branched; the branches upright, rushy, evergreen, angular, flexible, leafy, smooth except the very young ones which are downy. Leaves ternate, small, ovate, acute, downy and edged with soft hairs bending inwards; the leaf-stalks are also slightly hairy, and flattened. Flowers axillary, solitary or two together, rarely three, nodding, on round smooth peduncles, furnished on each side with a very minute stipule.—Native of Europe, in dry sandy soils: flowering in May and June.—The remaining species are *Spartium umbellatum*, *ferox*, *horridum*, *patens*, *arborescens*, *biflorum*, *linifolium*, *sericeum*, *cytisoides*, *nubigenum*, *radiatum*, *spinosum*, and *villosum*.

Propagation and Culture.—They may all be propagated by sowing the seed; those from the warm climates require the protection of a green-house.

SPARUS, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order Thoracici, of which the Generic Character is—teeth generally strong; the grinders somewhat obtuse and crowded; the lips are doubled; gill-membrane five-rayed; the cover scaly; the body compressed; the lateral line curved on the hind part; the pectoral fins are rounded.

The name Sparus is of Greek origin, being derived from the verb *σπαρῆναι*, to palpitate or tremble; and was given to this fish from its remarkable quality of trembling or palpitating all over the body, as soon as taken out of the water.

There are, according to Gmelin, about forty species, separated into divisions, and classed according to their colours; but Dr. Shaw has enumerated nearly four times that number.

I.—Marked with a black spot.

1. *Sparus auratus*, or lunated gilt-head.—The Specific Character of this is,—that between the eyes there is a semilunar spot. The general length of the fish is about fifteen inches; but occasionally it is found of a larger size: the body is broad and thin: the back rising into a carina. Dr. Shaw gives the Specific Character as silvery-blueish, with gold-coloured brows, and a purple spot beyond each side the head; but sometimes, he says, with the addition of several brownish longitudinal stripes.—It is a native of the Mediterranean, Atlantic and Indian seas, and held in considerable estimation as food. It was much admired by the ancient Greeks and Romans; by the former it was consecrated to Venus. It feeds on shell-fish, which it grinds with its strong teeth before it swallows. It is sometimes found of the weight of eight or even ten pounds.

2. *Sparus annularis*.—Yellowish, with a black ocellate spot near the tail.—This is found chiefly in the Adriatic. The colour of this species resembles that of the common perch: at a certain distance from the base of the tail a round black spot is situated at the bottom of the last dusky bar of the body; the pectoral fins and tail are red, the rest blackish.—Native of the Mediterranean. Not at all in esteem for the table.

3. *Sparus sargus*.—The body of this is marked with black bands, and a black ocellate spot near the tail.—It inhabits the southern coasts of Europe. The body is oval, broad; the teeth are equal, obtuse; and the tail forked. It is nearly of the size of the auratus, and the shape very like that, but deeper in proportion. It is much esteemed as food.

4. *Sparus melanurus*.—Body with longitudinal lines and a black ocellate spot near the tail.—This species is found in the southern European seas. It is described by Shaw as silvery, with a blue back; the sides have a stripe, spotted longitudinally with brown, and a black spot at the base of the tail.

5. *Sparus maris*.—A black ocellate spot on each side; pectoral fins and tail red.—It inhabits the Mediterranean.

6. *Sparus mcena*.—Body variegated; a blackish spot on each side.—This is found in the Mediterranean.

7. *Sparus saxatilis*.—Body whitish; a black ocellate spot at the base of the tail.—This is found on the coasts of Surinam. The snout is depressed; and the tail rounded.

8. *Sparus orphus*.—A black ocellate spot at the tail; the head is reddish; the tail is entire.

9. *Sparus punctata*.—Mouth cuspidate; the tail entire: in colour it is partly black.—It inhabits the shores of Sardinia. In size and colour it is nearly allied to the *Sparus sargus*.

10. *Sparus argentatus*.—This has a black spot behind the gills.—It is found on the coasts of Japan; is six inches long; the body is covered with silvery scales; before the eyes are two nostrils.

11. *Sparus notatus*.—Dorsal fin divided; the gill-covers and tail spotted with black.—It is found at Japan. The head is coated with silvery scales, nearly as long as the fingers.

II.—Body mostly red.

12. *Sparus erythrinus*.—The tail of this fish is nearly entire; the body red.—It inhabits the European, American, and Japan seas. It is often eaten, but is not held in any great estimation; and it has sometimes proved poisonous: the iris is silvery.

13. *Sparus insidiator*.—Body red, yellowish at the sides; tail a little forked.—It inhabits the Indian ocean; is about ten inches long; catches aquatic insects, like the *Chaetodon rostratus*, with its snout, which it can lengthen out into a tube; the body is rather broad, flat, coated with large scales of a metallic-green colour at the edge; when dead it becomes brown; the flesh is eatable. It is described as having a compressed head, and scaly; the eyes are lateral; jaws divided, each with two large straight conic teeth in the middle; gill-covers very entire; first lateral line nearer the back, beginning at the end of the dorsal fin, the other straight; the vent is nearly in the middle; the fins are yellowish; the dorsal and anal fins are marked with green bands; the last ray but one of this anal is very long.

14. *Sparus formosus*.—Red; longitudinal marks on the body and tip of the tail blue. This fish is figured in Dr. Shaw's *Naturalist's Miscellany*, and he suspected that it was a British fish. The fore part of the dorsal, and edge of the anal fins, are blue.

15. *Sparus pagrus*, or the red gilt-head.—This is reddish; the skin, at the end of the dorsal and anal fins, gathered up, and hiding the last rays.—It is found in the European seas. In shape, teeth and size, it resembles *Sparus auratus*. The iris is silvery; insides of the gill-covers, mouth and tongue, are of a fine red; at the base of the pectoral fins is a ferruginous spot; the scales are large; and the tail is forked.

16. *Sparus spinifer*.—Dorsal spines recumbent; the five middle ones filiform and longer.—This inhabits the muddy deeps of the Red sea; is about a span and a half long. The body is silvery, but with a reddish hue; the back is marked with darker lines; the scales are broad, very entire, obscurely streaked, and the flesh is reckoned excellent.

17. *Sparus palpebratus*.—This is of a chesnut-red; the eyes are of a pale yellow, covered with a loose yellowish membrane.—This is found on the coasts of Amboina. It resembles a perch; but the head is more obtuse.

III.—Body marked with lines.

18. *Sparus boops*.—Longitudinal lines dusky; the four lower ones are gold and silvery.—It inhabits the sea round Japan.

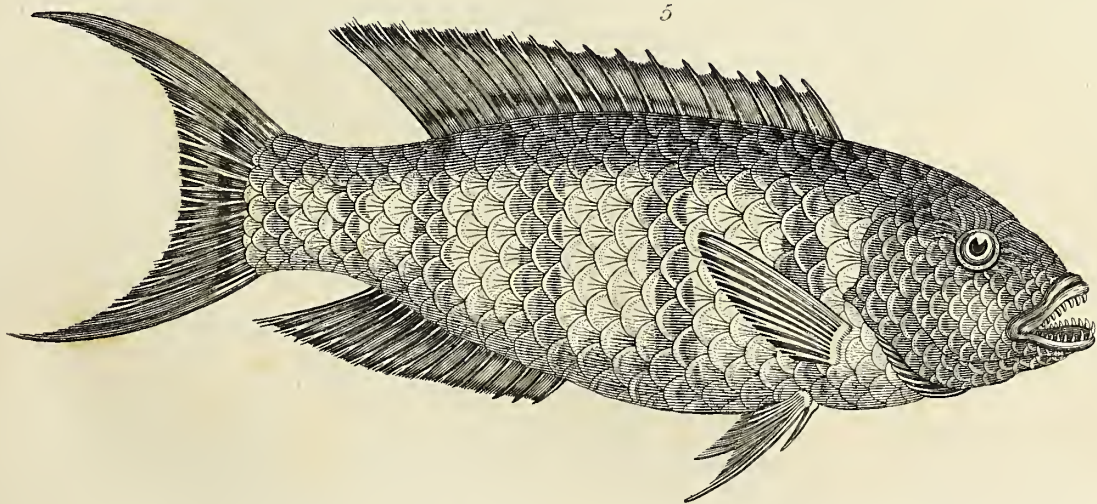
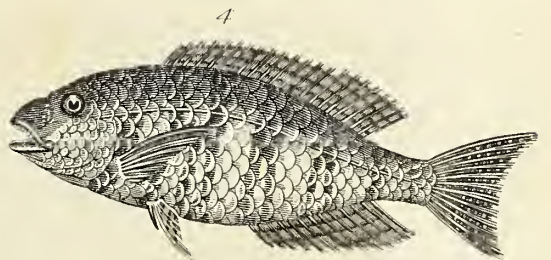
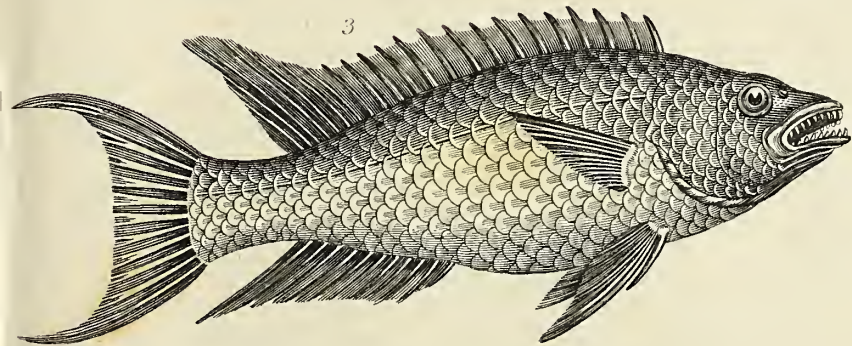
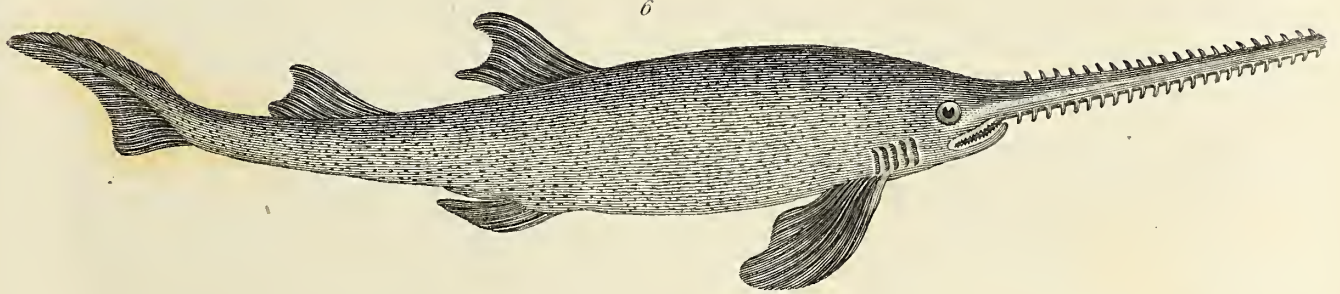
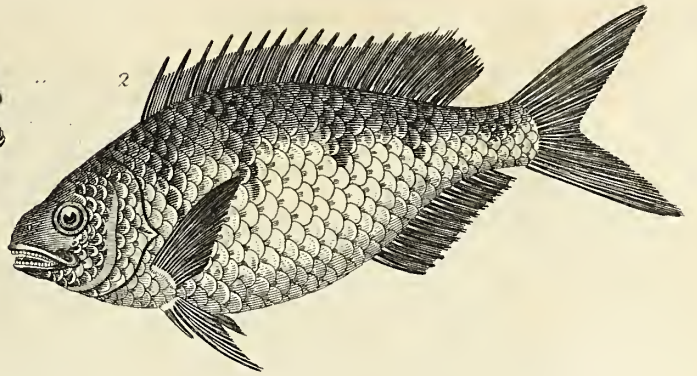
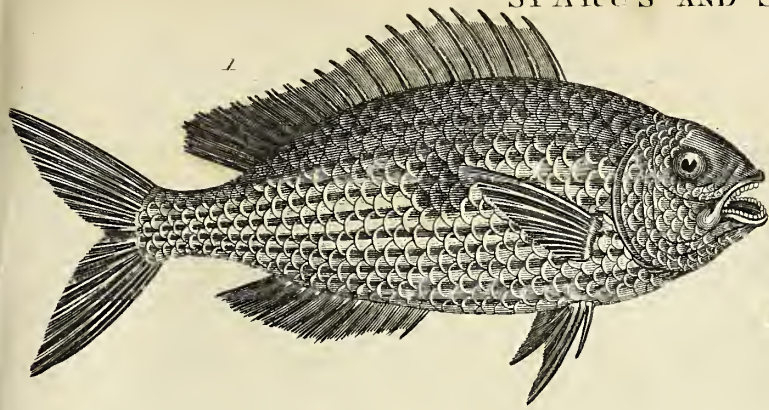
19. *Sparus cantharus*.—The tail is without spots; the body is marked with longitudinal lines.—It inhabits the coast of Tuscany. The iris is silvery.

20. *Sparus chromis*.—The tail is bifid; the second ray of the ventral fin is setaceous.—It inhabits southern Europe.

21. *Sparus salpa*.—Tail bifid; the body is marked with eleven tawny longitudinal lines.—It is found in the Mediterranean.

22. *Sparus sarba*.—This is of an oblong oval shape, silvery, with numerous obsolete stripes; the ventral fins are yellow,

SPARUS AND SQUALUS.



J. Bus sc.

1 *Sp. miena*. 2 *Sp. annularis*. 3 *Sp. fasciatus*. 4 *Sp. surinamensis*. 5 *Sp. fasciatus*. 6 *Squalus pristis*.



yellow, with a golden line on each side near them.—It inhabits the Mediterranean, and along the coasts of Arabia. The body is broad, and covered with broad entire scales; there are seventeen longitudinal brownish stripes on each side; the flesh is reckoned pleasant.

23. *Sparus synagris*.—The tail is bifid, red; the body is purplish, with seven gold lines on each side.—It inhabits South America.

24. *Sparus rhomboides*.—The tail is entire; the back is caniculate; the body with yellow lines.—It inhabits America, and is there called the salt-water bream. The teeth are obtuse; between the roots of the pectoral and dorsal fins a black spot; the ventral, anal, and caudal fins are tawny.

25. *Sparus latus*.—Yellowish; the head is silvery; the scales longitudinally imbricate.—It inhabits about the coasts of Japan; is three inches long, and one and a half broad.

26. *Sparus virgatus*.—The tail is forked; the body is depressed, oblong, striped with scales.—This is found on the coast of Japan.

27. *Sparus haffara*.—Silvery, with fourteen obsolete yellowish-brown lines on each side; the tail is bifid.—It inhabits the muddy shores of Arabia; is about a span long; and the flesh is reckoned good.

28. *Sparus berda*.—Whitish-ash; lateral scales with each a transverse brown band in the middle; the dorsal spines are recumbent.—It is found in the Red Sea. The body is oval; the back is gibbous, with obsolete bands; beneath it is white; the scales are broad, round and entire.

29. *Sparus Chilensis*.—The tail is bifid; the body is marked with transverse brown lines on each side.—It inhabits, as its specific name denotes, Chili, in South America. It grows to full six feet long; in shape it is oval, depressed, coated with large rhomboidal margaritaceous scales, spotted with white; the flesh is good.

IV.—Various.

30. *Sparus chrysops*.—The tail is semi-lunar; the back is grooved; the iris is golden.—It inhabits Carolina. The body is blueish.

31. *Sparus argyrops*.—Tail semi-lunar; the back is grooved; iris is silvery.—It inhabits Jamaica and Carolina. It resembles the last. The three first rays of the dorsal fin end in a long bristle.

32. *Sparus dentex*.—The tail is bifid; the body is variegated; four of the teeth are larger.—It inhabits many parts of Europe, and the Cape of Good Hope.

33. *Sparus spinus*.—Tail bifid; dorsal spine recumbent.—It inhabits South America and India. The body is apparently painted with blue recurved blotches.

34. *Sparus radiatus*, or pudding-fish.—The tail is entire; lateral line composed of linear scales, divided into three bifid branches.—This is found on the coast of Carolina. Above it is a green purple at the sides; beneath rufous; head varied with blue, yellow and green streaks.

35. *Sparus Virginicus*.—The tail is bifid; the body with two black transverse bands, and numerous longitudinal lines.—It inhabits North America.

36. *Sparus mormyrus*.—The tail of this species is bifid; body with numerous silvery and black bands.—It inhabits Tuscany.

37. *Saprus Capistratus*.—The tail of this is entire; the body is reticulate with white.—It inhabits America. Body oblong; scales loosely imbricate, with a white band bent into a right angle before the edge.

38. *Sparus Galilæus*.—The tail entire; body above is greenish, beneath white.—It inhabits the lake Genezareth, in Galilee.

39. *Sparus fuscens*.—Brownish; scales golden; near the pectoral fins a black spot.—It inhabits Japan, and is about four inches long.

40. *Sparus niger*, or toothed gilt-head.—The back is black; the sides brighter; belly silvery.—This is found on the coasts of Yorkshire. It is described in Pennant's British Zoology. The body is twenty-six inches long, and ten

broad; eyes large; teeth in the lower jaw slender, sharp, and on each side a slender canine tooth, in the upper jaw a single row; the first seven rays of the dorsal fin high, the rest low; this fin and the anal covered with imbricate scales.

SPARUS, among the Romans, a kind of rustic weapon, bent backwards like the foot. It was likewise used for a small dart, or missive weapon.

SPARVER, or SPARNER, *s.* A bed.—To dame Jane Clynton one *sparver* of silk, with curtains of the same.—Sir Edward Poyning's will, 1520, *Testamenta Vetusta*.

SPASK, a small town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Riazan, on the Oka; 46 miles east-south-east of Riazan.

SPASK, a town of the central part of European Russia, in the government of Tamboy, on the river Studenez; 105 miles north-north-east of Tamboy. Population 3000.

SPASK, a small town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Kasan, near the Wolga; 60 miles south of Kasan.

SPASKOI, a small village of Kolivan, in Asiatic Russia. Lat. 55. 38. N. long. 86. 14. E.

SPASKOI, a small village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia; 36 miles north of Tomsk.

SPASKOY, a village of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Kaluga, circle of Medyn. It has 2500 inhabitants, employed partly in the manufacture of canvas and paper; 126 miles south-east of Smolensko.

SPASM, *s.* [*spasme*, Fr., *σπασμα*, Gr.] Convulsion; violent and involuntary contraction of any part.

All the maladies

Of ghastly *spasm*, or racking torture, qualms
Of heart-sick agony.

Milton.

SPASMO'DIC, *adj.* [*spasmodique*, Fr.] Convulsive.

SPAT. The pret. of *spit*.—He had *spat* on the ground. *St. John*.

SPAT, *s.* [Su. Goth. humor.] The spawn of shell-fish.—A reticulated film found upon sea-shells, and usually supposed to be the remains of the vesicles of the *spat* of some sort of shell-fish. *Woodward*.

SPATA, CAPE, the north-west point of the island of Candia, in the Mediterranean.

SPATALLA, in Botany. See PROTEA.

SPATAREI, a small town in the island of Samos; 5 miles south-south-west of Cora.

SPATHA, is a word used by different authors in various senses: some express by it a rib; others, the instrument called by surgeons, a spatula, and used for spreading ointments and plaisters; and Celsus calls a sort of incision-knife by this name. It is also used for the external covering of the fruit of the palm-tree, and by others for a sword.

SPATHELIA [altered by Linnæus from the *spathe* of Brown], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia, natural order of bicornes, terebintaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved: leaflets oblong, coloured. Corolla: petals five, oblong, equal. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, ascending, marked with a tooth at the base. Anthers ovate. Pistil: germ ovate, shorter than the stamens. Styles three. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule oblong, three-cornered, three-winged, three-celled: cells accompanied by a lateral resiniferous canal. Seeds solitary, oblong, three-sided.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-leaved. Petals five. Capsule three-cornered, three-celled. Seeds solitary.

Spathelia simplex, or rhus-leaved *spathelia*.—This tree rises by a single slender stem, like the palms, and bears all its oval leaves in a pinnated order, on moderate ribs, disposed closely together about the top, from the centre of which the flower-spike rises; this is very spreading, and generally shoots so as to appear a large blooming pyramid many feet above the foliage. This is a most beautiful flowering shrub; it seldom rises above fourteen or sixteen feet, and its flowering top is generally from four to six feet in height.—Native of Jamaica.

SPATHESTER, an old chirurgical instrument, used to draw the prepuce over the glans.

SPATHIUM [so denominated by Loureiro, from the Gr. *σπαθιον*, a little sheath; alluding to the form of its calyx], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order trigynia, natural order of inundato, Naides (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: sheath stalked, of one leaf, roundish, spreading, single-flowered. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments six, short, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers roundish, of two-cells. Pistil: germen (superior) roundish, with four horns. Style none. Stigmas four, oblong, reflexed. Pericarp: berries four, ovate, pointed, single-seeded. Seeds roundish.—*Essential Character.* Sheath roundish, stalked, single-flowered. Corolla none. Berries four, with single seeds.

Spathium Chinense, or thong pin ngau of the Chinese.—The stem is erect, three feet high, herbaceous, with spreading, flaccid, furrowed branches. Leaves heart-shaped, lanceolate, five-ribbed, smooth, scattered, with clasping foot-stalks. Spikes linear, nearly terminal. Such is the description of Loureiro, who conceives the above plant to be somewhat akin to the Linnæan aponegeton, and also to potamogeton.—Native of marshy places, near Canton in China.

SPATHOSE, in Mineralogy, having a crystalline structure.

SPATHULARIA [from the spatulate shape of its head, consisting of only one species], in Botany, a genus of the class fungi, order cryptogamia natural order of fungi.—*Essential Character.* Club-shaped. Head compressed, membranous, decurrent at each side.

Spathularia flavida, or yellow spathularia.—The stalk is about a finger's length, half an inch in diameter, hollow, rather uneven, whitish. Head vertical, obtuse, hollow, somewhat obovate, or inversely heart-shaped, pale buff, or yellowish, discharging innumerable minute seeds, in the form of smoke, from marginal pores.—Mr. Crowe first discovered it at Cossey, near Norwich, very abundant, growing erect, in tufts.

SPATI CAPE, the north point of the island of Cerigo. Lat. 36. 34. N. long. 22. 49. E.

To SPA'TIATE, *v. n.* [*spatiar*, Lat.] To rove; to range; to ramble at large.—Confined to a narrow chamber, he could *spatiate* at large through the whole universe. *Bentley.*

To SPA'TTER, *v. a.* [*spatz*, *spit*, Sax.] To sprinkle with dirt, or any thing offensive.

The pavement swam in blood, the walls around
Were *spatter'd* o'er with brains. *Addison.*

To throw out any thing offensive.—His forward voice now is to speak well of his friend; his backward voice is to *spatter* foul speeches, and to detract. *Shakspeare.*—To asperse; to defame.

To SPA'TTER, *v. n.* To spit; to sputter as at any thing nauseous taken into the mouth.

They, fondly thinking to allay
Their appetite with gust, instead of fruit
Chew'd bitter ashes, which the offended taste
With *spattering* noise rejected. *Milton.*

SPA'TTERDASHES, *s.* Coverings for the legs by which the wet is kept off.

SPA'TTLE, *s.* [*spatz*, Sax.] Spittle. *Obsolete.*—The *spattle* of their tongues. *Bale.*

SPA'TTLING POPPY, *s.* The *papaver spumeum*.
SPA'TULA, *s.* [*spatha*, *spathula*, Lat.] A spatule or slice.—*Spatula* is an instrument used by apothecaries and surgeons in spreading plaisters. *Quincy.*—In raising up the hairy scalp smooth with my *spatula*, I could discover no fault in the bone. *Wiseman.*

SPA'VIN, *s.* [*espavent*, Fr., *spavano*, Italian.] This disease in horses is a bony excrescence or crust as hard as a bone, that grows on the inside of the hough, not far from

the elbow, and is generated of the same matter by which the bones or ligaments are nourished: it is at first like a tender gristle, but by degrees comes to hardness. *Farrier's Dict.* See FARRIERY.

They've all new legs and lame ones; one would take it,
That never saw them pace before, the *spavin*,
And springhalt reign'd among them. *Shakspeare.*

SPA'VINED, *adj.* Diseased with spavin.—A fifth wondered what a plague I could do at the fair with a blind, *spavined*, galled hack, that was only fit to be cut up for a dog-kennel. *Goldsmith.*

SPAUNTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-west of Pickering.

SPAW, *s.* [from *Spaw* in Germany, a place famous for mineral waters.] A mineral water.

To SPAWL, *v. n.* [*spæchlan*, to spit, Saxon.] To throw moisture out of the mouth.

What mischief can the dean have done him,
That Traulus calls for vengeance on him?
Why must he sputter, *spawl*, and slaver it,
In vain against the people's favourite. *Swift.*

SPAWL, *s.* [*spatz*, Saxon.] Spittle; moisture ejected from the mouth.

Of spittle she lustration makes;
Then in the *spawl* her middle finger dips,
Anoints the temple, forehead, and the lips. *Dryden.*

SPA'WLING, *s.* Moisture thrown out of the mouth.—His marble floors with drunken *spawlings* shine. *Congreve.*

SPAWN, *s.* [*spene*, *spenne*, Teut., *spane*, Old Eng.] Rarely used in the plural.—The eggs of fish, or of frogs.

Masters of the people,
Your multiplying *spawn* how can he flatter
That's thousand to one good one? *Shakspeare.*

When the *spawns* on stones do lie. *Fletcher.*—Any product or offspring. In contempt.

'Twas not the *spawn* of such as these
That dy'd with Punick blood the conquer'd seas,
And quasht the stern Æacides. *Roscommon.*

To SPAWN, *v. a.* To produce as fishes do eggs.—Some report a sea-maid *spawn'd* him. *Shakspeare.*—To generate; to bring forth. In contempt.—What practices such principles as these may *spawn*, when they are laid out to the sun, you may determine. *Swift.*

To SPAWN, *v. n.* To produce eggs as fish.—The fish having *spawned* before, the fry that goes down hath had about three months growth under ground, when they are brought up again. *Brown.*—To issue; to proceed. In contempt.—It is so ill a quality, and the mother of so many ill ones that *spawn* from it, that a child should be brought up in the greatest abhorrence of it. *Locke.*

SPA'WNER, *s.* The female fish.—The barbel, for the preservation of their seed, both the *spawner* and the melter, cover their *spawn* with sand. *Walton.*

SPAXTON, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 4½ miles west of Bridgewater.

To SPAY, *v. a.* [*spado*, Latin.] To castrate female animals.—The males must be gelt, and the sows *spay'd*; the *spay'd* they esteem as the most profitable, because of the great quantity of fat upon the inwards. *Mortimer.*

To SPEAK, *v. n.* pret. *spake* or *spoke*; part. pass. *spoken.* [*spæcan*, Saxon; *spreken*, Teut.]—To utter articulate sounds; to express thoughts by words.—*Speaking* is nothing else than a sensible expression of the notions of the mind, by several discriminations of utterance of voice, used as signs, having by consent several determinate significancies. *Holder.*—To harangue; to make a speech.—Many of the nobility made themselves popular by *speaking* in parliament, against those things which were most grateful

to his majesty, and which still passed notwithstanding their contradiction. *Clarendon*.—To talk for or against; to dispute.—A knave should have some countenance at his friend's request. An honest man, sir, is able to *speak* for himself when a knave is not. *Shakspeare*.

When he had no power,
He was your enemy; still *spake* against
Your liberties and charters. *Shakspeare*.

To discourse; to make mention.
Were such things here as we do *speak* about?
Or have we eaten of the insane root,
That takes the reason prisoner? *Shakspeare*.

To give sound.
Make all your trumpets *speak*, give them all breath,
Those clam'rous harbingers of blood and death. *Shakspeare*.

To *SPEAK with*. To address; to converse with.
Thou can'st not fear us, Pompey, with thy sails,
We'll *speak with* thee at sea. *Shakspeare*.

I *speak with* one that came from thence,
That freely render'd me these news for true. *Shakspeare*.
To *SPEAK, v. a.* To utter with the mouth; to pronounce.

You, from my youth,
Have known and try'd me, *speak* I more than truth?
Sandys.

To proclaim; to celebrate.
It is my father's music
To *speak* your deeds, not little of his care
To have them recompens'd. *Shakspeare*.

To address; to accost.—If he have need of thee, he will deceive thee, smile upon thee, put thee in hope, *speak* thee fair, and say, What wantest thou? *Eccelus*.—To exhibit; to make known.

Let heaven's wide circuit *speak*
The Maker's high magnificence. *Milton*.

SPEAK, or SPEKE, a village of England, in Lancashire, situated on the Mersey, south-east of Liverpool. Population 409.

SPEAKABLE, adj. Possible to be spoken.—Having the power of speech.

Say,
How can'st thou *speakable* of mute? *Milton*.

SPEAKER, s. One that speaks.—Common *speakers* have only one set of ideas, and one set of words to clothe them in; and these are always ready at the mouth. *Swift*.—One that speaks in any particular manner.

Horace's phrase is *torret jecur*;
And happy was that curious *speaker*. *Prior*.

One that celebrates, proclaims, or mentions.
After my death, I wish no other herald,
No other *speaker* of my living actions,
To keep mine honour from corruption. *Shakspeare*.

SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, a member of the house, elected by a majority of the votes, to act as chairman, or president, in putting questions, reading briefs or bills, keeping order, reprimanding the refractory, adjourning the house, &c.

The first thing done by the commons upon the first meeting of a parliament, is to choose a speaker, who is to be approved of by the king; and who, upon his admission, begs his majesty, that the commons, during their sitting, may have free access to his majesty, freedom of speech in their own house, and security from arrests.

SPEAKING, s. Discourse; act of expressing in words.—Laying aside all malice, and all guile, and hypocrisies, and envies, and evil *speaking*s.

SPEAKING TRUMPET, s. A stentorophonic instrument; a trumpet by which the voice may be propagated to a great distance.

That with one blast through the whole house does bound,
And first taught *speaking-trumpet* how to sound. *Dryden*.

SPEAR, s. [*ysper*, Arm. and Welsh; deduced from *ber*, veru, or *par*, lancea; *ppeape*, Saxon; *spere*, Teut. *spear*, old Fr., *sparum*, low Lat.]—A long weapon with a sharp point, used in thrusting or throwing; a lance.

Those brandishers of *speares*,
From many cities drawn, are they that are our hinderers. *Chapman*.

Nor wanted in his grasp
What seem'd both shield and *spear*. *Milton*.

A lance generally with prongs, to kill fish.
To *SPEAR, v. a.* To kill or pierce with a spear.

To *SPEAR, v. n.* To shoot or sprout. This is commonly written *spire*.—Let them not lie lest they should *spear*, and the air dry and spoil the shoot. *Mortimer*.

SPEAR, CAPE, a cape on the east coast of Newfoundland. Lat. 47. 34. N. long. 52. 13. W.

SPEARGRASS, s. Long stiff grass.—Tickle our noses with *speargrass* to make them bleed; and then beslobber our garments with it. *Shakspeare*.

SPEARMAN, s. One who uses a lance in fight; one who carries a spear: formerly *spearer*.—A pensioner [is] a gentleman about his prince, alwaic redie with his *speare*; a *spearer*. *Barret*.

The *spearman's* arm by thee, great God, directed,
Sends forth a certain wound. *Prior*.

SPEARMINT, in Botany. See *MENTHA*.
SPEARWORT, the English name of the ranunculus flammæus.

SPECCHIA DI-PRETI, a town of the south-east part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra d'Otranto, with a population of 1500.

SPECCIA. See *SPEZZIA*.
SPECHT, or SPEIGHT, s. [*specht*, Teut.] A woodpecker. *Sherwood*.

SPE'CIAL, adj. [*special*, Fr., *specialis*, Lat.] Noting a sort or species.—A *special* idea is called by the schools a species. *Watts*.—Particular; peculiar.—Appropriate; designed for a particular purpose.—O'Neal, upon his marriage with a daughter of Kildare, was made denizen by a *special* act of parliament. *Davies*.—Extraordinary; uncommon.

He bore
A paunch of the same bulk before;
Which still he had a *special* care
To keep well cramm'd with thrifty fare. *Hudibras*.

Chief in excellence.
The king hath drawn
The *special* head of all the land together. *Shakspeare*.

SPE'CIAL, s. A particular. *Unused*.—Promises of long life annexed to some *specials* of his service. *Hammond*.

SPECIALITY, or SPE'CIALTY, s. [*specialité*, French.] Particularity.—On these two general heads all other *specialties* are dependent. *Hooker*.—*Speciality* of rule hath been neglected. *Shakspeare*.

To *SPE'CIALIZE, v. a.* To particularize; to mention specially.—Our Saviour *specialising* and nominating the places. *Sheldon*.

SPE'CIALLY, adv. Particularly above others.—Not in a common way; peculiarly.—If there be matter of law that carries any difficulty, the jury may, to deliver themselves from an attain, find it *specially*. *Hale*.

SPE'CIES, s. [*species*, Latin.] A sort; a subdivision of a general term.—A *special* idea is called by the schools a *species*; it is one common nature that agrees to several singular individual beings: so horse is a *special* idea or *species* as it agrees to Bucephalus, Trot, and Snowball. *Watts*.—Class of nature; single order of beings.—He intendeth the care of *species* or common natures, but let-
teth

teth loose the guard of individuals or single existencies. *Brown.*

For we are animals no less,
Although of different *species*.

Hudibras.

Appearance to the senses; any visible or sensible representation.—An apparent diversity between the *species* visible and audible is, that the visible doth not mingle in the medium, but the audible doth. *Bacon.*—Representation to the mind.—Wit in the poet, or wit-writing, is no other than the faculty of imagination in the writer, which searches over all the memory for the *species* or ideas of those things which it designs to represent. *Dryden.*—Show; visible exhibition. *Not in use*; and perhaps, in the following quotation, misprinted for *spectacles*.—Shews and *species* serve best with the people. *Bacon.*—Circulating money.—As there was in the splendour of the Roman empire a less quantity of current *species* in Europe than there is now, Rome possessed a much greater proportion of the circulating *species* of its time than any European city. *Arbutnot.*—Simplex that have place in a compound medicine.

SPECIFIC, or SPECIFIC, *adj.* [*specifique*, French; *species* and *facio*, Lat.] That makes a thing of the species of which it is.

That thou to truth the perfect way may'st know,
To thee all her *specific* forms I'll show.

Denham.

Specific gravity is the appropriate and peculiar gravity or weight which any species of natural bodies have, and by which they are plainly distinguishable from all other bodies of different kinds. *Quincy.*—Appropriated to the cure of some particular distemper. It is usually applied to the *arcana*, or medicines that work by occult qualities.—The operation of purging medicines have been referred to a hidden property, a *specific* virtue, and the like shifts of ignorance. *Bacon.*

SPECIFIC, *s.* A specific medicine.—If she would drink a good decoction of sarsa, with the usual *specifics*, she might enjoy a good health. *Wiseman.*

SPECIFICALLY, *adv.* In such a manner as to constitute a species; according to the nature of the species.—He must allow that bodies were endowed with the same affections then as ever since; and that, if an axehead be supposed to float upon water which is *specifically* lighter, it had been supernatural. *Bentley.*

To SPECIFICATE, *v. a.* [*facio*, Lat.] To mark by notation of distinguishing particularities.—Man, by the instituted law of his creation, and the common influence of the divine goodness, is enabled to act as a reasonable creature, without any particular, *specificating*, concurrent, new imparate act of the divine special providence. *Hale.*

SPECIFICATION, *s.* Distinct notation; determination by a peculiar mark.—This *specification* or limitation of the question hinders the disputes from wandering away from the precise point of enquiry. *Watts.*—Particular mention.—The constitution here speaks generally without the *specification* of any place. *Ayliffe.*

To SPECIFY, *v. a.* [*specifier*, Fr.] To mention; to show by some particular marks of distinction.—As the change of such laws as have been *specified* is necessary, so the evidence that they are such must be great. *Hooker.*

SPECILLUM, a probe.

SPECIMEN, *s.* [*specimen*, Lat.] A sample; a part of any thing exhibited, that the rest may be known.—Several persons have exhibited *specimens* of this art before multitudes of beholders. *Addison.*

SPECIOUS, *adj.* [*specieus*, Fr., *speciosus*, Lat.] Shewy; pleasing to the view.—Divers sorts are of them, [shewy:] some *specious* and beautiful to the eye. *Bp. Richardson.*—Plausible; superficially, not solidly right; striking at first view.—This is the only *specious* objection which our Romish adversaries urge against the doctrine of this church in the point of celibacy. *Atterbury.*

SPECIOUSLY, *adv.* With fair appearance.—Piety is opposed to hypocrisy and insincerity; especially to that personated devotion under which any kind of impiety is

went to be disguised, and put off more *speciously*. *Hammond.*

SPECIOUSNESS, *s.* The state or quality of being specious. *Ash.*

SPECK, *s.* [rpecca, Sax.] A small discoloration; a spot.—Every *speck* does not blind a man. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

To SPECK, *v. a.* To spot; to stain in drops.

Each flower—

Carnation, purple, azure or *speck'd* with gold. *Milton.*

SPECKHAVEN, a harbour on the west coast of West Greenland. Lat. 64. N. long. 49. 40. W.

SPECKLE, *s.* Small speck; little spot.

To SPECKLE, *v. a.* To mark with small spots.

So dreadfully towards him did pass,
Fore lifting up aloft his *speckled* breast,
And often bounding on the bruised grass,
As for great joy of his new comen guest.

Spenscr.

Speckled vanity

Will sicken soon and die,

And leprous sin will melt from earthly mould.

Milton.

SPECKLEDNESS, *s.* State or quality of being speckled. *Ash.*

SPECKT, or SPREIGHT, *s.* A woodpecker. See SPECHT.

SPECTABILES, among the Romans, a title of honour given to the second rank, or degree of nobility, under the Roman emperors.

SPECTACLE, *s.* [*spectacle*, Fr., *spectaculum*, Lat.] A show; a gazing stock; any thing exhibited to the view as eminently remarkable.

In open place produc'd they me,

To be a public *spectacle* to all.

Shakspeare.

We are made a *spectacle* unto angels and men. 1 *Cor.*

—Any thing perceived by the sight.

Forth riding underneath the castle wall,

A dunghill of dead carcasses he spy'd,

The dreadful *spectacle* of that sad house of pride. *Spenser.*

Glasses to assist the sight.

The sixth age shifts

Into the lean and slipper'd pantaloon,

With *spectacles* on nose and pouch on side. *Shakspeare.*

SPECTACLED, *adj.* Furnished with spectacles.

All tongues speak of him, and the bleared sights

Are *spectacled* to see him.

Shakspeare.

SPECTACULAR, *adj.* Relating to spectacles or shows.

—The *spectacular* sports were concluded. *Dr. Hicckes.*

SPECTATION, *s.* [*spectatio*, Lat.] Regard; respect.

—This simple *spectation* of the lungs is differenced from that which concomitates a pleurisy. *Harvey.*

SPECTATOR, *s.* [*spectateur*, Fr., *spectator*, Lat.] A looker-on; a beholder.

More

Than history can pattern, though devis'd

And play'd, to take *spectators*.

Shakspeare.

SPECTATORSHIP, *s.* Act of beholding.—Thou stand'st i' th' state of hanging, or of some death more long in *spectatorship*, and crueller in suffering. *Shakspeare.*—Office or quality of a spectator.—Your first rudimental essays in *spectatorship* were made in my shop, where you often practised for hours. *Spectator.*

SPECTATRESS, or SPECTATRIX, *s.* [*specatrix*, Lat.] This form in English is given by Cotgrave under the French term *spectatrice*.] A female looker-on or beholder.

Amid the general wreck see where she stands,
Like Helen, in the night when Troy was sack'd,
Spectatress of the mischief which she made.

Rowe.

SPECTRE, *s.* [*spectrum*, Lat., *spectre*, Fr., "an image or figure, seen either truly or but in conceit; thence a spirit, ghost, vision, apparition, fantasm." *Cotgrave*.] Apparition; appearance of persons dead.

The ghosts of traitors from the bridge descend,
With bold fanatic *spectres* to rejoice.

Dryden.

Something made preternaturally visible.

SPE/CTRUM, *s.* [Lat.] An image; a visible form.—This prism had some veins running along within the glass, from the one end to the other, which scattered some of the sun's light irregularly, but had no sensible effect in increasing the length of the coloured *spectrum*. *Newton.*

SPE/CULAR, *adj.* [*specularis*, Lat.] Having the qualities of a mirror or looking-glass.

It were but madness now t' impart
The skill of *specular* stone.

Donne.

Assisting sight. *Speculaire*, "clear, transparent; also, helping the sight." *Cotgrave.*

The hidden way

Of nature would'st thou know, how first she frames
All things in miniature? thy *specular* orb
Apply to well-dissected kernels; lo!
In each observe the slender threads
Of first-beginning trees.

Philips.

Affording view. See the first sense of SPECULATION.
—Look once more, ere we leave this *specular* mount.
Milton.

SPECULARIA, among the Romans, a kind of window casements, which were used before glass was introduced for this purpose. They consisted of transparent stones, called *lapides speculares*.

To SPE/CULATE, *v. n.* [*speculer*, Fr., *specular*, Lat.] To meditate; to contemplate; to take a view of any thing with the mind.—Consider the quantity, and not *speculate* upon an intrinsical relation. *Digby.*

To SPE/CULATE, *v. a.* To consider attentively; to look through with the mind.—Man was not meant to gape, or look upward, but to have his thoughts sublime; and not only behold, but *speculate* their nature with the eye of the understanding. *Brown.*

SPECULATION, *s.* [*speculation*, Fr., *specula*, Lat., a watch-tower.] Examination by the eye; view.—Here, as from a turret of *speculation*, you may look down upon the vulgar. *Codrington.*—Mental view; intellectual examination; contemplation.

Thenceforth to *speculations* high or deep,
I turned my thoughts; and with capacious mind
Consider'd all things visible.

Milton.

A train of thoughts formed by meditation.—From him Socrates derived the principles of morality, and most part of his natural *speculations*. *Temple.*—Mental scheme not reduced to practice.—This terrestrial globe, which before was only round in *speculation*, has since been surrounded by the fortune and boldness of many navigators. *Temple.*—Power of sight. *Not in use.*

Thy bones are marrowless; thy blood is cold;
Thou hast no *speculation* in those eyes
Thou star'st with.

Shakspeare:

SPE/CULATIST, *s.* A speculator. *Speculatist* is perhaps the older word.—Let the profoundest *speculatist*, or curious practitioner, turn the edge of his wit which way he will to find some new thing; yet sure it is, the same things have been. *Granger.*

SPE/CULATIVE, *adj.* [*speculatif*, Fr.] Given to speculation; contemplative.—If all other uses were utterly taken away, yet the mind of man being by nature *speculative*, and delighted with contemplation in itself, they were to be known even for mere knowledge sake. *Hooker.*—Theoretical: notional; ideal; not practical.—Some take it for a *speculative* platform, that reason and nature would that the best should govern, but no wise to create a right. *Bacon.*—Belonging to view.—My *speculative* instruments. *Shakspeare.*—*Speculative* glasses. *Hooke.*—Prying.—Counsellors should not be too *speculative* into their sovereign's person. *Bacon.*

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SPE/CULATIVELY, *adv.* Ideally; notionally; theoretically; not practically.—It is possible that a man may, *speculatively*, prefer the constitution of another country, or an Utopian of his own, before that of the nation where he is born and lives. *Swift.*

SPE/CULATIVENESS, *s.* The state of being speculative. *Scott.*

SPE/CULATOR, *s.* One who forms theories.—He is dexterous in puzzling others, if they be not thorough-paced *speculators* in those great theories. *More.*—[*Speculateur*, Fr.] An observer; a contemplator.—Although lapidaries and questuary enquirers affirm it, yet the writers of minerals, and natural *speculators*, conceive the stones which bear this name to be a mineral concretion. *Brown.*—A spy; a watcher.—All the boats had one *speculator*, to give notice when the fish approached. *Broome.*

SPE/CULATORY, *adj.* Exercising speculation; calculated for spying or viewing.—Both these were nothing more than *speculatory* out-posts to the Akeman-street. *Warton.*

SPE/CULUM, *s.* [Lat.] A mirror; a looking-glass; that in which representations are formed by reflection.—A rough and coloured object may serve for a *speculum*, to reflect the artificial rainbow. *Boyle.*—An instrument in Surgery, used for inspection, as a *speculum ani*, *vaginae*, &c.

SPE/D. The preterite and part. passive of *specd*.—Barbarossa, *sped* of that he desired, staid not long at Constantinople, but shaped his course towards Italy. *Knolles.*

SPEECH, *s.* [ʃpɛc, Sax., from *To speak*] The power of articulate utterance; the power of expressing thoughts by vocal words.—Though our ideas are first acquired by various sensations and reflections, yet we convey them to each other by the means of certain sounds, or written marks, which we call words; and a great part of our knowledge is both obtained and communicated by these means, which are called *speech*. *Watts.*—Language; words considered as expressing thoughts.—In *speech* be eight parts. *Accidence.*

The acts of God to human ears

Cannot without process of *speech* be told.

Milton.

Particular language as distinct from others.—There is neither *speech* nor language but their voices are heard among them. *Ps. Comm. Pr.*—Any thing spoken.

A plague upon your epileptic visage!

Smile you my *speeches* as I were a fool.

Shakspeare.

Talk; mention.

The duke did of me demand

What was the *speech* among the Londoners,
Concerning the French journey.

Shakspeare.

Speech of a man's self ought to be seldom. *Bacon.*—Oration; harangue.—The constant design of these orators, in all their *speeches*, was to drive some one particular point. *Swift.*—Declaration of thoughts.—I with leave of *speech* implor'd, reply'd. *Milton.*

To SPEECH, *v. n.* To harangue; to make a speech.—And were you supposed to have the tongues of angels and archangels to *speech* it in your behalf, their words would have no weight! *Pyle.*

SPE/ECHLESS, *adj.* Deprived of the power of speaking; made mute or dumb.—*Speechless* with wonder, and half dead with fear. *Addison.*—Mute; dumb.

From her eyes

I did receive fair *speechless* messages.

Shakspeare.

SPE/ECHLESSNESS, *s.* State of being speechless.—Immediate preceding signs of death are great quietness—the memory confused, *speechlessness*, cold sweats. *Bacon.*

To SPEED, *v. n.* pret. and part. pass. *sped* and *spedded*. [*spoeden*, Teut. *spuden*, Germ. to hasten; ʃpɛð, Sax., celerity, haste. Wachter derives the word from the Gr. σπευδα, (*speudo*,) to hasten; Serenius from the Goth. *spo*, the same.] To make haste; to move with celerity.

So well they *sped* that they become at length
Unto the place whereas the Paynim lay,

Devoid of outward sense and native strength,
Covered with charmed cloud from view of day. *Spenser.*

[*ſpēbian, to grow rich, Sax.*] To have good success.

Timon is shrunk, indeed ;
And he, that's once deny'd, will hardly *speed*. *Shakspeare.*
Now if this suit lay in Bianca's pow'r,
How quickly should you *speed*. *Shakspeare.*

To succeed well or ill.

Make me not sighted like the basilisk :
I've looked on thousands, who have *sped* the better
By my regard, but kill'd none so. *Shakspeare.*

To have any condition good or bad.

Ships heretofore in seas like fishes *sped*,
The mightiest still upon the smallest fed. *Waller.*

To *SPEED*, *v. a.* To dispatch in haste ; to send away
quickly.

The tyrant's self, a thing unused, began
To feel his heart relent with mere compassion ;
But not dispos'd to truth or mercy then,
To *sped* him thence home to his habitation. *Fairfax.*

To hasten ; to put into quick motion.

Satan, tow'rd the coast of earth beneath,
Down from the ecliptic *sped* with hop'd success,
Throws his steep flight in many an airy wheel. *Milton.*

To furnish in haste ; to dispatch ; to destroy ; to kill ; to
mischief ; to ruin.

A dire dilemma ! either way I'm *sped* ;
If foes, they write ; if friends, they read me dead. *Pope.*

To execute ; to dispatch.—Judicial acts are all those writ-
ings and matters which relate to judicial proceedings, and
are *sped* in open court at the instance of one or both of the
parties. *Ayliffe.*—To assist ; to help forward.

Speed the soft intercourse from soul to soul,
And waft a sigh from Indus to the Pole. *Pope.*

To make prosperous ; to make to succeed.—He was chosen,
though he stood low upon the roll, but by a very unusual
concurrence of providential events, happened to be *sped*. *Fell.*

SPEED, *s.* [*ſpēð, Sax.*] Quickness ; celerity.—We
observe the horse's patient service at the plough, his *speed*
upon the highway, his docibleness and desire of glory.
More.—Haste ; hurry ; dispatch.—When they strain
to their utmost *speed*, there is still the wonted distance between
them and their aims : all their eager pursuits bring them no
acquiescence. *Dec. of Chr. Picty.*—The course or pace of a
horse.—He that rides at high *speed*, and with a pistol, kills
a sparrow flying. *Shakspeare.*—Success ; event of any
action or incident.

The prince your son, with mere conceit and fear
Of the queen's *speed* is gone. *Shakspeare.*

SPEED (John), a considerable elucidator of the geo-
graphy and history of Great Britain, was born in 1552, at
Farrington, in Cheshire. He was brought up to the trade of
a tailor, and was, by apprenticeship, a freeman of the com-
pany of Merchant Tailors in London, when that patron of
learning, Sir Fulk Greville, discovering his attachment to the
antiquities of his country, gave him an allowance to enable
him to quit his employment, and devote himself to study.
His first publication was entitled "The Theatre of the Em-
pire of Great Britain, presenting an exact Geography of the
Kingdoms of England, Scotland, and Ireland, and the ad-
jacent Isles." This work consisted of a set of maps of all the
countries, with the ichnography of the principal towns, and
brief descriptions, mostly copied from Camden's Britannia.
His greatest work, the labour of fourteen years, entitled
"The History of Great Britain," appeared in the year 1614.
It is chiefly a compilation from preceding authors and ma-

nuscript records, comprising all the events in British history,
from the invasion of Julius Cæsar to the reign of king
James I. ; and though rude in style, yet it contained more
valuable matter, and is better arranged, than the preceding
chronicles. *Speed*, it is said, was the first English writer
who, slighting Geoffrey's tales, fell upon more solid matter.
He was assisted by Sir Robert Cotton, who revised and cor-
rected the whole. Mr. *Speed* was author of a work, entitled
"A Cloud of Witnesses, or Genealogies of Scripture."

SPEEDFUL, *adj.* [*Sax. ſpēdig, lucky, prosperous.*] Serviceable ; useful. *Not in use.*—All things been lefful
to me, but not alle thingis ben *spedeful*. *Wicliffe.*
SPEEDILY, *adv.* With haste ; quickly.

Post *speedily* to your husband,
Shew him this letter. *Shakspeare.*

SPEEDINESS, *s.* The quality of being speedy.
SPEEDSVILLE, a post village of the United States, in
Tioga county, New York.

SPEEDWELL, *s.* *Fluellin*. A plant. See *VERONICA*.
SPEEDWELL MILLS, a post village of the United States
in Barnwell district, South Carolina.

SPEEDY, *adj.* [*ſpudig, Germ. The Sax. ſpēdig, is
prosperous.*] Quick ; swift ; nimble ; quick of dispatch.

How near's the other army ?
—Near, and on *speedy* foot : the main descry
Stands on the hourly thought. *Shakspeare.*

Let it be enough what thou hast done,
When spotted deaths ran arm'd through every street,
With poison'd darts, which not the good could shun,
The *speedy* could outfly, or valiant meet. *Dryden.*

SPEEN, *WOOD*, a township of England, in Berkshire ;
2 miles north-west of Speenhamland.

SPEENE, or *SPEENHAMLAND*, a village and parish of
England, in the county of Berks, anciently a considerable
town, the *Spinae* of the Romans. The present mansion, called
Donnington castle, was erected out of the ruins of its ancient
castrum. It was once the residence of the poet Chaucer.

To *SPEET*, *v. a.* [*ſpeten, Teut., to pierce or bore*] To
stab.—If he came [he] bad me not sticke to *speet* hym.
Com. of Gamm. Gurton's Needle.

SPEETON, a township of England, East Riding of York-
shire ; 5 miles north-north-west of Bridlington.

SPEGEL (Haquin), a Swedish archbishop, distinguished
for great learning, was born in 1645. In 1685, he was
made bishop of Skara, was translated thence to Linköping
in 1691, and, in 1711, was raised to the archiepiscopal
chair. After the fire which took place at Linköping in 1700,
he contributed, by his active exertions, towards rebuilding
the Gymnasium, a service of so much importance, that the
remembrance of it is still preserved by an inscription on the
front of the building. He augmented the library with a
great number of excellent books, and on the death of his
son, presented to it a collection of medals and coins. He
died at Upsal, in 1714. His works are chiefly on divinity.

SPEIGHT, *s.* A woodpecker. See *SPECHT*.

SPEIGHT'S TOWN, a sea-port of the island of Barbadoes,
situated on the west coast, near the northern part of the island,
formerly much frequented by the Bristol traders, and thence
called Little Bristol. It is a handsome town, containing
about 350 well built houses, disposed into four regular and
spacious streets, of which the longest is called Jew's-street,
and, with the other three, leads down to the water side. The
planters in that part of Barbadoes called Scotland, used to
ship off their goods here for England, which occasioned
the building of storehouses, and a concourse of people, to the
great advantage of the town ; but most of the trade is now
removed to Bridge Town. It has a spacious church, dedi-
cated to St. Peter, which gave name to its precinct, and is
the place where the monthly sessions are held. The town
is defended by two forts, besides another in Heathcote's bay
some distance south of the town. One of the above forts
stands in the middle of the town, and is mounted with 14
guns.

guns; the other, which has 32, stands at the north end of it: but there are, besides these, several platforms on the sea shore. Lat. 13. 15. N. long. 58. 31. W.

SPEIGLETOWN, a village of the United States, in Rensselaer county, New York.

SPEISSE, in Mineralogy, a name given by the Germans, and other workers on cobalt, to a sort of impure regulus of bismuth, sometimes occurring in their processes.

SPELDHURST, a parish of England, in Kent; 3 miles north-west of Tunbridge Wells. The ancient church of this parish was destroyed by lightning in 1791. Over its porch, cut in stone, are the arms of the duke of Orleans, who was taken prisoner at the battle of Agincourt, by Richard Waller, of Gromebridge, at whose house he was kept nearly 25 years, and was a great benefactor to the church of Speldhurst. Population 1909.

SPELK, *s.* [ʃpel, Sax., fascia, a kind of splint applied to fractured limbs. See **LYE**.] A splinter; a small stick to fix on thatch with. *A northern word.*

SPELL, *s.* [ʃpel, Sax., a word.] A charm consisting of some words of occult power.—Thus Horace uses words: *Sunt verba et voces quibus hunc lenire dolorem, Possis.*

Thou durst not thus disparage glorious arms,
Had not *spells*
And black enchantments, some magician's art,
Arm'd thee or charm'd thee strong.

Milton.

A turn of work; a vicissitude of labour. [From the Sax. *ʃpelhan*, *vices alicujs obire*. *Lyc.*] Their toil is so extreme as they cannot endure it above four hours in a day, but are succeeded by *spells*: the residue of the time they wear out at coytes and kayles. *Carew*.—[ʃpel, Sax. *historia, narratio*.] A tale. *Obsolete.*

Now—hearken to my *spell*:
Of bataille, and of chevalrie,
Anon I will you tell.

Chaucer.

To **SPELL**, *v. a.* pret. and part. pass. *spelled* or *spelt*. [*spellen*, Teut., *spellen*, Germ., which Wachter derives from *spalten*, to split, to divide.] To write with the proper letters.—In the criticism of *spelling*, the word *satire* ought to be with *i*, and not with *y*; and if this be so, then it is false *spelled* throughout. *Dryden*.—To read by naming letters singly.

I never yet saw man,
How wise, how noble, young, how rarely featur'd,
But she would *spell* him backward: if fair fac'd,
She'd swear the gentleman should be her sister. *Shakspeare.*

To read minutely; to discover by petty characters or marks.—In this manner to sit *spelling* and observing divine justice upon every accident, and slight disturbance, that may happen humanly to the affairs of men, is but another fragment of his broken revenge. *Milton*.—To charm.

I have you fast:
Unchain your spirits now with *spelling* charms,
And try if they can gain your liberty. *Shakspeare.*

[*ʃpelhan*, Sax.] To relate; to teach.
Might I that holy legend find,
By fairies *spelt* in mystic rhymes,
To teach enquiring later times,
What open force, or secret guile,
Dash'd into dust the solemn pile.

Warton.

To **SPELL**, *v. n.* To form words of letters.
What small knowledge was, in them did dwell;
And he a god, who could but read or *spell*. *Dryden.*

To read.
When gowns, not arms, repell'd
The fierce Epirote, and the African bold,
Whether to settle peace, or to unfold
The drift of hollow states, hard to be *spell'd*. *Milton.*

To read unskilfully.—As to his understanding, they bring

him in void of all notion, a rude unwritten blank, sent into the world only to read and *spell* out a God in the works of creation. *South.*

SPELL, in Sea Language, the period in which a sailor, or gang of sailors, is employed in a particular exercise, from which they are relieved as soon as the limited time expires. Such are the spells to the hand-lead in sounding, to the pump, to look out on the mast-head, &c., and to steer the ship, which last is generally called the *trick*.

SPELLO, a decayed town of Italy, in the Popedom. It corresponds to the *Hispellum* of the ancients, and was sacked by the troops of the emperor Charles V., in 1529; 10 miles south-west of Nocera.

SPELMAN (Sir Henry), an eminent antiquary, was born in 1562, and having received a common education, he was sent at an early age to Trinity College, Cambridge; and he was afterwards entered of Lincoln's-Inn, in order that he might study the common law, but his inclination was not favourable to legal pursuits: he seems to have given a decided preference to polite literature and antiquities, but these pursuits were cut short by an early marriage, which induced him to settle upon his estate, and take the management of it in his own hands. He did not, however, abandon his antiquarian pursuits, and while he was yet a very young man, he drew up a treatise in the Latin language, entitled "Aspilogia," relative to armorial bearings, and made transcripts of several charters of monasteries in Norfolk and Suffolk. He was also associated to the original society of antiquarians, and became the intimate friend of Cotton, Camden, and other favourers of that class of studies. In 1604 he was elected high sheriff of the county, and about the same time communicated to Speed a description of Norfolk, for his work entitled, "The Theatre of Great Britain." In 1607 he was nominated by the king one of the commissioners for settling the titles to lands and manors in certain counties of Ireland, and on this occasion he went thrice to that country. Farming, in time, became irksome, because he probably found it unprofitable: he sold off his stock, let his estates, and came with his family to London, and he chose as the particular object of his studies, the antiquities of English law, as deducible from English records; but he was diverted from his object by an incidental subject. During his residence on his estate, he had purchased the lands of two suppressed monasteries, and being involved in a troublesome law-suit in order to defend his title, he began to entertain scruples concerning the secularization of property once belonging to the church. He now, 1613, drew up a work with the title "De non temerandis Ecclesiis; Churches not to be violated; a Tract of the Rights and Respects due to Churches, &c." He practised what he pleaded for in theory, and being possessed of an impropriation in Norfolk, he devoted the profits of it to the augmentation of the vicarage.

By king James he was knighted, and on the revival of the society of antiquarians in 1614, he attended as one of the old members; on which occasion he wrote "A Discourse concerning the Original of the four Law Terms of the Year." He also wrote a tract in answer to an apology for archbishop Abbot, who had accidentally killed his game-keeper, in which he maintained that the prelate by that act had ceased from his office. Having in the mean time continued his enquiries into legal antiquities, he found that the knowledge of the Saxon language was absolutely necessary to his purpose, which he accordingly set about obtaining, and in 1621 he printed a specimen of his proposed work, which was so much approved, that several eminent scholars urged him to its completion. In 1626 he published the first part, under the title of "Archeologus, in modum Glossarii ad rem antiquam posteriorem." Notwithstanding the applause of the learned, the author was not encouraged by the sale of his work to publish the second part during his life, which he had fully prepared for the press. It was, however, given to the world after his decease, and the whole was entitled "Glossarium Archaologicorum." The object of this work is the explanation of obsolete words occurring in our

our laws; and it is not a mere glossary, but contains various entire dissertations. He next employed himself in a collection of English laws and statutes, from the Conquest to the ninth year of Henry III., which was printed in 1617. Having been appointed, on the recommendation of archbishop Laud, one of the commissioners for enquiring into the exaction of fees in the courts and offices throughout England, he published, in 1628, a tract "De Sepultura," or concerning "Burial Fees." Before our author had finished his glossary, he engaged in another considerable work, which was "A History of the English Councils." Of this he published in 1639 the first part, which included the period from the first introduction of the Christian religion into England to the Norman Conquest. A second part, only a small portion of which was of his own composition, was printed several years after his death. In the same year he instituted a Saxon lecture in the university of Cambridge, which he intended to have rendered perpetual, but his design was defeated. In 1639 also he published a treatise on "The original Growth, Propagation, and Condition of Tenures by Knights' Service in England," in which he displayed an extent of learning that proved his faculties to be perfect, notwithstanding his advanced age. He lived to complete his 80th year, and died at London in 1641. By the king's order, he was interred in Westminster Abbey. After his decease, two posthumous works of his were published, viz. "A Treatise concerning Tytlies," printed in 1647; and "A History of Sacrilege," which was destroyed at the printer's by the great fire of London, and a plan of it only preserved.

SPELMAN (Edward), great-grandson of the preceding, resided at High-House, near Rougham, Norfolk, where he died in 1767. He had devoted himself to literature, and made himself known by several publications of considerable worth. The first of these was a translation of Xenophon's "Cyropedia," in two volumes, 8vo. A more elaborate work was entitled "The Roman Antiquities of Dionysius Halicarnassensis," translated into English, with notes and dissertations, in four volumes, quarto, a work which stands high among our translations from the Greek language. One of these dissertations was a version of a fragment of Polybius on government, particularly that of Rome, to which the translator prefixed a preface, applying the system of Polybius to the English government. This was printed without his name in 1743. He also printed for the use of his friends, and for private distribution only, "A Dissertation on the Presence of the Patricians in the Tributa Comititia;" and after his death the Rev. Mr. Lemon published in 1775, a posthumous work of this writer, entitled "Additional Observations on the Greek Accents." *Gen. Biog.*

SPELONCATO, a town in the island of Corsica, towards its northern extremity. Population only 800.

SPELSBURY, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Chipping Norton. Population 554.

To **SPELT**, *v. n.* [Germ., *spalten*, to divide.] To split; to break.—Feed geese with oats, *spelled* beans, barley meal, or ground malt mixed with beer. *Mortimer.*

SPELT, *s.* [jpelc, Saxon; *spelte*, Teut.] A kind of corn.—Lentiles, and millet, and fitches, [in the margin *spell.*] *Ezek.*

SPE'LTR, *s.* A kind of semi-metal.—Metals in fusion do not flame for want of a copious fume, except *speltier*, which fumes copiously, and thereby flames. *Newton.*

SPENCE, *s.* [*despence*, old Fr.] A buttery; a larder; a store-room; a place where any provisions are kept. "*Spence*, cellarium, promptuarium." Prompt. Parv. See also Cotgrave, and Sherwood. This is the old sense of the word, and is still so used in many places. *Spens*, Cornish. In some parts of the north, it is used for a kind of little parlour or inner room of a country-house. *Todd.*—As hotel in the *spence*. *Chaucer.*

SPENCE (Joseph), was educated at New College, Oxford, of which he afterwards became a fellow. He took the degree of M.A. in 1727, and in that same year made himself

known by "An Essay on Pope's Translation of the Odyssey." In 1747, he brought to the press his principal work, entitled "Polymetis, or an Enquiry concerning the Agreement between the Works of the Roman Poets and the Remains of ancient Artists, being an Attempt to illustrate them mutually by each other." This was a folio work, with plates. The performance was extremely well received by the public, and still stands high in the literary world. His last publication was an edition of "Holdsworth's Remarks on Virgil," with notes, and additional observations of his own. In the month of August, 1758, he was found drowned in a piece of water in his own garden at Byfleet. He was studious to draw obscure merit into notice, of which he gave evident proofs by his printed account of Stephen Duck; Robert Hill, the learned tailor; and Mr. Blacklock, the blind poet. He had collected some MS. volumes of anecdotes of eminent writers, communicated by Pope and others, which are still in the possession of the duke of Newcastle's family, and from which Dr. Johnson was permitted to make extracts for his lives of the Poets. *Gen. Biog.*

SPE'NCER, *s.* A butler; one who has the care of the spence: *cellarius*, Lat. *Obsoete.*

SPENCER, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 51 miles west-south-west of Boston. Population 1453.

SPENCER, a post township of the United States, and capital of Tioga county, New York; 190 miles west-south-west of Albany. Population 3128. The village, containing the county buildings, is pleasantly situated on Catetant creek.

SPENCER, CAPE, a pointed rocky cape, the east point of entrance into Spencer's gulf, on the south shore of New Holland. Lat. 35. 18. S. long. 136. 55. E.

SPENCER, CAPE, a very conspicuous high bluff promontory on the west coast of North America, so called by Vancouver, in honour of Earl Spencer. It is the west point of entrance into Cross sound. Lat. 58. 13. N. long. 223. 36. E.

SPENCER'S GULF, a large gulf on the south coast of New Holland, which extends 185 miles into the interior of the country, in a direction north-north-east. The entrance of the gulf from Cape Catastrophe on the west, and Cape Spencer on the east, is 48 miles wide. It was explored to within seven or eight leagues of its termination by Captain Flinders, who then saw land at a distance before him. Cape Spencer lies in Lat. 35. 18. S. long. 136. 55. E.

SPENCER MOUNTAINS, mountains of the United States, in Maine; 10 miles east of Moosehead lake.

SPENCERTOWN a post village of the United States, in Columbia county, New York.

To **SPEND**, *v. a.* [pendan, Saxon; *spendere*, Ital.] To consume; to exhaust; to waste.

Our cannons' malice vainly shall be *spent*
Against the invulnerable clouds. *Shakspeare.*

Money is brought into England by nothing but *spending* here less of foreign commodities than what we carry to market can pay for. *Locke.*—To bestow as expense; to expend as cost.—Wherefore do ye *spend* money for that which is not bread? *Isa.*—To bestow for any purpose: often with *upon*.

When we can intreat an hour to serve,
Would *spend* it some words *upon* that business,
If you would grant the time. *Shakspeare.*

To effuse.

Coward dogs
Most *spend* their mouths, when what they seem to threaten
Runs far before them. *Shakspeare.*

To squander; to lavish.—The whole of our reflections terminate in this, what course we are to take to pass our time; some to get, and others to *spend* their estates. *Wake.*—To pass; to suffer to pass away.—He *spends* his life with his wife, and remembereth neither father nor mother. *1 Esdr.*—To waste; to wear out; to exhaust of force.

They

They bend their bows, they whirl their slings around;
Heaps of *spent* arrows fall and strew the ground. *Dryden.*

To fatigue; to harass.

Some *spent* with toil, some with despair oppress'd,
Leap'd headlong from the heights, the flames consum'd the
rest. *Dryden.*

TO SPEND, v. n. To make expense.—He *spends* as a person who knows that he must come to a reckoning. *South.*—To prove in the use.—Butter *spent* as if it came from the richer soil. *Temple.*—To be lost or wasted.—The sound *spendeth* and is dissipated in the open air; but in such concaves it is conserved and contracted. *Bacon.*—To be employed to any use.—There have been cups and an image of Jupiter made of wild vines; for the vines that they use for wine are so often cut, that their sap *spendeth* into the grapes. *Bacon.*

SPENDER, s. One who spends.—Let not your recreations be lavish *spenders* of your time; but healthful, short, and apt to refresh you. *Bishop Taylor.*—A prodigal; a lavisher.—Bishop Morton told the commissioners, who were to levy the benevolence, if they met with any that were sparing, to tell them that they must needs have, because they laid up; and if they were *spenders*, they must needs have, because it was seen in their port and manner of living. *Bacon.*

SPENDING, s. [ˈspɛndɪŋ, Sax.] Act of consuming, expending, or bestowing for any purpose.—The great mogul's wealth and revenues, treasure, or *spendings*. *Whitlock.*

SPENDTHRIFT, s. A prodigal; a lavisher.—Most men, like *spendthrift* heirs, judge a little in hand better than a great deal to come. *Locke.*

SPENNITHORNE, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 1½ mile north-east of Middleham.

SPENSER (Edmund), one of the most distinguished English poets, was born in London about the year 1553. His parents were in humble life, though in his works he claims kindred with the noble family of the Spensers of Northamptonshire. Of his early education nothing is known, but it appears that he was, in 1569, a sizer in Pembroke College, Cambridge. He, in proper time, took his degrees, and in 1576 he was candidate for a fellowship, but was not successful. This disappointment was probably the cause of his quitting the university, which he left for a residence among his relations in the north of England. Here, it appears, he fell in love, and the object of his affection, whom he has commemorated under the name of Rosalindo, after leading him through the usual vicissitudes of a love adventure, finally deserted him. This circumstance is said to have given him a turn to pastoral poetry, since his "Shepherd's Complaint," which is devoted to amorous complaining, was his first publication. It was published in 1579, and dedicated, under the signature of Immerito, to Mr. afterwards Sir Philip Sidney. He was introduced to the acquaintance of this celebrated person by his friend, Mr. Gabriel Harvey, previously to his publishing his "Shepherd's Calendar," which sufficiently refutes a tale concerning his being first made known to Sir Philip Sidney by a passage in the Faery Queen, and the munificent reward which he received on the occasion. He was, however, patronized by Sir Philip, who introduced him to his uncle, the favourite Leicester, who engaged him as an agent for his service in foreign countries, but it is uncertain whether he ever actually travelled abroad; at any rate he could not have been long in that employ, since, in 1580, he was attending Lord Grey of Wilton, appointed Lord-deputy of Ireland, as his secretary. In this situation he displayed those talents for business, which are usually, though often very unjustly, represented as incompatible with a poetic genius. He returned with Lord Grey in 1582, and was probably some years an attendant at court, and in 1586 he had a grant from the crown of upwards of 3000 acres of land in the county of Cork, out of the vast forfeited property of the earl of Desmond. In 1587 Spenser went over

to take possession of this estate; his residence was the castle of Kilcolman, near Doneraile, where, in the style of pastoral poetry, he describes himself as keeping his sheep "under the Mole, that mountain hore," and frequenting the coolly shade of the green alders by the Mulla's shore. Here it appears he received a visit in 1589 from Sir Walter Raleigh, who had been a commander in Ireland under Lord Grey, and had obtained a large grant of land from the crown. Spenser celebrates him in a poem under the title of the "Shepherd of the Ocean," and highly extols his courtesy and elegant accomplishments. At this period Spenser was engaged in the composition of his "Faery Queen," of which he had written the three first books; and accompanying Raleigh the next year to England they were published, with a dedication to queen Elizabeth, and an introductory letter addressed to Raleigh, explaining the plan of the whole projected work. Elizabeth rewarded his poetry and dedication by a pension of 50*l.* per annum, granted in 1591, and he has been termed her laureat, though the title was not formally conferred upon him. Spenser returned to Ireland in 1591, and married a country lass of low degree; but the disturbances in that country forced him to return to England in 1595. Here he printed some poems, and drew up a plan for the entire reduction of that island in the space of two winters, which work he completed in the next year, giving it the title of "A View of the State of Ireland." This piece remained in MS. till it was printed in 1633 by Sir James Ware, who bestows much applause on the information and judgment displayed in it, though he intimates, that it was deficient in moderation: and it is generally admitted, that in what he says concerning the history and antiquities of the country there are many errors, and the fanciful turn of a poet is more conspicuous than the sobriety of a judicious enquirer. In 1596 he published a new edition of his "Faery Queen," with additional books, which only completed half his original design. It was currently reported, that the remaining six books were lost by a servant, who was entrusted to carry them to England, which certainly would be one of the greatest disasters that a poet could possibly suffer, and might greatly contribute to break his spirits: the fact, however, is very questionable, and certainly does not stand on good authority: it is most probable that they were never finished. He returned to Kilcolman in 1597, but Tyrone having in the next year broken out in rebellion, and overrun the county of Cork, Spenser was obliged to take refuge with his wife in England, leaving all his property to the spoil and ravages of the insurgents. His house was burnt, and with it, it is said, an infant who had not been removed. Reduced to a state of indigence, he sunk under his misfortunes in the same year, or in the beginning of the next. He was interred in Westminster Abbey, at the expense of the earl of Essex, several of his brother poets attending, and throwing into his grave copies of panegyrical verses. A monument was afterwards erected to his memory by Anne, the celebrated countess of Dorset. Of his family and posterity nothing is known, except that one of his descendants was restored in the reign of Charles II. to so much of the estate in Ireland, as he could prove had belonged to his ancestor; and that another, or perhaps the same, came to England in the reign of William with a similar claim, which was allowed. The works of Spenser are animated with a fervent spirit of piety, and a pure and exalted morality; and though he certainly paid an assiduous court to the great, he was not guilty of that meanness of adulation which was too much practised even by some eminent persons of that age. The homage paid to the queen was great, but it was deemed impossible to carry this too far.

The poetical reputation of Spenser is chiefly supported by his great work the "Faery Queen," for his pastorals will scarcely please a correct taste; and though critics admit that there is much occasional beauty of sentiment and harmony of versification in his sonnets, hymns, and other miscellaneous pieces, yet on the whole they are scarcely distinguished from the effusions of tedious pedantry common in that age. But the "Faery Queen" is justly regarded as one of the

great compositions in English poetry, and has lost none of its value by antiquity. "If its plan is singularly involved, its allegories often defective and obscure, and its adventures extravagant, it is, however, absolutely unrivalled for the fertility of its conceptions, and the vividness of its painting.

SPENT, at Sea. The seamen say a ship hath spent any mast or yard, when it is broken down by foul weather.

SPE'RABLE, *adj.* [*sperabilis*, Lat.] Such as may be hoped. *Not in use.*—We may cast it away, if it be found but a bladder, and discharge it of so much as is vain and not *sperable*. *Bacon*.

SPE'RATE, *adj.* [*speratus*, Lat.] Hoped to be not irrecoverable. *Unused but good.*—We have spent much time in distinguishing between the *sperate* and desperate debts of the clergy. *Repr. to 2. Anne, in Ecton's St. of 2. Anne's Bounty, (1721).*

To SPERE, *v. a.* [γρησαν, Sax.] To ask; to enquire. Still a northern word, and in some parts pronounced *sper*.

SPERGULA [Dimin. a *spargendo*; from its throwing the seed about], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia, natural order of caryophyllei.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved: leaflets ovate, obtuse, concave, spreading, permanent. Corolla: petals five, ovate, concave, spreading, bigger than the calyx, undivided. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ ovate. Styles five, from erect-reflex, filiform. Stigmas thickish. Pericarp: capsule ovate, straight, one-celled, five-valved. Seeds very many, depressed-globular, girt with an emarginate rim. It is distinguished from *cerastium* by its entire petals. *Spergula pentandra* has only five stamens.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved. Petals five, entire. Capsule ovate, one celled, five-valved.

1. *Spergula arvensis*, or corn-spurrey.—Root annual, small, fibrous. Stems numerous, a foot in length, nearly upright, round, clammy and paniced on the upper part, leafy, jointed; joints swelling, globular. Stipules in pairs at the joints. Leaves in whorls, forming two bundles, about eight in each, the inner ones gradually smaller, linear; having a deep furrow on the back, blunt, and yellow at the tip. Panicle dichotomous, divaricating, many-flowered. Peduncles one-flowered, pubescent. Seeds kidney-shaped.—Native of Europe, in sandy soils; also of Barbary and Siberia. It flowers here from July to September.

2. *Spergula pentandra*, or little corn-spurrey.—Leaves whorled; flowers five-stamened; seeds depressed, winged.—Native of Germany, France, Spain, and Ireland.

3. *Spergula nodosa*, or knotted spurrey.—Leaves opposite, awl-shaped, even; the upper ones in bundles: calyx nerveless. Root perennial, fibrous. Stems several, four inches or more in length. This elegant little plant recommends itself to our notice by the beauty of its verdure, and the delicacy of its flowers; the largeness and pure whiteness of which, joined to its place of growth, serve to distinguish it from those plants which have some resemblance to it in the foliage.—It is found in the greatest part of Europe, in moist situations, frequently among herbage, and sometimes out of walls, rocks or stones. It flowers in July and August.

4. *Spergula larcina*, or larch-leaved spurrey.—Leaves opposite, awl-shaped, ciliate, in bundles. Root perennial. Stem decumbent, branched, leafy, round.—Native of Siberia.

5. *Spergula saginoides*, or smooth awl-shaped spurrey.—Leaves opposite, awl-shaped, awnless, naked; peduncles solitary, very long, smooth. Stem procumbent, two inches high.—Native of Sweden, Switzerland, France, Siberia, and Scotland, on mountains.

6. *Spergula subulata*, or ciliated awl-shaped spurrey.—Leaves opposite, awl-shaped, awned, ciliate; peduncles solitary, very long, somewhat hairy. Root perennial, fibrous. Stems several, an inch or two in length, procumbent and rooting, then upright.—Native of Denmark, Sweden, Germany, and Britain; on sandy commons, and dry gravelly pastures.

7. *Spergula glabra*, or smooth spurrey.—Leaves opposite,

bundled, filiform, smooth; flowers ten-stamened; petals bigger than the calyx. Stems procumbent, round, knotted.—Native of Piedmont, in Alpine pastures.

Propagation and Culture.—The usual time for sowing the seed of Spurrey for feeding cattle, is in July or August, that the plants may acquire strength before winter. As Spurrey will grow on the poorest sand, it may be cultivated in many places to good advantage, where no grass will thrive well; and by feeding it off the ground, the dung of the cattle or sheep will improve the land.

For saving the seeds, they should be sown in April, that they may ripen in August. The crop must be cut before the heads are quite brown, otherwise the seeds will soon scatter.

About twelve pounds of seed is sufficient to sow an acre. Harrow the ground well before the seeds are sown. In the Low countries, this plant succeeds a crop of corn. The second sort is now much cultivated in Flanders; for though it is a much lower plant, they esteem it to be superior to the other.

SPERLINGA, a small town of the north-east of Sicily, in the Val di Demona, remarkable for having afforded an asylum to some French refugees during the dreadful massacre in 1282, called the Sicilian Vespers. The town has a strong fortress situated on an eminence, and is 3 miles west of Nicosia, and ten south of Mistretta.

SPERLING (Otto), son of a person of the same name, was born at Christiana, in Norway, in 1634. He received the early part of his education at Copenhagen; he afterwards studied at the gymnasium of Bordsesholm, and then at the academy of Helmstadt. He became a member of the Royal Society of London, in 1700, and died in 1715. He was author of a great many works, among which were the following: "Monumentum Hamburgense Benedictinum;" "De Danicæ Linguæ ac Nominis antiqua Gloria et Prærogativa inter Septentrionales," &c. *Gen. Biog.*

SPERLONGA, a town of the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro. Population 1200; 10 miles north-west of Gaeta.

SPERM, *s.* [*sperme*, French; *sperma*, Lat.] Seed; that by which the species is continued.—There is required to the preparation of the *sperm* of animals a great apparatus of vessels, many secretations, concoctions, reflections, and circulations. *Ray.*

SPERMACE'TI, *s.* [Lat.] Corruptly pronounced *parmasitty*.—A particular sort of whale affords the oil whence this is made; and that is very improperly called *sperma*, because it is only the oil which comes from the head of which it can be made. It is changed from what it is naturally, the oil itself being very brown and rank. The peculiar property of it is to shoot into flakes, not much unlike the chrySTALLIZATION of salts; but in this state 'tis yellow, and has a certain rankness, from which it is freed by squeezing it between warm metalline plates: at length it becomes perfectly pure, inodorous, flaky, smooth, white, and, in some measure, transparent. *Quincey.*—Spermaceti was much used in medicine, but is quite inefficacious. It makes good candles.

SPERMACE'CE [so named by Dillenius, from *σπερμα*, a seed; and *ακικη*, a sharp point: these plants having prickly seeds], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of stellatæ, rubiaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth small, four-toothed, superior, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, funnel shaped: tube cylindric, slender, longer than the calyx: border four-parted, from spreading reflexed, obtuse. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla, or standing out. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish, compressed, inferior. Style simple, but cloven above. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: capsules two, connate, oblong, gibbous on one side, flat on the other; obtuse, each two-horned. Seeds solitary, roundish. *Spermacoce hispida* has a turbinatè-campanulate, erect corolla. R. It is manifestly one capsuled and two-celled; not two capsuled. M. Gartner describes *Spermacoce tenuior* as one capsuled. The fruit is always two-celled, bipartite when ripe, naked or covered with a thin crust,

crust, like a capsule, and therefore nearest to *Diodia*. *Swartz.*
—*Essential Character.* Corolla one-petalled, funnel-shaped. Seeds two, two-toothed.

1. *Spermaceo tenuior*, or slender button-weed.—Smooth; leaves lanceolate; stamens included; flowers whorled; seeds rough-haired. This plant grows to the height of two feet and a half. It is an annual plant.—Native of Carolina and the West Indies, where it is very common.

2. *Spermaceo latifolia*, or broad-leaved button-weed.—Smooth; leaves ovate; stamens standing out; flowers in whorls; stipules ciliate. This is an herbaceous plant, rising with several tetragonal knotty branching stems the length of two or three feet.—Native of Cayenne, growing by pathways and in open plains.

3. *Spermaceo cærulescens*, or blue-flowered button-weed.—Leaves ovate, acute, somewhat hairy, even; stipules equalling the whorled flowers; stamens standing out. This differs from the preceding in having the stems lower.—Native of Cayenne and Guiana by way sides.

4. *Spermaceo alata*, or winged-staked button-weed.—Smooth; leaves ovate, the uppermost sessile; flowers terminating in heads; stem four-cornered, winged, creeping.—Native of Cayenne and Guiana on the banks of rivers.

5. *Spermaceo hexagona*, or hexagon-stalked button-weed.—Smooth; leaves ovate, petioled; flowers terminating; stem prostrate, six-cornered.—Native of Guiana, on the banks of rivers.

6. *Spermaceo prostrata*, or prostrate button-weed.—Smooth; leaves subsessile, elliptic, acute; flowers in whorls; stem prostrate.—There are besides in this genus *Spermaceo radicans*, *longifolia*, *verticillata*, *sumatrensis*, *aspera*, *hirta*, *villosa*, *hispida*, *scabra*, *articularis*, *stricta*, *linifolia*, *procumbens* and *spinosa*.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds on a hot-bed, and when the plants come up transplant them on to a fresh hot-bed to bring them forward, and afterwards treat them in the same way with other tender plants from the East and West Indies. If they are placed in a stove, they will live through the winter, and produce good seeds the following year.

SPERMA'TIC, or **SPERMA'TICAL**, *adj.* [*spermatique*, Fr.] Seminal; consisting of seed.—The primordials of the world are not mechanical, but *spermatical* or vital. *More.*—Metals and sundry meteors rude shapes have no need of any particular principle of life, or *spermatical* form, distinct from the rest or motion of the particles of the matter. *More.*—Belonging to the sperm; containing sperm.—Two different sexes must concur to their generation: there is in both a great apparatus of *spermatie* vessels, wherein the more spiritous part of the blood is, by many digestions and circulations, exalted into sperm. *Ray.*

To SPERMATIZE, *v. n.* To yield seed. *Unused.*—Aristotle affirming that women do not *spermatize*, and confer a receptacle rather than essential principles of generation, deductively includes both sexes in mankind. *Brown.*

SPERMOLOGIST, *s.* [*σπερμολογος*, Gr.] One who gathers or treats of seeds. *Unused.*

SPERNAL, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 3 miles north of Alcester.

SPERONI, or **SPERONE**, a distinguished Italian writer of the 16th century, was the son of Bernardino Speroni, a noble of Padua, in which city he was born in the year 1500. He studied under the famous Pomponazzo, in Bologna. He took his degrees in medicine and philosophy, and was appointed, at an early age, reader in logic and professor of philosophy, in the university; but being greatly attached to his former preceptor Pomponazzo, he returned to Bologna, which he did not quit till the death of that eminent man. When residing as an envoy at Venice, his speeches before the senate were so much admired, that it has been affirmed, that the judges and advocates belonging to other courts would leave their own places to hear his pleadings. He died at the great age of 88, and was interred with every kind of funeral honour. As a writer, his style is spoken of with singular approbation. One of his most celebrated compositions was a tra-

gedy, entitled "Canace and Macareus," which is regarded as one of the best productions of that class which the age exhibited.

To SPERSE, *v. a.* [*sparsus*, Lat.] To disperse; to scatter. *Not now in use.* See *To SPARSE*.

The wrathful wind,
Which blows cold storms, burst out of Scythian mew
That *spers'd* those clouds. *Spenser.*

SPESSART, a great forest of the west of Germany, partly in Franconia, partly in the circle of the Upper Rhine. It extends over a lofty mountain ridge, comprising 200,000 acres, and consists chiefly of oak, beech and similar trees. It now belongs to Bavaria.

To SPET, *v. a.* [*spætan*, Sax.] To eject from the mouth; to throw out. This is the old form of *spit*.

Mysterious dame,
That ne'er art call'd, but when the dragon womb,
Of Stygian darkness *spets* her thickest gloom,
And makes one blot of all the air. *Milton.*

SPET, *s.* Spittle; matter ejected from the mouth. *Obsolete.*

The speckled toad—
Defies his foe with a fell *spet*. *Lovelace.*

SPETCHLEY, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 3 miles east-south-east of Worcester.

SPETISBURY, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 3 miles south-east of Blandford Forum.

SPEUSIPPUS, an Athenian philosopher, son of Eurymedon, by a sister of Plato, succeeded his uncle in his school, over which he presided during eight years, commencing from the death of that illustrious philosopher, in the year B. C. 348. He placed the statues of the Graces in the school built by Plato in the academy, and closely adhered to the doctrines of his master. His manners, however, were not conformable to his philosophy: he was vindictive, and a lover of pleasure. He was likewise avaricious, and, contrary to the practice of Plato, exacted a gratuity from his disciples. He was admitted to the friendship of Dion while he resided at Athens; and it was by his instigation that Dion, invited by the malcontents of Syracuse, undertook his expedition against Dionysius (see Dion. in Vit. Corn. Nep.) Becoming paralytic in his limbs, he was conveyed to and from the academy in a carriage of some kind. Upon one of these occasions, he met Diogenes, and saluted him; but the cynic, instead of returning the civility, upbraided him for enduring to live under such an infirmity. To which Speusippus replied, "that he did not live in his limbs, but in his mind." At length, overcome by his maladies, and wearied of life, he took poison, and put an end to his existence, having first constituted Xenocrates his successor in the academy. He was author of several philosophical treatises, which have perished; though it is said that they were held in such estimation by Aristotle, that he gave three talents for them.

To SPEW, *v. a.* [*speiwan*, Goth., *spīyan*, Saxon, *spewen*, Germ., *spouwen*, Teut.] To vomit; to eject from the stomach.

A swordfish small him from the rest did sunder,
That in his throat him pricking softly under
His wide abyss, him forced forth to *spew*,
That all the sea did roar like heaven's thunder,
And all the waves were stain'd with filthy hue. *Spenser.*

To eject; to cast forth.
When earth with slime and mud is cover'd o'er,
Or hollow places *spew* their watery store. *Dryden.*

To eject with loathing.—Contentious suits ought to be *spewed* out, as the surfeit of courts. *Bacon.*

To SPEW, *v. n.* To vomit; to ease the stomach.
He could have haul'd in
The drunkards, and the noises of the inn;
But better 'twas that they should sleep or *spew*,
Than in the scene to offend or him or you. *B. Jonson.*

SPE'WER, *s.* [*spīwepe*, Saxon.] One who spews.
SPEW'ING,

SPE'WING, *s.* [ʃpiːmɪʒ, Saxon.] Act of vomiting.— Shameful *spewing* shall be upon thy glory. *Hab.*

SPE'WY, *adj.* Wet; foggy. A provincial word.—The lower vallies in wet Winters are so *spewy*, that they know not how to feed them. *Mortimer.*

SPEXHALL, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2½ miles north-by-west of Halesworth.

SPEY, a large and rapid river of Scotland, in Invernesshire, which has its rise from Loch Spey, in Badenoch, about 16 miles south from Fort Augustus, and after a course pretty steadily, from south-west to north-east, of about 96 miles in all its windings, it falls into the sea, about 8 miles east off Elgin, carrying with it the waters of a track of country of about 1300 square miles. Its waters, a few miles from its source, spread out into a small lake of the same name; from which, resuming the form of a river, it proceeds with great rapidity towards the east, and is joined by the Truim water at Ballidbeg, and by the Trommie water, where the river expands into a loch of about two miles long and one broad, called the Inch loch. It is then joined by the Feshie, at Inverishe, by the Liunie water at Rothienurchus, by the Nethy near Abernethy, by the Dulnain from the north, opposite Abernethy, by the Avon at Inveravon, by the Dullan water between Aberlour and Rothes, and by a great number of lesser streams through the whole of its course. This has been often said to be the largest river in Scotland, but can be reckoned only the third, as the Tay and the Tweed collect their waters from a greater extent of country. It is, however, liable to sudden and great inundations, and at such times may contain more water than perhaps any other river in Scotland under similar circumstances. It runs in general through the best wooded country in Scotland. The great cause of its inundations and apparent magnitude is, that it runs remarkably slow for 30 miles of its course. Its fall from the Boat of Bog, near Gordon castle, to the sea, a distance of only three miles, is 60 feet. The vast forest of Abernethy, Glenmore, and Kingussie, are upon its banks, or on its tributary streams; and extend, in succession, 30 or 40 miles together, and in which is some of the finest timber in Scotland. To prevent the trees from being shivered in passing the great cataracts of the river, small canals have been cut out in the banks, with a gentle slope, down which the wood is directed. It gives name to the district of Strathspey, famous for its soldiers and music. The Spey abounds with trout and salmon, the fishery for which is very valuable.

SPEYMOUTH, a parish of Scotland, in Morayshire, which derives its name from its local situation at the estuary of the Spey. Population 1124.

SPEZIA, GULF OF, the ancient *Portus Lunæ*, a bay of the Mediterranean, in the eastern part of the Genoese territory. It is large and secure; its length from Porto Venere to the town of Spezia, being about 5 miles, and its breadth at the mouth nearly the same. It is defended from the agitation of the sea by several small islands, while on the land side it is sheltered by mountains. It might thus be rendered a naval station of importance. To the naturalist, it presents a very curious phenomenon. In the middle of the bay there rises from the depth of 38 feet, a spring of fresh water, which having a strong current, occupies at the surface a space several yards square, before mixing with the surrounding salt water.

SPEZIA, or SPECCIA, a town of the Sardinian states, in the Genoese territory, delightfully situated on an eminence at the bottom of the gulf of Spezia. Since the advantages of its maritime situation have been duly appreciated, this town has been rapidly increasing in population, and contains at present upwards of 4000 inhabitants. It is tolerably regular, and not ill built. The number of villas with plantations of olives and fruit trees, joined to its naturally picturesque situation, render the environs delightful; 8 miles west-north-west of Sarzana, and 40 south-east of Genoa. Lat. 44. 4. 10 N. long. 9. 52. 0. E.

SPEZZIA, a small island of Greece, in the gulf of Napoli, about 20 miles from Napoli di Romania. It is only six

miles long and two broad; the channel separating it from the continent is only a mile and a half in width. The town called also Spezzia, contains about 3000 inhabitants; and there belong to the island between 50 and 60 barks or petty vessels. The surface of the island is rugged, and its soil unproductive. Its ancient name was *Taparenius*; the inhabitants now call it Petza.

SPEZZIA-PAULO, an islet to the south of Spezzia, known to the inhabitants under the name of Aristera.

To SPHA'CELATE, *v. a.* To affect with gangrene. *Unused.*—The long retention of matter *sphacelates* the brain. *Sharp.*

To SPHA'CELATE, *v. n.* To mortify; to suffer the gangrene.—The skin, by the great distension, having been rendered very thin, will, if not taken away, *sphacelate*, and the rest degenerate into a cancerous ulcer. *Sharp.*

SPHA'CELUS, *s.* [σφακελος, Gr.] A gangrene; a mortification.—It is the ground of inflammation, gangrene, *sphacelus.* *Wiseman.*

SPHACHIA, a mountainous district of the island of Candia, which is covered with snow during a great part of the year. It is inhabited by a tribe called Sphachiotes, said to be descended from the ancient Cretans, and who, like the Mainotes, have been all along independent of the Turks. Like the Mainotes, they are an active and spirited race, deriving their chief subsistence from their herds and flocks, but engaging occasionally in piratical excursions. Their government is a kind of republic, and their magistrates are elected from their own body. They have a small town called Sphachia or Sfachia.

SPHACTERIA, SPHAGIA, or SPAGIA, a small island on the west coast of the Morea, celebrated as the refuge of 800 Spartans, after the loss of a sea fight in the beginning of the Peloponnesian war. It is in the neighbourhood of Navurin, about 12 miles north of Modon.

SPHÆRANTHUS [from σφαῖρα, a sphere; ἀνθος, a flower. Globe-flower], in Botany, a genus of the class syn-genesia, order polygamia segregata, natural order of compositæ capitatæ, cinarocephalæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx, common globular, imbricate: scales acuminate, permanent, clothing the universal receptacle all round. Perianth, partial, many-flowered, five-leaved, within each scale of the common calyx solitary, composed of linear, equal, erect leaflets. Corolla: partial corollets hermaphrodite few (three) in the disk: females in the ray commonly five. Proper of the hermaphrodite one petalled, funnel-shaped, with a five-cleft patulous border.—Female awl-shaped, tubular, with a very small trifold closed mouth. Stamina in the hermaphrodites; filaments five, capillary, very short. Antlier cylindrical, tubular, longer than the corolla. Pistil in the hermaphrodites: germ wasting. Style longer, thicker. Stigma quite simple. In the females: germ oblong. Style bristle-shaped, length of the stamens. Stigma two-parted. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds in the hermaphrodites none: in the females solitary, oblong, naked. Receptacle: common scaly: partial naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx eight-flowered. Corolla tubular hermaphrodite and indistinct female. Receptacle scaly. Down none.

1. Sphæranthus Indicus, or Indian sphæranthus.—Stem herbaceous, about a foot high, which rarely branches out. Leaves about three inches long, and an inch broad in the middle, of a deep green, alternate. The peduncles come out from the side of the stalk, opposite to the leaf, about two inches long, and sustain one globular head of flowers at the top, of a purplish red colour. Seeds oblong, situated on the margin.—Native of the East Indies.

2. Sphæranthus Africanus, or African sphæranthus.—Leaves decurrent, ovate, serrate; peduncles round. This differs from the preceding chiefly in having the peduncles round, without any decurrent wings.—It grows naturally at Madras, and also at La Vera Cruz, in New Spain.

3. Sphæranthus Chinensis.—Leaves sessile, pinnatifid. This is a much smaller plant than the first, with pinnate-sinuate leaves. Peduncles curled with the decurrent wings.—Native of India.

4. Sphæranthus

* 4. *Sphæranthus Cochinchinensis*.—Leaves decurrent, oblong, quite entire; heads cordate-ovate; subsessile; terminating. Stem herbaceous.—Native of China and Cochinchina, among the corn, and in gardens.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in a hot-bed in the spring, and keep the plants in a stove or glass-case, giving them as much air as possible in warm weather.

SPHÆRIA, in Botany, a genus of plants of the class cryptogamia, order fungi, natural order fungi, angiocarpi (*Juss.*)—*Essential Character*. Capsules roundish, immersed, filled with jelly, which becomes a mass of minute, volatile seeds.

Persoon enumerates 184 species, distributed in eight sections, of each of which we shall exhibit examples.

I.—Causelcent, elongated or club-shaped; their substance either fleshy or corky. Ten species.

1. *Sphæria militaris*, or scarlet club-shaped sphæria.—Tawny red, or scarlet, fleshy, club-shaped. Head granulated with the prominent seed-vessels.—Persoon mentions this as found in autumn, after great rains, in wet grassy places, always growing out of some dead caterpillar or chrysalis. Withering appears to confound various distinct species under the above name.

2. *Sphæria hypoxylon*, or horned black sphæria.—Clustered, branched, compressed; black and hairy below; whitish and dilated at the summits. Its usual height is three or four inches. The hairiness is most copious and coarse on young plants. In winter, the summits of the branches are plentifully covered with white powder, but destitute of the spherical seed-vessels.—Common on rotten stumps or posts, in woods and gardens, making a conspicuous appearance.

3. *Sphæria digitata*, or finger-shaped black sphæria.—Clustered, club-shaped, obtuse, tumid, coal-black.—Frequent on old rotten stumps in beech woods, as well as on old posts of different kinds, into which its long perennial roots deeply insinuate themselves; the fungus springing up every autumn, in the shape of numerous, simple or divided, hard, black, rough, finger-like bodies; whitish at the summit while young, and tapering below into very slender stalks.

II.—Roundish or diffuse, without a stem. Thirteen species.

4. *Sphæria concentrica*, or concentric black sphæria.—Roundish, tumid, firm, smooth, with numerous concentric internal layers. Usually coal-black, somewhat shining, in globular masses, the size of a chestnut, or larger, and of the substance and lightness of charcoal.—Frequent on the decayed stumps of ash, willow, and other trees.

5. *Sphæria fragiformis*, or orange sphæria.—Clustered, somewhat confluent, of a rusty red; black and shining within. Seed-vessels minutely papillary, in the deciduous coat. Each plant is the size of a pea, more or less, bright red when young. In an advanced state they become confluent, of a brick colour, and the coat, in which the minute seed-vessels are lodged, scales off, leaving a black central mass, mistaken by Mr. Sowerby for the seed.—Frequent on rotten branches and stumps in damp woods.

III.—Shape roundish, but various and indeterminate. Capsules scattered horizontally, with prominent orifices, often spinous. Twenty-three species.

6. *Sphæria deusta*, or large spreading sphæria.—Broad, indeterminate, thick, wavy and tumid; at first grey and powdery; finally black and rigid. Capsules sunk.—Not uncommon on old rotten stumps, over which it spreads, to the extent of two or three inches, in thick, diffuse, unequal masses.

7. *Sphæria ceratosperma*, or horn-seeded sphæria.—Roundish, convex, scattered, black. Capsules with long prominent beaks.—Found by Micheli, in woods near Florence, chiefly on dead branches of hazel, in the winter.

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IV.—Shape indeterminate. Capsules horizontal; at first marginal, and separate; afterwards confluent. Twenty-four species.

8. *Sphæria graminis*, or grass sphæria.—Linear-oblong, forming shining black spots upon leaves. Capsules globose, without prominent beaks.—Observed by Persoon on the leaves of *elymus europæus* and *lolium perenne*, in the shape of oblong, black, slightly prominent spots, various in length, which, when cut vertically, display a series of sunk globular capsules, not projecting above the surface.

The rest of this section are similarly parasitical on the leaves or stalks of various plants.

V.—Capsules crowded into an elevated tuft, or a common crustaceous receptacle; their beaks converging. Fifteen species.

9. *Sphæria ferruginea*, or rusty-crust sphæria.—Capsules black, with taper straight beaks; their bases surrounded with rusty powder.—Gathered by Persoon, on dry branches of hazel.

VI.—Capsules ranged circularly, mostly decumbent, without a crust, lodged under the cuticle of plants, their orifices generally crowded together. Fourteen species.

10. *Sphæria convergens*, or converging sphæria.—Aggregate, slightly prominent. Capsules black, ovate, with straight beaks, all meeting in a point.

VII.—Capsules distinct, forming a roundish tuft, on a common receptacle, and bursting through the cuticle of plants. Eleven species.

11. *Sphæria coccinea*, or scarlet sphæria.—Tufted, pale red. Capsules ovate, smooth. The capsules are minute, half sunk in the tumid receptacle, each with a short beak.—Said to be not unfrequent on dead branches of beech; consisting of scattered oval tufts, half the size of a pea, bordered by the reflexed torn cuticle of the branch. There is a larger and brighter-coloured variety, found by Dr. Roth on the elder.

VIII.—Capsules solitary, distinct, destitute of a receptacle. Eighty-three species.

12. *Sphæria pileata*, or cap sphæria.—Simple, globose; its mouth inversely conical, flat at the top, with a linear orifice.—Found sunk in the bark of dead branches of trees, in the early spring.

13. *Sphæria rostrata*, or needle-beaked sphæria.—Simple, naked, globose, granulated, with a very long taper-pointed beak.—Found more or less immersed in rotten beech wood.

14. *Sphæria herbarum*, or flat common sphæria.—Simple, scattered, orbicular, more or less depressed, smooth, brown, with a nipple-shaped mouth.—Copious on the dried stalks of various herbaceous plants.

15. *Sphæria moriformis*, or mulberry-shaped sphæria.—Simple, scattered, elliptical or roundish, closed, tuberculated, black. This, like the following, belongs to a tribe of species destitute of a beak, or any perceptible orifice. Its size is about equal to a mustard seed. The whole surface is tuberculated. The shape elliptical, or globular.—Said to be not unfrequent on dead branches, especially of firs.

16. *Sphæria cylindrica*, or cylindrical ball-bearing sphæria.—Simple, scattered, cylindrical, black, bearing a globe of white seeds.—Found by Tode on rotten willows, protruding from the wood in the form of minute, scattered, black points, hardly visible to a casual observer, each crowned by a little white ball of seeds.

SPHÆRISTERIUM [*σφαιριστεριον*, Gr.], in Antiquity, the seventh part of the ancient gymnasium; being that in which the youth practised tennis-playing.

SPHÆROBOLUS, [in Botany, so named by Tode, from the Gr. *σφαιρα*, a globe, and *βολος*, a cast, or throw; because the seeds are forcibly ejected, in the form of a little round ball.] See LYCOPERDON.

SPHÆROCARPUS [having a globular fruit], in Botany, a genus of cryptogamia hepatica.—*Generic Character*. Calyx ventricose, undivided. Seeds numerous, collected into a globe.

SPHÆROLOBIUM [so named by Sir J. E. Smith, from the Gr. *σφαῖρα*, a globe, and *λοβιον*, the diminutive of *λοβος*, a pod, to express the roundish form of its very small legume], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of papilionaceæ, leguminosæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one-leaf, permanent, bell-shaped, two-lipped. Corolla: papilionaceous, of five petals. Stamina: filaments ten, linear, awl-shaped. Pistil: germen stalked, roundish; style linear; stigma smooth. Pericarp on a stalk half its own length, obliquely orbicular, turgid, pointed, of one cell and two coriaceous valves. Seeds one or two, kidney-shaped.

1. *Sphærolobium vimineum*, or yellow-flowered sphærolobium.—Tube of the calyx rather shorter than the lips. Style curved from the very base, included in the keel.—Native of New Holland and Van Diemen's island.

2. *Sphærolobium medium*, or small red-flowered sphærolobium.—Tube of the calyx half the length of the lips. Corolla red.—Native of New Holland.

SPHÆROMACHIA [*σφαιρομαχία*, Gr.], in Antiquity, a particular kind of boxing, in which the combatants had balls of stone or lead in their hands, which were called *σφαῖραι*.

SPHÆROPHORON [from the Gr. *σφαῖρα*, a globe, and *φέρω*, to bear, because of the globular fructification], in Botany, a genus of plants formed of the species lichen globiferus, and lichen fragilis, &c. See **LICHEN**.

SPHAGNUM [from *Σφαγγον*, the ancient name for a kind of moss], in Botany, a genus of cryptogamia musci.—Generic Character. Male flower club shaped: anthers flat. Capsule on the same plant, sessile, covered with a lid, without any entire veil: mouth smooth.

SPHENOZYNE. See **ARCTOTIS**.

SPHENOID BONE, a bone of the cranium. See **ANATOMY**.

SPHERE, *s.* [*sphere*, Fr., *sphæra*, Lat.] A globe; an orbicular body; a body of which the centre is at the same distance from every point of the circumference.—First the sun, a mighty sphere, he fram'd. *Milton*.—Any globe of the mundane system.

What if within the moon's fair shining sphere,
What if in every other star unseen,
Of other worlds he happily should hear? *Spenser*.

A globe representing the earth or sky.
Two figures on the sides emboss'd appear;
Conon, and what's his name who made the sphere,
And shew'd the seasons of the sliding year? *Dryden*.

Orb; circuit of motion.
Half unsung, but narrower bound
Within the visible diurnal sphere. *Milton*.

Province; compass of knowledge or action; employment.
[From the sphere of activity ascribed to the power emanating from bodies.]—To be call'd into a huge sphere, and not to be seen to move in't. *Shakspeare*.

To **SPHERE**, *v. a.* To place in a sphere.
The glorious planet Sol,
In noble eminence enthron'd and *spher'd*
Amidst the rest, whose med'cinable eye
Corrects the ill aspects of planets evil. *Shakspeare*.

To form into roundness.
Light from her native east
To journey through the airy gloom began,
Spher'd in a radiant cloud; for yet the sun
Was not. *Milton*.

SPHERIC, or **SPHERICAL**, *adj.* [*spherique*, Fr. Round; orbicular; globular.—Though sounds spread round, so that there is an orb or spherical area of the sound, yet they go farthest in the forelines from the first local impulsion of the air. *Bacon*.—Planetary; relating to orbs of the planets.—We make guilty of our disasters the sun, the moon, and stars, as if we were villains by spherical predominance. *Shakspeare*.

SPHERICALLY, *adv.* In form of a sphere.—Birds build their nests *spherically*. *Wotton*.

SPHERICALNESS, or **SPHERICITY**, *s.* Roundness; rotundity; globosity.—Water consists of small, smooth, spherical particles: their smoothness makes 'em slip easily upon one another; the *sphericity* keeps 'em from touching one another in more points than one. *Cheyne*.

SPHERICKS, *s.* The doctrine of the sphere.
SPHEROID, *s.* [*σφαῖρα* and *ειδος*, Gr.; *spheroide*, Fr.] A body oblong or oblate, approaching to the form of a sphere.—They are not solid particles, by the necessity they are under to change their figures into oblong *spheroids*, in the capillary vessels. *Cheyne*.

SPHEROIDICAL, or **SPHEROIDAL**, *adj.* Having the form of a spheroid.—If the surface of the earth was covered with water, it would put on a *spheroidal*, or egg-like figure. *Adams*.

SPHEROIDITY, *s.* Deviation from a sphere. *Mason*.—The orbit of the earth has an eccentricity more than double in proportion to the *spheroidity* of its globe. *Adams*.

SPHERULE, *s.* [*sphærule*, Lat.] A little globe.—Mercury is a collection of exceeding small, vastly heavy *spherules*. *Cheyne*.

SPHERY, *adj.* Spherical; round.
What wicked and dissembling glass of mine
Made me compare with Hermia's *sphery* eyne? *Shakspeare*.

Belonging to the spheres.
Mortals, that would follow me,
Love Virtue; she alone is free:
She can teach ye how to clime
Higher than the *sphery* chime. *Milton*.

SPHÆX, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order hymenoptera, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—the mouth is formed with an entire jaw; the mandibles are horny, incurved and toothed; the lip is horny and membranaceous at the tip; it has four feelers; the antennæ have about ten articulations; the wings in each sex are plane, incumbent, and not folded; the sting is pungent, and concealed within the abdomen. The insects of this genus are said to be the most savage and rapacious of this class of beings: they attack whatever comes in their way, and by means of a poisonous sting, overcome and devour others far beyond their own size. Those of division II. are found chiefly on umbellate plants; the larvæ are without feet, soft, and inhabit the body of some insect, on whose juices they exist; the pupa has rudiments of wings.

“As the insects,” says Dr. Shaw, “of the genus *Ichneumon* deposit their eggs in the bodies of other living insects, so those of the genus *Sphæx* deposit their's in dead ones, in order that the young larvæ, when hatched, may find their proper food.” There are more than a hundred species of the genus *Sphæx*, which are separated into divisions.

- I. Antennæ setaceous; lip entire; and no tongue.
 1. *Sphæx appendigaster*.—This species is black; the abdomen is spotted, very short, and placed behind the thorax; the hind legs are very long.—This is found in divers parts of Europe, Africa and New Holland.
 2. *Sphæx maculata*.—Thorax spotted; first segment of the abdomen with a white dot on each side; the second is edged with white.—It is an English insect.
 3. *Sphæx fasciata*.—Black; abdomen with two white bands, the first interrupted; and the tail is white.—It is found in different parts of Italy. The thorax is black, covered with silvery down on the fore-part; the fore margin is marked with a white line; the wings are white, but tipped with brown.
 4. *Sphæx sessilis*, so named on account of its short, cylindrical, sessile abdomen. The insect is black.—It inhabits France; is very like the *Sphæx appendigaster*.
 5. *Sphæx punctum*.—This is black; but the tail is marked with a white dot.—It is an Italian insect.
6. *Sphæx*.

6. *Sphex nigritia*.—This also is black; the upper wings are marked with a brown band.

II. *Antennæ filiform*; lip emarginate; with a bristle on each side; the tongue is infected and trifid.

Of this section there are two subdivisions; the one has a petiolate abdomen, that of the other is sessile.

a.—Abdomen petiolate.

7. *Sphex Thomæ*.—Black; abdomen rufous; the petiole and spot on the back, black.—It inhabits St. Thomas's island.

8. *Sphex cyanipennis*.—Villous blue; fore-part of the thorax and abdomen grey; the wings are blue.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is large. This is a very beautiful insect; the head is blue; the mandibles and antennæ are black; the abdomen blueish-grey; the petiole black; legs black; the joints yellowish.

9. *Sphex argentea*.—Glossy-black; front villous, silvery; the wings are white, but tipped with brown.—It inhabits Coromandel, and is a large insect.

10. *Sphex rufipennis*.—Black; wings ferruginous, tipped with brown.—It inhabits Tranquebar, and is large.

11. *Sphex Pennsylvanica*.—This is of a blackish hue; the abdomen is of a full black; but the wings are inclining to a violet.—It inhabits America and New Holland.

12. *Sphex violacea*.—Blue; wings white, tipped with brown; the antennæ are black.—It is found at the Cape of Good Hope.

13. *Sphex tomentosa*.—The head and thorax of the insects of this species are covered with a gold down; the abdomen is black; the base and legs are rufous. It inhabits Sierra Leone.

14. *Sphex femorata*.—This is blue; the abdomen is black; the hind-thighs are rufous.—It inhabits Italy.

15. *Sphex flavipes*.—Villous, black, with a yellow dot before the wings; the legs are yellow; the thighs black.—It inhabits America.

16. *Sphex atra*.—This is quite black, excepting the lip, which is silvery villous; wings as long as the abdomen.—It inhabits Italy.

17. *Sphex figulus*.—Smooth, black; segments of the abdomen at the edges and lip lucid.—It inhabits Upsal, in the holes and crevices of wooden partitions, abandoned by all other insects. According to Dr. Shaw, this insect, when it has found a convenient cavity for the purpose, seizes on a spider, which it kills, and deposits it at the bottom; then laying her egg in it, she closes up the orifice of the cavity with clay; the larva, which resembles the maggot of a bee, having devoured the spider, spins itself up a dusky silken web, and changes into a chrysalis, out of which, within a certain number of days, proceeds a complete insect, which is black, with a slightly foot-stalked abdomen, the edges of the several segments being of a brighter appearance than the rest of the body. The female of this species prepares several separate holes or nets, in each of which she places a dead insect and an egg; each cell costing her the labour of about two days.

18. *Sphex lunata*.—The abdomen of this insect is black; the first segment is marked with a yellow lunule.—It inhabits America.

19. *Sphex spirifex*.—Black; thorax hairy and immaculate; petiole of one joint, yellow; as long as the abdomen. There is a variety, of which the petiole and joints of the legs are half yellow.—It is found in this country, in divers parts of Europe, and also in Africa, particularly in Egypt, in cylindrical cavities wrought within like a honeycomb, on the sides of cliffs, and in the mud walls of cottages.

20. *Sphex ichneumonea*.—Fulvous; abdomen black, with a ferruginous base.—It is found in divers parts of America.

21. *Sphex hirtipes*.—Hairy, dusky; abdomen shining black; wings testaceous.—It inhabits Guinea.

22. *Sphex albifrons*.—Glabrous, black; front covered with a silvery brown; wings white, with a black base.—This also is found in Guinea.

23. *Sphex maxillosa*.—Black, with silvery down; abdomen ferruginous at the base; the mandibles are projected, curved and toothed. It is a large insect, and is found in Barbary.

24. *Sphex unicolor*.—Dusky-brown, with cinereous down.—It is found in Spain, on umbellate flowers.

25. *Sphex Indostanee*.—Black; wings blueish-black, with a hyaline thinner margin.—Found in Europe and India.

26. *Sphex clavipes*.—Black; petiole ferruginous, clavate, of one joint; legs clavate. This is a small insect, and is found in several parts of Europe.

27. *Sphex Austriaca*.—Black; base of the abdomen with a sulphur-coloured band and two dots; the legs are varied with sulphur; the hind thighs are thickened.—It inhabits, as its name donotes, Austria.

28. *Sphex bidens*.—Black; head and antennæ ferruginous; the abdomen is marked with four yellow spots; the thorax is two-spined.—It inhabits Mauritania, and is a large insect.

29. *Sphex insubrica*.—Black; front, mouth, scutel, and two bands on the abdomen, of a pale yellow.—It inhabits Padua; breeds in chimneys and windows, in the same nest with the *Ichneumon seductor*.

b.—Abdomen sessile.

30. *Sphex fusca*.—Black, glabrous; base of the abdomen ferruginous.—This inhabits gravelly places in Europe: after having destroyed the larva of a moth, it deposits its eggs in its carcase, and then digs a hole and buries it.

31. *Sphex viatica*.—Black, downy; fore-part of the abdomen ferruginous, with black belts; wings brown.

32. *Sphex ursus*.—Black, hairy; second segment of the abdomen ferruginous; wings black.

33. *Sphex anethystina*.—Blue; antennæ and legs black.—It inhabits Santa Cruz.

34. *Sphex cingulata*.—Black; front streak on the fore-part of the thorax, and edges of the abdominal segments, cinereous.—It inhabits New Holland.

35. *Sphex nigra*.—Black; segments of the abdomen with lucid margins.

36. *Sphex sanguinolenta*.—Black; thorax rufous before and behind; segments of the abdomen lucid at the margin. This is a very small insect, and is found in several parts of Germany.

37. *Sphex sex-punctata*.—Black, with two white dots under the scutel, and four on the abdomen; wings tipped with brown.

38. *Sphex bi-fasciata*.—Black, immaculate; wings with two black bands.—This is an inhabitant of Paris.

39. *Sphex gibba*.—Black; abdomen ferruginous, tipped with brown; upper wings brown at the tip.—This is found in divers parts of Europe.

40. *Sphex fugax*.—Thorax covered with gold down; abdomen ferruginous; wings yellowish, with a brown band.

41. *Sphex aurata*.—Head and thorax with gold down; abdomen black, the edges of the segments cinereous.—This is found in the East Indies.

42. *Sphex rufipes*.—Black; the segments of the abdomen are marked with a white dot on each side; the wings are tipped with brown.—Found in England, and on divers parts of the European continent.

43. *Sphex tricolorata*.—Black; abdomen with silver lunules on each side, the base is rufous, the tip black.—This is a Barbary insect.

44. *Sphex guttata*.—Black, glabrous; thorax spotted with white; abdomen rufous, with transverse dots, and black before the tip.—This is very like the *Sphex maculata*, and is found in Italy.

45. *Sphex abdominalis*.—Black; thorax with a cinereous band before; abdomen rufous; wings tipped with brown.—It inhabits Brasil.

46. *Sphex*

46. *Sphex turcica*.—Black; thorax with a cinereous band before; abdomen rufous; wings black.—It is an inhabitant of Brasil.

47. *Sphex flava*.—Black; head, thorax, and tail, ferruginous; wings yellow, tip with brown.—It is found in the East Indies.

48. *Sphex bicolorata*.—Black; head, tip of the abdomen and wings, yellow, the latter tip with brown.—This is a New Holland insect.

49. *Sphex speciosa*.—Deep black; wings rufous, tip with white.

50. *Sphex fulvipennis*.—Black; head, fore-part of the thorax, tail and legs, rufous; wings fulvous, tip with blue.—This is an inhabitant of India.

51. *Sphex nobilis*.—This species is varied with silver and black; wings white, with two black bands.—It inhabits Cayenne.

52. *Sphex ocellata*.—Black; legs testaceous; wings black with an ocellar ferruginous spot on the upper pair.—Found in Africa.

53. *Sphex cærulea*.—Blue; wings ferruginous, upper pair whitish at the tip.—It inhabits South America, as does the next.

54. *Sphex variegata*.—Entirely black; wings spotted with white.—Seen in divers parts of Europe.

55. *Sphex stigma*.—Wings angular, grey-brown and reddish beneath, with white spots.—It is an inhabitant of the Cape.

56. *Sphex Indica*.—Black; antennæ and legs ferruginous; wings bluish-black.—It is found in South America.

57. *Sphex colon*.—Black; antennæ and legs rufous; thorax green; wings with two black spots.—It inhabits Sweden.

58. *Sphex Mauritanica*.—Black; head, antennæ, and legs, ferruginous, with a black border.—It inhabits Mauritania, and is reckoned among the large insects of this genus.

59. *Sphex xanthocephalus*.—Black; front yellow; abdomen and legs spotted with yellow.—It inhabits England.

60. *Sphex spinosa*.—Black; thorax with a spine on each side behind; the lip and breast are silvery.—It inhabits England.

61. *Sphex albomaculata*.—Black; abdomen ferruginous at the base; wings brown, with a white spot at the tip.

62. *Sphex tricolor*.—Black; segments of the abdomen very varied in number, some of them are testaceous, and others dotted with white.

63. *Sphex boops*.—Black; three segments of the abdomen and tarsi setaceous.—It is an Austrian insect.

64. *Sphex tomentosa*.—Black, downy; antennæ thick at the base; the three first segments of the abdomen are ferruginous; the base and tip are black.

SPHINCTER, *s.* [*sphincter*, Latin.] One of the circular and constrictor muscles of the human body, as the *sphincter ani*, *vagina*, &c.

SPHINX, [*σφιγξ*, Gr.] in Sculpture, &c., a figure or representation of a monster of that name, famed among the ancients, now mostly used as an ornament in gardens, terraces, &c.

It is represented with the head and breasts of a woman, the wings of a bird, the claws of a lion, and the rest of the body like a dog or lion.

SPHINX, the *hawk-moth*, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order Lepidoptera, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—Antennæ somewhat prismatic, tapering at each end; the tongue is exerted; feelers two, reflected; the wings are deflected.

The insects of this genus, of which there are nearly two hundred species, fly abroad only in the morning and evening; they are very slow on the wing, and often make a humming kind of noise: they extract the nectar of flowers with the tongue. The generic name, sphinx, is applied on account of the posture assumed by the larvæ of several of the larger species, which are often seen in an attitude much

resembling that of the Egyptian sphinx, viz., with the fore-parts elevated, and the rest of the body applied flat to the surface.

The larva has sixteen feet, and is pretty active; that of the *Zygæna*, a division of this genus, is thick and flat, and covered with short hairs; that of the *Sesia* is generally naked, unarmed, and thinner towards the head; the others have a sharp, erect, stiff horn behind; the pupa is quiescent: that of the *zygæna* folliculate, and a little tapering forwards, the rest naked and smooth; that of the *sesia* pointed at each end, of the others very obtuse behind.

There are three divisions of this genus; viz., I. of which the antennæ are scaly; feelers hairy; tongue spiral; II. in which the antennæ are cylindrical; the tongue is exerted, truncate, and the wings entire; and III. in which the antennæ are thicker in the middle; tongue exerted, setaceous. Of the principal species of these divisions we shall proceed to give a brief account.

I.—Antennæ scaly; feelers hairy; tongue spiral.

1. *Sphinx ocellata*.—Wings angular, lower ones rufous, with a blue eye. This is reckoned a very beautiful insect; its upper wings and body are brown, the former finely clouded with different shades, while the lower wings are of a bright rose-colour, each marked with a large ocellated black spot, with a blue interior circle and a black centre. This insect proceeds from a green caterpillar of a rough or shagreen-like surface, marked on each side by seven oblique yellowish-white streaks, and furnished, like the preceding, with a horn at the tail.—It is chiefly found on the willow; retires under ground, in order to undergo its change into the chrysalis state, in the month of August or September, and in the following June appears the complete insect.

2. *Sphinx quercus*.—Wings angular, indented, cinereous, with dark streaks; lower ones ferruginous, white at the angle of the tail.—This inhabits Germany. The larva is solitary and of a green colour, with oblique lateral stripes and rufous stigmata; pupa chestnut, with rufous margin.

3. *Sphinx populi*.—Wings indented, reversed, grey; upper pair with a white central spot; lower ones ferruginous at the base.—This is found in England and many parts of Europe. It is figured by Donovan, and other writers on natural history. The larva is solitary, rough, green, with oblique white stripes on the sides; the pupa is of a dull brown, but ferruginous behind.

4. *Sphinx tilia*.—Wings angular, with greenish clouds and darker bands; lower ones beneath yellow, testaceous.—The larva is solitary, rough, green, with oblique red and yellow stripes on the sides; the pupa is brown.

5. *Sphinx pylas*.—Wings scalloped, indented, variegated; lower ones fulvous, yellow at the base, and black at the tip.—It inhabits Surinam. Lower wings with a marginal black band, and contiguous smaller one; the edge itself is yellowish.

6. *Sphinx cacus*.—Wings indented, black, with three approximate pale streaks; lower ones are yellow, striate with black. The abdomen is marked with cinereous and black belts.

7. *Sphinx dentata*.—Wings indented; lower ones brown, with a white streak; the abdomen is annulate with white.—It is an Indian insect. The head and thorax are blueish, speckled with brown; the upper wings are blueish, with brown specks and bands.

8. *Sphinx alope*.—Wings indented, brown; lower ones yellow, tip with black; abdomen black, with interrupted pale belts.

9. *Sphinx jatropha*.—Wings slightly indented; lower one black, with a rufous base and hyaline band; the head is two-horned. The larva is green, with a moniliform tail; the pupa is brown, with an inflected cylindrical tail.

10. *Sphinx atropos*.—The wings of the insects of this species are entire; the lower ones are yellow, with two brown bands; the abdomen is yellow, with belts. This is said to

SPHYNX AND STAPHYLINUS.



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1. 2. 3. Specimens of *Sphinx*. 4. 5. 6. of *Sphinx sesia*. 7. *Staphylinus hirtus*.

be the largest and most remarkable, if not the most beautiful European insect of this genus. It is thus described by Dr. Shaw: the upper wings are of a fine dark grey colour, with a few slight variations of dull orange and white; the under wings are of a bright orange colour, marked by a pair of transverse black bands; the body is also orange-coloured, with the sides marked by black bars, while along the top of the back, from the thorax to the tail, runs a broad blue-grey stripe; on the top of the thorax is a very large patch of a most singular appearance, exactly representing the usual figure of a skull, or death's head, and is of a pale grey, varied with dull ochre and black. When in the least disturbed or irritated, this insect emits a stridulous sound, something like the squeaking of a mouse; and from this circumstance, as well as from the mark above-mentioned on the thorax, it is held in much dread by the vulgar in several parts of Europe; its appearance being regarded as a kind of ill omen or harbinger of approaching fate. Reaumur mentions, that the members of a female convent in France were thrown into great consternation at the appearance of one of these insects, which happened to fly in during the evening at one of the windows of the dormitory. The caterpillar from which this curious sphinx proceeds, is in the highest degree beautiful, and far surpasses in size every other European insect of the kind, measuring sometimes nearly five inches in length, and being of a proportional thickness; its colour is a bright yellow; the sides are marked with a row of seven most elegant broad stripes or bands, of a mixed violet and sky-blue colour; and the tops of these bands meet on the back in so many angles, and are varied on that part with jet black specks; on the last joint of the body is a horn or process, not in an erect position, but hanging or curving over the joint in the manner of a tail, having a rough surface and a yellow colour.—This caterpillar is principally found on the potatoe and the jessamine, which are its favourite food. It changes into a chrysalis in the month of September, retiring for that purpose deep in the earth; the perfect insect emerging in the following June or July. Individuals have been observed to change into the chrysalis in July or August, and then produce the complete insect in November, so that there appear to be two broods or races in a year.

The Sphinx atropos is generally considered as a rare insect, and as the caterpillar feeds chiefly by night, concealing itself during the day under leaves, &c., it is not often detected; yet from some singular circumstances favourable to its breed, there are seasons in which it is even plentiful, as was the case in the autumn of 1804, in which the caterpillar was so common in some counties, as to be prejudicial to the potatoe-plants, particularly in some parts of Cornwall and Surrey.

“The alteration of form which the whole of the papilionaceous tribe undergo, and in a particular manner the changes of the sphinx genus, afford a subject of the most pleasing contemplation to the mind of the naturalist, and though a deeply philosophical survey demonstrates that there is no real change produced in the identity of the creature itself, or that it is in reality no other than the gradual and progressive evolution of parts before concealed, and which lay masked under the form of an insect of a widely different appearance, yet it is justly viewed with the highest admiration, and even generally acknowledged as in the most lively manner typical of the last eventful changes.”

11. *Sphinx chionanthi*.—Wings variegated, with a white dot in the middle; abdomen with three pair of fulvous eyes.—This is an American insect. The antennæ are hooked, ferruginous, with a white shaft; lower wings blackish, spotted with white. Larva tailed, with yellow and black bands; the head and tail are red; the pupa is brown.

12. *Sphinx pinastri*.—Wings entire, grey, with three short black lines in the middle of the upper pair; the abdomen is white, with black bands.—The larva is tailed, and greenish, with a ferruginous dorsal line, a lateral yellow one, and ferruginous subocellar stigmata: the pupa is reddish-brown, with white eyes.

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13. *Sphinx euphorbiæ*.—Wings entire, with two dark olive bands; lower ones with a black base, and marginal streak; the antennæ are snowy.—It is found in this country, and divers parts of Europe. Donovan has given a figure of it. The larva is black, dotted with white; it has a red line down the back, and lateral yellow spots; the pupa is brown, with black stigmata.

14. *Sphinx lineata*.—Wings greenish-olive, with a white band, crossed with white streaks; the lower ones are black, with a red band. It is generally described as having a greenish head, with a lateral white line; the thorax is marked with three double white streaks; abdomen with a white line down the middle, and lateral black and white dots; the hind margin of the upper wings is of a purple colour. Beneath it is cinereous, speckled with green.

15. *Sphinx ligustri*, or privet hawk-moth.—Wings entire; lower ones rufous, with three black bands; the abdomen is red, with black belts. The larva is tailed; in colour it is green, with oblique lateral streaks, which are of a flesh-colour before, and white behind; the pupa is brown; the tail is four-toothed.

16. *Sphinx crantor*.—Wings entire, brown, spotted with black; lower ones red, edged with black.—It inhabits India. The upper wings are marked with a pale spot at the base; the lower wings are spotted with black at the angle of the tail.

II.—Antennæ cylindrical; tongue exerted, truncate; wings entire. This division is named Sesia.

17. *Sphinx tantalus*.—Abdomen bearded, the third segment snowy.—It inhabits Europe and India. The abdomen is marked with a white and rufous streak; upper wings variegated with three white dots.

18. *Sphinx hylas*.—Wings semi-transparent; abdomen bearded, green, with a purple belt.—It inhabits China. The tail is marked with a white dot at the base; the sides of the base are black.

19. *Sphinx stellatarum*.—Abdomen bearded, the sides are varied with black and white; the lower wings are ferruginous. The larva is pale rosy, dotted with white; the tail blue, ferruginous at the tip; the pupa is pale, with a brown tip.

20. *Sphinx bombylifomis*.—Abdomen bearded, greenish, fulvous, with a black band; the wings are transparent, with a fine black edge.

21. *Sphinx zonata*.—Wings transparent, with a black band and margin; the abdomen is bearded, black, with a single belt. It is found in divers parts of Europe, as well as in this country. The head is marked with a thin red margin; on the thorax are two oblique lateral red lines.

22. *Sphinx vespiformis*.—Wings transparent, with a black margin and band; abdomen bearded, black, the second and last segments edged with yellow.—It is found in this country, and many parts of Europe.

23. *Sphinx chrysothorax*.—Wings transparent, with a black margin and band; abdomen black, with four yellow belts; the beard is yellow, with a black line in the middle.—This is an English insect, and is figured by Donovan.

III.—Antennæ thicker in the middle; tongue exerted, setaceous. *Zygæna*.

24. *Sphinx filipendulæ*.—Upper wings blue-green, with six red spots in pairs; the lower ones are red, with a greenish border.—It is found in England, and other parts of Europe. The larva is flat, tailed, sulphur-coloured, with four lines of black dots; the pupa is brown, but in the middle it is of a sulphur-colour.

25. *Sphinx sedi*.—Blue; upper wings with three connected red spots; the lower ones are entirely red.—It inhabits southern Russia.—The spots on the wings are surrounded with a yellow ring, and the lower wings with a fine black edge.

26. *Sphinx phegea*.—Green-black; the upper wings are marked with six transparent dots, the lower ones with two; the abdomen with a yellow belt.—It is found in

many parts of Germany. The larva is brown; the head and legs are reddish; the back is marked with fasciculate white plumes.

27. *Sphinx Caffra*.—Black; wings brown, with five red dots; the lower ones are red, edged with brown.—It is found in many parts of Africa. The head is black; feelers and orbits red; thorax black, with two red dots on each side; dots on the wings surrounded with a black ring.

28. *Sphinx cassandra*.—Brown; abdomen with five blue spots on each side; tail, mouth, base of the thighs, and abdomen, scarlet.

29. *Sphinx tibialis*.—Upper wings brown, lower ones hyaline; hind-legs long and very hairy.—It inhabits Africa.

30. *Sphinx capus*.—Black; upper wings tipped with white.—Inhabits Surinam.

SPHONDYLOCOCCUS, so called, by Mitchell, from the whorled appearance of the berries, is the Linnæan **CALICARPA**. See that article.

SPHONDYLUS, in Ichthyology, a name given by Pliny, and others of the old authors, to a peculiar species of the *syngnathus*.

SPHRAGIDE, or Lemnian Earth, in Mineralogy, a name given by Werner to a substance nearly resembling fullers' earth, found in the island of Lemnos. See **MINERALOGY**.

SPHRAGIS, the seal-stone, a name given by some authors to the single joints of the asteriæ, when found loose, not joined into a column.

SPHRAGIS is also used by some of the old Greek naturalists to express the spots on the back and sides of a panther.

The skin of this creature is of a pale colour, and these spots are all dark and round, and look like so many regular impressions of a seal, whence the name *sphragis*.

SPHYGMICA, an old term for that part of the judgment of a physician, which regards the differences of the *σφυγμος*, or pulse.

SPHYRÆNA, in Ichthyology, a name by which some authors have called the *sudis*, the sea-pike.

SPHPRÆNA ALTERA, a name given by Appian, and some other of the old Greek writers, to the *esor*, or common pike.

SPIAL, *s.* [*espial*, Fr.] A spy; a scout; a watcher. *Obsolete*.

For he by faithful *spial* was assured
That Egypt's king was forward on his way. *Fairfax*.

Their trust towards them hath rather been as to good
spials and good whisperers, than good magistrates and
officers. *Bacon*.

SPIAN, a river of Scotland, in Inverness-shire which rises from the western extremity of Loch Laggan, and after a rapid and precipitous course of 20 miles, joins the Lochy.

SPICA, in Botany, a spike, is a mode of inflorescence, very general in the natural order of *Orchideæ*, and frequent among many others tribes of plants. See **BOTANY**.

SPICA BANDAGE, in Surgery, is a kind of bandage thus called from its intersections, which are supposed to resemble an ear of corn.

SPICE, *s.* [*espices*, Fr.] A vegetable production, fragrant to the smell and pungent to the palate; an aromatic substance used in sauces.—Is not manhood, learning, gentleness, and virtue, the *spice* and salt that seasons a man? *Shakspeare*.—Garlick, the northern *spice*, is in mighty request among the Indians. *Temple*.—A small quantity, as of *spice* to the thing seasoned.—It containeth singular relations, not without some *spice* or sprinkling of all learning. *Brown*.

To **SPICE**, *v. a.* To season with *spice*; to mix with aromatic bodies.

His mother was a votress of my order,
And in the *spiced* Indian air by night
Full often she hath gossip'd by my side. *Shakspeare*.

To render nice; to season with scruples.
Come near my spouse,—
Ye shulden be al patient and meke,
And han a swete *spiced* conscience. *Chaucer*.

You have such a *spic'd* consideration,
Such qualms upon your worship's conscience!

Beaum. and Fl.

SPICE-WOOD, in Botany, a species of **LAURUS**; which see.

SPI'CKER, *s.* One who deals in *spice*.—Names have been derived from occupations, as *Salter* and *Spicer*, *Camden*.

SPI'CCERY, *s.* [*espiceries*, Fr.] The commodity of *spices*.

She in whose body
The western treasure, eastern *spicery*,
Europe and Africk, and the unknown rest,
Were easily found. *Donne*.

A repository of *spices*.—The *spicery*, the cellar, and its furniture, are too well known to be here insisted upon. *Addison*.

SPI'CK AND SPAN. *Span-new* is originally used of cloth newly extended or dressed at the clothiers, and *spick* and *span* is newly extended on the spikes or tenters: it is however a low word. *Johnson*.

While the honour thou hast got,
Is *spick and span* new, piping hot,
Strike her up bravely. *Butler*.

I keep no antiquated stuff;
But *spick and span* I have enough. *Swift*.

SPI'CKNEL, *s.* [*meum*, Lat.] The herb maldmony or bearwort.

SPI'CCOSITY, *s.* [*spica*, Lat.] The quality of being spiked like ears of corn; fulness of ears. *Obsolete*.

To **SPI'CCULATE**, *v. a.* [*spiculo*, Lat.] To make sharp at the point.

Plant thy thick row of thorns, and, to defend
Their infant shoots, beneath, on oaken stakes,
Extend a rail of elm, securely arm'd
With *spiculated* paling, in such sort
As, round some citadel, the engineer
Directs his sharp stoccade. *Mason*.

SPI'CCULUM, in Roman Antiquity, a kind of weapon which some will have to be the same with the *hasta*, or *sparus*.

SPI'CCY, *adj.* Producing *spice*; abounding with aromatics.

Off at sea north-east winds blow
Sabæan odour, from the *spicy* shore
Of Araby the blest: with such delay
Well pleas'd they slack their course, and many a league
Chear'd with the grateful smell old ocean smiles. *Milton*.

Aromatic; having the qualities of *spice*.

Under southern skies exalt their sails,
Led by new stars, and borne by *spicy* gales! *Pope*.

SPI'DER, *s.* [Skinner thinks this word softened from *spinder* or *spinner*, from *spin*; Junius from *σπίζειν*, Gr. to extend; for the spider extends his web. *Dóp*, *δομα*, Sax., is a *bee*, or properly an *humble bee*, or *stingless bee*. May not *spider* be *spy dor*, the insect that watches the *dor*? *Dr. Johnson*.] The animal that spins a web for flies.

The *spider's* web to watch we'll stand,
And when it takes the bee,
We'll help out of the tyrant's hand
The innocent to free. *Drayton*.

SPI'DERCATCHER, *s.* A bird. See **PICUS**.

SPI'DERLIKE, *adj.* Resembling a spider in shape or quality.

Spider-like,
Out of his self-drawing web, he gives us note. *Shakspeare*.
I can bend my body no farther than it is bent by nature.
For this reason, when ladies drop a fan or glove, I am not
the

the first to take them up: and often restrain my inclination to perform those little services, rather than expose my *spider-like* shape. *Hay.*

SPI'DERWORT, *s.* A plant with a lilyflower, composed of six petals; the **PHALANGIUM**.

SPIEGELBERG, a small district, with the title of county in Hanover, principality of Calenberg, which belongs as a fief to the king of the Netherlands. It has about 2200 inhabitants.

SPIELMANNIA [so named in honour of James Reinbold Spielmann, professor of medicine and botany at Strasburg], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiosperma, natural order of personata, vitiæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, erect, short, permanent: segments linear-subulate, acute, almost equal. Corolla, one-petalled, salver-shaped: tube cylindric, incurved, globular at the base, villose within; the mouth closed with hairs: border five-cleft, almost equal: segments oblong, truncate, flat, spreading very much. Stamina: filaments four, very short, in the tube of the corolla, two a little higher than the others. Anthers oval. Pistil: germ roundish. Style short, permanent. Stigma hooked. Pericarp: drupe globular, one-celled, succulent. Seed: nut globular-depressed, wrinkled, striated and tubercled longitudinally, two celled. Kernels solitary, oblong, more gibbous towards the outside, tubercle-striated longitudinally, each fastened to a fleshy aril, gibbous on one side, hollowed on the other, adhering to the partition.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Corolla bearded at the throat, with a five-cleft almost equal border. Drupe, with a two-celled, two-seeded nut.

Spielmannia Africana. Ilex-leaved *Spielmannia*, or *Lantana*.—This rises with a shrubby stalk five or six feet high, sending out many irregular branches, closely garnished with thin oval leaves ending in points, serrate and embracing. From the bosom of each leaf comes out one solitary white flower, which is cut at the top into five parts, and at first sight has the appearance of a jasmine flower; but when closer viewed, the tube will be found curved, in the same manner with ringent flowers.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—Flowers are not succeeded by seeds in England, but the plants are easily propagated by cuttings, which if planted upon an old hot-bed any time in July, and covered with a bell or hand-glass, and shaded from the sun, will put out roots in a month or five weeks. It should then be treated the same as other green-house plants.

SPIERINGS (N.), was born at Antwerp, in 1633, and was a painter of landscape, who formed his style on the study of Salvator Rosa, and particularly remarkable as one of those who produced a portion of the numberless pictures sold as his all over Europe.

SPIETZ, a small town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, on the west coast of the lake of Thun; 21 miles south-south-east of Bern.

SPIGELIA [so named by Linnæus, in memory of Adrian Spigelius, professor of anatomy and surgery at Padua], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of stellata, gentianæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, acuminate, small, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-shaped: tube much longer than the calyx, narrowed below; border spreading, five-cleft: segments wide, acuminate. Stamina: filaments five, simple. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ composed of two globes, superior. Style one, awl-shaped, length of the tube. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule twin, two-celled, four-valved. Seeds numerous, very small.—*Essential Character.* Corolla funnel-shaped. Capsule twin, two-celled, many-seeded.

1. *Spigelia anthelmia*, or annual worm-grass.—This is an annual plant with a fibrous root. Stem simple. Terminating leaves lanceolate, four; the rest on the stem opposite in pairs. From each axil of the stem-leaves a single branch, very like the stem, terminated, as in that, by four leaves placed crosswise.—Native of the West Indies.

2. *Spigelia Marilandica*, or perennial worm-grass.—Stem four-cornered; all the leaves opposite.—Native of North America, in the warmer parts, as Virginia, Maryland and Carolina, where it is called Indian pink.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in pots filled with soft loamy earth, in the autumn, and plunge them into the bark-bed, where they should remain till the spring, when they must be plunged into a fresh hot-bed. Afterwards plant them in separate pots, shading them till they have taken root; and then treat them in the same way as other tender annual plants from the same countries, keeping them constantly in the hot-bed under cover to perfect the seeds.

SPIGELIUS, or **VANDEN SPIEGHEL** (Adrian), an eminent physician, was born at Brussels in 1578. He studied philosophy and medicine first at Louvain, and afterwards at Padua, where he received the degree of M. D. He became thoroughly skilled in every branch of his profession, and particularly in anatomy and surgery; and after travelling for some time to the different schools of Germany, he settled in Moravia, where he was soon appointed physician to the states of the province. He had there attained to the highest reputation, when he was invited, in 1616, by the senate of Venice, to occupy the principal professorship of anatomy and surgery in the university of Padua, which had become vacant by the death of Casserius. He accepted the appointment, and acquitted himself with so much success, that he contributed to render the schools of Padua more flourishing than they had ever been. He was cut off at the age of 47, in April 1625, in consequence of a puncture of his finger by a piece of glass. The first work which he published was entitled "Isagoges in Rem Herbarium Libri duo," printed at Padua in 1606. This work, though not very systematic, contains some interesting matter. It treats copiously on the virtues of plants, respecting which he is said to have learned much from the Italian peasantry, in a tour which he made in the dress of a rustic. He published also "De Lumbrico lato Liber, cum notis et ejusdem Lumbrici iconæ," to which was subjoined a letter "De incerto tempore Partus," 1618. "De Semitertianâ Libri quatuor," Franc. 1624. But the most valuable of his writings are those which he composed on anatomical subjects, and which were published after his death by his son-in-law, Crema. These were entitled "De Humani Corporis Fabrica Libri X. cum Tabulis 98 ære incisæ," 1625, folio; and "De formato Fœtu Liber singularis, æneis figuris ornatus," to which was annexed "Tractatus de Arthritide," 1626. See *Eloy. Dict. Hist. de la Méd. Gen. Biog.*

SPIGNET, in Botany: see **ATHAMANTA**.—**SPIGNET**, *Meu*: see **ÆTHUSA**.—**SPIGNET**, *Wild*: see **SESELI**.

SPIGNO, an inland town of the continental Sardinian states, in the duchy of Montserrat, province of Acqui. It stands near the river Bormida, in a picturesque situation on a steep rock, and contains 2200 inhabitants; 8 miles west-north-west of Novi, and 9 north-north-east of Acqui.

SPIGNO, a town in the north-west part of the kingdom of Naples in the Terra di Lavoro, containing 1200 inhabitants; 25 miles east of Terracina.

SPIGOLA, in Ichthyology, a name given by Paulus Jovius, and some others, to that species of perch which is generally called the *lupus marinus*.

SPIGOT, *s.* [*spijker*, Dutch.] A pin or peg put into the faucet to keep in the liquor.—Take out the *spigot*, and clap the point in your mouth. *Swift.*

SPIKE, *s.* [*spica*, Lat.] An ear of corn.

Drawn up in ranks and files, the bearded *spikes*
Guard it from birds as with a stand of pikes. *Denham.*

A long nail of iron or wood; a long rod of iron sharpened; so called from its similitude to an ear of corn.] *spik*, *Su. Goth.*—For the body of the ships, no nation equals England for the oaken timber; and we need not borrow of any other iron for *spikes*, or nails to fasten them. *Bacon.*

SPIKE, *s.* A smaller species of lavender.

To SPIKE, *v. a.* To fasten with long nails.—Lay long planks upon them, pinned or *spiked* down to the pieces of oak

oak on which they lie. *Moxon*.—To set with spikes.—A youth, leaping over the *spiked* pales, was suddenly frightened down, and in his falling he was caught by those spikes. *Wiseman*.—To make sharp at the end.

SPIKE, or OIL OF SPIKE, a name given by our druggists to an essential oil, much used by the varnish-makers and the painters in enamel; and of some use in medicine.

This oil, when genuine, is brought from Provence, and some other parts of France, and is there made of lavender. This plant is called in Provence *aspic*, and thence came the name *oil of aspic*, which afterwards degenerated into *oil of spike*.

SPIKE ROLLER, a very useful implement of the roller kind, first introduced by Mr. Randall, of York, to the notice of the farmer. It has been found of much advantage in bringing stiff cloddy lands into a state of suitable pulverization and fineness of mould for being sown.

SPIKE ISLAND, a small island of Ireland, in Cork harbour; 10 miles below Cork.

SPIKED, *adj.* Having ears, or those parts which contain seeds.

The clover white

That in a *spiked* ball collects its sweets.

Mason.

SPIKENARD, *s.* A plant, and the oil or balsam produced from the plant.—It grows plentifully in Java. It has been known to the medical writers of all ages. *Hill*.—A woman having an alabaster box of ointment of *spikenard*, brake and poured it on his head. *St. Mark*.

SPIKENARD, Bastard French: see NARDUS.—SPIKENARD, Celtic: a species of Valerian; which see.—SPIKENARD, False: see LAVANDULA.—SPIKENARD, Ploughman's: see BACCHARIS.—SPIKENARD, Ploughman's, is also the name of a species of flea-bane, or CONYZA; which see.

SPIKER-OOG, a small sandy island of Hanover, on the coast of East Friesland. It is about 4 miles long, contains a church, a school, and only 200 inhabitants. Lat. 53. 46. 1. N. long. 7. 42. 14. E.

SPIKY, *adj.* Having a sharp point.

Leicestrian fleeces, which the sinewy arm

Combs through the *spiky* steel in lengthen'd flakes. *Dyer.*

SPILAMBERTO, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, on the river Panaro; 8 miles south-east of Modena.

SPILANTHUS [from *σπίλος*, *macula*, a spot or dot; and *ανθος*, a flower; the corolla being dotted with black, from the shedding of the pollen], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygama æqualis, natural order of compositæ oppositifolia, corymbifera (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common sub-hemispherical, imbricate; scales lanceolate-linear, compact, in a double row. Corolla: compound uniform, tubular, conico-convex; corollets hermaphrodite, numerous, equal; proper, one-petalled, funnel-shaped; border four or five-cleft, reflexed. Stamina: filaments four or five, capillary, very short. Anthers cylindrical, tubular. Pistil: germ oblong, compressed. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, recurved. Pericarp: none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, oblong, compressed-flat, membranaceous margined, two-awned at the tip, one awn often smaller than the other. Receptacle, chaffy, conical: chaffs compressed, deciduous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx, almost equal. Down two toothed. Receptacle, conical, chaffy.

1. *Spilanthus urens*, or biting *spilanthus*.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire; stem prostrate. This new genus is made up chiefly of those species of bidens and verbena which do not properly belong to those genera. Root perennial.—Native of America, about Carthagena, in sandy fields: flowering from May to October.

2. *Spilanthus pseudo-acmella*, or spear-leaved *spilanthus*.—Leaves lanceolate, serrate; stem erect.—Native of Ceylon.

3. *Spilanthus albus*, or white flowered *spilanthus*.—Leaves ovate, almost entire: lower alternate; upper opposite; stem panicled. Root annual.—Native of Peru.

4. *Spilanthus acmella*, or balm-leaved *spilanthus*.—Leaves

ovate, serrate; stem erect; flowers radiate. This is so like the second species as scarcely to be distinguished from it.—Native of Ceylon.

5. *Spilanthus tinctorius*, or dyer's *spilanthus*.—Leaves lanceolate, serrate, smooth; peduncles many flowered, terminating; stem diffusid. Stem herbaceous, three feet high.—It is cultivated for dyeing both in China and Cochinchina.

6. *Spilanthus uliginosus*, or boggy *spilanthus*.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, crenate; stem erect, dichotomous; peduncles terminating; flowers radiate. This is an annual plant.—Native of Jamaica.

7. *Spilanthus atriplicifolius*, or orach-leaved *spilanthus*.—Leaves alternate, deltoid, toothed, petioled stipuled; stem panicled.—Native of South America.

8. *Spilanthus inspidus*.—Leaves obovate, somewhat toothed, sessile.—Native of America.

9. *Spilanthus oleraceus*, or esculent *spilanthus*.—Leaves subcordate, serrulate petioled. Stems procumbent, a foot long, round, somewhat rugged.—Native of the East Indies.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds upon a moderate hot-bed in the spring, and when the plants are fit to remove, transplant them on to a fresh hot-bed, shading them till they have taken new root, and then treating them as other tender annual plants, being careful not to draw them up too weak. In June take them up with balls of earth, and plant them in a warm border, shading and watering them: they may be kept through the winter in a stove.

SPILE, in Ship-Building, a plug made of fir to fill up holes, where nails have been driven, to prevent leaking, &c.

SPILE, in Rural Economy, a piece of wood sharpened at the point, and drove down into the ground, on the sides of rivers, or other places, for the purpose of protecting their banks, or other parts, against the violence of the waters.

SPIILIMBERGO, a small town of Austrian Italy, situated on the Tagliamento, in a district beautifully diversified with hills and valleys; 14 miles west of Udina.

SPLINGS, in Ship-Building, the dimensions taken from a rule-staff, a mould's edge, or straight line, to trim or fay one piece to another.

SPILL, *s.* [*spijlen*, Dutch.] A small shiver of wood; or thin bar of iron.—The oyster catchers, besides gathering by hand, have a peculiar dredge, which is a thick strong net, fastened to three *spills* of iron, and drawn at the boat's stern.

Carew.—Have near the bung-hole a little vent-hole, stopped with a *spill*. *Mortimer.*—A small quantity of money.—The bishops, who consecrated this ground, were wont to have a *spill* or sportule from the credulous laity. *Ayliffe.*

To SPILL, *v. a.* [*spjllan*, Sax., *spillen*, Dutch; *spilla*, Icelandic.] To shed; to lose by shedding.

Medea must not draw her murth'ring knife,
And *spill* her children's blood upon the stage. *Roscommon.*

To destroy; to mischief. *Unused.*

Why are you so fierce and cruel?

Is it because your eyes have power to kill?

Then know that mercy is the Mighty's jewel,

And greater glory think to save than *spill*.

Spenser.

Thou all-shaking thunder,

Crack nature's mould, all germins *spill* at once

That make ingratull man.

Shakspeare.

To throw away.

This sight shall damp the raging ruffian's breast,

The poison *spill*, and half drawn sword arrest.

Tickell.

To SPILL, *v. n.* To waste; to be lavish.—Thy father bids thee spare, and chides for *spilling*. *Sidney.*—To be shed; to be lost by being shed.—He was so topfull of himself, that he let it *spill* on all the company: he spoke well indeed, but he spoke too long. *Watts.*

SPYLLER, *s.* [Etymology unknown.] A kind of fishing line.—In harbour they are taken by *spillers* made of a cord, to which divers shorter are tied at a little distance, and to each of these a hook is fastened with a bait: this *spiller* they sink in the sea where those fishes have their accustomed haunt. *Carew.*

SPILOMA,

SPILOMA [so called by Acharius, from the Gr. *σπιλωμα*, a stain, or spot, in allusion to the appearance of the fructification], in Botany, a minute and obscure genus of the lichens. See LICHEN.

SPILSBY, a market town of England, in the county of Lincoln, situated on an eminence overlooking to the south the extensive level of marsh and fen land which is bounded by Boston Deepes and the German ocean. It is the chief town in the southern part of Lindsey division, and consists mostly of four streets, uniting at the market-place. This forms a spacious square, intersected in the centre by a row of houses, with the market cross at the east end, and the town-hall at the west. The cross consists of a plain octagonal shaft, with a quadrangular base, the whole elevated on five steps. The town-hall was built in 1764. It is a plain brick building, standing on arches on the site of the old hall, which was pulled down. The general quarter sessions of the peace for the southern division of the ports of Lindsey, have been holden here for upwards of 100 years. The parish church, situated in the west end of the town, is an irregular building, consisting of north and south aisles, the latter being much larger than the rest of the building. Here is a chapel, in which are some ancient monuments belonging to the families of Beke, Willoughby, and Bertie. At the west end of the church is an embattled tower, of more modern date than the rest of the church. Spilsby contains a small free school, and a Sunday school. Market on Monday, and three annual fairs; 31 miles east of Lincoln, and 134 north of London.

SPILSBY, a small island on the south coast of New Holland, in Spencer's gulf.

SPILT, *part. adj.* [perhaps intended for *spelt*, i. e. divided. See *To SPELT*.] Variegated.

Though all the pillars of the one were guilt,
And all the other's pavement were with ivory *spilt*.

Spenser.

SPILT, *s.* Any thing poured out or wasted.—Our vaults have wept with drunken *spilth* of wine. *Shakspeare.*

To SPIN, *v. a.* preter. *spun* or *span*; part. *spun*. [*spinan*, Goth., *ppinnan*, Sax., *spinnen*, Germ. and Dutch; *spina*, Icel., from *spenna*, to extend, to draw out. *Serenius*.] To draw out into threads.—The women *spun* goats' hair. *Ex.*—To form threads by drawing out and twisting any filamentous matter.—You would be another Penelope; yet all the yarn she *spun*, in Ulysses's absence, did but fill Ithaca full of moths. *Shakspeare.*—To protract; to draw out.

Why should Rome fall a moment before her time?

No, let us draw her term of freedom out

In its full length, and *spin* it to the last.

Addison.

To form by degrees; to draw out tediously.—Men of large thoughts and quick apprehensions are not to expect any thing here, but what, being *spun* out of my own coarse thoughts, is fitted to men of my own size. *Locke.*—To put into a turning motion, as a boy's top.

To SPIN, *v. n.* To exercise the art of spinning or drawing threads.

Ten thousand stalks their various blossoms spread;
Peaceful and lowly in their native soil,
They neither know to *spin*, nor care to toil.

Prior.

[*Spingare*, Ital.] To stream out in a thread or small current.

Together furiously they ran,
That to the ground came horse and man;
The blood out of their helmets *span*,
So sharp were their encounters.

Drayton.

To move round as a middle.

Whether the sun, predominant in heaven,
Rise on the earth, or earth rise on the sun,
He from the east his flaming road begin,
Or she from west her silent course advance
With inoffensive pace, that *spinning* sleeps

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On her soft axle, while she paces even
And bears thee soft with the smooth air along,
Solicit not thy thoughts.

Milton.

SPIN HAY, *To*, in Military Language, is to twist it up in very hard ropes, for an expedition; so that it may be the less bulky for the cavalry to carry behind them.

SPINA, in Botany and Vegetable Physiology, a thorn originating from the substance of the wood itself. Linnæus remarks, that a thorn is liable to disappear by culture, or richness of soil: whereas prickles, *aculei*, seated in the bark, are not affected by similar causes.

SPINA BIFIDA, or **CLOVEN SPINE**, in Surgery, frequently named also *Hydrorachitis*. See **SURGERY**.

SPINACH, or **SPINAGE**, *s.* A plant.—*Spinage* is an excellent herb crude or boiled. *Mortimer.*—See **SPINACIA**.

SPINACH, **STRAWBERRY**. See **BLITUM**.

SPINACIA [in Arabic, it is Hispanic; some derive it from Spina, the seeds being spiny in its wild state], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order pentandria, natural order of Holoraceæ, atripliçes (*Juss*)—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth five-parted: segments concave, oblong, obtuse. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, longer than the calyx. Anthers oblong, twin. Female—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, four-cleft, acute, with two opposite segments very small, permanent. Corolla none. Pistil: germ round-compressed. Styles four, capillary. Stigmas simple. Pericarp none. Calyx unites and hardens. Seed one, roundish, covered by the calyx. Fruit round, or two-horned, or four-horned.—*Essential Character*. Male—Calyx, five parted. Corolla none. Female—Calyx four-cleft. Corolla none. Styles four. Seed one, within the hardened calyx.

1. *Spinacia oleracea*, or garden spinach.—Fruit sessile. Root annual. Leaves sagittate. Stem hollow-branching, herbaceous, about two feet high. The male flowers are herbaceous, in long spikes; they abound in pollen, which, when ripe, flies out when the plants are shaken, and spreads all round; after which the plants soon decay. The female flowers, which are on a separate plant, sit in clusters close to the stalks at every joint; they are small, herbaceous, and are succeeded by roundish seeds.

There are two or three varieties of this, which differ in the size and shape of the leaves; and the more or less prickliness of the seeds, in one variety, the seed is quite smooth.

The native place of growth is unknown.

The etymology of this well-known pot-herb is involved in much obscurity. Latin names ending in *aca*, as *Verbena*, *Portulaca*; or in *acia*, as *Spinacia*; are deduced from something to which they bear a resemblance, as *Verbena*, *portula*, *spina*; hence our English names *smallach*, *spinach*, now commonly spelt *smallage*, *spinage*.

2. *Spinacia fera*, or wild spinach.—Fruits peduncled.—Stem higher, smooth and even. Leaves deltoid-ovate, sometimes sinuate, obtuse, petioled. Fruits axillary, three or more, each on its peduncle, the length of its fruit, ovate or obovate, obtuse, somewhat keeled on each side, even, very blunt.—Native of Siberia.

Propagation and Culture.—Prickly spinach was formerly more cultivated in the English gardens than at present, because it is much hardier, so not in much danger from cold; therefore was generally cultivated for use in winter.

The seeds should be sown upon an open spot of ground the beginning of August, observing if possible to do it when there is an appearance of rain.

In October the spinach will be fit for use, when you should only crop off the largest outer leaves, leaving those in the centre of the plants to grow bigger; and thus you may continue cropping it all the winter and spring, until the young spinach sowed in the spring is large enough for use, which is commonly in April; at which time the spring advancing, the winter spinach will run up to seed; so that it should be all cut up, leaving only a small parcel to produce seeds if wanted.

SPINAL, *adj.* [*spina*, Lat.] Belonging to the back bone.

Descending careless from his couch, the fall
Lux'd his joint neck and *spinal* marrow bruised. *Philips*.

SPINALONGA, a small sea-port and citadel on the north-east coast of the island of Candia. It was formerly a bishop's see; 30 miles east of Candia.

SPINARZA, or CHERVESTA PICCOLO a small town of Albania, on the river Spinarza, which falls into the Adriatic.

SPINDLE, *s.* [spinbl, p̄mbel, Sax.] The pin by which the thread is formed, and on which it is conglomerated.—Bodies fibrous by moisture incorporate with other thread, especially if there be a little wreathing; as appeareth by the twisting of thread and twirling about of *spindles*. *Bacon*.

Do you take me for a Roman matron,
Bred tamely to the *spindle* and the loom? *A. Philips*.

A long slender stalk.—The *spindles* must be tied up, and, as they grow in height, rods set by them, lest by their bending they should break. *Mortimer*.—Any thing slender.—Repose yourself, if those *spindle* legs of yours will carry you to the next chair. *Dryden*.

To SPINDLE, *v. n.* To shoot into a long small stalk.—Another ill accident in drought is the *spindling* of the corn, which with us is rare, but in hotter countries common; inso-much as the word calamity was first derived from calamus, when the corn could not get out of the stalk. *Bacon*.

SPINDLELEGGED, or SPINDLESHANKED, *adj.* Having small legs.—Many great families are insensibly fallen off from the athletic constitution of their progenitors, and are dwindled away into a pale, sickly, *spindle-legged* generation of valetudinarians. *Tatler*.

SPINDLESTONE, a township of England, in Northumberland; 2½ miles east-by-south of Belford.

SPINDLETREE, *s.* Prickwood, a plant.—There is a shrub called the *spindle-tree*, commonly growing in our hedges, which bears a very hard wood. *Evelyn*.

SPINE, *s.* [spina. Lat.] The back bones.

There are who think the marrow of a man,
Which in the *spine*, while he was a living ran;
When dead, the pith corrupted, will become
A snake, and hiss within the hollow tomb.

Dryden.

SPINE, *s.* [espine, Fr., spina, Lat.] A thorn.—Roses, their sharp *spines* being gone. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SPINEDA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, district of Cremona.

SPINEL, *s.* A sort of mineral.—*Spinel* ruby is of a bright rosy red; it is softer than the rock of balass ruby. *Woodward*.

SPINET. *s.* [espinette, Fr.] A small harpsichord with single wires.

When miss delights in her *spinet*,
A fiddler may his fortune get.

Swift.

SPINET, *s.* [spinetum, Lat.] A small wood; a place where briars and bushes grow. In this sense *spincy* is still used in some of our midland counties.—The invention was to have a satyr lodged in a little *spinet*, who advanced his head above the top of the wood, &c. *B. Jonson*.

SPINIFEROUS, *adj.* [spina and fero, Lat.] Bearing thorns.

SPINFIFEX [from *spina* and *facio*: so named from the leaves becoming thorny], in Botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order dioecia, natural order of gramina, gramineæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Hermaphrodite flowers—Calyx: head terminating, composed of several bundles, involucred. Bundles partial approximating, involucred; in each a rachis solitary, awl-shaped, excavated a little above the base, flower-bearing, the rest naked, and others similar, without flower. Involucre common, two leaved: leaflets lanceolate, channelled, subulate-mucronate, unequal: proper four-leaved, similar. Glume one-flowered, two-valved: valves lanceolate, awl-shaped at the tip, unequal; outer longer, inner concealed within an excavation of the rachis. Corolla: glume two valved; valves lanceolate, convoluted; inner involving the genitals. Stamina: filaments three, filiform. Anthers linear, long, cloven at both ends, probably

barren. Pistil: germ oblong. Style filiform, longer than the glumes. Stigmas two, villose, standing out. Pericarp none. Corolla unchanged, growing to the seed. Seed one, oblong, smooth. Male flowers—Calyx: head as in the hermaphrodite. Bundles involucred, with glumes longer dagger-pointed, pungent. Rachis each subtrigonal, flowering almost from top to bottom: flowers from five to seven, sessile, alternate, bifarious, parallel, ovate-oblong, awnless. Glume two-flowered, two-valved: valves oblong, obtuse, striated, channelled, shorter than the corolla, unequal; outer shorter: one floscule hermaphrodite, barren. Corolla: glume two valved: valves lanceolate, channelled, convolute: inner narrower. Nectary of two valves, linear, membranaceous, loose, diaphanous, short. Stamina: filaments three, filiform. Anthers linear, long, cloven at both ends, standing out. Pistil: (in one floscule) germ oblong. Style bifid. Stigmas none. Spinfifex differs from Lolium in having two valves to the calyx, from Triticum in their not being tranverse.—*Essential Character*. Hermaphrodite—Calyx, glume two-valved, two-flowered: valves parallel to the rachis. Corolla two-valved, awnless. Stamina three. Styles two. Male—Calyx common with the hermaphrodite. Corolla and stamina similar.

Spinfifex squarrosus.—Culms very large, as thick as the finger, glaucous, as is the whole plant, jointed, with heaps of leaves at every joint, even, not hollow but full. Leaves grassy, convolute; recurved-spreading, rigid, spiny at the ends: sheaths widened, striated, with a woolly ligule.—Native of the East Indies, China and Cochinchina, on sandy coasts.

SPINK, *s.* A finch; a bird.

Want sharpens poesy, and grief adorns;
The *spink* chaunts sweetness in a hedge of thorns. *Hartc.*

SPINNER, *s.* One skilled in spinning.—A practised *spinner* shall spin a pound of wool worth two shillings for sixpence. *Graunt*.—A garden spider with long jointed legs.

Weaving spiders come not here;
Hence you long-legg'd *spinners*, hence. *Shakspeare*.

The common spider that spins webs for flies.—Where the bee gathereth honey, even there the *spinner* gathereth venome. *Latimer*.

SPINNING WHEEL, *s.* The wheel by which, since the disuse of the rock, the thread is drawn.

My *spinning wheel* and rake,
Let Susan keep for her dear sister's sake. *Gay*.

SPINNY, *adj.* Small, slender.—The Italian's proportion it [beauty,] big and plump; the Spaniards, *spynic* and lanke; and amongst us, one would have her white, another brown. *Florio*.—They plow it early in the ear, and then there will come some *spinny* grass that will keep it from scalding. *Mortimer*.

SPINO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, district of Cremona.

SPINOSITY, *s.* [spinous, Lat.] Crabbedness; thorny or briary perplexity.—The *spinosity* of harsh and dry opinions. *More*.—Philosophy consisted of nought but dry *spinosity*, lean notions, and endless altercations about things of nothing. *Glanville*.

SPINOUS, *adj.* [spinous, Lat.] Thorny; full of thorns.—Our senses are pricked and wounded with this *spinous* or thorny matter. *W. Mountague*.

SPINOZA (Benedict de), noted as the author of a modern system of atheistic philosophy, was born in 1692, at Amsterdam, where his father, a Portuguese jew, was occupied in commerce. Being of an enquiring turn of mind, he early engaged in the study of theology and philosophy, by which he was led into doubts concerning the authority of the Jewish religion. These, the rabbins to whom he applied, were unable to solve to his satisfaction; and as he was incapable of disguise; he made no secret of his state of mind. It is asserted that his brethren offered to tolerate him, provided he would comply externally with their ritual; and that, through regard for his character and abilities, they even promised him a pension, for he was in low circumstances; but that he could

not

not resolve to act the part of a hypocrite. He did not however, altogether desert the synagogue, till after he had received a stab from a Jew (probably actuated by bigoted zeal) as he was coming from a play. His open defection caused a sentence of excommunication to be pronounced against him; upon which he attached himself to some Christians of his acquaintance, and frequented the churches of the Arminians and Mennonites. He was assisted by them in the prosecution of his studies, among which was that of the Cartesian philosophy; and either for the purpose of living more free from interruption, or, as some say, in consequence of an accusation of impiety before the magistrates, which occasioned his banishment, he withdrew from Amsterdam, and took up his residence at Rhensburgh. He published in 1664 a treatise, entitled "The principles of the Cartesian philosophy demonstrated geometrically," adding an appendix, in which he advanced metaphysical opinions wholly at variance with those of Descartes. In 1670 he published his most famous work, entitled "Tractatus Theologo-Politicus," which made him extensively known, and brought upon him a number of attacks. His final residence was in the neighbourhood of the Hague, where he died of a decline in 1677, at the age of 45. It is agreed that his private character was unexceptionable; sober, decent, friendly, and disinterested. He died in the full persuasion of the truth of his system, which was more fully developed in his Posthumous Works, and had some resemblance to that maintained by several of the ancient Greek philosophers, especially Strabo of Lampsacus, who held the notion of the soul of the world, and an universal whole, though it was more essentially atheistical. The sum of his doctrine is thus stated by Brucker:—The essence of substance is, to exist. There is in nature only one substance, with two modifications, thought and extension. This substance is infinitely diversified, having within its own essence the necessary causes of the changes through which it passes. No substance can be supposed to produce, or create, another: therefore, besides the substance of the universe, there can be no other; but all things are comprehended in it, and are modes of this substance, either thinking or extended. To this one universal substance, Spinoza, as a cover to his atheism, gives the appellation of God, and assigns to it divine attributes. He asserts that God is the *immanent*, not the *transitive*, cause of all things. His doctrine therefore differs from that of the philosophers who held God to be *the universal whole*, since, according to them, the visible and intellectual worlds are produced by *emanation* from the eternal fount of divinity; that is, by an expanding or unfolding of the divine nature; the effect of intelligence and design; whereas in Spinoza's system, all things are *immanent*, and necessary modifications of one universal substance; which manifestly excludes all idea of creative design.

SPINOZISM, s. The doctrine of Spinoza.

SPINSTER, s. A woman that spins.

The *spinsters* and the knitters in the sun,
And the free maids that weave their thread with bones,
Do use to chant it. *Shakspeare.*

[In Law.] The general term for a girl or maiden woman.—If a gentlewoman be termed *spinster*, she may abate the writ. *Sir E. Coke.*

SPINSTRY, s. The work of spinning.—What new decency can then be added to this by your *spinstry*? *Milton.*

SPINTRIÆ [from the Gr. *σπινθηρ*, *annulus*.] It is said by Suetonius, that there were a set of men thus named in the reign of Caligula, who invented new obscenities or debaucheries.

SPINUS, a bird. See FRINGILLA SPINUS.

SPINY, adj. [*spina*, Lat.] Thorny; briary; perplexed; difficult; troublesome.—The first attempts are always imperfect; much more in so difficult and *spiny* an affair as so nice a subject. *Digby.*

SPIO, a genus of the class vermes, and order mollusca. The Generic Character is as follows:—Body projecting from a tube, jointed, and furnished with dorsal fibres; peduncles

or feet rough with bristles, and placed towards the back; two feelers, which are long and simple; it has two oblong eyes.

1. *Spio scticornis*.—Feelers thin and striate. This species inhabits the ocean, principally where there is a clayey bottom; it is about three inches long; the tube is composed of agglutinated particles of earth, thin, erect, and thrice as long as the body. From this the animal projects its capillary white feelers in search of food, which consists of small marine worms; the body is whitish, with a tinge of green, with a red line down the middle of the back; the hind-part is of a sea-green; the fore-part is blackish-grey, with transverse white striæ; the head is pale.

2. *Spio filicornis*.—Feelers thick and annulate. Body oblong, yellowish or reddish, with a cinereous line in the middle, and at each end; the tube is fragile, erect, and greenish, from which it projects its feelers in search of *planaria*, and other small marine worms.—It inhabits the sea-shores about Greenland, and is an inch long.

SPI'RACLE, s. [*spiraeculum*, Lat.] A breathing hole; a vent; a small aperture.—Most of these *spiraecles* perpetually send forth fire, more or less. *Woodward.*

SPIRACULA, are little holes or pores placed singly on each side of every segment of the abdomen of insects, through which they breathe; and if oil be applied so as to stop these up, it proves fatal.

SPIRÆA [Spireon of Pliny. *Σπειραία* of Theophrastus. From *σπειρα*, a rope], in Botany, a genus of the class icosaendria, order pentagynia, natural order of pomaceæ, rosaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-cleft, flat at the base, with acute segments; permanent. Corolla: petals five, inserted into the calyx, oblong-rounded. Stamina: filaments more than twenty, filiform, shorter than the corolla, inserted into the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germs five or more. Styles as many, filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas headed. Pericarp: capsules oblong, acuminate, compressed, two-valved. Seeds few, acuminate, small, fastened to the internal suture.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Petals five. Capsules many-seeded.

I.—Shrubby.

1. *Spiræa lævigata*, or smooth-leaved spiræa.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire, sessile; racemes compound; flowers white. Shrubby, with round branches.—Native of Siberia, in valleys at the foot of the loftier Altaic mountains, which are covered with snow.

2. *Spiræa salicifolia*, or willow-leaved spiræa.—Leaves oblong, serrate, smooth; racemes decomposed. There are five varieties. This shrub is about four feet high, with rod-like stems, smooth; the branches yellow. Racemes terminating, solitary, erect, decomposed, obtuse, many-flowered; with linear, solitary bractes. Corollas of a rose-red, paler when expanded.—Native of North America.

3. *Spiræa callosa*, or callous spiræa.—Leaves lanceolate, acute, serrate, subvillose; panicle decomposed, subfastigiata.—Native of Japan, in the island Nipon: flowering in June.

4. *Spiræa tomentosa*, or scarlet spiræa.—Leaves lanceolate, unequally serrate, tomentose beneath; flowers doubly racemed.—Native of Pennsylvania.

5. *Spiræa argentea*, or silvery-leaved spiræa.—Leaves silky, wedge-shaped, marked with lines; serrate at the tip, and somewhat plaited; racemes compound.—Native of New Granada.

6. *Spiræa Alpina*, or Siberian Alpine spiræa.—Leaves linear, lanceolate, toothletted, very smooth; corymbs lateral.—Native of eastern Siberia, especially beyond the Lake Baikal, and about the lake itself: flowering in June.

7. *Spiræa hypericifolia*, or hypericum-leaved spiræa.—Leaves obovate, quite entire; umbels sessile.—It came from the north-west parts of America.

8. *Spiræa chamædrifolia*, or Germander-leaved spiræa.—Leaves obovate, gash-toothed at the tip; corymbs peduncled.

—Native

—Native of Siberia, Hungary, Japan, and China, about Canton. There are, also, the following shrubby spirææ: *Spiræa ulmifolia*, *crenata*, *triloba*, *thalictroides*, *opulifolia*, and *sorbifolia*.

II.—Herbaceous.

9. *Spiræa aruncus*, or goat's-beard spirææ.—Leaves superdecompound. Root perennial. Stem annual, from three to four feet high. Three or four pairs of oblong leaflets terminated by an odd one: they are two inches long, and almost an inch broad, serrate, and ending in acute points. Flowers disposed in long slender spikes, formed into loose terminating panicles; they are small, white, and of two sexes in the same spike.—Native of Germany, Austria, Carniola, Dauphiné, Switzerland, Piedmont, Siberia, Japan, and Virginia.

10. *Spiræa filipendula*, or common dropwort.—Leaves interruptedly pinnate; leaflets uniform, serrate, smooth; stem herbaceous; flowers cymed, many-styled. Root perennial, consisting of oval tubers or solid lumps, hanging from the main body by threads, which has given occasion to its common names of *filipendula* and *dropwort*: these tubers enable the herb to resist drought, and render it very difficult to be eradicated. It is an elegant plant, very common in high pastures, on a calcareous soil, where it is sometimes very small. In gardens it grows very luxuriant, and has often double flowers. It flowers early in July.

11. *Spiræa ulmaria*, or meadow-sweet.—Leaves interruptedly pinnate, tomentose beneath; the end-leaflet larger, lobed; flowers cymed, many-styled. Root perennial, fibrous. Stems erect, three or four feet high, angular and furrowed, tinged with red, leafy, branched in the upper part. Flowers white, in a very large compound cyme, the side branches of which rise much above the central one. Meadow-sweet, or queen of the meadows, abounds in moist meadows, about the banks of rivers, brooks and ditches, perfuming the air with the sweet hawthorn-like scent of its plentiful blossoms from June to August. The following remain in this section: *Spiræa digitata*, *lobata*, *camtschatica*, *palmata*, and *trifoliata*.

Propagation and Culture.—The shrubby sorts may be propagated from suckers, which are sent forth in plenty from the stems of the old plant, in some of them; or by laying down the tender branches, which, when rooted, should be transplanted.

These shrubs require no other pruning, but to cut out all the dead branches and such as grow irregularly; and to take off the suckers every year. If these be permitted to grow, they will starve the old plants. The ground between them should be dug every spring, to encourage their roots, and every third year a little rotten dung should be buried in it, to make them flower sooner.

The herbaceous sorts may be propagated by seeds, or by parting the roots in autumn.

SPIRAL, *adj.* [*spiral*, Fr. from *spira*, Lat.] Curve; winding; circularly involved, like a screw.—The process of the fibres in the ventricles, running in *spiral* lines from the tip to the base of the heart, shews that the systole of the heart is a muscular constriction, as a purse is shut by drawing the strings contrary ways. *Ray*.

SPIRALLY, *adv.* In a spiral form.—The sides are composed of two orders of fibres running circularly or *spirally* from base to tip. *Ray*.

SPIRATION, *s.* [*spiratio*, Lat.] Breathing.—To other substances, void of corporeal bulk and concretion, the name of spirit is assigned to imply the manner of their origin, because God did, by a kind of *spiration*, produce them. *Barrow*.

SPIRDING, a large lake of East Prussia, in the government of Gumbinnen; 75 miles south-east of Königsberg. It is about 60 miles in circumference, contains four small islands, and abounds in lampreys, and such other fish as are found in shallow and muddy water.

SPIRE, *s.* [*spire*, old Fr., *spira*, Ital. and Lat.] A curve line; any thing wreathed or contorted, every wreath being in a different plane; a curl; a twist; a wreath.

His head

Crested aloft, and carbuncle his eyes;
With burnish'd neck of verdant gold, erect
Amidst his circling *spires*, that on the grass
Floated redundant.

Milton.

A dragon's fiery form belied the god,
Sublime on radiant *spires* he rode.

Dryden.

Any thing growing up taper; a round pyramid, so called perhaps because a line drawn round and round in less and less circles, would be a spire; a steeple.—With glistering *spires* and pinnacles adorn'd. *Milton*.—The top or uppermost point.

'Twere no less than a traducement,
To hide your doings, and to silence that,
Which, to the *spire* and top of praises vouch'd,
Would seem but modest.

Shakspeare.

To SPIRE, *v. n.* To shoot up pyramidically.—The *spiring* turrets glitter through the skies. *Shenstone*.—[*Spiro*, Lat.] To breathe. *Not in use*.

To SPIRE, *v. a.* To shoot forth. *Not in use*.

In gentle ladie's breste, and bounteous race
Of woman-kind, it fayrest flowre doth *spyre*,
And beareth fruit of honour and all chaste desyre.

Spenser.

SPIRE, or **SPEYER**, an ancient though not large town of the west of Germany, situated at the confluence of the Spirebach and the Rhine; 14 miles south of Manheim, and 16 north-east of Landau. Its population, formerly about 5000, does not at present exceed 4000: they are partly Catholics, partly Protestants. It long gave name to a bishopric; and the only interesting building in the place is the old cathedral, now falling into decay, the choir being the only entire part of the edifice. Spire was frequently the seat of the German diet. From 1795 to 1814, it belonged to the French; at present it is the capital of the Bavarian province of the Rhine, and has a lyceum or great school established by government. The bishopric of Spire was not of great extent. It contained 55,000 inhabitants, and yielded a revenue of 30,000*l.* sterling. It was secularised in 1802, and at present belongs partly to Bavaria, partly to Baden. The episcopal residence was not Spire, but Bruchsal.

SPIREBACH, a small river of the Bavarian circle of the Rhine, near Spire, near which the allies were defeated by the French under marshal Tallard, in 1703, when they attempted to raise the siege of Landau.

SPIRED, *adj.* Having a steeple or spire.—Or pinnacled, or *spired*. *Mason*.

SPIRIT, *s.* [*spiritus*, Lat.] Breath; wind.—The balmy *spirit* of the western breeze. *Anon*.—An immaterial substance; an intellectual being.—*Spirit* is a substance wherein thinking, knowing, doubting, and a power of moving do subsist. *Locke*.

She is a *spirit*; yet not like air, or wind;
Nor like the spirits about the heart or brain;
Nor like those spirits which alchemists do find,
When they in every thing seek gold in vain;
For she all natures under heav'n doth pass,
Being like those *spirits* which God's bright face do see,
Or like himself whose image once she was,
Though now, alas! she scarce his shadow be;
For of all forms she holds the first degree,
That are to gross material bodies knit;
Yet she herself is bodyless and free;
And though confin'd is almost infinite.

Davies.

The Soul of man.—The *spirit* shall return unto God that gave it. *Eccl.*—An apparition.—Perhaps you might see the image and not the glass; the former appearing like a *spirit* in the air. *Bacon*.—Temper; habitual disposition of mind.

He sets

Upon their tongues a various *spirit*, to raise
Quite out their native language.

Milton.

Arduour; courage; elevation; vehemence of mind.

'Tis

'Tis well blown lads;
This morning, like the *spirit* of a youth
That means to be of note, begins betimes. *Shakspeare.*

Genius; vigour of mind.
More ample *spirit* than hitherto was wont,
Here needs me, whiles the famous ancestors
Of my most dreaded sovereign I recount,
By which all earthly princes she doth far surmount. *Spenser.*

Turn of mind; power of mind moral or intellectual.
You were us'd
To say extremity was the trier of *spirits*,
That common chances common men could bear. *Shakspeare.*

Intellectual powers distinct from the body.
In *spirit* perhaps he also saw
Rich Mexico, the seat of Montezume. *Milton.*

Sentiment; perception.
You are too great to be by me gainsaid:
Your *spirit* is too true, your fears too certain. *Shakspeare.*

Eagerness; desire.—God has changed men's tempers with
the times, and made a *spirit* of building succeed a *spirit* of
pulling down. *South.*—Man of activity; man of life, fire
and enterprise.

The wat'ry kingdom is no bar
To stop the foreign *spirits*, but they come. *Shakspeare.*

Persons distinguished by qualities of the mind.—A French
word, *growing obsolete.*

Of pitying God did well-form'd *spirits* raise,
Fit for the toilsome business of their days,
To free the groaning nation, and to give
Peace first, and then the rules in peace to live. *Cowley.*

That which gives vigour or cheerfulness to the mind; the
purest part of the body bordering, says Sydenham, on im-
materiality. In this meaning it is commonly written with
the plural termination.

In some fair body thus the secret soul
With *spirits* feeds, with vigour fills the whole;
Each motion guides, and ev'ry nerve sustains,
Itself unseen, but in the effects remains. *Pope.*

Characteristical likeness; essential qualities.—Italian pieces
will appear best in a room where the windows are high, be-
cause they are commonly made to a descending light, which
of all other doth set off men's faces in their truest *spirit*.
Wotton.—Any thing eminently pure and refined.

Nor doth the eye itself,
That most pure *spirit* of sense, behold itself. *Shakspeare.*

That which hath power of energy.—There is in wine a
mighty *spirit*, that will not be congealed. *South.*—An in-
flammable liquor raised by distillation; as brandy, rum.—
All *spirits*, by frequent use, destroy, and at last extinguish
the natural heat of the stomach. *Temple.*—Mark to denote
an aspirated pronunciation.—That the press should have
stripped these broken ends of verses [Homer's] of the unne-
cessary and troublesome luggage of *spirits* and accents, is
neither the composer's nor the corrector's fault. *Dalgarno.*
—It may be observed, that in the poets *spirit* was a mono-
syllable, and therefore was often written *sprite*, or, less pro-
perly, *spright*.

The charge thereof unto a courteous *spright*
Commanded was. *Spenser.*

To SPIRIT, *v. a.* To animate or actuate as a spirit.
[*spiritato*, Ital., from *spirare*, possessed with an evil spirit.]
So talk'd the *spirited* sly snake. *Milton.*

To excite; to animate; to encourage; to invigorate to
action.—Many officers and private men *spirit* up and assist
those obstinate people to continue in their rebellion. *Swift.*
—To draw; to entice.—The ministry had him *spirited*
away, and carried abroad as a dangerous person. *Arbutnot.*

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SPIRITALLY, *adv.* [*spiritus*, Lat.] By means of the
breath.—Conceive one of each pronounced *spiritally*, the
other vocally. *Holder.*

SPIRITED, *adj.* Lively; vivacious; full of fire.—Dry-
den's translation of Virgil is noble and *spirited*. *Pope.*

SPIRITEDLY, *adv.* In a lively or strong manner.
SPIRITEDNESS, *s.* Disposition or make of mind.—
He showed the narrow *spiritedness*, pride, and ignorance of
pedants. *Addison.*

SPIRITFUL, *adj.* Lively; full of spirit.
SPIRITFULLY, *adv.* In a sprightly or lively manner.
SPIRITFULNESS, *s.* Sprightliness; liveliness.—A cock's
crowing is, a tone that corresponds to singing, attesting his
mirth and *sprightfulness*. *Harvey.*

SPIRITLESS, *adj.* Dejected; low; deprived of vigour;
wanting courage; depressed.

A man so faint, so *spiritless*,
So dull, so dead in look, so woe begone,
Drew Priam's curtain. *Shakspeare.*

Having no breath; extinct.—The very condition of human
nature admonishes us, that the *spiritless* body should be
restored to the earth from whence it was derived. *Green-
hill.*

SPIRITLESSLY, *adv.* Without spirit; without exertion.
—The same [external profession] will this church of Lao-
dicea hold on *spiritlessly* and lazily, with little life or zeal.
More.

SPIRITLESSNESS, *s.* State of being spiritless.
SPIRITOUS, *adj.* Refined; defecated; advanced near
to spirit.

More refin'd, more *spiritous* and pure,
As near to him is plac'd, or nearer tending. *Milton.*

Fine; ardent; active.—The *spiritous* and benign matter
most apt for generation. *Smith.*

SPIRITOUSNESS, *s.* Fineness and activity of parts.—
They, notwithstanding the great thinness and *spiritousness*
of the liquor, did lift up the upper surface, and for a mo-
ment form a thin film like a small hemisphere. *Boyle.*

SPIRITU SANTO, a town on the south side of the
island of Cuba, opposite to the north-west part of the cluster
of isles and rocks called Jardin de la Reyna, and about 45
miles north-westerly of la Trinidad.

SPIRITU SANTO, or TAMPAY BAY, called also
HILLSBOROUGH BAY, lies on the west coast of the penin-
sula of East Florida, has a number of shoals and keys at its
mouth, and is 9 leagues north-north-west of Charlotte har-
bour, and 56 south-east-by south of the bay of Apalache.
Lat. 27. 36. N. long. 82. 54. W.

SPIRITU SANTO, a town of Brazil, in South America.
It is situated on the sea coast, in a very fertile country, and
has a small castle and harbour. Lat. 20. 10. S. long. 41.
W.

SPIRITU SANTO, a lake towards the extremity of the
peninsula of East Florida, southward from the chain of
lakes which communicate with St. John's river.

SPIRITU SANTO, a river of Mexico, which runs into
the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 23. N. long. 106. 40. W.

SPIRITU SANTO, a river of Brazil, which runs into the
Atlantic. Lat. 20. 10. S.

SPIRITU SANTO ISLANDS, or ANDROS, a chain of
islands, situated to the south-west of the Bahamas; the
largest about 40 miles in length, and 8 in breadth. Lat. 24.
to 25. 12. N. long. 77. to 78. 15. W.

SPIRITUAL, *adj.* [*spirituel*, Fr.] Distinct from matter;
immaterial; incorporeal.—Echo is a great argument of the
spiritual essence of sounds; for if it were corporeal, the re-
percussion should be created by like instruments with the
original sound. *Bacon.*—Mental; intellectual.

Spiritual armour, able to resist
Satan's assaults. *Milton.*

Not gross; refined from external things; relative only to
the mind.—Some who pretend to be of more *spiritual* and
refined religion, spend their time in contemplation, and

talk much of communion with God. *Calamy*.—Not temporal; relating to the things of heaven; ecclesiastical.

Thou art reverend,
Touching thy *spiritual* function; not thy life. *Shakspeare*.

SPIRITUALIST, s. One who professes regard to spiritual things only; one whose employment is spiritual.—May not he that lives in a small thatched house—preach as loud, and to as much purpose, as one of those high and mighty *spiritualists*? *Echard*.

SPIRITUALITY, s. Incorporeity; immateriality; essence distinct from matter.—If this light be not spiritual, yet it approacheth nearest unto *spirituality*; and if it have any corporality, then of all other the most subtle and pure. *Raleigh*.—Intellectual nature.—A pleasure made for the soul, suitable to its *spirituality*, and equal to all its capacities. *South*.—Acts independent of the body; pure acts of the soul; mental refinement.—Many secret indispositions and aversions to duty, will steal upon the soul, and it will require both time and close application of mind, to recover it to such a frame, as shall dispose it for the *spiritualities* of religion. *South*.—That which belongs to any one as an ecclesiastic.—Of common right, the dean and chapter are guardians of the *spiritualities*, during the vacancy of a bishopric. *Ayliffe*.

SPIRITUALITY, s. Ecclesiastical body. *Not in use*.
We of the *spirituality*
Will raise your highness such a mighty sum,
As never did the clergy at one time. *Shakspeare*.

SPIRITUALIZATION, s. The act of spiritualizing.—[In old Chemistry.] The action of extracting spirits from natural bodies. *Chambers*.

To **SPIRITUALIZE, v. a.** [*spiritualiser*, Fr.] To refine the intellect; to purify from the feculencies of the world.—We begin our survey from the lowest dregs of sense, and so ascend to our more *spiritualized* selves. *Glanville*.—To extract spirits from natural bodies.—Spirits of wine is sometimes *spiritualized* to that degree, that upon throwing a quantity into the air, not a drop shall fall down, but the whole evaporate, and be lost. *Chambers*.

SPIRITUALLY, adv. Without corporeal grossness; with attention to things purely intellectual.—In the same degree that virgins live more *spiritually* than other persons, in the same degree is their virginity a more excellent state. *Bishop Taylor*.

SPIRITUOUS, adj. [*spiriteux*, Fr.] Having the quality of spirit, tenuity and activity of parts.—The most *spirituous* and most fragrant part of the plant exhales by the action of the sun. *Arbuthnot*.—Lively; gay; vivid; airy: applied both to persons and things.—It may appear airy and *spirituous*, and fit for the welcome of cheerful guests. *Wotton*.—Ardent; inflammable; as *spirituous* liquors.

SPIRITUOSITY, or SPIRITUOUSNESS, s. The quality of being spirituous; tenuity and activity.

To **SPIRT, v. n.** [*Sprout* is the past participle of the Sax. *spytan*, to shoot out, to cast forth: *spurt* is the same word by a customary metathesis. *H. Tooke*.] To spring out in a sudden stream; to stream out by intervals.—Bottling of beer, while new and full of spirit, so that it *spirteth* when the stopple is taken forth, maketh the drink more quick and windy. *Bacon*.

To **SPIRT, v. a.** To throw out in a jet.
When weary Proteus
Retir'd for shelter to his wonted caves,
His finny flocks about their shepherd play,
And howling round him, *spirt* the bitter sea. *Dryden*.

SPIRT, s. Sudden ejection; sudden and short effort; a fit.

What, old hoorson, art thou a chiding?
I will play a *spyrte*, why should I not?
What hast thou to do, and if I lose my cote?
I will trill the bones while I have one grote.
Old Morality of Lusty Juventus.

To **SPIRTLE, v. a.** To shoot scatteringly.—The terraqueous globe would, by the centrifugal force of that motion, be soon dissipated and *spirtled* into the circumambient space, was is not kept together by this noble contrivance of the Creator. *Derham*.

SPIRY, adj. Pyramidal.
In these lone walls their days eternal bound,
These moss-grown domes with *spiry* turrets crown'd,
Where awful arches make a noon-day night,
And the dim windows shed a solemn light;
Thy eyes diffus'd a reconciling ray,
And gleams of glory brighten'd all the day. *Pope*.

Wreath'd; curled.
Hid in the *spiry* volumes of the snake,
I lurk'd within the covert of a brake. *Dryden*.

SPISS, adj. [*spissus*, Lat.] Close; firm; thick. *Not in use*.—From his modest and humble charity, virtues which rarely cohabit with the swelling windiness of much knowledge, issued this *spiss* and dense, yet polish'd; this copious, yet concise treatise of the variety of languages. *Brerewood*.

SPISSITUDE, s. [from *spissus*, Lat.] Grossness; thickness.—*Spissitude* is subdued by acrid things, and acrimony by inspissating. *Arbuthnot*.

SPLIT, s. [ꝑꝛɪʊ, Sax.; *spit*, Dutch; *spedo*, Ital.] A long prong on which meat is driven to be turned before the fire.

A goodly city is this Antium;
'Tis I that made thy widows: then know me not,
Lest that thy wives with *spits*, and boys with stones,
In puny battle slay me. *Shakspeare*.

Such a depth of earth as is pierced by one action of the spade.—Where the earth is washed from the quick, face it with the first *spit* of earth dug out of the ditch. *Mortimer*.

To **SPLIT, v. a.** preterite *spat*; participle pass. *spit*, or *spitted*. [*speten*, Teut. to pierce.] To put upon a spit.

I see my cousin's ghost,
Seeking out Romeo, that did *spit* his body
Upon a rapier's point. *Shakspeare*.

To thrust through.—I *spitted* frogs, I crush'd a heap of emnets. *Dryden*.

To **SPLIT, v. a.** [ꝑꝛætan, ꝑꝛittan, Saxon; *spyta*, Icel. *spytter*, Danish.] To eject from the mouth.

The sea thrusts up her waves,
One after other, thicke and high, upon the groaning shores.
First in herself loud, but oppos'd with banks and rocks she roars,
And all her backe in bristles set, *spits* every way her fume. *Chapman*.

To **SPLIT, v. n.** To throw out spittle or moisture of the mouth.—*Spit* on your finger and thumb, and pinch the snuff till the candle goes out. *Swift*.

SPLIT, s. What is thrown from the mouth.
SPLIT, THE, a shoal of the Atlantic, near the coast of South Carolina; 15 miles south of Cape Fear. Lat. 33. 34. N. long. 78. 10. W.

SPLITAL, s. A charitable foundation. See **SPIITTLE**.
SPLITAL, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Upper Carinthia, on the Liser, about a mile from the Drave. In 1797, the greatest part of this town was burnt by the French, but it has since been rebuilt; 6 miles east of Saxenburg, and 20 north-west of Villach.

To **SPLITCHCOCK, v. a.** To split an eel in two, longwise, and having laid on it the yolk of an egg with crumbs of bread, spice, sweet herbs, and parsley, to broil it.

No man lards salt pork with orange peel,
Or garnishes his lamb with *spitcheockt* eel. *King*.

SPLITCHCOCK, s. An eel spitcheocked.—Will you have some crayfish and a *spitcheocke*? *Decker*.

SPIITE, s. [*spijt*, Dutch; *despit*, French.] Malice; rancour; hate; malignity; malevolence.—This breeding rather *spite* than shame in her, or, if it were a shame, a shame not

of the fault, but of the repulse, she did thirst for a revenge.
Sidney.

Begone, ye critics, and restrain your *spite*,
Codrus writes on, and will for ever write. *Pope.*

SPITE of, or *In SPITE of*. Notwithstanding; in defiance
of. It is often used without any malignity of meaning.

I'll guard thee free,
And save thee in her *spite*. *Chapman.*

In *spite of* me I love, and see too late
My mother's pride must find my mother's fate. *Dryden.*

To *SPITE*, *v. a.* To mischief; to treat maliciously; to
vex; to thwart malignantly.

I'll sacrifice the lamb that I do love,
To *spite* a raven's heart within a dove. *Shakspeare.*

To fill with *spite*; to offend.—Darius *spited* at the magi,
endeavoured to abolish not only their learning but their
language. *Temple.*

SPITEFUL, *adj.* Malicious; malignant.—Contempt is
a thing made up of an undervaluing of a man, upon a belief
of his utter uselessness, and a *spiteful* endeavour to engage
the rest of the world in the same slight esteem of him.
South.

SPITEFULLY, *adv.* Maliciously; malignantly.
At last she *spitefully* was bent
To try their wisdom's full extent. *Swift.*

SPITEFULNESS, *s.* Malice; malignity; desire of vex-
ing.—It looks more like *spitefulness* and ill-nature, than a
diligent search after truth. *Keil.*

SPITHEAD, a noted roadstead for shipping in the
English Channel, situated between Portsmouth and the Isle
of Wight, directly facing Portsmouth harbour. It is about
20 miles in extent, and is said to be capable of holding
1000 vessels in great security. It is the usual rendezvous
of the British navy in time of war. The depth of water at low
tide is from 10 to 16 fathoms. It was here that took place
the unfortunate shipwreck of the Royal George, which
suddenly went to the bottom, with 600 persons on board,
including the Admiral Kempenfelt.

SPITHEAD CREEK, a river of the western territory of
America, which runs into the Ohio. Lat. 39. 56. N. long.
80. 46. W.

SPITTED, *adj.* Shot out into length.—Whether the
head of a deer, that by age is more *spitted*, may be brought
again to be more branched. *Bacon.*

SPITTER, *s.* One who puts meat on a spit; one who
spits with his mouth. *Huloet.*—A young deer. *Barret.*

SPITTLE, *s.* [corrupted from *hospital*, says Johnson.—
Mr. Gifford denies that *spittle* means generally an hospital
or almshouse; and says that, with our ancestors, it had an
appropriate signification, viz.: a lazar-house, a receptacle for
wretches in the leprosy, and other loathsome diseases, the
consequences of debauchery and vice.] It is still retained in
Scotland.

To the *spittle* go,
And from the powdering-tub of infamy
Fetch forth the lazar kite of Cressid's kind. *Shakspeare.*

SPITTLE, *s.* [ppact, Saxon.] Moisture of the mouth.
The saliva or *spittle* is an humour of eminent use. *Ray.*—
The *spittle* is an active liquor, immediately derived from the
arterial blood: it is saponaceous. *Arbuthnot.*

SPITTLE, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 5 miles
north-east of Great Neston.

SPITTELEGATE, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire,
adjacent to Grantham. Population 533.

SPITTLY, *adj.* Slimy; full of spittle. *Unused.*

SPITVENOM, *s.* Poison ejected from the mouth.—The
spitvenom of their poisoned hearts breaketh out to the annoy-
ance of others. *Hooker.*

SPITZ, a small town of Austria, on the Danube; 10
miles above Krems. It is built round a hill, the top of
which is planted with vines. Population 900.

SPITZBERGEN, or *EAST GREENLAND*, a group of
islands in the Northern Ocean, formerly supposed to make
part of the continent, and distinguished by the name of
East Greenland. They are situated between 76. 46. and
80. 30. N. lat. and between 9. and 20. E. long. This land
was discovered by Sir Hugh Willoughby, in the year 1553,
who called it Greenland; supposing it to be a part of the
western continent. In 1595, it was again visited by Wil-
liam Barentz and John Cornelius, two Dutchmen, who
pretended to be the original discoverers, and called the
country Spitzbergen, or Sharp Mountains, from the many
sharp pointed and rocky mountains with which it abounds.
They alleged that the coast discovered by Sir Hugh Wil-
loughby was some other country; which accordingly the
Hollanders delineated on their maps and charts by the name
of Willoughby Land; whereas in fact no such land ever
existed; and long before the voyage of these Dutchmen,
Stephen Barrows, an English shipmaster, had coasted along
a desolate country from Lat. 78. to 80. 11. N. which was
undoubtedly Spitzbergen. The sea in the neighbourhood
of Spitzbergen abounding in whales, this country has been
long the common resort of the whale fishing ships from
different countries. But, till the voyage of Captain Phipps
in 1773, the situation of the country was erroneously laid
down. It was imagined that the land stretched to the north-
ward as far as Lat. 82. N.; but Captain Phipps found the
most northerly point of land, called Seven Islands, not to
exceed 80. 30. N. lat. Towards the east he saw other lands
lying at a distance, so that Spitzbergen plainly appeared to
be surrounded by water on that side, and not joined to the
continent of Asia, as former navigators had supposed. The
north and west coasts also he explored, but was prevented
by the ice from sailing so far to the northward as he wished.
The coast appeared neither habitable nor accessible. It is
formed of high, barren, black rocks, without the least marks
of vegetation; in many places bare and pointed; in others
covered with snow, appearing even above the clouds. The
valleys between the high cliffs were filled with snow and ice.
“This prospect,” says Captain Phipps, “would have sug-
gested the idea of perpetual winter, had not the mildness of
the weather, the smooth water, bright sunshine, and constant
daylight, given a cheerfulness and novelty to the whole of
this romantic scene.” The current ran along this coast half
a knot an hour north. There is good anchorage in Schmee-
renburgh harbour, lying in Lat. 74. 44. N. Long. 9. 50.
45. E. in 13 fathoms, sandy bottom, not far from the shore,
and well sheltered from all winds. Close to this harbour is
an island called Amsterdam island, where the Dutch used
formerly to boil their whale-oil; and the remains of some
conveniency erected by them for that purpose are still visible.
The Dutch ships, excepting in time of war, still resort to
this place for the later season of the whale fishery. The
rocks about this place are chiefly a kind of marble or lime-
stone. No appearances of metals were observed, nor any
signs of ancient or modern volcanoes. No insects, or any
species of reptiles, were seen, not even the common earth-
worm. There were no springs or rivers; but great plenty
of water was produced from the snow which melted on the
mountains. In the valleys are found some plants, and some
curious birds. The foxes are like those of Greenland; the
bears are of a different species. On the coasts are found
whales, sea-dogs, sea-cows, and sea-lions, with other marine
and amphibious animals. These islands are totally uninhab-
ited, though it doth not appear but that human creatures
could subsist on them, notwithstanding their vicinity to the
pole. Eight English sailors, who were accidentally left
here by a whale-fishing ship, survived the winter, and were
brought home next season. The Dutch next attempted to
settle a colony on Amsterdam island above-mentioned; but
this attempt proved unsuccessful; all the people who were
settled in this desolate region having perished.

SPIXWORTH, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½
miles north-by-east of Norwich.

SPIZLIBERG, a very high mountain of the Alps, in the
Swiss

Swiss canton of Uri, the perpendicular height of which is 11,373 feet above the level of the sea.

SPLANCHNO'LOGY, [*splanchnologie*, Fr.; *σπλαγγα* and *λογος*, Gr.] A treatise on the viscera.

SPLACHNUM [from the Gr. *σπλαγγον*, *viscus*], in Botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order musci.—Generic Character. Capsule cylindrical, veil and receptacle very large; fringe with eight teeth. Male, a bud on a different plant; circular, terminating.

In the systema vegetabilium six species only are enumerated; in Dr. Withering's arrangement twelve, chiefly from Hedwig. Two species are figured by Withering:—*ampullaceum*, in English Botany, flora danica, Dillenius, Vaillant, Morison and Buxbaum:—*tenuis*, by Dickson. Formerly these were not distinguished from the bryums.

To SPLASH, *v. a.* [*plaska*, Swedish.] To daub with dirt in great quantities.

Then answer'd squire Morley, pray get a calash,
That in summer may burn, and in winter may splash.
Prior.

SPLASH, *s.* Wet or dirt thrown up from a puddle, or the like.

SPLASHY, *adj.* Full of dirty water; apt to daub.

To SPLAY, *v. a.* To dislocate or break a horse's shoulder bone. *Unused.*

To SPLAY, *v. a.* For *display*.

Each bush a bar, each spray a banner *splayed*,
Each house a fort, our passage to have stayed.
Mir. for Mag.

SPLAY, *adj.* Displayed; spread; turned outward.—Her face and her *splay* foot have made her accused for a witch. *Sidney.*

SPLA'FOOT, or SPLA'YFOOTED, *adj.* Having the foot turned outward.—Sure I met no *splea-footed* baker. *Machin.*

SPLA'YMOUTH, *s.* Mouth widened by design. *Unused.*

All authors to their own defects are blind:
Hadst thou but Janus-like a face behind,
To see the people when *splaymouths* they make,
To mark their fingers pointed at thy back,
Their tongues lol'd out a foot. *Dryden.*

SPLEEN, *s.* The milt; one of the viscera.

All envy'd; but the Thestyan brethren show'd
The least respect; and thus they vent their spleen aloud:
Lay down those honour'd spoils. *Dryden.*

A fit of anger.

Charge not in your spleen a noble person,
And spoil your nobler soul. *Shakspeare.*

Inconstancy; caprice.—A mad-brain rudesby, full of spleen. *Shakspeare.*—A sudden motion; a fit.

Brief as the lightning in the collied night,
That, in a spleen, unfolds both heaven and earth;
And, ere a man hath power to say, Behold!
The jaws of darkness do devour it up. *Shakspeare.*

Melancholy; hypochondriacal vapours.

The spleen with sullen vapours clouds the brain,
And binds the spirits in its heavy chain,
How'er the cause fantastic may appear,
Th' effect is real, and the pain sincere. *Blackmore.*

Spleen, vapours, and small-pox above them all. *Pope.*—Bodies chang'd to recent forms by spleen. *Pope.*—Whether idleness be the mother or the daughter of spleen? *Bp. Berkeley.*

SPLE'ENED, *adj.* Deprived of the spleen.—Animals *spleened* grow salacious. *Arbutnot.*

SPLE'ENFUL, *adj.* Angry; peevish; fretful; melancholy.

The commons, like an angry hive of bees
That want their leader, scatter up and down;
Myself have calm'd their spleenful mutiny. *Shakspeare.*
The cheerful soldiers, with new stores supply'd,
Now long to execute their spleenful will. *Dryden.*

If you drink tea upon a promontory that overhangs the sea, the whistling of the wind is better music to contented minds than the opera to the spleenful. *Pope.*

SPLE'ENISH. See SPLENISH.

SPLE'ENLESS, *adj.* Kind; gentle; mild. *Obsoletc.*
Mean time flew our ships, and streight we fetcht
The syren's isle; a spleenless wind so stretcht
Her wings to waft us, and so urg'd our keel. *Chapman.*

SPLE'ENWORT, *s.* Miltwaste. A plant. [*asplenion*, Lat.]—The leaves and fruit are like those of the fern; but the pinnulæ are eared at their basis. *Miller.*

Safe pass'd the gnome through this fantastick band,
A branch of healing spleenwort in his hand. *Pope.*

SPLE'ENY, *adj.* Angry; peevish;
The heart, and harbour'd thoughts of ill, make traitors,
Not spleeny speeches. *Beaumont and Fl.*

SPLE'NDENT, *adj.* [*splendens*, Lat.] Shining; glossy; having lustre.—Metallic substances may, by reason of their great density, reflect all the light incident upon them, and so be as opake and *splendent* as it is possible for any body to be. *Newton.*—Eminently conspicuous.

SPLE'NDID, *adj.* [*splendide*, Fr., *splendidus*, Lat.] Showy; magnificent; sumptuous; pompous.

Deep in a rich alcove the prince was laid,
And slept beneath the pompous colonnade:
Fast by his side Pisistratus lay spread,
In age his equal, on a splendid bed. *Pope.*

SPLE'NDIDLY, *adv.* Magnificently; sumptuously; pompously.

How he lives and eats,
How largely gives, how splendidly he treats. *Dryden.*

SPLE'NDOUR, *s.* [*splendor*, Latin.]—Lustre; power of shining.—*Splendour* hath a degree of whiteness, especially if there be a little repercussion; for a looking-glass, with the steel behind, looketh whiter than glass simple. *Bacon.*—Magnificence; pomp.

'Tis use alone that sanctifies expence,
And splendour borrows all her rays from sense. *Pope.*

SPLE'NDROUS, *adj.* Having splendour. *Not in use.*—Whose *splendrous* arms shone like a mighty flame. *Drayton.*

SPLENE'TICAL, or SPLE'NETIC, *adj.* [*splenetique*, French.] Troubled with the spleen; fretful; peevish.—I have received much benefit touching my *splenetical* infirmity. *Wotton.*—Horace purged himself from these *splenetic* reflections in odes and epodes, before he undertook his satyrs. *Dryden.*

SPLE'NETIC, *s.* A splenetic person.—This daughter silently lours; the other steals a kind look at you; a third is exactly well behaved; and a fourth a *splenetic*. *Tatler.*

SPLE'NICK, *adj.* [*splenique*, Fr., *splea*, Lat.] Belonging to the spleen.—The *splenick* vein hath divers cells opening into it near its extremities in human bodies; but in quadrupeds the cells open into the trunks of the *splenick* veins. *Ray.*

SPLE'NISH, *adj.* Fretful; peevish.—Luxury, pride, ambition, rebellion, murder, the common and known fruits of fiery and *spleenish* tempers. *Archd. Arnway.*

SPLE'NITIVE, *adj.* Hot; fiery; passionate. *Not in use.*

Take thy fingers from my throat;
For though I am not *splenetic* and rash,
Yet I have in me something dangerous. *Shakspeare.*

SPLENT,

SPLINT, *s.* [*spinella*, Ital.] A callous hard substance, or an insensible swelling, which breeds on or adheres to the shank-bone of a horse. *Farrier's Dict.*—A splint or splinter. See **SPLINT**.

To **SPLICE**, *v. a.* [*splissen*, Dutch; *plico*, Lat.] To join the two ends of a rope without a knot.

SPLINT, *s.* [*splinter*, Teut., and also *splenter*, and *spletter*, the same; from *spljten*, to split, to cleave. An old form of our word is *splent*.] A fragment of wood in general.—A thin piece of wood or other matter used by surgeons to hold the bone newly set in its place.—The ancients, after the seventh day, used *splints*, which not only kept the members steady, but straight; and of these some are made of tin, others of scabbard and wood, sowed up in linen cloths. *Wiseman*.

To **SPLINT**, *v. a.* To shiver; to tear asunder; to break into fragments. *Florio*.—To secure by splints.

The broken rancour of your high swoln hearts,
But lately *splinted*, knit, and join'd together,
Must gently be preserv'd, cherish'd, and kept. *Shakspeare*.

SPLINTER, *s.* [*splinter*, Teut.] A fragment of any thing broken with violence.—He was slain upon a course at tilt, one of the *splinters* of Montgomery's staff going in at his beaver. *Bacon*.—A thin piece of wood.—A plain Indian fan, used by the meaner sort, made of the small stringy parts of roots, spread out in a round flat form, and so bound together with a *splinter* hoop, and strengthened with small bars on both sides. *Grew*.

To **SPLINTER**, *v. a.* To shiver; to break into fragments.—To secure by splints; to support.—This broken joint entreat her to *splinter*, and this crack of your love shall grow stronger than it was before. *Shakspeare*.

To **SPLINTER**, *v. n.* To be broken into fragments; to be shivered.

To **SPLIT**, *v. a.* pret. and part. pass. *split*. [*splijten*, *splitten*, Teut., from the Icel. *splita*, to tear.] To cleave; to rive; to divide longitudinally in two.

Do't, and thou hast the one half of my heart
Do't not, thou *splitst* thine own. *Shakspeare*.

To divide; to part.—Their logic has appeared the mere art of wrangling, and their metaphysics the skill of *splitting* an hair, of distinguishing without a difference. *Watts*.—To dash and break on a rock.—God's desertion, as a full and violent wind, drives him in an instant, not to the harbour, but on the rock where he will be irrecoverably *split*. *Dec. of Chr. Picty*.—To divide; to break into discord.—In states notoriously irreligious, a secret and irresistible power *splits* their counsels, and smites their most refined policies with frustration and a curse. *South*.

To **SPLIT**, *v. n.* To burst in sunder; to crack; to suffer disruption.—A huge vessel of exceeding hard marble *split* asunder by congealed water. *Boyle*.—To burst with laughter.

Each had a gravity would make you *split*,
And shook his head at M—y as a wit. *Pope*.

To be broken against rocks.
After our ship did *split*,
When you, and the poor number sav'd with you,
Hung on our driving boat. *Shakspeare*.

SPLIT ROCK CREEK, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri; 170 miles west of Mississippi.

SPLITTER, *s.* One who splits.
How should we rejoice, if, like Judas the first,
Those *splitters* of parsons in sunder should burst! *Swift*.

SPLUGEN, a petty village in the east of Switzerland, in the canton of the Grisons, remarkable as forming a station or pass on the usual road from the Grisons to Como, in Italy; 16 miles north-west of Chiavenna.

SPLUTTER, *s.* [perhaps a corruption of *sputter*.] Bustle; tumult. *A low word*.

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To **SPLUTTER**, *v. n.* To speak hastily and confusedly.—A Dutchman came into the secretary's office, *spluttering* and making a great noise. *Carleton*.

SPODDEN, a small river of England, in Lancashire.
SPOFFORTH, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-west of Wetherby. Population 2857.

To **SPOIL**, *v. a.* [*spolio*, Lat., *spolier*, Fr.] To seize by robbery; to take away by force.—Ye took joyfully the *spoiling* of your goods, knowing in yourselves that ye have in heaven an enduring substance. *Heb*.

This mount
With all his verdure *spoild*, and trees adrift. *Milton*.

To plunder; to strip of goods: with *of* before the thing taken.—Yielding themselves upon the Turk's faith, for the safety-guard of their liberty and goods, they were most injuriously *spoiled of* all that they had. *Knolles*.—To corrupt; to mar; to make useless. [This is properly *spill*, *pillan*, Sax.] Beware lest any man *spoil* you, through philosophy and vain deceit. *Col*.

To **SPOIL**, *v. n.* To practise robbery or plunder.—England was infested with robbers and outlaws, which, lurking in woods, used to break forth to rob and *spoil*. *Spenser*.—To grow useless; to be corrupted.—He that gathered a hundred bushels of acorns, or apples, had thereby a property in them: he was only to look that he used them before they *spoiled*, else he robbed others. *Locke*.

SPOIL, *s.* [*spolium*, Lat.] That which is taken by violence; that which is taken from any enemy; plunder; pilage; booty.

The cry of Talbot serves me for a sword;
For I have loaden me with many *spoils*,
Using no other weapon but his name. *Shakspeare*.

That which is gained by strength or effort.
But grant our heroes hopes long toil
And comprehensive genius crown,
Each science and each art his *spoil*,
Yet what reward, or what renown? *Bentley*.

That which is taken from another.
Gentle gales,
Fanning their odoriferous wings, dispense
Native perfumes, and whisper whence they stole
These balmy *spoils*. *Milton*.

The act of robbery; robbery; waste.
Go and speed!
Havock, and *spoil*, and ruin, are my gain. *Milton*.

Corruption; cause of corruption.—Company, villainous company, hath been the *spoil* of me. *Shakspeare*.—The slough; the cast-off skin of a serpent.—Snakes, the rather for the casting of their *spoil*, live till they be old. *Bacon*.

SPOILER, *s.* A robber; a plunderer; a pillager.
Such ruin of her manners Rome
Doth suffer now, as she's become
Both her own *spoiler* and own prey. *B. Jonson*.

One who mars or corrupts any thing.
SPOILFUL, *adj.* Wasteful; rapacious.
Having oft in battles vanquished
Those *spoilful* Picts, and swarming Easterlings,
Long time in peace his realm established. *Spenser*.

SPOKE, *s.* [ʃpac, ʃpaca, Sax.; *speiche*, Germ.; *spacche*, Teut.] The bar of a wheel that passes from the nave to the felly.

All you gods,
In general synod take away her power;
Break all the *spokes* and fellies of her wheel,
And bowl the round nave down the hill of heaven.
Shakspeare.

The spar of a ladder.—The *spooks* by which they scal'd
so high. *Lovelace*.

SPOKE. The preterite of *speak*.—They *spoke* best in the glory of their conquest. *Sprat.*

SPO'KEN. Participle passive of *speak*.—Would'st thou be *spoken* for to the king? *2 Kings.*

SPOKESMAN, s. One who speaks for another.—He shall be thy *spokesman* unto the people. *Exod.*

SPOLETO, a duchy in the central part of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical States, comprising the greatest part of the ancient Umbria, and containing 100,000 inhabitants.

SPOLETO, a town of the Ecclesiastical States, the capital of a duchy of the same name, situated on the side and summit of a hill, near the small river Mareggia. It is large, but far from proportionally populous, containing only between 6000 and 7000 inhabitants. The streets, from the uneven nature of the ground, are extremely steep, and, though the houses are in general well built, there is no edifice either public or private that has any claim to distinction. The buildings commonly noticed by travellers, are the cathedral and the castle: the former, occupying a commanding situation, presents a front of five Gothic arches, supported by Grecian pillars; the decorations of the interior display little taste; but from the terrace is enjoyed an extensive and beautiful view. The castle, situated on a high hill which overlooks the town, is a vast stone building, surrounded with a rampart. It is connected with the town by a bridge and aqueduct, thrown over a deep dell, and supported by arches of surprising height: the boldness of their construction has made them be attributed to the Romans, but they bear evident marks of a more recent erection. Spoleto is a place of great antiquity, and was in vain attacked by the Carthaginians, after their victory at the lake Thrasymene. Its chief antiquities are two of the town gates, the ruins of a theatre, and those of a temple. The only manufacture of this place is of hats; 15 miles south-south-east of Foligno, and 55 north-north-east of Rome. Lat. 42. 44. 50. N. long. 12. 35. 46. E.

To SPO'LIATE, v. a. [*spolio*, Lat.] To rob; to plunder.

SPOLIATION, s. [*spoliation*, Fr.; *spoliatio*, Lat.] The act of robbery or privation.—An ecclesiastical benefice is sometimes void *de jure et facto*, and sometimes *de facto*, and not *de jure*; as when a man suffers a *spoliation* by his own act. *Ayliffe.*

SPOLOUK, a village on the south coast of Java, near to which are a beautiful grotto, and hot mineral springs raising Fahrenheit's thermometer to 122° close by the side of the sea. The sultan of Mataram has several summer houses for bathing quarters, on the beach; 104 miles south of Samarang.

SPONDA'IC, or SPONDA'ICAL, adj. Belonging to a spondee; like a spondee.—Pythagoras caused the musician to change the tones; and so by a heavy, grave, *spondaical* music he presently appeased their fury. *Ferrand.*—The measure of time in pronouncing may be varied, so as very strongly to represent not only the modes of external action, but the quick or slow succession of ideas, and consequently the passions of the mind. This at least was the power of the *spondaick* and dactylic harmony. *Johnson.*

SPO'NDEE, s. [*spondée*, Fr.; *spondeus*, Lat.] A foot of two long syllables.—We see in the choice of the words the weight of the stone, and the striving to heave it up the mountain: Homer clogs the verse with *spondees*, and leaves the vowels open. *Broome.*

SPONDIAS [from the Gr. *σπονδα*, *libo*, comes *σπονδη*, *libatio*, *σπονδειον*, the vessel for libation, and *σπονδειον*, the material of libation, as wine, honey, milk, &c.], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia, natural order of terebintaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, subcampanulate, small, five-cleft, coloured, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, oblong, flat, spreading. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, erect, shorter than the corolla, alternately longer. Anthers oblong. Pistil: germ ovate. Styles five, short, distant, erect. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: drupe oblong, large, marked with

five dots from the falling of the styles; ten-valved. Seed: nut ovate, woody, fibrous, five-cornered, five-celled; covered with a fleshy elastic aril.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-toothed. Corolla five-petalled. Drupe with a five-celled nut.

1. *Spondias mombin*, purple hog-plum, or Spanish plum.—Leaves with the common petiole, compressed. The usual height of this tree is ten or twelve feet, and the stem is as large as a man's leg, sending out branches towards the top, covered with a gray bark; these are destitute of leaves for some months, and in the spring, before the leaves appear, many purple flowers come out from the side of the branches; these are succeeded by fruit like plums, having a luscious thin pulp, covering a large fibrous stone. The leaves which come out afterwards are unequally pinnate, with four or five pairs of leaflets, about an inch long, and half an inch broad.—Native of South America.

2. *Spondias myrobalanus*, yellow hog-plum, or Jamaica plum.—Petioles round, leaflets shining, acuminate. This rises to the height of thirty feet or more, sending out many crooked irregular branches, which are destitute of leaves for some months: the branches have a light-coloured bark, and unequally pinnate leaves, with four or six pairs of leaflets near two inches long, and an inch broad, having deep longitudinal veins. The flowers come out before the leaves appear; and are succeeded by yellow plums an inch or more in length, growing in a sort of raceme: they have large fibrous stones with a thin covering of flesh.—Native of all the Caribbee islands, and the neighbouring continent.

3. *Spondias mangifera*, or mango hog-plum.—Leaflets oblong, quite entire; panicle racemed.—Found in the East Indies.

4. *Spondias dulcis*, or sweet hog-plum.—Petioles round, six-paired; leaflets serrate, ribbed. This is a tall shady tree, with a handsome spreading head. Trunk thicker than a man's body, upright, fifty feet high, flowering before the time of leafing in September. Cultivated in the Society and Friendly Islands of the South Sea, especially in Otaheite. The golden fruit hangs in little nodding bunches, and is esteemed one of the most tasteful and wholesome; it has almost the same flavour with the ananas, and not only assuages thirst, but is given to the sick without distinction.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants grow easily from cuttings planted in pots filled with rich light earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed, covering them down either with bell or hand glasses, to exclude the external air, and shading them from the sun. The best time for this is in the spring, before the plants put out their leaves. They may also be propagated by the stones, if they are brought over fresh.

SPONDON, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 3 miles east-by-south of Derby. Population 943.

SPONDYLE, s. [*σπονδυλος*, Gr.; *spondile*, Fr.; *spondylus*, Lat.] A vertebra; a joint of the spine.—It hath for the spine or back-bone a cartilaginous substance, without any *spondyles*, processes, or protuberances. *Brown.*

SPONDYLI [*σπονδυλοι*, Gr.], in Antiquity, pellets of brass used in giving sentence, before the *κναμοι*, or beans, came into use.

SPONDYLOLITHOS, a name given by authors to a stone found in the country of Tyrol, and elsewhere, resembling the vertebrae of an animal. It is in reality no other than the vertebrae of some sea-fish petrified, as is common with us.

SPONDYLUS [*σπονδυλος*, Gr.], a term anciently used for a vertebra of the spina dorsa.

SPONDYLUS, in Natural History, a genus of the class and order vermes testacea, of which the Generic Character is:—Animal a tethys; shell hard, solid, with unequal valves; one of the valves is convex, the other rather flat; hinge with two recurved teeth, separated by a small hollow. There are four.

1. *Spondylus gædaropus*.—The shell of this species is slightly eared and spinous.—It inhabits the Mediterranean, the

the Indian, and other seas, and is found in almost infinite varieties, as to size, thickness and colours; sometimes entirely purple, orange, white or bloom-colour; sometimes marked with various streaks, spots, dots or bands.

2. *Spondylus regius*.—Shell without ears, and spinous. There are four varieties.—One inhabits India, and one is found near Malta, which is very rare. The shell is subglobular; within it is white; without purplish, scarlet, flame-coloured, orange or white; the spines are usually two inches long; it is sometimes cylindrical, with a crenate margin.

3. *Spondylus plicatus*.—Shell without ears or spines, plaited.—It is found in India, some parts of America, and in the Mediterranean. The shell is white, with yellowish reddish, brownish, or violet lines and veins.

4. *Spondylus citreus*.—Shell oblong, plaited, spinous. The shell is imbricate, about two inches long, and nearly as broad; it is of a citron-colour, or red, with an orange inner margin.

SPONGE, *s.* [pongea, Sax.] A soft porous substance, supposed by some the nidus of animals. It is remarkable for sucking up water. It is often written *spunge*. See SPONGIA.—Great officers are like *sponges*: they suck till they are full, and, when they come once to be squeezed, their very heart's blood come away. *L'Estrange*.

To SPONGE, *v. a.* To blot; to wipe away as with a sponge.—Except between the words of translation and the mind of Scripture itself there be contradiction, very little difference should not seem an intolerable blemish necessarily to be *spunged* out. *Hooker*.—To cleanse with a sponge: applied to the act of cleansing cannon.—To drain; to squeeze; to harass by extortion.—How came such multitudes of our nation, at the beginning of that monstrous rebellion in the year 1641, to be *spunged* of their plate and money? *South*.—To gain by mean arts.

Here wont the dean, when he's to seek,
To *spunge* a breakfast once a week.

Swift.

To SPONGE, *v. n.* To suck in as a sponge; to live by mean arts; to hang on others for maintenance.—The ant lives upon her own honesty; whereas the fly is an intruder, and a common smell-feast, that *spunges* upon other people's trenchers. *L'Estrange*.

SPONGER, *s.* One who hangs for a maintenance on others.—A generous rich man, that kept a splendid and open table, would try which were friends, and which only trencher-flies and *spongers*. *L'Estrange*.

SPONGIA, the Spunge, in Natural History, a genus of the class and order vermes zoophytes. The Generic Character is as follows:—Animal fixed, flexile, torpid, of various forms, composed either of reticulated fibres, or masses of small spines, interwoven together, and clothed with a gelatinous flesh, full of small mouths on its surface, by which it absorbs and rejects water. There are about fifty species, of which nine or ten belong to this country.

The sponges consist of a ramified mass of capillary tubes, that were formerly supposed to be the production of a species of worms, which are often found within these cavities; an idea, however, which is now generally exploded. Others have imagined them to be only vegetable productions: that they are, however, possessed of animality, appears evident, from the circumstance of their pores alternately contracting and dilating, and from their even shrinking, in some degree, from the touch, when examined in their native situations. Their structure enables them, it is thought, to absorb nourishment from the surrounding fluid. Sponges are the most torpid of all the zoophytes. The individuals differ very much from each other in form and structure. Some of them, as the *Spongia officinalis*, or common sponge, are of no determinate figure, but others are cup-shaped, tubular, &c.; irregularly formed, porous, rough, lobed, and woolly. These are very numerous. We give a few of the most remarkable.

1. *Spongia ventilabrum*.—Fan-shaped, regular, soft, with reticulate woody veins, covered with pores like those of a

honey-comb. It is found in the Norwegian and American seas; about six inches high, and five broad: it exactly resembles a small gorgonia flabellum in its shape and ramifications, except that the pores are angular, and the substance is spongy.

2. *Spongia flabelliformis*.—Fan-shaped, orbicular, cartilaginous, with square articulate fibres.—This species inhabits the Indian and Red seas. It is from six to eight inches in height, and four or five broad, and resembles the *ventilabrum*.

3. *Spongia infundibuliformis*.—This is funnel formed, flexile, with the surface more or less roughened.—It inhabits the Mediterranean and Indian seas, adhering to rocks, and is from six to eighteen inches in diameter; in colour it is a pale brown, and less tenacious than common sponge.

4. *Spongia fistularis*.—Tubular, simple, brittle, and growing gradually larger.—It inhabits the Indian Ocean, is from three to four feet long: when dry it is blackish fulvous.

5. *Spongia coronata*.—Minute, consisting of a single tube, and crowned at the tip with a ray of spines.—This is found in our own country, on the Sussex coast: its colour is of a pale yellow; the rays that compose the crown are of a bright pearl yellow, hollow, and open at the top; and when seen through a magnifier, it appears covered with little rising points.

6. *Spongia officinalis*.—This species is irregularly formed, porous, tough, lobed, woolly. It is elastic, and very full of holes; it grows into irregular lobes of a woolly consistence, and generally adheres, by a very broad base, to the rocks.—It is chiefly found about the islands in the Mediterranean, where it forms a considerable article of commerce. A variety of small marine animals pierce and gnaw into its irregular winding cavities. These appear on the outside, by large holes raised higher than the rest. When it is cut perpendicularly, the interior parts are seen to consist of small tubes, which are divided into branches as they appear on the surface. These tubes, which are composed of reticulated fibres, extend themselves every way, by this means increasing the surface of the sponge, and ending at the outside in an infinite number of small circular holes, which are the proper mouths of the animal. Each of these holes is surrounded by a few erect pointed fibres, that appear as if woven in the form of little spines. The tubes, with their ramifications, in the living state of the sponge, are clothed with a gelatinous substance, properly called the flesh of the animal. When the sponge is first taken, it has a strong fishy smell, and the fishermen take great care in making it perfectly clean, in order to prevent its growing putrid.

7. *Spongia oculata*.—Porous, soft, and very much branched, the branches a little compressed, erect, and often uniting together. This inhabits the British seas. It is from five to ten inches high, of a pale yellow colour; the branches end obtusely.

8. *Spongia palmata*.—This species is, as its name imports, palmate, with finger-like divisions round the surface; the pores are a little prominent, and irregularly disposed.—It inhabits the Sussex coast; it is of a reddish colour, inclining to yellow, with a soft woolly substance, like *spongia oculata*.

9. *Spongia prolifera*.—Flat, with numerous palmate branches, ending in finger-like divisions.—It is found in the North American seas; grows in large bunches, is about six inches high, very porous, reticulate within, and full of minute spines on the outside.

10. *Spongia botrycides*.—This is a very tender species, is branched, and covered with bunches of ovate tubercles, open at the top.—It inhabits the British coasts; is of a bright shining white colour; the bunches are made up of oblong, oval tubercles, like grapes, open at the end. The surface, when seen through magnifiers of considerable power, seems covered with masses of three-rayed spinous stars.

11. *Spongia panicea*.—Irregularly formed, whitish, soft, very tender, and full of minute pores.—It inhabits the seas between this country and Holland, intermixed with fuci, and other

other marine productions; and is thought, from the similarity which it bears to the spongia tomentosa, to be a variety of that species.

12. *Spongia fulva*.—This species is irregularly formed, but slightly branched, fulvous, and it is very rigid.—It inhabits the American ocean; is gelatinous, and brown between the fibres.

13. *Spongia tabularia*.—Compressed, sessile, a little rigid and yellowish, with small longitudinal tubes.—This also is an American species, generally seated on rocks, frequently blackish within.

14. *Spongia fibrillosa*.—This species is irregularly shaped, a little flattened and tender, with divergent, crowded, interwoven fibres, and scattered toothed pores.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, is grey, soft, fan-shaped, or divided, or caulescent.

15. *Spongia fasciculata*.—This is rigid, sub-globular, composed of fibrous, prismatic, branched, fastigate bunches.—This is found in the Mediterranean sea; is pale, fulvous, or yellowish-grey.

16. *Spongia coalita*.—This is very much branched, soft, tender, yellow; the branches are a little compressed.—It inhabits the North seas.

17. *Spongia lacustris*.—Creeping, brittle, with erect, round, obtuse branches.—It is found at the bottom of lakes in England and Sweden, covered with scattered pores, in which are sometimes found, during autumn, small blueish shining globules.

18. *Spongia pulviatilis*.—Green, erect, fragile, of many irregular branches.—It inhabits the fresh waters of this country, Prussia, and other parts of Europe. It is of a dull green, with hardly the appearance of animal life, of a fishy smell, and with the pores full of green, gelatinous granulations; it very much resembles the last.

SPO'NGINESS, *s.* Softness and fulness of cavities like a sponge.—The *sponginess* of it [wood] would suck up the blood. *Fuller*.

SPO'NGIOUS, *adj.* [*spongieux*, Fr.] Full of small cavities like a sponge.—All thick bones are hollow or *spongieous*, and contain an oleaginous substance in little vesicles, which, by the heat of the body, is exhaled through these bones to supply their fibres. *Cheyne*.

SPO'NGY, *adj.* Soft and full of small interstitial holes.—The lungs are the most *spongy* part of the body, and therefore ablest to contract and dilate itself. *Bacon*.—Wet; drenched; soaked; full like a sponge

When their drench'd natures lie as in a death,
What cannot you and I perform upon
Th' unguarded Duncan? What not put upon
His *spongy* officers who shall bear the guilt? *Shakspeare*.

Having the quality of imbibing.

SPONK, *s.* A word in Edinburgh which denotes a match, or any thing dipt in sulphur that takes fire: as, Any *sponks* will ye buy? *Touchwood*.

SPO'NSAL, *adj.* [*sponsalis*, Lat.] Relating to marriage.

SPO'NSION, *s.* [*sponsio*, Lat.] The act of becoming a surety.—This is a great and weighty *sponsion*. *Napleton*.

SPO'NSOR, *s.* [Latin.] A surety; one who makes a promise or gives security for another.

The rash hermit, who with impious pray'r
Had been the *sponsor* of another's care. *Harte*.

SPONTANEITY, *s.* [*spontaneitas*, school Lat.; *spontanéité*, Fr., from *spontaneous*.] Voluntariness; willingness; accord un-compelled.—Necessity and *spontaneity* may sometimes meet together, so may *spontaneity* and liberty; but real necessity and true liberty can never. *Bramhall* against *Hobbes*.

SPONTA'NEOUS, *adj.* [*spontanée*, Fr.; from *sponte*, Lat.] Voluntary; not compelled; acting without compulsion or restraint; acting of itself; acting of its own accord.—Many analogical motions in animals, though I cannot call them voluntary, yet I see them *spontaneous*: I have reason to conclude, that these are not simply mechanical. *Hale*.

SPONTA'NEOUSLY, *adv.* Voluntarily; of its own accord.—Whey turns *spontaneously* acid, and the curd into cheese as hard as a stone. *Arbuthnot*.

SPONTA'NEOUSNESS, *s.* Voluntariness; freedom of will; accord unforced.—The sagacities and instincts of brutes, the *spontaneousness* of many of their animal motions, are not explicable without supposing some active determinate power connexed to and inherent in their spirits, of a higher extraction than the bare natural modifications of matter. *Hale*.

SPONTO'ON, [*esponton*, French.] A military weapon, a kind of half pike, or halberd.—Says Johnson, in a tone of admiration, How the little fellow brandished his *spontoon*! There is nothing in it, replied Goldsmith, starting up with impatience; Give me a *spontoon*; I can do it as well myself. *Murphy*.

SPOOL, *s.* [*spule*, German; *spohl*, Dutch.] A small piece of cane or reed, with a knot at each end; or a piece of wood turned in that form to wind yarn upon; a quill.

To SPOOM, *v. n.* [Probably from *spume*, or *foam*, as a ship driven with violence spumes, or raises a foam.] To go on swiftly; a sea term.

When virtue *spooms* before a prosperous gale,
My heaving wishes help to fill the sail. *Dryden*.

SPOON, *s.* [*spaen*, Dutch; *spone*, Danish; *sponn*, Icelandic.] A concave vessel with a handle, used in eating liquids.

Or o'er cold coffee trifle with the *spoon*,
Count the slow clock, and dine exact at noon. *Pope*.

To SPOON, *v. n.* In sea language, is when a ship being under sail in a storm cannot bear it, but is obliged to put right before the wind. *Bailey*.

SPOON RIVER, a river of the United States, which, after a course of 100 miles, falls into the Illinois.

SPO'ONBILL, *s.* A bird. See **PLATEA**.—The shoveller, or *spoonbill*; the former name the more proper, the end of the bill being broad like a shovel; but not concave like a spoon, but perfectly flat. *Grew*. *Mus*.

SPO'ONFUL, *s.* As much as is generally taken at once in a spoon.—A medical spoonful is half an ounce.—Prescribe him, before he do use the receipt, that he take such a pill or a *spoonful* of liquor. *Bacon*.—Any small quantity of liquid.—Surely the choice and measure of the materials of which the whole body is composed, and what we take daily by pounds, is at least of as much importance as what we take seldom, and only by grains and *spoonfuls*. *Arbuthnot*.

SPO'ON-MEAT, *s.* Liquid food; nourishment taken with a spoon.—We prescribed a slender diet, allowing only *spoon-meats*. *Wiseman*.

Wretched

Are mortals born to sleep their lives away!
Go back to what thy infancy began,
Eat pap and *spoon-meat*; for thy gewgaws cry,
Be sullen, and refuse the lullaby. *Dryden*.

SPO'ON-WORT, *s.* Scurvy-grass.
Spoon-wort was there, scorbutic to supply,
And centaury to clear the jaundic'd eye. *Harte*.

SPORADES, in Astronomy, a name which the ancients gave to such stars as were not included in any constellation.

SPORADES, the name of one of the ancient divisions, of the islands of the Grecian archipelago, comprising those scattered irregularly along the shores of Europe and Asia, in contradistinction to the Cyclades, which were grouped circularly around Delos.

SPORA'DICAL, *adj.* [*σποραδικος*, Gr.; *sporadique*, Fr.] Opposed to epidemical; in medicine.—A *sporadical* disease is—what in a particular season affects but few people. *Arbuthnot*.

SPORLE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2½ miles north-east of Swaffham. Population 576.

SPORLING'S ISLAND, a small island near the coast of New Zealand, a little to the north-east of Gable End Foreland.

SPORLIVOI,

SPORLIVOLI, Nos, a cape on the south coast of Nova Zembla. Lat. 70. 30. N. long. 60. 34. E.

SPORT, *s.* [*spott*, a make-game, Icelandic.] Play; diversion; game; frolic and tumultuous merriment.

As flies to wanton boys, are we to the gods;
They kill us for their sport. *Shakspeare.*

As a mad man who casteth fire-brands, arrows and death; so is the man that deceiveth his neighbour, and saith, Am not I in sport? *Prov.*—The discourse of fools is irksome, and their sport is in the wantonness of sin. *Eccles.*—Mock; contemptuous mirth.—If I suspect without cause, why then make sport at me; then let me be your jest. *Shakspeare.*—That with which one plays.

Each on his rock transfix'd, the sport and prey
Of wracking whirlwinds. *Milton.*

Commit not thy prophetic mind
To flitting leaves, the sport of every wind,
Lest they disperse in air. *Dryden.*

Some grave their wrongs on marble, he more just
Stoop'd down serene, and wrote them on the dust,
Tro'd under foot, the sport of every wind
Swept from the earth, and blotted from his mind.
Their secret in the grave he bade them lie,
And griev'd they could not 'scape th' Almighty's eye.
Dr. Madden.

Play; idle gingle.—An author who should introduce such a sport of words upon our stage, would meet with small applause. *Broome.*—Diversion of the field, as of fowling, hunting, fishing.

Now for our mountain sport, up to yon hill,
Your legs are young. *Shakspeare.*

To SPORT, *v. a.* To divert; to make merry. It is used only with the reciprocal pronoun.—Against whom do ye sport yourselves? against whom make ye a wide mouth, and draw out the tongue? *Isa.*—What pretty stories these are for a man of his seriousness to sport himself withal! *Atterbury.*—To represent by any kind of play.

Now sporting on thy lyre the love of youth,
Now virtuous age and venerable truth;
Expressing justly Sappho's wanton art
Of odes, and Pindar's more majestic part. *Dryden.*

To SPORT, *v. n.* To play; to frolic; to game; to wanton.

They, sporting with quick glance,
Shew to the sun their wav'd coats dropt with gold. *Milton.*

To trifle.—If any man turn religion into raillery, by bold jests, he renders himself ridiculous, because he sports with his own life. *Tillotson.*

SPORTER, *s.* One who sports.

SPO'RTFUL, *adj.* Merry; frolic; wanton; acting in jest.

How with a sportful malice it was follow'd,
May rather pluck on laughter than revenge. *Shakspeare.*

Ludicrous; done in jest.
Behold your own Ascanius, while he said,
He drew his glittering helmet from his head,
In which the youth to sportful arms he led. *Dryden.*

SPO'RTFULLY, *adv.* Wantonly; merrily.—There is nothing more surprising in its own nature than to see or hear a serious thing sportfully represented. *Scott.*

SPO'RTFULNESS, *s.* Wantonness; play; merriment; frolic.—The otter got out of the river, and inweeded himself so, as the ladies lost the further marking of his sportfulness. *Sidney.*—When sadness dejects me, either I countermine it with another sadness, or I kindle squibs about me again, and fly into sportfulness and company. *Donne.*

SPO'RTINGLY, *adv.* In jest; in sport.—The question you there put, you do it I suppose but sportingly. *Hammond.*

SPORTIVE, *adj.* Gay; merry; frolic; wanton; playful; ludicrous.

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I am not in a sportive humour now;
Tell me, and dally not, where is the money? *Shakspeare.*

SPO'RTIVENESS, *s.* Gaiety; play; wantonness.—Shall I conclude her to be simple, that has her time to begin, or refuse sportiveness as freely as I have? *Walton.*

SPO'RTLESS, *adj.* Joyless; sad.
Her weeping eyes in pearly dew she steeps,
Casting what sportless nights she ever led. *P. Fletcher.*

SPO'RTSMAN. One who pursues the recreations of the field.—Manilius lets us know the pagan hunters had Meleager for their patron, as the Christians have their St. Hubert: he speaks of the constellation which makes a good sportsman. *Addison.*

SPO'RTULA, or SPO'RTILLA, a dole, or largess, either of meat or money, given by princes, or great men, to the people or poor.

The sportula was properly the pannier or basket in which the meat was brought, or with which the poor went to beg it; thence the word was transferred to the meat itself, and thence to money sometimes given in lieu of it.

SPO'RTULARY, *adj.* [from *sportulare*, low Lat.] Subsisting on alms or charitable contributions.—These sportulary preachers are fain to soothe up their many masters, and are so engaged with the fear of a starving displeasure, that they dare not be free in the reprehension of the daring sins of their uncertain benefactors. *Bp. Hall.*

SPO'RTULE, *s.* [*sportule*, Fr.; *sportula*, Lat.] An alms; a dole.—The bishops, who consecrated the ground, had a spill or sportule from the credulous laity. *Ayliffe.*

SPOT, *s.* [*spette*, Danish; *spotte*, Flemish; *spiut*, Su. Goth. from *spotta*, spuer, to spit, according to Serenius; and so Mr. H. Tooke considers our spot as formed from the Sax. *ƿrittan*, to spit, but this is very obscure.] A blot; a mark made by discoloration.

This three years day, these eyes, though clear
To outward view of blemish or of spot,
Bereft of sight, their seeing have forgot. *Milton.*

A taint; a disgrace; a reproach; a fault.
Yet Chloe sure was form'd without a spot,
'Tis true, but something in her was forgot. *Pope.*

A small extent of place.—He could make two ears of corn grow upon a spot of ground where only one grew before, would deserve better of mankind than the whole race of politicians. *Swift.*—Any particular place.

I would be busy in the world, and learn,
Not like a coarse and useless dunghill weed,
Fix'd to one spot, and rot just as I grow. *Otway.*

A kind of pigeon.
Upon the SPOT. Immediately; without changing place. [*Sur le champ.*]—It was determined upon the spot, according as the oratory on either side prevailed. *Swift.*

To SPOT, *v. a.* To mark with discoloration; to maculate.

But serpents now more amity maintain;
From spotted skins the leopard does refrain;
No weaker lion's by a stronger slain. *Tate.*

To patch by way of ornament.—I counted the patches on both sides, and found the tory patches to be about twenty stronger than the whig; but next morning the whole puppet-show was filled with faces, spotted after the whiggish manner. *Addison.*—To corrupt; to disgrace; to taint.

This vow receive, this vow of God maintain,
My virgin life, no spotted thoughts shall stain. *Sidney.*

SPOTICO, a small island in the Grecian archipelago, of an irregular form, about four miles long, and from one to two broad; 6 miles west-south-west of Paros. Lat. 36. 59. N. long. 25. 12. E.

SPOTLAND, an extensive township of England, in Lancashire; 3 miles north-by-west of Rochdale. Population 10,968.

SPOTLESS, *adj.* Free from spots.—Free from reproach or impurity; immaculate; pure; untainted.

So much fairer,

And *spotless* shall mine innocence arise,
When the king knows my truth.

Shakspeare.

SPO'TLESSNESS, *s.* State or quality of being spotless.—Lord, if thou look for a *spotlessness*, whom wilt thou look upon. *Donne, Dev.*

SPOTSWOOD, a village of the United States, in Middlesex county, New Jersey. It contains an Episcopal church, and upwards of 30 houses; 9 miles south-east of Brunswick.

SPOTSYLVANIA, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded north by the Rappahannock, south-east by Caroline county, south-south-west by Hanover and Louisa counties, and north-west by Orange county. Population 13,296, including 7135 slaves.

SPOTT, a parish and village of Scotland, in East-Lothian, about 10 miles long and 5 broad. The village contains about 180 inhabitants, and is 5 miles from Dunbar. Population 561.

SPOTTED ISLAND, an island in the North Atlantic ocean, on the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 53. 30. N. long. 55. 20. W.

SPO'TTER, *s.* One that spots; one that maculates.

SPO'TTINESS, *s.* State or quality of being spotty. *Unused.*

SPOTTISWOODE (John), a prelate and ecclesiastical historian of Scotland, descended from an ancient family in that country, was born in 1565. His father, who was a minister of Calder, sent him to the university of Glasgow to be educated for the church; and his proficiency in his studies was such, that at the age of eighteen he was thought to be qualified to be his father's successor. When Lodowick, duke of Lenox, was sent, in 1601, on an embassy to France, for the purpose of confirming the ancient amity between the two countries, Spottiswoode, with the hope of conciliating the two nations, accompanied him as chaplain, and returned with him to England. His reputation was at that time so high, that, on the accession of king James to the crown of England in 1603, he was one of the persons appointed to attend his majesty to his newly acquired kingdom; and in the same year he was promoted to the archbishopric of Glasgow, and nominated a privy-counsellor for Scotland. It was the favourite object of James to assimilate as much as possible the church of Scotland to the model of that of England; and archbishop Spottiswoode was very eager in promoting this intention, and is said to have made fifty journies to London on that account. Having held the see of Glasgow eleven years, he was translated, in 1615, to that of St. Andrews, the metropolitan of Scotland; and he presided at various assemblies for the restoration of the episcopal form of government. He continued in high favour with king James during his whole reign; and Charles I., after his accession, was crowned by him in the abbey church of Holyrood House. In 1635 he was appointed chancellor of Scotland. When the civil commotions broke out in that country in 1639, the archbishop withdrew to England, where he died, and was interred in Westminster Abbey. He was author of "A History of the Church of Scotland," beginning with the year 203, and continued to the end of the reign of James VI., which was published in London in 1655. This work was undertaken at the command of king James, who, when Spottiswoode told him some passages might bear hard on the memory of his mother, said, "Write the truth, and spare not." Spottiswoode was also the author of "Refutatio Libelli de Regimine Ecclesiæ Scoticanæ," written in defence of the ecclesiastical establishment of Scotland.

SPO'TTY, *adj.* Full of spots: maculated.

The moon whose orb

Through optick glass the Tuscan artist views
At evening from the top of Fesole,
Or in Valdarno, to descry new lands,
Rivers or mountains on her *spotty* globe.

Milton.

SPOU'SAGE, *s.* Act of espousing.—In the old manual

for the use of Salisbury, before the minister proceeds to the marriage, he is directed to ask the woman's dowry, viz. the tokens of *spousage*. *Wheatley.*

SPOU'SAL, *adj.* Nuptial; matrimonial; conjugal; conubial; bridal.

Sleep'st thou, careless of the nuptial day?

Thy *spousal* ornament neglected lies;

Arise, prepare the bridal train, arise.

Pope.

SPOU'SAL, *s.* [*espousailles*, Fr., *sponsalia*, Lat.] Marriage nuptials.

The *spousals* of Hippolita the queen,

What tilts and tourneys at the feast were seen. *Dryden.*

SPOUSE, *s.* [*sponsa*, *sponsus*, Lat., *espouse*, Fr.] We had formerly like the Latins, the masculine and feminine distinction of this word; *spousess* being the wife, and *spouse* the husband. Wickliffe uses *spousess*, and it continued to be used in the seventeenth century: "Commanding her his *spousesse* to write to a certaine king." Sheldon, *Mir. of Antichr.* 1616, p. 304.] One joined in marriage; a husband or wife.

She is of good esteem;

Beside so qualified as may beseem

The *spouse* of any noble gentleman:

Shakspeare.

At once farewell, O faithful *spouse!* they said;

At once the encroaching rinds their closing lips invade.

Dryden.

To **SPOUSE**, *v. a.* To espouse; to wed; to join together as in matrimony.

The world the temple was, the priest a king,

The *spoused* pair two realms, the sea the ring. *B. Jonson.*

SPOU'SELESS, *adj.* Wanting a husband or wife.

To tempt the *spouseless* queen with am'rous wiles,

Resort the nobles from the neighb'ring isles. *Pope.*

SPOUT, *s.* [*spuyt*, Teut.] A pipe, or mouth of a pipe or vessel out of which any thing is poured.—In whales that breathe, lest the water should get unto the lungs, an ejection thereof is contrived by a fistula or *spout* at the head. *Brown.*—Water falling in a body; a cataract, such as is seen in the hot climates when clouds sometimes discharge all their water at once.

Not the dreaded *spout*

Which shipmen do the hurricano call,
Constring'd in mass by the almighty sun,
Shall dizzy with more clamour Neptune's ear
In his descent than shall my prompted sword
Falling on Diomedes.

Shakspeare.

To **SPOUT**, *v. a.* [*spuyten*, Teut.] To pour with violence, or in a collected body, as from a spout.

Next on his belly floats the mighty whale;

He twists his back, and rears his threatening tail;

He *spouts* the tide.

Creech.

To pour out words with affected grandeur; to mouth.—Pray, *spout* some French, son. *Beaum. and Fl.*

To **SPOUT**, *v. n.* To issue as from a spout.—They laid them down hard by the murmuring music of certain waters, which *spouted* out of the side of the hills. *Sidney.*

SPRACK. See **SPRAG**.

SPRAG, *adj.* Vigorous; spritely. *Obsolete.*—A good *sprag* memory. *Shakspeare.*

SPRAG, *s.* A young salmon. *North.*

To **SPRAIN**, *v. a.* [Referred by Serenius to the Swedish *spraenga*, to tear asunder: *spraenga* en haest; to over-ride a horse, to lame him by riding him beyond his strength; and hence, I suppose, our *springhalt*, the lameness of a horse.

Todd.]—To stretch the ligaments of a joint without dislocation of the bones.

Should the big last extend the shoe too wide,

The sudden turn may stretch the swelling vein,

Thy crackling joint unhinge, or ancle *sprain*.

Gay.

SPRAIN, *s.* Extension of ligaments without dislocation of

of the joint.—I was in pain, and thought it was with some *sprain* at tennis. *Temple*.

SPRAINTS, *s.* The dung of an otter. *Johnson*.

SPRANG, The preterite of *spring*.—Mankind *sprang* from one common original; whence this tradition would be universally diffused. *Tillotson*.

SPRANG, a village of the Netherlands, in South Holland, with 1100 inhabitants.

SPRANGER (Bartholomew), was the son of Joachim Spranger, a merchant of eminence at Antwerp, and was born there in 1546. As he exhibited an inclination for painting, he was placed as a disciple with John Madyn, a painter of some reputation at Haerlem, and afterwards with Francis Mostaert. He then went to Parma and studied, under Bernardino Gatti, who had been a disciple of Correggio. He thence went to Rome, where the cardinal Farnese favoured him with his patronage, and engaged him to paint, in the Villa Caprarola, several landscapes in fresco. By the cardinal he was introduced to the pope, Pius V., who appointed him his painter, and gave him apartments in the Palazzo Belvidere. His first work for his holiness was a picture of the Last Judgment, a composition of five hundred figures, painted upon a copper-plate six feet high. This picture is said to have taken him three years to complete, and to have been finished with great care; and in consequence of its being highly esteemed by the pope, it was placed upon his tomb, after his decease.

The renown of Spranger having reached the court of Vienna, to which he was invited there by the emperor Maximilian II. in 1575, and appointed his principal painter. On that emperor's death in the following year, his successor, Rodolphus II., continued to shew the same favour to Spranger, and engaged him in several works of importance both at Vienna and at Prague; respecting him highly, not only for his abilities as a painter, but also for his literary acquirements, and other accomplishments. In 1588 he was ennobled by his imperial majesty, who honoured him by placing round his neck, with his own hands, a chain of gold, with a medal attached to it. Spranger died at Prague, in 1623, aged 77.

The style of this painter is that which was built upon the defects of Michael Angelo, or rather in the perversion of his style, by a crude and indigested adoption of its most prominent character, without the judicious taste and feeling in which it originated. It was consequently extravagant and bombastic, presenting inflated muscles, and knobby excrescences for bones, redeemed only in some eyes by a lively fancy, an agreeable facility of execution, and a pleasing colour.

SPRAT, *s.* [*sprot*, Dutch.] A small sea-fish. See CLUPIA.

So oft in feasts with costly changes clad,
To crammed maws a *sprat* new stomach brings. *Sidney*.

SPRAT (Thomas), bishop of Rochester, a writer of considerable eminence in the 17th century, was born in 1636 at Tallaton, in Devonshire, where his father was a clergyman. He received his academical education at Wadham college, Oxford, of which Dr. Wilkins was then warden, under whom he acquired a proficiency in mathematical knowledge. In 1657 he was elected a fellow of his college; and on the death of Oliver Cromwell, he gave a specimen of his poetical talents in an "Ode to the happy Memory of the late Lord Protector," addressed to Dr. Wilkins. This ode was followed by one on the "Plague of Athens," which, as well as the former, afforded proof of a warmth and readiness of conception. At the Restoration, like many others, he atoned for his former delinquency by zealous loyalty, and was made chaplain to the duke of Buckingham, who was his zealous friend and patron. He was chosen a member of the Royal Society; and, in 1667, Sprat published the history of its foundation; and obtained a high reputation for the elegance of the style and sentiment exhibited in the work. He had published, two years previously to this, "Observations on Sorbier's Voyage to England," which were well received. He was successively made a prebendary of West-

minster, rector of St. Margaret's, canon of Windsor, dean of Westminster, and finally, in 1684, was raised to the episcopal bench as bishop of Rochester. This last preferment was considered as a reward for the service of drawing up, at the command of the king, an account of the Rye-house plot. This was first printed in 1685, and was reprinted in the following year, after James II. had succeeded to the throne. The manner in which he had executed this task rendered it expedient for him to publish an apology, after the Revolution. He had reflected on the characters of those, whose names have been long ranked among the martyrs to liberty. Of lord Russell, Sprat observes, "that he was carried away into this traitorous conspiracy from a vain air of popularity, and a wild suspicion of losing a large estate by an imaginary return of popery." His favour under the new reign was manifested by his appointment to the place of clerk of the closet to the king, and his nomination as one of the commissioners for ecclesiastical affairs. At the revolution he submitted to the new government, and was allowed to remain unmolested in his see. His principles, however, being well known, he was involved, in 1692, with others, in an information laid before the privy council, of a pretended conspiracy for restoring king James. He detected the infamy of the informers, and effectually cleared himself from the charge; but he was so much affected by the danger he had undergone, that he ever after commemorated his deliverance by an annual thanksgiving. He passed the rest of his life in the practice of professional duties and virtues, by which he engaged the esteem and affection of those with whom he was connected, and died in 1713, in the 79th year of his age. Besides the works already mentioned, he published A Relation of his examination before the privy council, Two Letters to Lord Dorset, and A Volume of Sermons. *Biog. Brit.*

SPRATTON, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 7 miles north-north-west of Northampton. Population 801.

To SPRAWL, *v. n.* [*spraddle*, Danish; *spartelen*, Dutch.—To tumble, or creep with much agitation and contortion of the limbs.

Telamon happ'd to meet
A rising root that held his fasten'd feet;
So down he fell, whom *sprawling* on the ground,
His brother from the wooden gyves unbound. *Dryden*.

SPRAY, *s.* [of the same race with *sprit*, *sprout*, or *spring*.]—The extremity of a branch.

At sight whereof each bird that sits on *spray*
And every beast that to his den was fled,
Come forth afresh out of their late dismay,
And to the light lift up their drooping head. *Spenser*.

The foam of the sea: sometimes written *spry*.—Winds raise some of the salt with the *spray*. *Arbutnot*.

To SPREAD, *v. a.* [ʃpɹædən, ʃpɹeɪdən, Sax., *spreyden*, Teut. *Spred* was, anciently, common]—To extend; to expand; to make to cover or fill a larger space than before.

Faire attendants then,
The sheets and bedding of the man of men,
Within a cabin of the hollow keele,
Spread and made soft. *Chapman*.

Silver *spread* into plates is brought from Tarshish. *Jer.*
—To cover by extension.

Her cheeks their freshness lose and wonted grace,
And an unusual paleness *spreads* her face. *Granville*.

To cover over.—The workman melteth a graven image, and the goldsmith *spreadeth* it over with gold. *Isa.*
—To stretch; to extend.—*Spread* o'er the silver waves thy golden hair. *Shakspeare*.—To publish; to divulge; to disseminate.—They, when departed, *spread* abroad his fame, in all that country. *St. Matthew*.—To emit as effluvia or emanations; to diffuse.

Their course through thickest constellations held,
They *spread* their bane. *Milton*.

To SPREAD, *v. n.* To extend or expand itself.—Plants, if they *spread* much, are seldom tall. *Bacon*.

SPREAD, *s.* Extent; compass.—I have got a fine *spread*

spread of improveable lands, and am already ploughing up some, fencing others. *Addison*.—Expansion of parts.—No flower hath *spread* that of the woodbind. *Bacon*.

SPREAD EAGLE, a post village of the United States, in Delaware county, Pennsylvania.

SPRE'ADER, *s.* One that spreads.—By conforming ourselves we should be *spreaders* of a worse infection than any we are likely to draw from Papists by our conformity with them in ceremonies. *Hooker*.—Publisher; divulger; disseminator.—If it be a mistake, I desire I may not be accused for a *spreader* of false news. *Swift*.—One that expands or extends.—If their child be not such a speedy *spreader* and brancher, like the vine, yet perchance he may yield, though with a little longer expectation, as useful and more sober fruit than the other. *Wotton*.

SPREAD'ING, *s.* Act of extending or expanding.—Can any understand the *spreadings* of the clouds, or the noise of his tabernacle? *Job*.

SPREE, a navigable river of the Prussian states, which rises in Upper Lusatia, near Zittau and the frontiers of Bohemia, passes by Budissen, receives the Lobau, the Schweinitz, and the Schops, crosses the Spreewald, separates Coln from Berlin, and joins the Havel at Spaudau. Its course is very slow, with hardly any falls or rapids, so that it is very fit for navigation, and is joined to the Elbe and the Oder by canals.

SPREMBERG, a town of the Prussian states, in Lower Lusatia, on an island in the Spree. Population 1700; 28 miles south-south-west of Guben, and 45 north-east of Dresden.

SPREMBERG, a village of Saxony, on the Spree, about 30 miles east of Dresden. Population 1500.

SPRENDLINGEN, a town of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, west of the Rhine; 8 miles east of Creutznach, and 16 west-south-west of Mentz. Population 1100.

SPRENGELIA. See POIRETIA.

SPRENT, *part.* [from *sprene*, to sprinkle; *sprenzan*, *ppnenan*, Sax.; *sprengen*, Dutch.] Sprinkled. *Obsolete*.—O lips, that kiss'd that hand with my tears *sprent*. *Sidney*.

SPREY, *adj.* Spruce. Exm. dial. See SPRUCE.

SPREYTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 7½ miles east-by-north of Oakhampton.

SPRIDLINGTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 7½ miles west-south-west of Market Raisen.

SPRIG, *s.* [*brig*, Welsh, a twig, shoot, or sprig, of a tree: the English *sprig* seems to be hence derived, q. d. *ys brig*. Davies, and Richards. Nevertheless, Dr. Johnson considers it of the same race with *sprung*; and Serenius, not however overpassing the Welsh word, refers it also to the Swedish *spricka*: as, loefven *spricka ut*, the leaves come out. *Todd*.]—A small branch; a spray.

Our chilling climate hardly bears

A *sprig* of bays in fifty years;

While ev'ry fool his claim alledges,

As if it grew in common hedges.

Swift.

A brad or nail without a head.

To SPRIG, *v. a.* To mark with small branches; to work in sprigs. *Ash*.

SPRIG CRYSTAL, *s.* In perpendicular fissures, crystal is found in form of an hexangular column, adhering at one end to the stone, and near the other lessening gradually, till it terminates in a point: this is called by lapidaries *sprig* or rock *chrystal*. *Woodward*.

SPRIGG, a township of the United States, in Adams county, Ohio. Population 1664.

SPRIGGY, *adj.* Full of small branches.

SPRIGT, *s.* [contraction of *spirit*, *spiritus*, Lat.; it was anciently written *sprete*, or *spryte*; and *spirit*, as now written, was long considered in verse as a monosyllable.] Spirit; shade; soul; incorporeal agent.

Forth he called out of deep darkness dread,

Legions of *sprights*, the which like little flies,

Fluttering about his ever damned head,

Await whereto their service he applies.

Spenser.

Walking spirit; apparition.—The ideas of goblins and *sprights* have no more to do with darkness than light; yet let but a foolish maid inculcate these often on the mind of a child, possibly he shall never be able to separate them again. *Locke*.—Power which gives cheerfulness or courage.

O chastity, the chief of heavenly lights,
Which mak'st us most immortal shap to wear,

Hold thou my heart, establish thou my *sprights*:

To only thee my constant course I bear,

Till spotless soul unto thy bosom fly,

Such life to lead, such death I vow to die.

Sidney.

An arrow. *Not in use*.—We had in use for sea fight short arrows called *sprights*, without any other heads save wood sharpened; which were discharged out of muskets, and would pierce through the sides of ships where a bullet would not. *Bacon*.

To SPRIGHT, *v. a.* To haunt as a spright. *A ludicrous use*.—I am *sprighted* with a fool. *Shakspeare*.

SPRIGHTFUL, *adj.* Lively; brisk; gay; vigorous.—

Spoke like a *sprightful* noble gentleman. *Shakspeare*.

SPRIGHTFULLY, *adv.* Briskly; vigorously.

Norfolk, *sprightfully* and bold,

Stays but the summons of the appellants trumpet. *Shakspeare*.

SPRIGHTFULNESS, *s.* Sprightliness; gaiety; vivacity.

—Sharpness of apprehension is a *sprightfulness* of the mind, and is there liveliest where there be most spirits. *Hammond*.

SPRIGHTLESS, *adj.* Dull; enervated; sluggish.

Are you grown

Benumb'd with fear, or virtue's *sprightless* cold? *Cowley*.

SPRIGHTLINESS, *s.* Liveliness; briskness; vigour; gaiety; vivacity.—The soul is clogged when she acts in conjunction with a companion so heavy; but in dreams, observe with what a *sprightliness* and alacrity does she exert herself. *Addison*.

SPRIGHTLY, *adj.* Gay; brisk; lively; vigorous; airy; vivacious.

When now the *sprightly* trumpet from afar,

Had giv'n the signal of approaching war.

Dryden.

To SPRING, *v. n.* pret. *sprung* or *sprang*, anciently *sprung*; part. *sprung*. [*ppunzan*, Sax.; *sprungen*, Dutch.] To arise out of the ground and grow by vegetative power.

To his musick, plants and flowers

Ever *sprung*, as sun and showers

There had made a lasting spring.

Shakspeare.

To begin to grow.—That the nipples should be made with such perforations as to admit passage to the milk, when drawn, otherwise to retain it; and the teeth of the young not *sprung*, are effects of Providence. *Ray*.—To proceed as from seed.—Ye shall eat this year such things as grow of themselves; and in the second year that which *springeth* of the same. 2 *Kings*.—To come into existence; to issue forth:

Had'st thou sway'd as kings should do,

Giving no ground unto the house of York,

They never then had *sprung* like summer flies. *Shakspeare*.

To arise; to appear; to begin to appear or to exist.—To them which sat in the region and shadow of death, light is *sprung* up. *Matt*.—To issue with effect or force.

Swift fly the years, and rise the expected morn;

Oh *sprung* to light: auspicious babe he born.

Pope.

To proceed as from ancestors, or a country.—Our Lord *sprung* out of Judea. *Heb*.

All these

Shall, like the brethren *sprung* of dragons' teeth,

Ruin each other, and he fall amongst 'em. *B. Jonson*.

To proceed as from a ground, cause, or reason.

They found new hope to *sprung*

Out of despair.

Milton.

To grow; to thrive.

What

What makes all this but Jupiter the king,
At whose command we perish and we *spring* :
Then 'tis our best, since thus ordain'd to die,
To make a virtue of necessity.

Dryden.

To bound ; to leap ; to jump ; to rush hastily ; to appear suddenly.—I *sprang* not more in joy at first hearing he was a man child, than now in first seeing he had proved himself a man. *Shakspeare.*

The mountain stag, that *springs*
From height to height, and bounds along the plains,
Nor has a master to restrain his course ;
That mountain stag would Vanoe rather be,
Than be a slave.

Philips.

To fly with elastic power ; to start.—A link of horsehair, that will easily slip, fasten to the end of the stick that *springs*. *Mortimer.*—To rise from a covert.

My doors are hateful to my eyes,
Fill'd and damn'd up with gaping creditors,
Watchful as fowlers when their game will *spring*.

Otway.

To issue from a fountain.

Let the wide world his praises sing,
Where Tagus and Euphrates *spring* ;
And from the Danube's frosty banks to those
Where from an unknown head great Nilus flows.

Roscommon.

To proceed as from a source.

'Tis true from force the noblest title *springs*,
I therefore hold from that which first made kings.

Dryden.

To shoot ; to issue with speed and violence.

Then shook the sacred shrine, and sudden light
Sprung through the vaulted roof, and made the temple bright:
The power, behold ! the pow'r in glory shone,
By her bent bow and her keen arrows known.

Dryden.

To *SPRING*, *v. a.* To start ; to rouse game.—Here I use a great deal of diligence before I can *spring* any thing ; whereas in town, whilst I am following one character, I am crossed by another, that they puzzle the chase. *Addison.*—To produce quickly or unexpectedly.

The nurse, surpriz'd with fright,
Starts up, and leaves her bed, and *springs* a light.

Dryden.

To make by starting, applied to a ship.—People discharge themselves of burdensome reflections, as of the cargo of a ship that has *sprung* a leak. *L'Estrange.*—To discharge, applied to a mine.—Our miners discovered several of the enemies' mines, who have *sprung* divers others which did little execution. *Tatler.*—To contrive on a sudden ; to produce hastily ; to offer unexpectedly.—The friends to the cause *sprang* a new project, and it was advertized that the crisis could not appear till the ladies had shown their zeal against the pretender. *Swift.*—To pass by leaping.

Un'cseeming skill

To *spring* the fence, to rein the prancing steed.

Thomson.

SPRING, *s.* [ʃpɪŋɡ, Sax.] The season in which plants rise and vegetate ; the vernal season.

Come, gentle *spring*, ethereal mildness come,
And from the bosom of yon dropping cloud
Upon our plains descend.

Thomson.

An elastic body ; a body which when distorted has the power of restoring itself to its former state.—He that was sharp-sighted enough to see the configuration of the minute particles of the *spring* of a clock, and upon what peculiar impulse its elastic motion depends, would no doubt discover something very admirable. *Locke.*—Elastic force.

Heav'n's, what a *spring* was in his arm, to throw !
How high he held his shield, and rose at ev'ry blow !

Dryden.

Any active power.—Our author shuns by vulgar *springs* to move. *Pope.*—A leap ; a bound ; a jump ; a violent effort ; a sudden struggle.

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The pris'ner with a *spring* from prison broke :
Then stretch'd his feather'd fans with all his might,
And to the neighbouring maple wing'd his flight.

Dryden.

A leak ; a start of plank.

Each petty hand

Can steer a ship becalm'd ; but he that will
Govern, and carry her to her ends, must know
His tides, his currents : how to shift his sails,
Where her *springs* are, her leaks, and how to stop 'em.

B. Jonson.

A fountain ; an issue of water from the earth.
Now stop thy *springs* ; my sea shall suck them dry,
And swell so much the higher by their ebb.

Shakspeare.

A source ; that by which any thing is supplied.—He has a secret *spring* of spiritual joy, and the continual feast of a good conscience within, that forbids him to be miserable. *Bentley.*—Rise ; beginning.—About the *spring* of the day Samuel called Saul to the top of the house. *1 Sam.*—Cause ; original.—The first *springs* of great events, like those of great rivers, are often mean and little. *Swift.*—A plant ; a shoot ; a young tree ; a coppice.

The nightingale, among the thick-leav'd *springs*
That sits alone in sorrow.

Fletcher.

A youth. See *SPRINGAL*.

She pictur'd winged Love,
With his young brother Sport :—
The one his bow and shafts, the other *spring*
A burning tead about his head did move.

Spenser.

A hand or shoulder of pork.—These *springs* of pork.
Beaum and Fl.

SPRING, a township of the United States, in Centre county, Pennsylvania. Population 1550.

SPRING BAY, a bay on the north-east coast of the island of Barbadoes.

SPRINGAL, *s.* [from the Sax. ʃpɪŋɡan, *germinare*, and was also written *spring*. It may be added, that the old French word *espringaller* meant to leap, to bound.] A youth ; an active, nimble, young man.—Yonge *springs* in the flower of their youth. *Martin.*

I do not rail against the hopeful *springal*,
That builds up monuments in brass.

Beaum. and Fl.

SPRINGE, *s.* A gin ; a noose, which, fastened to any elastic body, catches by a spring or jerk.

With hairy *springs* we the birds betray,
Slight lines of hair surprize the finny prey.

Pope.

To *SPRINGE*, *v. a.* To ensnare ; to catch in a trap.—
We *springe* ourselves, we sink in our own bogs.

Beaum. and Fl.

SPRINGE, a town of Hanover ; 14 miles south-west of Hanover, and 10 north-east of Hameln. Population 1400.

SPRINGEN, a town of the west of Germany in Wirtemberg, on the Brenz, near Aalen. Population 1000.

SPRINGGER, *s.* One who rouses game ; a young plant.—The young men and maidens go out into the woods and coppices, cut down and spoil young *springs* to dress up their May-booths. *Beelyn.*

SPRINGFIELD, a village of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, in the parish of Graitney, begun in 1791, on the estate of Sir William Maxwell of Springkell. It is regularly built, with fine broad streets, and brick houses covered with blue slate. It is situated on a dry healthy soil, on the banks of the river Sark, on building leases of 99 years. In 1793 it consisted of 40 houses ; and since that time it has greatly increased, owing to the many advantages which it possesses with respect to its situation. Both coal and lime are plentiful at a small distance. The river Sark is well adapted for the erection of machinery ; and the sea-port town of Sarkfoot is not above a mile distant. Add to these, the two great roads from England to the west of Scotland pass through it.

SPRINGFIELD, a parish of England, in Essex ; 1 mile north-east of Chelmsford. Population 1201.

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SPRINGFIELD,

SPRINGFIELD, a town of the United States, in Washington county, of which it is the capital, in Kentucky; 30 miles north-west of Danville. Population 249.

SPRINGFIELD, a township of the United States, in Windsor county, Vermont, on the Connecticut, opposite Charleston. Population 2556.

SPRINGFIELD, a township of the United States, in Cheshire county, New Hampshire. Population 814.

SPRINGFIELD, a post township of the United States, and capital of Hampden county, Massachusetts, on the east side of the Connecticut. It is a pleasant and flourishing township, and contains a court-house, a jail, a bank, a woolen manufactory, a rope walk, a furnace, two paper mills, two Congregational churches, two public libraries, which together contain about 1000 volumes, and a printing office, from which is issued a weekly newspaper. Here is a large, pleasant, and handsome village, which has considerable trade and contains a number of elegant houses. An excellent covered bridge connecting this town with West Springfield, was carried away by the rise of the river in 1818. There is in this town, belonging to the United States, a very extensive establishment for the manufacture of arms. The arsenal is delightfully situated on an elevated plain, about half a mile east of the village. The buildings are finely arranged around a level square of 20 acres, and make an elegant appearance. There are 250 workmen employed in this establishment, who complete about 45 muskets daily. Population 2767; 88 miles west-by-south of Boston, and 48 west-south-west of Worcester. Lat. 42. 6. N. long. 72. 36. W.

SPRINGFIELD, WEST, a post township of the United States, in Hampden county Massachusetts, on the west-side of the Connecticut, opposite Springfield. Population 3109.

SPRINGFIELD, the names of several townships of the United States.—1. In Otsego county, New York; 58 miles west of Albany.—2. In Essex county; 15 miles south-west of New York.—3. In Burlington county, New Jersey.—4. In Montgomery county, Pennsylvania.—5. In Bucks county, Pennsylvania. Population 1287.—6. In Huntingdon county, Pennsylvania. Population 813.—7. In Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 751.—8. In Delaware county, Pennsylvania. Population 541.—9. In Hamilton county, Ohio, 12 miles north of Cincinnati. Population 2036.—10. In Clark county, Ohio, of which it is the seat of justice. It is situated on the east fork of Mud river. Population 861.—11. In Columbiana county, Ohio. Population 601.—12. In Jefferson county, Ohio. Population 746.—13. In Ross county, Ohio. Population 972.—14. In Portage county, Ohio. Population 510.—15. In Loudoun county, Virginia.—16. In Hampshire county, Virginia, on the south branch of the Potomac; 10 miles north-east of Romney.—17. Capital of Robertson county, Tennessee, on Sulphur Fork. Population 200.—18. In Louisiana, in the parish of St. Helena, about 30 miles west-north-west of Maddisonville.—19. In York district, South Carolina.—20. In Susquehanna county, Pennsylvania.

SPRINGFIELD. See PUTNAM.

SPRING HILL, a post village of the United States, in Chesterfield county, Virginia.

SPRING HILL, a post village of the United States, in Lenoir county, North Carolina.

SPRING HILL, a post village of the United States, in Jefferson county, Georgia.

SPRING HILL, a township of the United States, in Fayette county, on the east side of the Monongahela. Population 1837.

SPRING HILL, a township of the United States, in Clark county, Indiana. Population 1114.

SPRING HILL, a post village of the United States, in Farquier county, Virginia.

SPRING ISLAND, a small island near the coast of South Carolina. Lat. 32. 22. N. long. 80. 57. W.

SPRING PLACE, a Moravian missionary station of the United States, among the Cherokees. About 50 Cherokee children have been educated at this place; 35 miles south-east of Brainerd, and 120 north-west of Athens.

SPRING RIVER, a river of Louisiana, taking its rise from a number of springs which form a river 250 yards wide, and fall into White river, 200 miles west of Cape Girardeau.

SPRINGHALT, *s.* [perhaps from *spraenga*, Swed., to sprain a horse's legs by riding him beyond his strength; and *halt*, the consequence of it. *Todd.*—See *To SPRAIN.*] A lameness by which the horse twitches up his legs.

They've all new legs, and lame ones; one would take it, They never saw them pace before, the sparvin, A *springhalt* reign'd among them. *Shakspeare.*

SPRINGHEAD, *s.* Fountain; source.—Now this *springhead* of science is purely fantastical. *Bolingbroke.*

SPRINGINESS, *s.* Elasticity; the power of restoring itself.—The air is a thin fluid body, endowed with elasticity and *springiness*, capable of condensation and rarefaction. *Bentley.*

SPRINGING, *s.* Growth; increase.—Thou makest it soft with showers; thou blissett the *springing* thereof. *Ps.*—In architecture, the side of an arch contiguous to the part whereon it rests.

SPRINGLE, *s.* A spring; an elastic noose.—Woodcocks arrive first on the north coast, where every splash-shoot serveth for *springles* to take them. *Carew.*

SPRINGTHORPE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles east-by-south of Gainsborough.

SPRINGTIDE, *s.* Tide at the new and full moon; high tide.

Love, like *springtides*, full and high, Swells in every youthful vein. *Dryden.*

SPRINGTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Montgomery county, Pennsylvania.

SPRINGVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Montgomery county, North Carolina.

SPRINGVILLE, a township of the United States, in Clark county, Indiana. Population 1222.

SPRINGY, *adj.* Elastic; having the power of restoring itself.

Had not the Maker wrought the *springy* frame, Such as it is to fan the vital flame, The blood, defrauded of its nitrous food, Had cool'd and languish'd in the arterial road; While the tir'd heart had strove, with fruitless pain, To push the lazy tide along the vein. *Blackmore.*

Full of springs and fountains. *Not used.*—Where the sandy or gravelly lands are *springy* or wet, rather marl them for grass than corn. *Mortimer.*

To SPRINKLE, *v. a.* [*sprinkelen*, *spreckelen*, Teut. *spreken*, Germ. *pprenzen*, Sax.] To scatter; to disperse in small masses.—Take handfuls of ashes of the furnace, and let Moses *sprinkle* it towards the heaven. *Ex.*—To scatter in drops.—*Sprinkle* water of purifying upon them. *Num.*—To besprinkle; to wash, wet, or dust by scattering in small particles.—Let us draw near with a true heart, in full assurance of faith, having our hearts *sprinkled* from an evil conscience. *Heb.*

To SPRINKLE, *v. n.* To perform the act of scattering in small drops.—The priest shall *sprinkle* of the oil with his finger. *Lev.*

SPRINKLE, *s.* A small quantity scattered; an aspergoire; an utensil to sprinkle with.

She always smyl'd, and in her hand did hold An holy water *sprinkle* dipt in dewe,

With which she sprinkled favours manifold. On whom she list. *Spenser.*

SPRINKLER, *s.* One that sprinkles.

SPRINKLING, *s.* The act of scattering in small drops.—Your clerical shavings, your crossings, *sprinklings*, your cozening miracles. *Bp. Hall.*—A small quantity scattered.

To SPRIT, *v. a.* [See *To SPRIT*, and *To SPROUT.*] To throw out; to eject with force.—Toads sometimes exclude or *sprit* out a dark and liquid matter behind, and a venomous condition there may be perhaps therein; but it cannot be called their urine. *Brown.*

To SPRIT, *v. n.* [ʃpɹɪtən, Sax.; *spruyten*, Dutch.] To shoot; to germinate; to sprout. Used of barley wetted for malt.

SPRIT, *s.* [ʃpɹɪt, Sax., *serculus*.] Shoot; sprout.—The barley, after it has been couched four days, will sweat a little, and shew the chit or *sprit* at the root-end of the corn. *Mortimer*.—[ʃpɹeot, Sax., *contus*.] A pole: hence our word *bow-sprit*.

SPRIT-SAIL, *s.* The sail which belongs to the bow-sprit mast. *Dict.*—Our men quitted themselves of the fire-ship, by cutting the *sprit-sail* tackle off with their short hatchets. *Wiseman*.

SPRITE, *s.* A spirit; an incorporeal agent. See SPRIGHT. The *sprites* of fiery termagants in flame Mount up, and take a salamander's name. *Pope*.
Of these am I who thy protection claim,
A watchful *sprite*, and Ariel is my name. *Pope*.

SPRITEFUL, *adj.* Gay; lively; cheerful.
A *spriteful* gait that leaves no print,
And makes a feather of a flint. *Stroud*.

SPRITEFULLY, *adv.* Vigorously; with life and ardour. The Grecians *spritefully* drew from the darts the corse,
And hearest it, bearing it to fleet. *Chapman*.

SPRITELESS, *adj.* See SPRIGHTLESS.
SPRITELINESS, *s.* See SPRIGHTLINESS.—Wit and *spriteliness* of conversation. *Warton*.
SPRITELY, *adj.* See SPRIGHTLY.
SPRITELY, *adv.* Gayly.

You have not scene young heiffers, hihly kept;
Fill'd full of daisies at the field and driven
Home to their hovels; all so *spritely* given,
That no roome can contain them. *Chapman*.

SPROATLEY, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.
SPROD, *s.* A salmon while in its second year's growth: so called by fishermen in many parts of England. *Chambers*.

SPROE, or SPROGØE, a small island of Denmark, situated in the Great Belt, between Funen and Zealand; 8 miles north-west of Corsoer. Lat. 55. 22. N. long. 10. 59. E.

SPRONG. The old preterite of *spring*.—Not mistrusting, till these new curiosities *sprong* up, that ever any man would think our labour herein mispent, or the time wastefully consumed. *Hooker*.

SPROSTON, a township of England, in Cheshire; 2 miles east of Middlewich.

SPROTBOROUGH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Doncaster.

SPROTTA, a small river of Silesia, which rises in the principality of Liegnitz, and falls into the Bober near the town of Sprottau.

SPROTTAU, a town of Prussian Silesia, at the confluence of the Sprotta and the Bober. Population 2500; 71 miles west-north-west of Breslau, and 21 west-south-west of Gross Glogau.

SPROUGHTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles west-by-north of Ipswich.

SPROUSTON, a parish and village of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, about 6 miles long and 4 broad. Population 1199, 200 of whom reside in the village.

To SPROUT, *v. n.* [ʃpɹɪtən, Sax.; *spruyten*, Dutch.] *Sprout*, *sprit*, and by a very frequent transposition *spirt* or *spurt*, are all the same word.] To shoot by vegetation; to germinate.

The *sprouting* leaves that saw you here,
And call'd their fellows to the sight. *Cowley*.

To shoot into ramifications.—Vitriol is apt to *sprout* with moisture. *Bacon*.—To grow.

Th' enlivening dust its head begins to rear,
And on the ashes *sprouting* plumes appear. *Tickell*.

SPROUT, *s.* [ʃpɹɪt, ʃpɹaʊtə, Sax.] A shoot of a

vegetable.—Stumps of trees, lying out of the ground, will put forth *sprouts* for a time. *Bacon*.

Early ere the odorous breath of morn
Awakes the slumbering leaves, or tassel'd horn
Shakes the high thicket, haste I all about,
Number my ranks, and visit every *sprout*. *Milton*.

To this kid, taken out of the womb, were brought in the tender *sprouts* of shrubs; and, after it had tasted, began to eat of such as are the usual food of goats. *Ray*.

SPROUTS, *s. pl.* Young coleworts.
SPROWSTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles north-east of Norwich.

SPROXTON, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 8 miles north-east of Melton Mowbray.

SPROXTON, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles south of Helmesley.

SPRUCE, *adj.* [Serenius refers the word to the Swed. *shraeg*, formosus; *spraekt et spracg*, clarus et splendens (de pannis). With this our provincial word *sprey*, or *spry*, in great measure, accords; which in some places is used for *smart*, *elegant*.—Barret describes *Prussian* leather under the simple name of *spruce*; and thus, in reference to fine habits, a *sprusado* likewise became a term to denote one who payed great attention to dress: "They put me in mind of the answer of that *sprusado* to a judge in this kingdom, a rigid censor of men's habits; who, seeing a neat finical divine come before him in a cloak lined through with plush, encountered him." *Comment on Chaucer*, 1665.] Nice; trim; neat without elegance. It was anciently used of things with a serious meaning: it is now used only of persons, and with levity.

The tree
That wraps that crystal in a wooden tomb,
Shall be took up *spruce*, fill'd with diamond. *Donne*.

Thou wilt not leave me in the middle street,
Tho' some more *spruce* companion thou do'st meet. *Donne*.

Along the crisped shades and bowers
Revels the *spruce* and jocund spring;
The graces, and the rosy-bosom'd hours,
Thither all their bounties bring. *Milton*.

To SPRUCE, *v. n.* To dress with affected neatness. *Unused*.

To SPRUCE, *v. a.* To trim; to dress.—*Sprucing* up the hairy cheeks. *Ainsworth*.

SPRUCE, *s.* A species of fir.—Those from Prussia (which we call *spruce*) and Norway are the best. The hemlock-tree as they call it in New England) is a kind of *spruce*. *Evelyn*.

SPRUCE-BEER, *s.* Beer tinged with branches of fir.—In ulcers of the kidneys *spruce-beer* is a good balsamick. *Arbuthnot*.

SPRUCE-LEATHER, *s.* Corrupted for *Prussian leather*.—The *leather* was of *Pruce*. *Dryden*.

SPRU'CELY, *adv.* In a nice manner.
Under that fayre ruffe so *sprucely* set
Appears a fall, a falling band forsooth! *Marston*.

SPRU'CENESS, *s.* Neatness without elegance; trimness; quaintness; delicacy; fineness.—Now, in the time of *spruceness*, our plays follow the niceness of our garments. *Midleton*.

SPRUNG. The preterite and participle passivè of *spring*.
Tall Norway fir, their masts in battle spent,
And English oaks, *sprung* leaks, and planks, restore. *Dryden*.

To SPRUNT, *v. n.* [*sprengen*, Teut.; ʃpɹʊŋz, Sax.] To spring up; to germinate. This is an ancient verb: "To *spruntone* or *buttone*, pullulo." *Prompt. Parv.*—To spring forward.

See this sweet simpering babe,
Dear image of thyself; see! how it *sprunts*
With joy at thy approach. *Somerville*.

SPRUNT,

SPRUNT, *s.* Any thing that is short, and will not easily bend. *Johnson. Unused.*—A leap, or a spring in leaping.

SPRUNT, *part. adj.* Vigorous; active. *Kersey.*

SPRUNTLY, *adv.* Gaily; dashingly.

How do I look to-day, am I not drest
Spruntly?

B. Jonson.

SPRY HARBOUR, a bay on the south-east coast of Nova Scotia. Lat. 44. 42. N. long. 62. 40. W.

SPUD, *s.* A short knife; an instrument for cutting up thistles; any short thick thing, in contempt.

My love to Sheelah is more firmly fixt,
Than strongest weeds that grow these stones betwixt:
My *spud* these nettles from the stones can part,
No knife so keen to weed thee from my heart.

Swift.

SPUME, *s.* [*spuma* Lat.] Foam; froth.

She—lette it [the medicine] boyle in such a plite,
Till that she sigh the *spume* white.

Gower.

To **SPUME**, *v. n.* [*spumo*, Lat.] To foam; to froth.

SPUMOUS, or **SPUMY**, *adj.* [*spumeus*, Lat.] Frothy; foamy.—The *spumous* and florid state of the blood, in passing through the lungs, arises from its own elasticity, and its violent motion, the aerial particles expanding themselves. *Arbuthnot.*

SPUN. The pret. and part. pass of *spin*.

The nymph nor *spun*, nor dress'd with artful pride;
Her vest was gather'd up, her hair was ty'd.

Addison.

SPUNGE, *s.* [*spongia*, Lat.] A sponge. See **SPONGE**.—When he needs what you have glean'd it is but squeezing you, and *spunge*, you shall be dry again. *Shakspeare.*

To **SPUNGE**, *v. n.* To hang on others for maintenance.—This will maintain you, with the perquisite of *spunging* while you are young. *Swift.*

SPUNGINESS, *s.* Sponginess: which see. *Cotgrave.*

SPUNGINGHOUSE, *s.* A house to which debtors are taken before commitment to prison, where the bailiffs sponge upon them.

SPUNGY, *adj.* Full of small holes, and soft like a sponge.

Some English wool, vex'd in a Belgian loom,
And into cloth of *spungy* softness made.

Dryden.

Having the quality of imbibing.

There is no lady of more softer bowels,
More *spungy* to suck in the sense of fear.

Shakspeare.

SPUNK, *s.* See **SPONK**. Touchwood; rotten wood.—To make white powder, the best way is by the powder of rotten willows; *spunk*, or touchwood prepared, might perhaps make it russet. *Brown.*—Vivacity; spirit; activity. *A low and contemptible expression.*

SPUR, *s.* [*ȝpup*, Sax.] A sharp point fixed in the rider's heel, with which he pricks his horse to drive him forward.

Whether the body politick be

A horse whereon the governour doth ride,
Who, newly in the seat, that it may know
He can command it, lets it straight feel the *spur*.

Shakspeare.

Incitement; instigation. It is used with *to* before the effect.—The chief, if not only *spur* to human industry and action, is uneasiness. *Locke.*—The longest and largest leading root of a tree: hence probably the *spur* of a post, the short wooden buttress affixed to it, to keep it firm in the ground. *Malone.*

The strong bas'd promontory

Have I made shake, and by the *spurs*
Pluck'd up the pine and cedar.

Shakspeare:

The sharp points on the legs of a cock with which he fights.—Animals have natural weapons to defend and offend; some talons, some claws, some *spurs* and beaks. *Ray.*—A sea-swallow. The sea-swallows they there [in Caldey isle] call *spurs*. *Ray.*

To **SPUR**, *v. a.* To prick with the spur; to drive with the spur.—My friend, who always takes care to cure his horse

of starting fits, *spurred* him up to the very side of the coach. *Addison.*—To instigate; to incite; to urge forward.

Lovers break not hours,

Unless it be to come before their time:

So much they *spur* their expedition.

Shakspeare.

To drive by force.—Love will not be *spurr'd* to what it loaths. *Shakspeare.*—To fix a spur to.

Castor the flame of fiery steed,

With well *spurr'd* boot, took down;

As men, with leathern buckets, do

Quench fire in country town.

Old Ballad of St. George for England.

To **SPUR**, *v. n.* To travel with great expedition.

With backward bows the Parthians shall be there,

And, *spurring* from the fight, confess their fear:

A double wreath shall crown our Cæsar's brows. *Dryden.*

To press forward.

Ascanius took th' alarm, while yet he led,

And, *spurring* on, his equals soon o'erpass'd.

Dryden.

To **SPURGALL**, *v. a.* To wound or hurt with the *spur*.

I was not made a horse,

And yet I bear a burthen like an ass,

Spurgall'd, and tir'd, by jaunting Bolingbroke.

Shakspeare.

SPURGALL, *s.* A hurt occasioned by the too frequent use of the spur.

SPURGE, *s.* [*espurge*, Fr.; *spurgie*, Dutch, from *purgo*, Lat.] A plant violently purgative.

SPURGE FLAX, *s.* A plant. See **THYMELÆA**.

SPURGE LAUREL, *s.* A plant. See **MEZEREON**.

SPURGE OLIVE, *s.* A shrub. See **CHAMÆLEA**.

SPURGE WORT, *s.* A plant. See **XIPHION**.

SPURGING, *s.* Act of purging; discharge. *Obsolete.*

I have been gathering wolves' hairs.

The mad dog's foam, and the adder's ears;

The *spurging* of a dead man's eyes;

And all since the evening star did rise.

B. Jonson.

SPURIOUS, *adj.* [*spurius*, Lat.] Not genuine; counterfeit; adulterine.—Reformed churches reject not all traditions, but such as are *spurious*, superstitious, and not consonant to the prime rule of faith. *White.*—Not legitimate; bastard.

Your Scipios, Cæsars, Pompeys, and your Catos,

These gods on earth, are all the *spurious* brood

Of violated maids.

Addison.

SPURIOUSLY, *adv.* Counterfeitly; falsely.—The deposition, confessing that the child had been *spuriously* passed upon Virginie for his own. *Webster, Træg. of Appius and Virginia.*

SPURIOUSNESS, *s.* Adulterateness; state of being counterfeit.—You proceed to Hippolytus, and speak of his *spuriousness* with as much confidence as if you were able to prove it. *Waterland.*

SPURLING, *s.* [*esperlun*, Fr.] A small sea-fish.

All saints, do lay for porke and sowse,

For sprats and *spurlings* for your house.

Tusser.

To **SPURN**, *v. a.* [*ȝpoppnan*, *ȝpupnan*, Sax., to kick; and so in our old lexicography: "To *spurnyn* or *wyncyn*, calcitro." Prompt. Parv. And Barret: "I will *sporne* or strike thee with my foote."] To kick; to strike or drive with the foot.

They suppos'd I could rend bars of steel,

And *spurn* in pieces posts of adamant.

Shakspeare.

You that did void your rheum upon my beard,

And foot me as you *spurn* a stranger cur

Over your threshold.

Shakspeare.

He in the surging smoke

Uplifted *spurn'd* the ground.

Milton.

To reject; to scorn; to put away with contempt; to disdain.

In wisdom I should ask your name ;
But since thy outside looks so fair and warlike,
What safe and nicely I might well delay,
By rule of knighthood, I disdain and spurn. *Shakspeare.*

To treat with contempt.—Domestics will pay a more cheerful service, when they find themselves not spurned, because fortune has laid them at their master's feet. *Locke.*

To SPURN, *v. n.* To make contemptuous opposition; to make insolent resistance.

A son to blunt the sword
That guards the peace and safety of your person ;
Nay more, to spurn at your most royal image. *Shakspeare.*

SPURN, *s.* Kick; insolent and contemptuous treatment.

The insolence of office, and the spurns
That patient merit of the unworthy takes. *Shakspeare.*

SPURNER, *s.* One who spurns. *Unused.*
SPURNNESS, the south cape of Sanday, one of the Orkney islands. Lat. 59. 3. N. long. 2. 35. W.

SPURNEY, *s.* A plant.
SPURRED, *adj.* Wearing spurs: as, he was booted and spurred.

SPURRER, *s.* One who uses spurs.
SPURRIER, *s.* One who makes spurs.
Gramercy, Lether-leg; get me the spurrier,
An' thou hast fitted me. *B. Jonson.*

SPUR-ROYAL, *s.* A gold coin, first coined in Edward the Fourth's time: it was of fifteen shillings value in James the First's time. It is sometimes written *spur-rial* or *ryal*.—Twenty *spur-royals* for that word. *Beaum. and Fl.*—I have a paper with a *spur-ryal* in't. *B. Jonson.*

SPURRY, *s.* [*spurré*, old Fr.] A plant
SPURSTOW, a township of England, in Cheshire; 4 miles south-by-east of Tarporley.

To SPURT, *v. n.* To fly out with a quick stream.—If from a puncture of a lancet, the manner of the *spurting* out of the blood will shew it. *Wiseman.*

SPURWAY, *s.* A horseway; a bridle-road; distinct from a road for carriages.

SPUTATION, *s.* [*sputum*, Lat.] The act of spitting.—A moist consumption receives its nomenclature from a moist *sputum*, or expectoration: a dry one is known by its dry cough. *Harvey.*

SPUTATIVE, *adj.* [*sputum*, Lat.] Spitting much; inclined to spit.—I made a short retirement, with intention to have visited the city of Bath, and to see whether among all kind of affected persons, confluent thither, I could pick out any counsel to allay that *sputative* symptom, which yet remaineth upon me from my obstructions of the spleen. *Wotton.*

To SPUTTTER, *v. n.* [*sputo*, Lat.] To emit moisture in small flying drops.

If a manly drop or two fall down,
It scalds along my cheeks, like the green wood,
That, *sputtering* in the flame, works outwards into tears. *Dryden.*

To fly out in small particles with some noise.
The nightly-virgin, while her wheel she plies,
Foresees the storms impending in the skies,
When sparkling lamps their *sputtering* light advance,
And in the sockets oily bubbles dance. *Dryden.*

To speak hastily and obscurely, as with the mouth full; to throw out the spittle by hastily speech.

Though he *sputter* through a session,
It never makes the least impression;
Whate'er he speaks for madness goes. *Swift.*

To SPUTTTER, *v. a.* To throw out with noise and hesitation.

Thou dost with lies the throne invade,
Obtending heav'n for whate'er ills befall;
And *sputtering* under specious names thy gall. *Dryden.*
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SPUTTER, *s.* Moisture thrown out in small drops.

SPUTTTERER, *s.* One that sputters.

SPY, *s.* [*yspio*, Welsh; *espion*, Fr.; *spie*, Dutch; *speculator*, Lat.] It is observed by a German, that *spy* has been in all ages a word by which the eye, or office of the eye, has been expressed: thus the *Arimaspians* of old, fabled to have but one eye, were so called from *ari*, which, among the nations of *Caucasus*, still signifies *one*, and *spi*, which has been received from the old Asiatic languages for an eye, *sight*, or one that sees. *Todd.* One sent to watch the conduct or motions of others; one sent to gain intelligence in an enemy's camp or country.

Spies of the Volscians
Held me in chace, that I was forc'd to wheel
Three or four miles about. *Shakspeare.*

To SPY, *v. a.* To see with painstaking: as, when a thing is distant or requires a close examination.

My brother Guyomar, methinks, I spy:
Haste in his steps, and wonder in his eye. *Dryden.*

Let a lawyer tell he has *spy'd* some defect in an entail,
how solicitous are they to repair that error? *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

To SPY, *v. n.* To search narrowly.

It is my nature's plague
To *spy* into abuse; and oft my jealousy
Shapes faults that are not. *Shakspeare.*

SPY'BOAT, *s.* A boat sent out for intelligence.

SPYDEBERG, a small town in the south of Norway, near Frederickshall.

SPYNIE, or NEW SPYNIE, a parish of Scotland, in Morayshire, about 4 miles long and 2 broad, stretching along the banks of the Lossie. Population 816.

SPYNIE, LOCH, a lake in the above parish, three miles long, and one broad, which appears to have been formerly a frith of the sea.

SQUAB, *adj.* [*Squab*, Sueth. *corpus molle et pingue. Serenius.*] Fat; thick and stout; awkwardly bulky.

The nappy ale goes round,
Nor the *squab* daughter nor the wife were nice,
Each health the youths began, Sim pledg'd it twice. *Betterton.*

SQUAB, *s.* A kind of sofa or couch; a stuffed cushion.
On her large *squab* you find her spread,
Like a fat corpse upon a bed. *Pope.*

SQUAB, *adv.* With a heavy sudden fall; plump and flat. *A low word.*—The eagle took the tortoise up into the air, and dropt him down, *squab*, upon a rock, that dashed him to pieces. *L'Estrange.*

To SQUAB, *v. n.* To fall down plump or flat.

SQUA'BBISH, *adj.* Flabbily; fleshy.—Diet renders them of a *squabbish* or lardy habit of body. *Harvey.*

To SQUA'BBLE, *v. n.* [*kæbla*, Swedish.] To quarrel; to debate peevishly; to wrangle; to fight. *A low word.*—Drunk? and speak parrot? and *squabble?* swagger? oh, thou invincible spirit of wine! *Shakspeare.*

SQUA'BBLE, *s.* A low brawl; a petty quarrel.—In popular factions, pragmatic fools commonly begin the *squabble*, and crafty knaves reap the benefit. *L'Estrange.*

SQUA'BBLER, *s.* A quarrelsome fellow; a brawler.

SQUABPIE, *s.* A pie made of many ingredients.
Cornwal *squab-pie*, and Devon whitepot brings,
And Leicester beans and bacon, food of kings. *King.*

SQUAD, *s.* [*escouade*, Fr.] A company of armed men: usually applied to those who are learning the military exercise.

SQUA'DRON, *s.* [*escadron*, Fr.; *squadrone*, Ital.; from *quadratus*, Lat.] A body of men drawn up square.

Those half-rounding guards
Just met, and closing stood in *squadron* joined. *Milton.*

A part of an army; a troop. 6 L

Eurimidon then rein'd his horse, that trotted neighing by;
The king a foot-man, and so scowres the *squadrons* orderly.
Chapman.

Part of a fleet; a certain number of ships.—Rome could not maintain its dominion over so many provinces, without *squadrons* ready equipt. *Arbuthnot.*

SQUA'DRONED, *adj.* Formed into squadrons.

They gladly thither haste, and by a choir
Of *squadron'd* angels, hear his carol sung. *Milton.*

SQUA'LID, *adj.* [*squalidus*, Lat.] Foul; nasty; filthy.
Uncomb'd his locks, and *squalid* his attire,
Unlike the trim of love and gay desire. *Dryden.*

SQUALIDITY, or SQUA'LIDNESS, *s.* The state or quality of being squalid.

To SQUALL, *v. n.* [*sqwacla*, Su. Goth. Formed, no doubt, by imitation of a child's cry.] To scream out as a child or woman frightened.—Cornelius sunk back on a chair; the guests stood astonished; the infant *squawled*. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

SQUALL, *s.* Loud scream.
There oft are heard the notes of infant woe,
The short thick sob, loud scream, and shriller *squall*. *Pope.*

Sudden gust of wind. [Perhaps from an imitation of the howl of the wind.]

SQUALLER, *s.* Screamer; one that screams
SQUA'LOR, *s.* [Lat.] Coarseness; nastiness; want of cleanliness and neatness.—What can filthy poverty give else but beggary, fulsome nastiness, *squalor*, ugliness, hunger, and thirst? *Burton.*

SQUALLY, *adj.* Windy; gusty.—Captain Crowe remarked that it was *squally* weather. *Smollet.*

SQUALUS [*Pliny*, from *Squalor*, the fish delighting in muddy and impure places], the SHARK, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the chondropterigous, or cartilaginous order: the Generic Character is as follows:—The mouth is situated beneath the anterior part of the head, with numerous teeth disposed in rows. On each side of the neck, in most of the species, there are five spiracles of a semilunar shape. The body is oblong, and somewhat cylindrical.

The animals of this genus are altogether marine: they are viviparous, and are observed to produce more young at a time than the rays; but each is included, as is the case with those fishes, in a quadrangular capsule or involucre, each extremity of which is extended into a long, contorted, cartilaginous thread of great length. Many of the sharks are said to emit a phosphoric light during the darkness of night: they are chiefly of a solitary nature, and, in general, devour, with the most indiscriminating voracity, almost every animal substance, whether living or dead. A few species are said to feed chiefly on fuci, and other marine vegetables. There are about thirty-four species enumerated by Gmelin, which are separated into different sections.

I.—With temporal orifice and anal fin.

1. *Squalus Isabella*.—The first dorsal fin is opposite the abdominal. It is thirty inches long; in colour it is yellowish; the teeth are compressed, short, triangular, furnished on each side the base with a smaller lobe, and disposed in six rows; the tongue is very short and thick; the dorsal fin is subquadrangular; the second placed opposite the anal fin; the pectoral fins are very large; the ventral are separate, and pointed behind.—It inhabits the southern Pacific ocean, and has been observed about the coasts of New Zealand.

2. *Squalus canicular*, or spotted dog-fish.—Nostrils surrounded with a lobe and vermiform appendage; the ventral fins are distinct. The head is small; snout short; eyes oblong; pupil sea-green, iris white; the mouth is wide and oblong, with three rows of teeth; the tongue is cartilaginous, and with the palate rough; the vent is before the middle of the body; the first dorsal fin behind the ventral, the second less, and nearly opposite the anal; the tail is narrow, ending below in a sharp angle.—This inhabits most seas, is about four or five feet long, is very voracious, and feeds chiefly on

fish; the body is of a reddish brown, with large distinct spots, which are black above, but white beneath, a little compressed at each end: the skin when dried is used for various purposes.

3. *Squalus catulus*, or lesser spotted dog-fish.—This species is specifically described as having nostrils covered with a lobe and vermiform appendage; the ventral fins are connected. Its habit is rather slender; in length it is from two to three feet; the head is large; snout prominent, and slightly pointed; the skin is rough; the body cylindrical; the colour pale brick-red, marked with very numerous, small, rounded, blackish or dusky spots; the abdomen is whitish; both the dorsal fins are placed much nearer to the tail than the head; the ventral fins are connate, large, and of a slightly pointed form; the anal fin is small; the tail is long, bilobate, with the lower lobe continued to a considerable distance beneath. It is a most voracious fish. According to Mr. Pennant, it breeds from nine to thirteen young at a time; it is numerous on our own coasts, and very injurious to the fisheries. The liver, when taken or tasted as food, is highly noxious, causing a long continued stupor, succeeded by an universal itching, with a total peeling off of the cuticle.—It inhabits the Northern, Mediterranean, and Indian seas.

4. *Squalus stellaris*.—Lobes of the nostrils double. The dorsal fins are equal; the first a little beyond the middle of the body, the second a little behind the anal. This is found in the European ocean, and is from two to six feet long; it feeds chiefly on crustaceous animals, molluscae and lesser fish; the body is reddish, with unequal blackish spots; beneath it is of a dirty ash, and resembles the *squalus canicular*, but the spots are larger and fewer; the snout is a little longer, the tail somewhat shorter, and the nostrils nearly closed; it brings forth about twenty at a time.

5. *Squalus galeus*, or tope.—Teeth nearly triangular, serrate on the inner edge. This species is of considerable size, often measuring several feet in length; though the specimens usually seen about the British coasts scarcely exceed the length of about five feet. In its habits it resembles the white shark, being a very bold and rapacious fish, attacking such as happen to be accidentally exposed to it with great violence and rapidity; its shape is rather slender; its colour pale cinereous above, and whitish beneath; the nose is long, flat and pointed; the nostrils are situated near the mouth, and behind each eye is a small orifice; the teeth are numerous, disposed in three rows, small, very sharp, triangular, and serrate on their inner edge. The first dorsal fin is placed about the middle of the back, and is rather large; the second is small, and situated near the tail, which is small, and terminates in two unequal lobes, of which the lower is the broadest. It has been asserted by able and well-informed naturalists, that this fish is so bold as to pursue its prey to the very edge of the shore, and even to attack those who are walking near the water's edge. It is supposed to be the fish mentioned by the name of *canicula*, which is described as highly dangerous to those employed in diving for corals, sponges, &c.

6. *Squalus mustelus*, or smooth hound.—The teeth of this species are very small and obtuse; it has short pectoral fins. The fish of this species are of a slender habit; their snouts are slightly sharpened and lengthened; the first dorsal fin is large, and placed nearly in the middle of the back; the second nearly opposite the anal fin; the tail is shaped as in most others of this tribe, or slightly bilobate; the lower lobe is continued to some distance beneath; the teeth are very numerous, small, slightly convex, and set as in the rays. The general colour of the animal is of a greyish brown, paler or whiter beneath; it sometimes varies in being marked above by numerous white spots. The stomach in this fish is furnished with several appendices, situated near the pylorus; it is found on our own coasts, and in other European seas, and also in the Indian sea, and when full grown it is about two feet long.

7. *Squalus cirratus*.—The nostrils have a worm-shaped appendage.—The head is depressed; the snout is short, obtuse; the eyes and temporal orifice small; lips thick at the

the sides; teeth numerous, sharp, long, dilated at the base; the two hindmost spiracles are approximate; the vent is in the middle; the first dorsal fin is opposite the ventral; the anal is small; the tail is about a quarter as long as the body.—This species inhabits the American and Pacific seas, and is from one to five feet long; the body is coated with large flat shining scales; when young it is spotted with black.

8. *Squalus barbatus*.—The gape of the mouth is bearded with vermiform appendages. The head is large, depressed, and short; the teeth are lanceolate, in many rows; cirri unequal, about an inch and a half long, and branched before. The temporal orifice is large; vent in the middle; first dorsal opposite the vent; the tail subdivided.—It is found about the coasts of New Holland, and is from three to four feet long; the body is covered with small, hard, smooth, shining scales, and marked with black spots, round and angular, surrounded with a white circle.

9. *Squalus tigrinus*.—Tail elongated; the two hindmost spiracles are confluent. The head of this species is broad, flat, and sloping on the fore-part; the mouth transverse, with two cirri; the upper lip is thick and prominent; the teeth are minute, those on the upper jaw are moveable, and rough like a rasp; the tongue is thick, short; the eyes are small, oblong, and the pupil is blue; the iris is black; belly broad; pectoral fins short, broad; first dorsal opposite the ventral; the second is opposite the anal; the tail is compressed on each side, thin like a leaf at the end; the fin is long, and notched at the tip. It inhabits the Indian ocean, and grows to the length of fifteen feet; the body is thick, oblong, black, with irregular white spots and bands; feeds on testaceous animals and crabs.

10. *Squalus Africanus*.—Body with several parallel, longitudinal blackish bands above. This, as its specific name imports, is found in the African ocean, and is about two feet and a half long: the body is covered with minute subquadrate scales; above it is glaucous, beneath whitish.

11. *Squalus ocellatus*. On each side of the neck is a large, round, black blotch, surrounded with white. It inhabits the Pacific ocean and New Holland, is two feet and a half long; the body is long, cinereous, dotted; beneath it is of a greenish-ash colour.

12. *Squalus zygaena*.—Head very broad, hammer-shaped.—It inhabits the Mediterranean, American, and Indian seas; grows to six feet long, and to the weight of five hundred pounds; it is the most voracious of all its tribe.

13. *Squalus tiburio*.—The head is very broad, heart-shaped. It very much resembles the last, except that the head, instead of being widened on each side into a long process, is rather sub-triangular, and rounded off in front; the fins are glaucous.—It inhabits the South American seas.

14. *Squalus griseus*.—Spiracles six on each side.—It inhabits the Mediterranean; is two feet and a half long; the body is of a mouse colour, a little rough; in the dried skin there is the appearance of small scales, with an elevated line in the middle.

15. *Squalus vulpes*, sea-fox, or long-tailed shark.—This species inhabits the Mediterranean sea, and often wanders on the British coast; is seven feet long; the body above is of a blueish-ash colour; beneath it is paler. The scales are very minute. This is a very voracious fish. It is distinguished by its plump, short, subovate body, and very long tapering tail; the head is small and pointed; the first dorsal fin is triangular, and placed on the middle of the back; the second is set above the beginning of the tail, which gradually tapers to the tip, and is furnished with a shallow fin or process beneath, running from the base to the tip, which is sharp and slightly bilobate; the pectoral fins are of considerable size; the eyes are large; the mouth small; the teeth triangular, small, and disposed in three rows. The colour of the fish is dusky ash above, and whitish beneath. It grows to the length of thirteen or fourteen feet; the tail measures more than half the length of the whole animal. This is considered as a very voracious and artful fish; but the name of sea-fox is

applied to it rather from the length of its tail than from its supposed sagacity.

16. *Squalus longicaudus*.—Upper jaw with two cirri; the tail is long, as its specific name denotes; the head is obtuse; the nostrils near the mouth; there are four spiracles.

17. *Squalus appendiculatus*, or Botany Bay shark.—Upper jaw with two jagged, cartilaginous appendages, and four others on each side between the first and the spiracles.—It is an extremely fierce animal. The head is broad, but angular; the mouth is placed near the end of the head; it has nine teeth in front, which are sharp, crooked, and in three rows, with a great number of small ones on each side; the eyes are projecting; dorsal fins placed far back; the pectoral near the spiracles; ventral near the middle of the body; the anal more than half way between the last and the tail, with a fin-like projection behind it to the end of the tail.—This inhabits New South Wales; is nineteen inches long; the body is brown, with three rows of large pale spots, dark within, rounded and nearly equal for half its length, and then growing suddenly very small.

II.—With the anal fin, but no temporal orifice.

18. *Squalus glaucus*, or blue shark.—The sides of the tail are smooth; the lower part of the back with a triangular dent.—This is found in our own and almost all other seas. See SHARK.

19. *Squalus pristis vel pectinatus*.—A fish with a long snout, armed on each side with narrow teeth. It grows about seven feet long, and lives chiefly on the weaker fishes.—It is very frequent in the Indian seas.

20. *Squalus cornubicus*, or probeagle shark.—The snout of this species is projecting, sharp; body round, depressed and angulate near the tail. This species is slightly described by Pennant, from an engraving which he found in Borlase's History of Cornwall, which was copied by Mr. Jago, who was esteemed a very observant and skilful ichthyologist. A specimen observed in 1793, on the coast of Hastings, is described in the third volume of the Linnæan Transactions. Its length from the tip of the snout to the extremity of the tail, was three feet ten inches; the colour of the body was a deep blue on the back, and white or silvery beneath; the shape was round, except for about six inches from the tail, where it was depressed; at about an inch from the tail was a semilunar or lunar impression, the points of which were towards the tail; where the body was depressed, the sides were raised into a sharp angle or elevated line, of about eight inches in length, running to the middle of the tail, or a little beyond; the nose was prominent and sharp; and on either side, from the nose to the eyes, were numerous perforations or minute pores; the tail was of a lunar form, the upper lobe nearly a third longer than the lower.—It inhabits the British coasts; is from three to four feet long; the body above is of a deep blue, beneath it is silvery; round, except near the tail, where it is depressed.

21. *Squalus cambricus*, or beaumaris shark.—Snout short, blunt; body cylindrical, angulate near the tail.—This is chiefly found on the British coasts; is seven feet long; very much resembles the last, except that it does not taper so much towards each end; the body is of a lead-colour, and smoothish.

22. *Squalus cinereus*.—Seven spiracles on each side.—It inhabits the Mediterranean; is three feet long; the body is glaucous, and a little rough.

23. *Squalus maximus*, or basking shark.—Teeth conic, not serrate.

24. *Squalus carcharias*, or white shark.—In this species the teeth are triangular. This is the most dreadful and voracious of all animals.

III.—With temporal orifice, but no anal fin.

25. *Squalus spinosus*.—Body covered over with large mucronate tubercles. This is about four feet in length; the colour is grey-brown above, whitish beneath; the body is roughened with scattered unequal tubercles, consisting of a broad round base, and curved, sharp pointed tip; in some they are bifid; eyes large; snout prominent and conic; its gape

gape is moderate; the teeth of a squarish shape, compressed, comered at the margins, and placed in several rows; dorsal fins placed near the tail, the first opposite the ventral, which are set at an unusual distance from the head, and are almost as large as the pectoral; the tail is angular.

26. *Squalus acanthias*, or piked dog-fish.—Dorsal fins spinous; the body is roundish; a variety has an ocellate body.—This species inhabits most seas: it is about three feet and a half long; the body above is blackish, dotted sparingly with white; the sides are white, inclining to violet, with a few angulate transverse furrows, beneath white; the flesh is often salted and eaten.

27. *Squalus Jacksonii*.—Eyes with a prominence over them on each side; before each of the dorsal fins is a strong spine.—It is not more than two feet long; the body is tapering, skin rough, above brown, beneath paler; the head is somewhat convex; teeth numerous, in many rows, larger as they are placed backwards, forming a bony plate. This inhabits Port Jackson, New Holland.

28. *Squalus spinax*.—Body beneath blackish.—It is found in the Indian ocean; and, in its spinous back fins, it very much resembles the last.

29. *Squalus squamosus*.—Body coated with small oblong scales. The body of this is three feet long, thick, round, resembling the next, except in having a longitudinal elevated line of scales down the middle.

30. *Squalus centrina*.—Body nearly triangular. It is from three to four feet in length; the body above is brown, carinate, beneath whitish, broad; skin covered with hard, erect tubercles; the flesh is very hard.

31. *Squalus Indicus*.—Black, variegated, unarmed; teeth acute.—It inhabits the Indian ocean.

32. *Squalus Americanus*.—Dorsal fins unarmed, the hinder one larger, ventral large near the tail.—It is found in the South American seas; is three feet long; body round; scales small, angular.

33. *Squalus squatina*, or angel fish.—Pectoral fins very large, and notched on the fore-part. The body above is cinereous, rough, with small recurved prickles; beneath it is smooth, white. In its shape it approaches very nearly to the Ray genus.—This species inhabits the Northern seas, and is from six to eight feet long; it feeds on lesser fish, and brings forth thirteen young at a time.

IV.—Without teeth.

34. *Squalus massasa*.—Pectoral fins long.—An inhabitant of the Red sea.

35. *Squalus kumal*.—Pectoral fins short; the mouth with four cirri.—It inhabits the Red sea.

SQUALUS is also a name given by Varro, Columella, Salvian and others, to a species of cyprinus.

SQUAM, a lake of the United States, in New Hampshire, partly in Grafton, partly in Strafford county, six miles long, and four broad.

SQUAM, a river of the United States, in New Hampshire, which runs from Squam lake, south-west, in the Merrimack.

SQUAM, a mountain of the United States, in New Hampshire, north-west of Squam lake.

SQUAM HARBOUR, a port of the United States, on the coast of Massachusetts, on the north-east side of Cape Ann. Lat. 42. 42. N. long. 70. 40. W.

SQUA'MOUS, *adj.* [*squamæus*, Lat.] Scaly; covered with scales.—The sea was replenished with fish, of the cartilaginous and *squamosæ*, as of the testaceous and crustaceous kinds. *Woodward*.

TO SQUA'NDER, *v. a.* [*schwenden*, Germ. perdere, in nihilum redigere.] To scatter lavishly; to spend profusely; to throw away in idle prodigality.—They often *squandered*, but they never gave. *Savage*.

Then, in plain prose, were made two sorts of men,
To *squander* some, and some to hide agen.

Pope.

To scatter; to dissipate; to disperse.
The troops we *squander'd* first again appear
From several quarters, and enclose the rear.

Dryden.

SQUA'NDER, *s.* The act of squandering.—The waste of our resources, and the *squander* of our opportunities. *Inq. into the State of the Nation*.

SQUA'NDERER, *s.* A spendthrift; a prodigal; a waster; a lavisher.—Plenty in their own keeping teaches them from the beginning to be *squanderers* and wasters. *Locke*.

SQUANICOOK, a river of the United States, in Massachusetts, which runs south east into the Nashua, east of Shirley.

SQUANNAROOS INDIANS, Indians of North America, on Cataract river, north of the Columbia. Number 120.

SQUARCIONE (Francesco), a painter, born at Padua in 1394, more and better known as the founder of a school of art, than for any particular works of his own production. The school he maintained was furnished with designs and vestiges of antiquity, which he had acquired not only in Italy, but also in Greece, whither he travelled for the purpose; and it was at one time attended by upwards of 130 students, so that he acquired from it the respectable title of the father of the young painters. One picture of his is more particularly noticed by Lanzi, which was formerly in the church of the Carmelites at Padua, and afterwards in the private possession of the Conte de Lazara, representing St. Jerome surrounded by three saints; and he speaks of it in terms of praise for so early a production. It was painted, according to an inscription upon it, for the noble family of Lazara, in 1452, and is signed Francesco Squarcione. He died in 1474, at the age of 80.

SQUARE, *adj.* [*ysgwâr*, Welsh.] Cornered; having right angles.—All the doors and posts were *square* with the windows. *1 Kings*.—Forming a right angle.—This instrument is for striking lines *square* to other lines or straight sides, and try the squareness of their work. *Moxon*.—Cornered; having angles of whatever content: as three *square*, five *square*.—The clavicle is a crooked bone, in the figure of an S, one end of which being thicker, and almost three *square*, is inserted into the first bone of the sternon. *Wiseman*.—Parallel; exactly suitable.—She's a most triumphant lady, if report be *square* to her. *Shakspeare*.—Strong; stout; well set; as, a *square* man; equal; exact; honest; fair: as *square* dealing.

All have not offended;

For those that were, it is not *square* to take

On those that are, revenge; crimes, like to lands,

Are not inherited.

Shakspeare.

Square root of any number is that which multiplied by itself, produces the *square*, as 4 is the *square* root of 16; because $4 \times 4 = 16$; and likewise 6 is the *square* root of 36, as $6 \times 6 = 36$. See **ALGEBRA**.

SQUARE, *s.* A figure with right angles and equal sides.

Rais'd of grassy turf their table was;

And on her ample *square* from side to side

All Autumn pil'd.

Milton.

An area of four sides, with houses on each side; content of an angle.—In rectangle triangles, the square which is made of the side that subtendeth the right angle, is equal to the *squares* which are made of the sides, containing the right angle. *Brown*.—A rule or instrument by which workmen measure or form their angles.

Forth to the solemn oak you bring the *square*,

And span the massy trunk before you cry, 'tis fair.

Shenstone.

Rule; regularity; exact proportion; justness of workmanship or conduct. *Not much used*.—In St. Paul's time, the integrity of Rome was famous: Corinth many ways reprov'd; they of Galatia much more out of *square*. *Hooker*.—Squadron; troops formed square. *Not now in use*.

He alone

Dealt on lieutenantry, and no practice had

In the brave *squares* of war.

Shakspeare.

A *square* number is when another called its root can be exactly

exactly found, which, multiplied by itself, produces the square.—Level; equality.

We live not on the *square* with such as these,
Such are our betters who can better please. *Dryden.*

Quartile; the astrological situation of planets, distant ninety degrees from each other.

To the other five
Their planetary motions, and aspects,
In sextile, *square*, and trine and opposite
Of noxious efficacy. *Milton.*

Rule; conformity. *A proverbial use.*—I shall break no *squares* whether it be so or not. *L'Estrange.*

SQUARES go. The game proceeds. Chessboards being full of squares.—One frog looked about him to see how *squares went* with their new king. *L'Estrange.*

To *SQUARE, v. a.* To form with right angles; to reduce to a square.

Circles to *square*, and cubes to double,
Would give a man excessive trouble. *Prior.*

To measure; to reduce to a measure.
Stubborn critics, apt, without a theme—
For deprivation, to *square* all the sex
By Cressid's rule. *Shakspeare.*

To adjust; to regulate; to mould; to shape.—How frantically I *square* my talk! *Shakspeare.*

Thou'rt said to have a stubborn soul,
That apprehends no further than this world,
And *squar'st* thy life accordingly. *Shakspeare.*

To accommodate; to fit.
Eye me, blest providence, and *square* my trial
To my proportion'd strength. *Milton.*

To respect in quartile.
O'er libra's sign a crowd of foes prevails,
The icy goat and crab that *square* the scales. *Creech.*

To *SQUARE, v. n.* To suit with; to fit with.
I set them by the rule, and, as they *square*,
Or deviate from undoubted doctrine, fare. *Dryden.*

To quarrel; to go to opposite sides. *Obsolete.* The French word *contrecarrer* has the same import. The French *quarrer* has also been referred to: *sequarrer*, "to strut or *square* it; to look big; to carry the arms a-kembo, braggadochio-like." *Cotgrave.*

Are you such fools
To *square* for this? would it offend you then
That both should speed? *Titus Andronicus.*

SQUARE HANDKERCHIEF, a cluster of islets and rocks in the Atlantic, formerly called *Bazos de Babuca*, extending above 100 miles in circumference. Lat. 21. N. long. 69. W.

SQUARE ISLAND, a small island in the north part of Lake Superior. Lat. 48. 40. N. long. 87. 22. W.

SQUARE ISLAND, an island near the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 52. 54. N. long. 55. 32. W.

SQUA'RENESS, s. The state of being square.—This instrument is for striking lines square to other lines or straight lines, and try the *squareness* of their work. *Moxon.*

To *SQUASH, v. a.* [*schiacciare, Ital.*] To crush into pulp; to batter or make as flat as a cake.

SQUASH, s. Any thing soft and easily crushed.—Not yet old enough for a man, nor young enough for a boy, as a *squash* is before it is a peascod, or a coddling, when it is almost an apple. *Shakspeare.*—A plant.—*Squash* is an Indian kind of pumpkin that grows apace. *Boyle.*—Any thing unripe; any thing soft. *In contempt.*

How like I then was to this kernel,
This *squash*, this gentleman. *Shakspeare.*

A sudden fall.—Since they will overload my shoulders, I shall throw down the burden with a *squash* among them. *Vol. XXIII. No. 1586.*

Arbutnot.—A shock of soft bodies.—My fall was stopped by a terrible *squash* that sounded louder than the cataract of Niagara. *Swift.*

To *SQUAT, v. n.* [*quattare, Ital.*] To sit cowering; to sit close to the ground.

To *SQUAT, v. a.* To bruise or make flat by letting fall. Grose notices this as a provincial word. Barret thus gives it, under the verb *throw*; "To *squatte* or throwe any thing against the ground." *Alv. 1580.*

SQUAT, adj. Cowering; close to the ground.
Him there they found,
Squat like a toad, close at the ear of Eve. *Milton.*

Short and thick; having one part close to another, as those of an animal contracted and cowering.

Alma in verse, in prose, the mind,
Throughout the body *squat* or tall,
Is *bonâ fide* all in all. *Prior.*

SQUAT, s. The posture of cowering or lying close.
A stitch-fall'n cheek that hangs below the jaw;
Such wrinkles as a skillful hand would draw
For an old grandam ape, when with a grace
She sits at *squat*, and scrubs her leathern face. *Dryden.*

A sudden fall.—Bruises, *squats* and falls, which often kills others, can bring little hurt to those that are temperate. *Herbert.*

SQUAT, s. A sort of mineral.—The *squat* consists of iron and spar incorporated. *Woodward.*

To *SQUAWL.* See To *SQUALL.*
To *SQUEAK, v. n.* [*sqwaeka, Swed.*] To set up a sudden dolorous cry; to cry out with pain; to cry with a shrill acute tone.

The sheeted dead
Did *squeak* and gibber in the Roman streets. *Shakspeare.*

In florid impotence he speaks,
And as the prompter breathes, the puppet *squeaks.* *Prior.*

To break silence or secrecy for fear or pain.
SQUEAK, s. A cry of pain.

Ran cow and calf, and family of hogs,
In panic horror of pursuing dogs:
With many a deadly grunt and doleful *squeak*,
Poor swine! as if their pretty hearts wou'd break. *Dryden.*

A shrill quick cry, not of pain.—The coquette—with a great many skittish notes, affected *squeaks*, and studied inconsistencies, distinguished herself from the rest of the company. *Tatler.*

SQUEAKER, s. One who cries with a shrill acute tone.

To *SQUEAL, v. n.* [*sqwacla, Su. Goth.* See To *SQUALL.*] To cry with a shrill sharp voice; to cry with pain. *Squeak* seems a short sudden cry, and *squeal* a cry continued.—She pinched me, and called me a *squealing* chit. *Tatler.*

SQUEA'MISH, adj. [for *quawmish* or *qualmish*, from *qualm.* *Johnson.* And thus formerly our word was *squamish*: "To be *squamish* or nice." *Barret.*] Nice; fastidious; easily disgusted; having the stomach easily turned; being apt to take offence without much reason. It is used always in dislike either real or ironical.—Yet, for countenance sake, he seemed very *squcamish* in respect of the charge he had of the Princess Pamela. *Sidney.*

Quoth he, that honour's very *squeamish*,
That takes a basting for a blemish;
For what's more honourable than scars,
Or skin to tatters rent in wars? *Hudibras.*

His music is rustic, and perhaps too plain,
The men of *squeamish* taste to entertain. *Southern.*

It is rare to see a man at once *squeamish* and voracious. *South.*—There is no occasion to oppose the ancients and the moderns, or to be *squeamish* on either side. He that wisely conducts his mind in the pursuit of knowledge, will gather what lights he can from either. *Locke.*

SQUEA'MISHLY, *adv.* In a fastidious manner.—Too palpable therefore is the modern delicacy of the writer of the Battle of Hastings, who thus *squeamishly* introduces this tale of Saxon perfidy: "I, tho' a Saxon, yet the truth will telle." *Warton.*

SQUEA'MISHNESS, *s.* Niceness; delicacy; fastidiousness.—The thorough-paced politician must laugh at the *squeamishness* of his conscience, and read it another lecture. *South.*—Upon their principles they may revive the worship of the host of heaven; it is but conquering a little *squeamishness* of stomach.—*Stillingfleet.*—To administer this dose, fifty thousand operators, considering the *squeamishness* of some stomachs, and the peevishness of young children, is but reasonable. *Swift.*

SQUEA'SINESS, *s.* Nausea; queasiness; fastidiousness.—A *squeasiness* and rising up of the heart against any mean, vulgar, or mechanical condition of men. *Hammond.*

SQUEA'SY, *adj.* Quceasy; nice; squeamish; fastidious; scrupulous.—He is as *squeazy* of his commendations as his courtesie. *Bp. Earle.*—In *squeazy* stomachs honey turns to gall. *Dryden.*

To SQUEEZE, *v. a.* [*cpijan*, Sax.; *gwasgu*, Welsh, *to squeeze*, *to press*. So in Almorick. From *ys gwasgu* comes the English word. See Davies and Richards. But the Sax. *cpijan*, *to quash*, is the preferable origin; according to which form our word was once written: "*To squise* or thrust together, *presso*." *Barret.*—To press; to crush between two bodies.—It is applied to the *squeezing* or pressing of things downwards, as in the presses for printing. *Wilkins.*—The sinking of the earth would make a convulsion of the air, and that crack must so shake or *squeeze* the atmosphere, as to bring down all the remaining vapours. *Burnet.*

He reap'd the product of his labour'd ground,
And *squeez'd* the combs with golden liquor crown'd.

Dryden.

None acted mournings forc'd to show,
Or *squeeze* his eyes to make the torrent flow.

Dryden.

When Florio speaks, what virgin could withstand,
If gentle Damon did not *squeeze* her hand?

Pope.

To oppress; to crush; to harass by extortion.—In a civil war people must expect to be crushed and *squeezed* toward the burden. *L'Estrange.*—To force between close bodies.

To SQUEEZE, *v. n.* To act or pass, in consequence of compression.—A concave sphere of gold filled with water and soldered up, upon pressing the sphere with great force, let the water *squeeze* through it, and stand all over its outside in multitudes of small drops, like dew, without bursting or cracking the body of the gold. *Newton.*—To force way through close bodies.—Many a public minister comes empty in; but when he has crammed his guts, he is fain to *squeeze* hard before he can get off. *L'Estrange.*

SQUEEZE, *s.* Compression; pressure.
A subtle artist stands with wond'rous bag,
That bears imprison'd winds of gentler sort
Than those that erst Laertes' son enclous'd:
Peaceful thy sleep; but let the tuneful *squeeze*
Of labouring elbow rouse them, out they fly
Melodious, and with spritely accents charm.

Philips.

SQUEEZING, *s.* Act of squeezing.
What crowds of these, impenitently bold,
In sounds and jingling syllables grown old,
Still run on poets, in a raging vein,
Ev'n to the dregs and *squeezings* of the brain.

Pope.

To SQUELCH, or **SQUELISH**, *v. a.* [a corruption perhaps of *squash*.] To crush. *A low word.*

He has almost trod my guts out:—
O, 'twas your luck and mine to be *squelch'd*.

Beaum. and Fl.

SQUELCH, *s.* A flat fall on one side.
He tore the earth which he had sav'd
From *squelch* of knight, and storm'd and rav'd.

Hudibras.

SQUIB, *s.* *This etymology unknown.*—A small pipe of paper filled with combustibles.

Critics on verse, as *squibs* on triumphs wait
Proclaim the glory, and augment the state.

Young.

Any sudden flash.—Dead clouds of sadness, or light *squibs* of mirth. *Donne.*—A lampoon; a frequent colloquial expression; any petty fellow. *Not now in use.*

Asked for their pass by every *squib*,
That list at will them to revile or snib.

Spenser.

SQUILACE, a small town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, situated on the Favone, near the bay of Squilace. It is the see of a bishop, but was much injured by the earthquake of 1783. Lead is found in the neighbouring territory; 35 miles south-west of St. Severino. Lat. 39. 3. N. long. 16. 40. E.

SQUILL, *s.* A plant. See **SCILLA**.—A fish; an insect.

SQUINANCY, *s.* [*squinance*, *squinancie*, Fr.; *squinantia*, Ital.] An inflammation in the throat; a quinsy. *Unused.*—In a *squinancy* there is danger of suffocation. *Wiseman.*

SQUINT, *adj.* [*squinte*, Dutch, *oblique*, *transverse*.] Looking obliquely; looking not directly; looking suspiciously.—Her look is *squint*, with which wishly beholding one, she fixedly looketh upon another. *Transl. of Boccacini.*

SQUINT, *s.* An oblique look.

To SQUINT, *v. n.* To look obliquely; to look not in a direct line of vision.—Some can *squint* when they will; and children set upon a table with a candle behind them, both eyes will move outwards, to see the light, and so induce *squinting*. *Bacon.*

To SQUINT, *v. a.* To form the eye to oblique vision.—This is the foul Flibertigibbet; he gives the web and the pin, *squints* the eye, and makes the harelip. *Shakspeare.*—To turn the eye obliquely.—Perkin began already to *squint* one eye upon the crown, and another upon the sanctuary. *Bacon.*

SQUINTEYED, *adj.* Having the sight directed oblique.—He was so *squint-eyed*, that he seemed spitefully to look upon them whom he beheld. *Knolles.*—Indirect; oblique; malignant.

This is such a false and *squinteyed* praise,
Which seeming to look upwards on his glories,
Looks down upon my fears.

Denham.

SQUINTIFE'GO, *adj.* Squinting. *A cant word.*

The timbrel and the *squintifego* maid
Of Isis awe thee; lest the gods for sin,
Should, with a swelling dropsy, stuff thy skin.

Dryden.

SQUINTINGLY, *adv.* With an oblique look. *Sherwood.*

To SQUINNY, *v. n.* To look asquint. *A cant word.*—I remember thine eyes well enough: Do'st thou *squiny* at me? *Shakspeare.*

SQUIRE, *s.* [contraction of *esquire*.] A gentleman next in rank to a knight.

The rest are priuces, barons, knights, *squires*,
And gentlemen of blood.

Shakspeare.

An attendant on a noble warrior.—Knights, *squires*, and steeds must enter on the stage. *Pope.*—An attendant at court.

Return with her—
I could as well be brought
To knee his throne; and, *squire-like*, pension beg,
To keep base life a-foot.

Shakspeare.

To SQUIRE, *v. a.* To attend as a squire. This is an ancient as well as a modern gallant word. *Todd.*—He *squireth* me both up and down. *Chaucer.*—He [a Frenchman] *squires* her to every place she visits, either on pleasure or business. *Guthrie.*

SQUIREHOOD, or **SQUIRESHIP**, *s.* Rank and state of an esquire.—What profit hast thou reaped by this thy *squireship*? *Shelton.*—If this should be the test of *squireship*.

hood.

hood, it will go hard with a great number of my fraternity, as well as myself, who must all be unsquired, because a greyhound will not be allowed to keep us company. *Swift.*

SQUIRELY, *adj.* Becoming a squire.—One very fit for this *squirely* function. *Shelton.*

SQUIRREL, *s.* [*escurieu*, old Fr.; *ecureuil*, modern; from the Gr. *σκυρος*, of *σκια*, *shade*, and *ουρα*, *tail*; the tail being a sort of covering for the animal. *Scorol* is our old word; which is in the *Prompt. Parv.*] A small animal that lives in woods, remarkable for leaping from tree to tree.

One chanc'd to find a nut,
In the end of which a hole was cut,
Which lay upon a hazel-root,
There scatter'd by a *squirrel*;
Which out the kernel gotten had;
When quoth this fay, dear queen be glad,
Let Oberon be ne'er so mad,
I'll set you safe from peril.

Drayton.

TO SQUIRT, *v. a.* [of uncertain etymology. *Dr. Johnson.*—Serenius refers it to the Su. Goth. *squaetta*, which has a similar meaning: and so *squaetta*, to scatter.] To throw out in a quick stream.—Sir Roger she mortally hated, and used to hire fellows to *squirt* kennel water upon him as he passed along. *Arbutnot.*

TO SQUIRT, *v. n.* To prate; to let fly. *Low cant.*—You are so given to *squirting* up and down, and chattering, that the world would say, I had chosen a jack-pudding for a prime minister. *L'Estrange.*

SQUIRT, *s.* An instrument by which a quick stream is ejected.

He with his *squirt*-fire cou'd disperse
Whole troops.

Hudibras.

His weapons are a pin to scratch, and a *squirt* to bespatter. *Pope.*—A small quick stream.—Water those with *squirts* of an infusion of the medicine in dunged water. *Bacon.*

SQUIRTER, *s.* One that plies a squirt.—The *squirters* were at it with their kennel water, for they were mad for the loss of their bubble. *Arbutnot.*

SRAVANA BELGULA; a town of the south of India, province of Mysore. This place is celebrated as being the principal seat of the Jain worship, once so prevalent over great part of Hindostan, but which has been nearly extirpated by the influence of the Brahmins. Near to the town are two hills, on one of which is situated the temple; the other is cut into the form of a colossal statue 70 feet in height. The town is wholly inhabited by Jains. In Hindostan proper, they are generally called *Syaurus*; and are divided into laity and clergy, named *Yatis* and *Sravacas*. Lat. 12. 45. N. long. 76. 43. E.

SRI MUTTRA, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra. It is a place of considerable extent; situated on a naked rock of red granite, of which material all the houses are constructed. It is the residence of a Hindoo chief, who pays tribute to the rajah of Dholpoor. Lat. 26. 41. N. long. 77. 20. E.

SRI PERMATURA, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, celebrated for being the birth-place of Ram Anuja Achary, who was born about the year 1016. He was a Brahmin, and preached successfully against the doctrines of the Jains and Boodhists. Lat. 12. 59. N. long. 80. 2. E.

SRINY, a mountain range of Croatia, forming part of the Julian Alps.

SSIDA, a town of Nippon, in Japan; 18 miles south of Fitaqua.

SSUUS, a town of Nippon, in Japan; 20 miles south-east of Noto.

STAAB, a small town in the west of Bohemia, on the Rabbusa; 11 miles south-south-west of Pilsen, and 61 west-south-west of Prague.

STAAL (*Madame de*), an ingenious French writer, first known by the name of *Mademoiselle de Launay*, was

daughter of a painter at Paris. Her father being obliged to quit the kingdom, she was left in a state of poverty. She had enjoyed the advantages of a good education at a priory in Rouen; but her patroness dying, she was under the necessity of engaging herself as bed-chamber woman to the duchess of Maine; who soon discovering the talents of her servant, employed her in all the theatrical entertainments which she gave at her scat of Sceaux. For some of these *De Launay* wrote verses, and for others she formed the plans, and thus obtained the perfect and unlimited confidence of her mistress, and the friendship of all the men of wit and letters who frequented that court. Following the fortunes of her mistress, she was involved in the disgrace incurred by the duchess during the regency of the duke of Orleans, and was two years a prisoner in the Bastille. After her liberation, the duchess, as a reward for her fidelity, married her to M. de Staal, lieutenant, and afterwards captain, in the Swiss guards. From her own description, she appears to have possessed few personal attractions, yet her gallantries were a great source of the vexations with which her life was disquieted. She sometimes loved without a return, and she sometimes attracted attentions to which she paid no regard. She died in 1750, and after her death were printed, in 3 vols. 12mo. "Memoirs of her Life," written by herself. These are agreeably written, and in a pure and elegant style. There has been added a fourth volume, containing two comedies acted at Sceaux, entitled "L'Engoument," and "La Mode," the chief merit of which is said to consist in the sprightliness of the dialogue. Her memoirs have been translated into the English language.

STAATSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Clinton county, New York; 10 miles north of Poughkeepsie.

STAATEN LAND. See **NEW ZEALAND**.

STAATS, a town of Lower Austria; 35 miles north of Vienna, and 5 west-south-west of Falkenstein. Population 1500.

STAAVIA, in Botany, a genus of plants. See **BRUNIA**.

TO STAB, *v. a.* [*staven*, old Dutch.] To pierce with a pointed weapon.

Hear the lamentations of poor Anne,
Wife to thy Edward, to thy slaughter'd son:
Stab'd by the self-same hand that made these wounds.

Shakspeare.

To wound mortally or mischievously.

What tears will then be shed!
Then, to compleat her woes, will I espouse
Hermione:—'twill *stab* her to the heart!

A. Philips.

TO STAB, *v. n.* To give a wound with a pointed weapon.

None shall dare
With shorten'd sword to *stab* in closer war;
But in fair combat fight.

Dryden.

To offer a stab.

Thou hid'st a thousand daggers in thy thoughts,
Which thou hast whetted on thy stony heart,
To *stab* at my frail life.

Shakspeare.

To give a mortal wound.—He speaks poniards, and every word *stabs*. *Shakspeare.*

STAB, *s.* A wound with a sharp pointed weapon.

The elements
Of whom your swords are temper'd, may as well
Wound the loud winds, or with bemockt at *stabs*
Kill the still closing waters.

Shakspeare.

A dark injury; a sly mischief.—A stroke; a blow.—He had a scripture ready to repel them all; every pertinent text urged home being a direct *stab* to a temptation. *South.*

STABBER, *s.* One who stabs; a privy murderer.

STABILIMENT, *s.* [from *stabilis*, Lat.] Support; firmness; act of making firm.—They serve for *stabiliment*, propagation and shade. *Derham.*

TO STABILITATE, *v. a.* To make stable; to establish.

- The

The soul about itself circumgyrates
Her various forms, and what she most doth love
She oft before herself *stabilitates*.

More.

STABILITY, *s.* [*stabilité*, Fr.; from *stabilitas*, Lat.]
Stableness; steadiness; strength to stand.

These mighty girders which the fabrick bind,
These ribs robust and vast in order join'd,
Such strength and such *stability* impart,
That storms above, and earthquakes under ground
Break not the pillars.

Blackmore.

Fixedness; not fluidity.—Since fluidness and *stability* are
contrary qualities, we may conceive that the firmness or
stability of a body consists in this, that the particles which
compose it do so rest, or are intangled, that there is among
them a mutual cohesion. *Boyle*.—Firmness of resolu-
tion.

STA'BLE, *adj.* [*stabilis*, Lat.] Fixed; able to stand.—
Steady; constant; fixed in resolution or conduct.

If man would be unvariable,
He must be like a rock or stone, or tree;
For ev'n the perfect angels were not *stable*,
But had a fall more desperate than we.

Davies.

Strong; fixed in state or condition; durable.—This region
of chance and vanity, where nothing is *stable*, nothing equal;
nothing could be offered to-day but what to-morrow might
deprive us of. *Rogers*.

To STA'BLE, *v. a.* To make stable; to fix; to establish.
Obsolete.—Articles devised by the king's highness to *stable*
Christian quietness and unity among the people. *Strype*.

STA'BLE, *s.* [*stabulum*, Lat.] A house for beasts.

Slothful disorder fill'd his *stable*,
And sluttish plenty deck'd her table.

Prior.

To STA'BLE, *v. n.* [*stabulo*, Lat.] To kennel; to dwell
as beasts.

In their palaces,
Where luxury late reign'd, sea monsters whelp'd
And *stabled*.

Milton.

To STA'BLE, *v. a.* [*stabulo*, Lat.] To put into a stable.
Phœbus, wearie of his yearly taske,
Ystabled hath his steeds in lowly lay.

Spenser.

STA'BLEBOY, or STA'BLEMAN, *s.* One who attends
in the stable.—If the gentleman hath lain a night, get the
stableman and the scullion to stand in his way. *Swift*.

STABLENESS, *s.* Power to stand.—Behold the spaces,
and the *stablesse*, and the swyft course of heaven. *Chaucer*.
—Steadiness; constancy; stability.

The king becoming graces
As justice, verity, temperance, *stablesness*,
Bounty, persev'rance, I have no relish of them. *Shakspeare*.

STA'BLESTAND, *s.* [In law.] Is one of the four evi-
dences or presumptions, whereby a man is convinced to in-
tend the stealing of the king's deer in the forest: and this is
when a man is found at his standing in the forest with a cross-
bow bent, ready to shoot at any deer; or with a long bow,
or else standing close by a tree with greyhounds in a leash
ready to slip. *Cowel*.—I'll keep my *stablestand* where I
lodge my wife, I'll go in couples with her. *Shakspeare*.

STA'BLING, *s.* House or room for beasts.

Her terror once, on Afric's tawny shore,
Now smok'd in dust, a *stabling* now for wolves! *Thomson*.

To STA'BLISH, *v. a.* [*stabilio*, Lat.] To establish; to
fix; to settle.

Stop effusion of our Christian blood,
And *stablish* quietness on every side. *Shakspeare*:

His covenant sworn
To David, *stablish'd* as the days of Heaven. *Milton*.

STABLO, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of
Liege, situated in the bottom of a deep valley on the Warge.
Population 2800. It takes its name from a celebrated Bene-

dictine abbey, founded by Sigebert so far back as 667. It
has a manufacture of leather, and a considerable trade in
cloth and other stuffs; 12 miles south of Limburg. Lat. 50.
27. N. long. 5. 55. E.

STA'BLY, *adv.* Firmly; steadily: so that it may stand
or endure.

STABROEK, a town of the Netherlands, in the province
of Antwerp, with 1600 inhabitants; 7 miles north-north-
west of Antwerp.

STABROEK, a town of Dutch Guiana, situated on the
Demerara river, about a mile from the sea. This town is
simply two long rows of houses, built very distant from each
other, according to Mr. Pinckard; but in Bolingbroke's ac-
count of Guiana, it is said to consist of wooden houses, with
colonaded porticoes and balconies, shaded by a projecting
roof "orderly arranged between spacious intervals, in three
parallel lines." They are seldom above two stories high, and
stand on low brick foundations, roofed with a sort of red
wood. Venetian blinds, in place of glass, close every win-
dow; and the rooms project in all directions to catch the
luxury of a thorough draught of air; so that the ground plan
of a dwelling is mostly in the form of a cross. Casks and
bales lie about, as if every road was a wharf, and numerous
warehouses are intermingled with the dwellings. Even the
public buildings are of wood. The town has an oblong form
being about one-fourth of a mile broad and one mile long.
The principal streets are quite straight, with carriage roads.
The middle street, leading from the king's stelling, (wharf)
is paved with bricks, and has lamps on each side: another
public stelling, (besides several that are private,) is kept
purposely in order for landing and shipping goods. A navi-
gable canal on each side of the town, which fills and empties
with the tide, affords the same convenience to those houses
which are not situated near the water-side. But these canals
which have been cut at the backs of the houses, are perhaps
the worst neighbours the inhabitants could have near them;
for, being the receptacles of mud, and all the filthy drainings
of the town, and only partially emptied by the reflux of the
tide, they become highly offensive, and tend to generate
disease. There is a market-place, where the negroes assemble
to sell their fruit, vegetables, fowls, eggs, and where the
hucksters expose for sale articles of European manufacture
(much in the same manner as the pedlars do in England,) in
addition to salt beef, pork, and fish, bread, cheese, pipes,
tobacco, and other articles, in small quantities, to enable the
negroes to supply themselves. Hucksters are free women of
colour, who purchase their commodities of merchants at two
or three months' credit, and retail them out in the manner
described. Many of them are indeed wealthy, and possess
ten, fifteen, and twenty negroes, all of whom they employ in
this traffic. It is by no means an uncommon thing for
negroes in this line to be travelling about the country for
several weeks together, sometimes with an attendant, having
trunks of goods to a considerable amount. Adjoining the
market-place are the butchers' shambles. The butchers are
mostly free men of colour, who have purchased their eman-
cipation, and have acquired a little capital and credit. The
market is copiously supplied with butchers' meat, but at a
most extravagant rate: mutton, 3s.; veal, 2s. 6d.; beef,
2s. 1d.; pork, 10d. per pound. With fish the town is not
so well provided as the country: no fish-monger has ever yet
engaged in the business upon a scale sufficiently extensive to
supply the population. At the king's stelling, ferry boats
are always in waiting to carry passengers, horses, and chaises,
to the other side of the river, where there are two high roads,
one leading up the river, the other across to the Essequibo.
The public buildings in the town are the governor's house,
and a range of offices for conducting public business. The
secretary's office is so large as to comprise the courts of police
and justice, and a place of worship, in which the Dutch
service is first performed, on a Sunday, by an ecclesiastic of
that country, after which the garrison chaplain reads the
prayers appointed by the church of England. Next comes
the receiver-general's office for the king's colonial duties; the
commissary's or king's stores; the town guard-house; and the

the *exploiteur* or marshal's office; after which the public jail, for the confinement of criminals, debtors, and runaway or arrested negroes. In the adjoining town, to the south-east, is the burial-ground, comprising ten acres of land. In the new town, or Cumingsburgh, is the fiscal's office, custom-house, post-office, and a colonial hospital, for the reception of those who are unable to defray medical expences, or being reduced by illness, are out of employ. Good houses, well situated for mercantile concerns, either in Stabroek or the new town, let with avidity for three, four, and five hundred pounds yearly. The population in Stabroek consists of about 1500 whites, 200 free people of colour, and 5000 negroes.

STABULATION, *s.* [*stabulatio*, Lat.] Act of housing beasts. *Not in use.* *Cockeram.*

STACHYS [of Pliny, *Σταχυς*; of Dioscorides. So named from the flowers being in a spike], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillatæ or labiatæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, angular, half-five-cleft, acuminate, permanent: toothlets acuminate, awl-shaped, a little unequal. Corolla one-petalled, ringent: tube very short: opening oblong, at the base gibbous downwards: upper lip erect, subovate, arched, often emarginate: lower lip larger, reflexed on the sides, trifid; the middle segment very large, emarginate, folded back. Stamina: filaments four, two of them shorter, awl-shaped, when the anthers have shed their pollen curved back to the sides of the opening. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ four-parted. Style filiform. Stigma bifid, acute. Pericarp none. Calyx scarcely changed. Seeds four, ovate, angular.—*Essential Character.* Corolla, upper lip arched; lower reflexed at the sides; the middle segment larger, emarginate. Stamina finally reflexed towards the sides.

1. *Stachys sylvatica.* Hedge woundwort, or hedge nettle.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves cordate, petioled. Root perennial, creeping, but not very extensively. Stems from one to three feet high, upright, little branched, square, hairy, leafy. Sheep and goats eat it; horses, cows and swine refuse it. The herb will dye yellow. Frequent in hedges and other shady places: flowering in July and August.

2. *Stachys circinata*, or blunt-leaved stachys.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves cordate-rounded, crenate. Root perennial.—Found in the mountains Zouwans of Tunis.

3. *Stachys palustris.* Marsh woundwort, or clown's all-heal.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves linear-lanceolate, half-embracing. Root perennial, creeping to a great extent; the extremities at the close of summer becoming tuberous. Stems two feet high, upright, hollow, four-cornered, the sides flattish, the corners rough with hairs pointing downwards; the joints also are hairy and purple.—Native of Europe, in marshes, on the banks of rivers, in watery places, by road sides and in corn fields, especially in moist situations: flowering in July and August.

4. *Stachys Alpina*, or Alpine Stachys.—Whorls many-flowered; serratures of the leaves cartilaginous at the tip; corollas with a flat lip. Root perennial. Colour of the plant dusky.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Carniola, Italy, and the South of France.

5. *Stachys Germanica.* Downy stachys, or woundwort.—Root perennial. The whole herb remarkably invested with a white soft silky pubescence, in which respect it is only inferior to the garden stachys lanata, a species that differs from it besides in having blunter leaves, with stems procumbent at the base and taking root at that part. Leaves ovate, rather pointed, sharply crenate, reticulated with veins, silky above, most woolly beneath, the radical ones on long petioles, the rest smaller and nearly sessile: they feel very thick and soft like woollen cloth. Whorls axillary, numerous, many-flowered; the upper ones crowded. Corollas purple within, streaked about the mouth with white; their outside whitish and very downy, especially the upper lip. Stamens hairy. Seeds roundish, black. It varies with a white flower, and with narrower leaves.—Native of Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, France, England, Austria, Carniola, Piedmont and Siberia.

6. *Stachys intermedia*, or oblong-leaved stachys.—Whorls many-flowered; calyxes subpungent; leaves oblong, subcordate, crenate; stem somewhat woolly.—Native of Carolina.

7. *Stachys lanata*, or woolly stachys.—Whorls many-flowered; leaves woolly; stems procumbent and rooting at the base. Root perennial.—It is a native of Siberia.

8. *Stachys Cretico*, or Cretan stachys.—Whorls thirty-flowered; calyxes pungent; stem rough-haired.—Native of the island of Crete or Candia.

9. *Stachys patens*, or spreading stachys.—Very much branched; branches filiform; spreading; leaves lanceolate, serrate, smooth; flowers subverticillate.—Native of Hispaniola.

10. *Stachys glutinosa*, or clammy stachys.—Branches very much branched; leaves lanceolate, smooth. This is a little shrub, a foot high, very much branched, wholly smooth: branches opposite, dichotomous at top, four-cornered; the last branchlets end in a spine.—Found in Candia.

11. *Stachys spinosa*, or thorny stachys.—Branchlets terminated by a spine.—Native of Candia, in the western part of the island, in very dry places, among thyme.

12. *Stachys orientalis*, or Levant stachys.—Leaves tomentose, ovate-lanceolate; floral-leaves shorter than the whorl.—Native of the Levant.

13. *Stachys Palæstina*, or Palestine stachys.—Flowers subspiked; leaves lanceolate, sessile, tomentose, wrinkled, quite entire; calyxes awnless.—Native of Palestine.

14. *Stachys maritima.* Yellow or sea stachys.—Leaves cordate, obtuse, tomentose, crenate; bractes oblong, quite entire.—Native of the South of Europe, on the coast.

15. *Stachys Æthiopica*, or Cape stachys.—Whorls two-flowered.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

16. *Stachys hirta*, or procumbent stachys.—Whorls six-flowered; stems prostrate; upper lip of the corolla bifid, divaricate, reflexed.—Native of Spain, Italy, the Levant, and Barbary, about Tunis.

17. *Stachys Canariensis*, or Canary stachys.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves cordate, villose, crenate; stems almost erect; fruiting calyxes of a very spreading bell shape.—Native of the Canary islands.

18. *Stachys lavandulifolia*, or lavender-leaved stachys.—Whorls six-flowered, very hirsute; leaves lanceolate, quite entire, marked with lines.—Native of the Levant.

19. *Stachys recta*, or upright stachys.—Whorls subspiked; leaves cordate-elliptic, crenate, rugged; stems ascending.—Native of the South of Europe.

20. *Stachys arenaria*, or sand stachys.—Whorls subspiked, six-flowered, villose; leaves lanceolate, obtuse, serrate; stems procumbent at the base.

21. *Stachys annua*, or white annual stachys.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves ovate lanceolate, three-nerved, even, petioled; stem erect.—Native of Germany, Austria, Carniola, Switzerland, Piedmont and France.

22. *Stachys rugosa*, or rough stachys.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves lanceolate, attenuated at the base, tomentose, wrinkled, serrate; calyxes awnless.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

23. *Stachys arvensis.* Corn stachys, or woundwort.—Whorls six-flowered; leaves cordate, obtuse, crenate, somewhat hairy; stem weak. Root small, annual. Stem from a span to a foot in height, among corn upright, but alone weak or procumbent, branched, somewhat hairy; branches brachiate. Leaves three-nerved at the base, widely crenate, somewhat hairy on both sides, petioled, except the uppermost. Flowers all in whorls. Calyx hairy, with the teeth ciliate. Corolla small, scarcely exceeding the calyx, pale purple or flesh-coloured; upper lip short, blunt and entire. Filaments white below and purple above; anthers blackish; pollen yellow. Seeds greenish, dotted with black.—Native of Europe, in corn fields, in a gravelly or calcareous soil: flowering from June to August.

24. *Stachys latifolia*, or broad-leaved stachys.—Whorls many-flowered, subspiked; upper lip bifid, with the little segments acute; leaves broad, cordate, wrinkled, hairy.

Propagation and Culture.—Most of the sorts are hardy, and may be propagated by seeds sown in March upon a bed of light fresh earth: when the plants come up, set them out into beds six inches asunder, watering them till they have taken root, and keeping them clear from weeds.

Stachys sylvatica, palustris and Germanica are wild creeping plants, and spread very much where they have liberty.

Annua and arvensis are annual; the rest are perennial.

Glutinosa, Æthiopica and rugosa require to be sheltered in winter in a glass case or dry stove.

STACK, *s.* [*stacca*, Ital. *Dr. Johnson.*—Mr. H. Tooke deduces it from the Sax. *ƿeigan*, to ascend; making it the past participle, with the pronunciation of *k* for *g*. Div. of Purl. ii. 276. 283. The word, however, appears to be a northern substantive, viz. *stack*, Icel. *stack-gardur*, an enclosure in which corn or hay stacks are erected. See Dr. Jamieson in V. Stackyard.] A large quantity of hay, corn, or wood, heaped up regularly together.

While the cock

To the *stack* or the barn-door,
Stoutly struts, his dame before.

Milton.

A number of chimneys or funnels standing together.—A mason making a *stack* of chimneys, the foundation of the house sunk. *Wiseman.*

To **STACK**, *v. a.* To pile up regularly in ricks.

So likewise a hovel will serve for a room,

To *stack* on the pease.

Tusser.

STACKHOUSE, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile north-west of Settle.

STACKS OF BURGH, rocks near the east part of Scotland; 1 mile west of Duncansby Head. Lat. 58. 23. N. long. 2. 57. W.

STACKS OF DUNCANSBY, rocks in the North Sea, near the east coast of Scotland; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south from the Wick river. Lat. 58. 36. N. long. 2. 57. W.

STACKS OF HEMPRIGGS, rocks in the North Sea, near the east coast of Scotland; 2 miles south from the mouth of Wick river. Lat. 58. 21. N. long. 2. 57. W.

STACTE, *s.* [*στακτη*, Gr., *stacte*, Lat., *ƿactce*, Sax.] An aromatic; the gum that distills from the tree which produces myrrh.—Take sweet spices, *stacte*, and galbanum. *Er.*

STAD, a village in the north of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, with a small harbour for shipping, and a fishery on the south bank of the lake of Constance; 20 miles east-south-east of Constance.

STADE, *s.* [*stadium*, Lat.] A furlong.—The greatness of the town, by that we could judge, stretcheth in circuit some forty *stades*. *Downe.*

STADE, a town in the north of Germany, in Hanover, situated on the Schwinge, a navigable river, which falls into the Elbe at the distance of four miles from the town. Stade was formerly well fortified, but the works were blown up towards the end of the 18th century. It has several good buildings, such as the council-house, merchants'-hall, and gymnasium. It has two churches, in which are several elegant monuments; an orphan-house, and 4800 inhabitants, with manufactures of lace, flannel, stockings, and hats; also of beer and spirituous liquors. Stade is the seat of the different public offices for the provinces of Bremen and Verden. The foreign trade, once considerable, is now confined chiefly to the transit business; and a vessel goes daily from this town to Hamburg. At the confluence of the Schwinge and the Elbe, is a fort called Schwingerschanze, where an armed vessel is stationed for collecting the dues imposed by the Hanoverian government, on all vessels sailing up or down the Elbe; 22 miles west-by-north of Hamburg, and 85 north of Hanover. Lat. 55. 36. 5. N. long. 9. 23. 30. E.

STADELKIRCHEN, a fortress of Upper Austria, in the circle of Traun, on the Ens. Near it is the small town of Stadel, inhabited chiefly by boatmen.

STADEN, or **STAADEN**, a small town of Germany, in

Hesse Darmstadt, on the Nidda; 18 miles north-north-east of Frankfort-on-the-Maine, and 11 north of Haunau. Population 1000.

STADEN, or **STAADEN**, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders, with 3200 inhabitants; 7 miles south-east of Dixmuyde, and 10 north-north-east of Ypres.

STADHAMPTON, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 8 miles south-east of Oxford.

STADIUS (John), a German astronomer, was born in 1527, and studied at the university of Louvain, where he applied himself with so much diligence to mathematical pursuits, that he was very soon qualified to become a professor; he resided some time at Liege, and was allowed a salary by the bishop, for whom he annually calculated an ephemeris, adapted to the meridian of Antwerp, beginning from the year 1554. The ephemerides of Stadius were much used by the celebrated Dutch mathematician Stevin, though they were afterwards proved to be, in many respects, inaccurate. From Louvain, Stadius went to Savoy, with a commission as mathematician to the king of Spain, and he removed thence to Bruges, in Flanders, where he composed his "Fasti Romanorum," which were published by Hubert Goltzius, whose daughter was married to his son; after this he was invited to France as professor royal of mathematics, and lived there in high respect and honour till he became enthusiastically attached to judicial astrology, and on the faith of that pretended art he began to predict future events. He died in the year 1579, in the fifty-second year of his age. He is author of some astrological treatises, and translated a work of Hermes Trismegistus, entitled "Jatro-mathematicæ, ad Amonem Ægyptium conscripta."

STADLE, *s.* [*ƿadell*, Sax., a foundation.] Any thing which serves for support to another.—A staff; a crutch. *Obsolete.*

He cometh out,—his weak steps governing

And aged limbs of cypress *stadle* stout.

And with an ivy twine his waist is girt about. *Spenser.*

Coppice-woods, if you leave in them *staddles* too thick, will run to bushes and briars, and have little clean underwood. *Bacon.*

To **STADLE**, *v. a.* To leave sufficient staddles when a wood is cut.

First see it well fenced, ere hewers begin;

Then see it well *staddled* without and within.

Tusser.

STADT AM HOF, or **BAYERISCHER HOF**, a small town of Bavaria, on the left bank of the Danube, opposite to Ratisbon, to which it is now united. It contains 1800 inhabitants, and has a well endowed hospital. During the retreat of the Austrians in April 1809, after the battle of Abensberg, it was laid in ashes; but has been rebuilt in an improved manner.

STADTBERG, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, on the Dymel. Part of the town called Marsberg, stands on a hill where was the ancient Saxon temple of Ehresberg, converted by Charlemagne into an imperial residence. A church and priory was also built here by that emperor. Population 2300; 13 miles east-north-east of Briton, and 19 south of Paderborn. Lat. 51. 27. 39. N. long. 8. 49. 33. E.

STADTELDORF, a small town of Lower Austria, with 1300 inhabitants; 20 miles north-north-west of Vienna.

STADTHAGEN, a small town of Westphalia, and the chief place of the county of Schaumburg-Lippe, stands on the Dymel, 9 miles east of Minden. It is situated in a pleasant valley, is surrounded by an old wall and ditch, and has about 1500 inhabitants.

STATDHOULDER, **STADTHOLDER**, or **STADHOLDER**, a governor or lieutenant of a province, in the United Netherlands, particularly that of Holland, where the word (now indeed almost obsolete) has been most used, by reason of the superior importance of the government of that province.

The

The stadtholder, of Holland, was the first member of the republic: he was chief of all the courts of justice, and might preside therein when he pleased. All sentences, judgments, &c., were dispatched in his name. When an office became vacant in any of the courts, the state proposed three persons to the stadtholder, who chose one of them. He even pardoned criminals, which is sovereign prerogative: and he had the choice of scabines, or chief magistrates, in each city; to which end the council of the city always presented him two persons, one of whom he appointed.

In several cities he had the same right of nominating the burgo-masters and counsellors; as at Rotterdam, Dort, &c. He had also a power to cashier the magistrates, and put others in their room, when he found it necessary for the public good, upon giving a reason for the same.

By article VI. of the union of Utrecht, the States constituted him arbiter of all the differences that might arise between the states of the several provinces, or between the cities and the members of the states.

To the dignity of stadtholder was inseparably annexed that of captain and admiral-general of the province; in which quality he named all the officers, and disposed of all military posts. He took care of the execution of the ordinances of the states; and his authority gave him a right to receive and give audience to ambassadors from foreign princes, and even to send ambassadors on his own private affairs.

The office of stadtholder was very ancient: the counts, not being able to reside in Holland, appointed stadtholders to command in their absence in the several provinces; besides a governor-general of all the seventeen provinces of the Netherlands.

William I. prince of Orange, was made stadtholder of Holland and Zealand in 1576, and soon after of the provinces of Guelders, Utrecht, and Overysse, at the time when the Dutch shook off the Spanish yoke; which enabled him to contribute greatly to that happy event.

In 1584, when William I. was assassinated, the same dignity was conferred, by the same provinces, on his son prince Maurice, who was succeeded by his brother Frederic-Henry in 1625. Upon his death, in 1647, his son, William II., became stadtholder, and he possessed this dignity till his death in 1650. The ambitious views of this prince having given offence to the provinces of the republic, they took measures to reduce the authority of the stadtholder; and the province of Holland formed a design of excluding his son William III. prince of Orange afterwards king of England, from the dignity possessed by his ancestors. However, in 1672, Holland, alarmed at the progress of Lewis XIV., declared William stadtholder, and captain-general of the forces of the republic, with the same power which his predecessors had enjoyed. Their example was followed by four other provinces; and, in 1674, on account of his signal services to the states of Holland, they declared him hereditary stadtholder, and determined that his dignity should descend to his male heirs. He was succeeded by his appointed heir, the prince of Nassau-Dietz, hereditary stadtholder of the provinces of Friesland and Groningen, from whom the dignity descended to his son, William-Charles-Henry-Frison. In 1722 he was named stadtholder by the province of Guelderland.

In 1747, the stadtholdership was extended to all the seven united provinces, and made hereditary in the male and female representatives of the family of Orange. The title has since been changed to that of King.

STADT-ILM. See ILMSTADT.

STADT-OLDENDORF. See OLDENDORF.

STÆHELINA [so named from John Henry Stæhelin, and his son Benedict, Swiss physicians], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of compositæ discoideæ, cinarocephalæ (*Juss.*).—Generic Character. Calyx: common oblong, cylindric, imbricate: scales lanceolate, erect, terminated by a shorter coloured scalelet. Corolla: compound uniform, tubular.

Corollets hermaphrodite, equal. Proper, one-petalled, funnel-form: border five-cleft, equal, acute, bell-shaped. Stamina: filaments to each five, capillary. Anthers connate, tailed. Pistil: germ very short. Style filiform. Stigma double, oblong, obtuse, erect. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, oblong, very short, four-cornered. Down branched or cloven, longer than the calyx. Receptacle chaffy, flat. Chaffs very short, permanent.—*Essential Character.* Anthers tailed. Down branched. Receptacle with very short chaffs.

1. *Stæhelina gnaphaloides*.—Leaves filiform, tomentose; scales of the calyx lanceolate, membranaceous at the tip, and reflexed. This rises with a shrubby stalk about three feet high, and divides into several branches. Flowers terminating in single heads, which are pretty large.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Stæhelina dubia*.—Leaves linear, toothletted; scales of the calyx lanceolate; seed-down twice as long as the calyxes. This is a biennial plant, with the stalks rarely above a foot high.—Native of Spain the South of France and Italy.

3. *Stæhelina arborescens*.—Leaves oval; stem arborescent.—Native of the South of France, and the island of Candia.

4. *Stæhelina fruticosa*.—Leaves lanceolate, obtuse; stem shrubby.—Native of the Levant.

5. *Stæhelina spinosa*.—Leaves awl-shaped, spinescent: with a spinule at the base on each side; stem shrubby.—Native of Egypt.

6. *Stæhelina hastata*.—Leaves hastate, hoary; stem shrubby.—Native of Egypt.

7. *Stæhelina ilicifolia*.—Leaves opposite, on very short petioles, cordate, toothed, shining above, tomentose beneath; stem arborescent. This is a tree or shrub, with ever-green shining leaves, and round, pubescent, closely leaved branchlets, flowering at the top.—Native of New Granada.

8. *Stæhelina corymbosa*.—Leaves wedge-shaped, præmorse; flowers corymbed.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

9. *Stæhelina chamæpeuce*.—Leaves linear, clustered, very long, revolute.—Native of the island of Crete or Candia.

10. *Stæhelina imbricata*.—Leaves awl-shaped, erect, tomentose.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—Plant cuttings in any of the summer months, covering them closely with a bell or hand-glass. When they have made good roots, take them up carefully, and plant them in pots, filled with fresh light earth, not over rich, and place them in the shade until they have taken new root; then remove them to a sheltered situation, and in autumn place them in the house. This sort does not always ripen its seed in England. Several of the other species may have the same treatment, whenever they shall be introduced. Others are raised from seed.

STÆL-HOLSTEIN (Anne-Louise De), was the daughter of the famous NECKER (see his article), and of Susan, his wife, a woman of considerable attainments, and who wrote some short but meritorious essays. The birth of Anne Louise took place in the year 1766, and her infancy and childhood passed at Paris under the superintendance of her enlightened parents, and in frequent intercourse with all the learned, but perhaps dangerous *philosophers* who visited her mother. When she was little more than 14 years of age, the resignation of her father's official situation took place, and the family retired to Copet, a barony in Switzerland; and six years elapsed before Necker re-appeared, permanently, on the public stage at Paris. In 1787 we find him in that capital attacking Calonne; and the years 1788 and 1789 constitute the æra which so intimately connected his history with the destinies of France, and the annals of Europe.

It was during one of the occasional visits of the Necker family to Paris, prior to 1787, that Eric Magnus Baron de Stael, by birth a Swede, was introduced to their acquaintance by Count de Creutz, the Swedish ambassador. He was young and handsome, and succeeded in pleasing Made-moiselle Necker, who consented to become his wife. Count de Creutz was shortly after recalled to Stockholm, to be placed at the head of the Foreign Department, and Baroni

de Stael was appointed his successor. Thus dignified, and with the further recommendation of being a Protestant, his marriage was not delayed; and the rich heiress, to the chagrin of many French suitors, became Baroness de Stael Holstein. We believe, however, that this union did not prove to be one of the most felicitous. The lady was wealthy, young, and though not handsome, agreeable and attractive; she was rather under the middle size, yet graceful in her deportment and manners; her eyes were brilliant and expressive, and the whole character of her countenance betokened acuteness of intellect, and talent beyond the common order. But she inherited to the utmost particle from her father his restless passion for distinction; and derived from the society in which she had lived not a little of that pedantry and philosophical jargon which was their foible and bane. The Baron de Stael was a man, on the contrary, of remarkable simplicity of habit and singleness of heart. The opposite nature of their dispositions could not fail soon to affect connubial harmony; and though four children were the issue of this marriage, and what are called public appearances were maintained till the death of the Baron, it is generally understood that there was little of communication between him and his lady beyond the legal ties of their state.

In August 1787, Madame de Stael was delivered of her first daughter, and immediately after accompanied her father in his exile, which was of short duration. Her other children were two sons and a daughter. Two only survived her. One of her sons lost his life in a duel.

The year 1789 is designated as the epoch at which Madame de Stael embarked upon the stormy sea of Literature, by the publication of her "Letters on the Writings and Character of J. J. Rousseau." But previous to this period, she was well known to the Parisian world by the composition of several slight dramatic pieces, which were performed by private amateurs; by three short novels published afterwards, 1795, at Lausanne; and by a tragedy founded on the story of Lady Jane Grey, which obtained considerable circulation among her friends and admirers. Her reputation was therefore no secret when her first public appeal was made. The letters on Rousseau met with great success; and the budding fame of the writer was attended with all the eclat usual among our continental neighbours. This triumph was, however, abridged and embittered by the critical and rapid advance of the Revolution. On the 11th of July, M. Necker was involved more desperately in its vortex. While seated at dinner with a party of friends, the Secretary of State for the Naval Department waited upon him to intimate his banishment from the territory of France. Madame de Stael, whose whole life has been erratic, accompanied her parents in their hurried exile. A new political turn recalled them by the time they reached Frankfort, and Necker was once more reinstated in the administration, in which he remained fifteen months, and was then driven from office for ever to the retirement of Copet, where he died on the 9th of April, 1804.

Madame de Stael, who had gone to Copet in 1790, returned in the following year to Paris, and took an active part in the intrigues of that eventful period. At this time she formed or matured intimacies with Talleyrand, Sieyès, La Fayette, Narbonne, the Lameths, Barnave, Vergniaud, and other characters distinguished for the parts they played in the Constituent, Legislative and other bodies. As the wife of an ambassador, she was protected from the first violent shocks of revolution; but the bloody ascendancy of Robespierre rendered all protection vain, and in 1793, the Baron and Baroness de Stael found it expedient to fly together to Copet. The duke of Sudermania, Regent of Sweden, having acknowledged the republic, Mons. de Stael was appointed ambassador, and in 1795 returned with his lady to Paris. About this date, she published her "Thoughts on Peace, addressed to Mr. Pitt;" and is believed to have exercised a powerful influence over the manœuvres which distracted the governments of several ensuing years, especially those connected with the Directory. Legendre, the

butcher, who, on the 22d of June, 1795, began to declaim against the "spirit of moderation" which he said was gaining ground, more than once denounced Madame de Stael and her party, as directing the political intrigues of that time.

A domestic calamity varied the public tenor of her existence. She was summoned to attend the death-bed of her mother, to soothe whose affliction, it is stated, she was playing on a musical instrument a few moments only before she expired. On this melancholy occasion, Madame de Stael flew to her pen for consolation; a resource to which she appears always to have applied when pressed by care or grief, or smarting under the charges which party did not fail to heap upon her, or soured by the animadversions of critics, to which she was uncommonly sensitive. At Lausanne, she composed the first part of the Essay "On the Influence of the Passions upon the Happiness of Individuals and Nations," which was published at Paris, in 1796, and the second part in 1797.—This production is reckoned one of her best, and was translated in 1798 into English; a language in which the writer was well versed; as, indeed, she was in English literature generally.

Madame de Stael was with her father when the French troops invaded Switzerland; and though he had been placed on the Emigrant list by Robespierre, and consequently exposed to death wherever the troops came, his daughter's influence with the Directory was sufficient to secure him, not only safety, but respect, and the erasure of his name from this sanguinary roll. She then returned to Paris and to her husband; but in a few months, either tired by the persecutions to which she was exposed, or prompted by some other motive, hastened back to the repose of Copet. In 1798, the dangerous illness of the Baron de Stael recalled her to Paris, where she received his last sigh, and soon left the metropolis for Switzerland. After this period, she published an essay "On the Influence of Literature upon Society," which may be considered as a continuation of the two last-mentioned works. In 1800, Buonaparte, in passing through Geneva, had the curiosity to visit M. Necker; and, according to rumour, Madame de Stael took this opportunity to read him a long dissertation on the course he ought to pursue for the prosperity of France. The First Consul, who did not relish the political plans of ladies, listened to her very impatiently.

The well-known novel of "Delphine," written during this retirement, was printed at Geneva, in 1802, and excited great attention in England, France, and Germany, where it has been translated, attacked, criticised, and praised, according to the humour of the parties. The author published a defence of her work.

In 1803 she revisited Paris, and formed that connexion with M. Benjamin Constant, a Swiss of considerable literary attainments, which lasted to the day of her death. Whether for past or present offences is not easy to tell, but Napoleon was not slow in banishing her to the distance of 40 leagues from the capital. In company with her daughter, and her protector, M. Constant, she journeyed to Frankfort, and thence to Prussia, where she applied herself to the cultivation of German literature. From Berlin, in 1804, she hastened to Copet, on receiving intelligence of her father's danger. At Geneva, in the year 1805, issued the "Manuscripts of M. Necker, published by his daughter."

Still further to divert her mind, she next travelled into Italy, and collected materials for her celebrated work, "Corinna, or Italy," which has been translated into many languages. Having returned to Geneva, Madame de Stael amused herself with appearing upon the stage in 1806, and performed in tragedy with considerable skill. There is a drama from her pen called "Secret Sentiment." Madame de Stael also wrote a famous work, entitled "Germany," which is replete with profound reflections, and betrays an extensive acquaintance with the literature of that country, and a power of abstruse cogitation quite without a parallel in the annals of woman. "Letters and Reflections of the Prince de Ligne," an "Essay on Suicide," and a posthumous.

mous publication on the French revolution, complete the list of her productions.

Madame de Stael, on the 15th of July, 1817, sank into a calm sleep, while in a chair, enjoying the calm air of her garden, and awoke no more. She had had so strong a presentiment that her death would take place thus, that, for some months she went to sleep with dread. Previous to her death, she acknowledged a marriage with M. ROCCA; so that is properly the name she should bear in biography.

Mad. de Stael twice visited England; formerly during the revolutionary conflict, when she resided in a small Gothic house at Richmond, which is visible from the river above the bridge; and again, about 1814. During her stay in London, she was much courted by persons of the highest rank, and of all parties. She is universally described as very pleasant and sprightly in conversation, and perfectly amiable. Her opinion of English society is more favourable than foreigners in general are apt to form.

There is, in the Edinburgh Review, No 60, a very good criticism on the general merits of De Stael. The reviewers are of opinion that she is "the most powerful writer that her country has produced since the time of Voltaire and Rousseau—and the greatest writer, of a woman, that any time or any country has produced. Her taste, perhaps, is not quite pure; and her style is too irregular and ambitious. These faults may even go deeper. Her passion for *effect*, and the tone of exaggeration which it naturally produces, have probably interfered occasionally with the soundness of her judgment, and given a suspicious colouring to some of her representations of fact. At all events, they have rendered her impatient of the humbler task of completing her explanatory details, or stating in their order all the premises of her reasonings. She gives her history in abstracts, and her theories in aphorisms:—and the greater part of her works, instead of presenting that systematic unity from which the highest degrees of strength and beauty and clearness must ever be derived, may be fairly described as a collection of striking fragments—in which a great deal of repetition does by no means diminish the effect of a good deal of inconsistency. In these same works, however, whether we consider them as fragments or as systems, we do not hesitate to say that there are more original and profound observations—more new images—greater sagacity combined with higher imagination—and more of the true philosophy of the passions, the politics, and the literature of her contemporaries—than in any other author we can now remember. She has great eloquence on all subjects; and a singular pathos in representing those bitterest agonies of the spirit in which wretchedness is aggravated by remorse, or by regrets that partake of its character. Though it is difficult to resist her when she is in earnest, we cannot say that we agree in all her opinions, or approve of all her sentiments. She overrates the importance of Literature, either in determining the character or affecting the happiness of mankind; and she theorizes too confidently on its past and its future history. On subjects like this, we have not yet facts enough for so much philosophy; and must be contented, we fear, for a long time to come, to call many things accidental, which it would be more satisfactory to refer to determinate causes. In her estimate of the happiness, and her notions of the wisdom of private life, we think her both unfortunate and erroneous. She makes passion and high sensibilities a great deal too indispensable; and varnishes over all her pictures too uniformly with the glare of an extravagant or affected enthusiasm. She represents men, in short, as a great deal more unhappy, more depraved and more energetic, than they are—and seems to respect them the more for it.—In her politics she is far more unexceptionable. She is everywhere the warm friend and animated advocate of liberty—and of liberal, practical, and philanthropic principles. On these subjects we cannot blame her enthusiasm, which has nothing in it vindictive or provoking; and are far more inclined to envy than to reprove that sanguine and buoyant temper of mind which, after all she has seen and suffered, still leads

her to overrate, in her apprehensions, both the merit of past attempts at political amelioration, and the chances of their success hereafter. * * * * If Mad. de Stael, however, predicts with too much confidence, it must be admitted that her labours have a powerful tendency to realize her predictions. Her writings are all full of the most animating views of the improvement of our social condition, and the means by which it may be effected—the most striking refutations of prevailing errors on these great subjects—and the most persuasive expostulations with those who may think their interest or their honour concerned in maintaining them. Even they who are the least inclined to agree with her, must admit, that there is much to be learned from her writings; and we can give them no higher praise than to say that their tendency is not only to promote the interests of philanthropy and independence, but to soften, rather than exasperate, the prejudices to which they are opposed.

STAFF, *s.* plur. *staves*, [ʃtaɪf, ʃtaɪf, Sax.; *staff*, Danish; *staf*, Dutch.]—A stick with which a man supports himself in walking.

It much would please him,
That of his fortunes you would make a *staff*
To lean upon. *Shakspeare.*

A prop; a support.—The boy was the very *staff* of my age, my very prop. *Shakspeare.*—A stick used as a weapon; a club; the handle of an edged or pointed weapon. A *club* properly includes the notion of weight, and the *staff* of length.

I cannot strike at wretched kernes, whose arms
Are hir'd to bear their *staves*. *Shakspeare.*

Any long piece of wood.

He forthwith from the glittering *staff* unfurl'd
The imperial ensign. *Milton.*

Round or step of a ladder.—Descending and ascending by ladders, I ascended at one of six hundred and thirty-nine *staves*, or eighty-nine fathoms. *Brown.*—An ensign of an office; a badge of authority.

Methought this *staff*, mine office-badge in court,
Was broke in twain. *Shakspeare.*

All his officers brake their *staves*; but at their return new *staves* were delivered unto them. *Hayward.*—An establishment of officers, in various departments, attached to generals and armies. [*Stef*, Icelandic.] A stanza; a series of verses regularly disposed, so as that, when the series concluded, the same order begins again.—Cowley found out that no kind of *staff* is proper for an heroic poem, as being all too lyrical; yet though he wrote in couplets, where rhyme is freer from constraint, he affects half verses. *Dryden.*

STAFFA, a small island of the Hebrides, celebrated for its basaltic pillars, and for its remarkable natural caverns. It lies about 5 leagues west of the island of Mull, and 3 leagues from Icolm-kill. It is of an irregularly oval shape, and about a mile and a half in circumference, presenting an uneven table land, terminating nearly all round in cliffs of variable height. The greatest elevation lies towards the south-west, and appears by barometrical measurement, to be 144 feet. The surface is covered with a rich soil and luxuriant grass. Staffa is pastured by a herd of black cattle, but there has long ceased to be a house on it; the change in the system of Highland farms having materially altered the distribution of the population over most parts of this country. The want of some shelter from an occasional storm has frequently proved a cause of inconvenience to the visitors who in summer time crowd to this far-famed spot. It would become a serious evil, should a boat be detained for a night or more; a circumstance not unlikely to occur during the gales of wind which in autumn rise so suddenly on this coast. Great difficulties are generally supposed to attend a landing on this island. But, according to Mr. Maculloch, who has published a description of the western islands, a landing may almost always be effected with safety, in any weather in which a boat of the class usually employed in visiting it, would

would keep the sea. The landing being once made, the great cave is accessible at all states of the tide except that of extreme high water with a heavy sea rolling into it; a circumstance which rarely happens to the tourist, since a boat will seldom be out in that sea which would render access to it impossible. But it cannot be thoroughly seen unless entered in a boat, except by expert climbers; nor can the two caves situated at the south-west side be visited in any other manner, since they admit of no access from above. The visit to these two caves is, like that to the former, made an object of terror by the native boatmen; partly from a desire to avoid trouble, and partly from want of skill and knowledge of the ground. The boat cave indeed cannot, on account of its very small size, be entered at all, except in calm weather and at high water, as its mouth is obstructed by rocks. In entering any of these caves it is necessary that the boatmen on each side should be provided with boat-hooks or short poles; as, for want of room, the oars cannot be used in guarding against the surge which washes into them. These hints will not be misplaced if they save those who are desirous of a complete knowledge of Staffa, from the disappointment they must otherwise experience in consequence of the laziness and fraud of the boatmen who ply in the port of Ulva.

A considerable portion of the precipitous face of Staffa presents a columnar disposition. The highest point of this face lies between the Great cave and the Boat cave, and is, by the plummet, 112 feet from the high-water mark. It becomes lower in proceeding towards the west, the height near Mackinnon's cave being only 84 feet. From this it extends with some variation to the north, where it subsides into a flat rocky shore, elevated but a few feet above the sea. Here it again rises, and after continuing precipitous for a short space, declines into that irregular rocky shore on which the small beaches forming the landing place are situated; whence it once more gradually rises, till, becoming again vertical beyond the crooked cave, it returns to the point from which we commenced this description.

The cave of Fingal, which fronts the south-west, is celebrated by all travellers who have visited it, in terms of unbounded admiration. "The mind can hardly form an idea (says Sir Joseph Banks) more magnificent than such a space, supported on each side by ranges of columns, and roofed by the bottoms of those which have been broken off to form it; between the angles of which, a yellow stalagmitic matter has been exuded, which serves to define the angles precisely, and at the same time with a great deal of elegance; and to render it still more agreeable, the whole is lighted from without, and the air is perfectly free from the damp and noxious vapours with which natural caverns in general abound." The outline of the aperture of this cave, when viewed in such a light as to shew it distinctly, is perpendicular at the sides, and terminates above in a species of Gothic arch. The height from the top of the cliff to the top of the arch is 30, and from the latter to the surface of the water at mean tide, 66 feet. On the western side the pillars which bound it are 36 feet high, while at the eastern they are only 18, although their upper ends are nearly in the same horizontal line. This difference arises from the height of the broken columns which form the causeway on the eastern side, and which cover and conceal the lower parts of those belonging to the front. The breadth at the entrance is 42 feet, as nearly as it is possible to ascertain it; since the gradual variation of the surfaces, as the curve retires on each hand, prevents the adoption of a very precise point of measurement. The height of the cave within diminishes very soon to a mean measure, varying from 50 to 44 feet; which latter, in the same state of the tide, is also the altitude at the extremity. The mean breadth is equal to that of the aperture, till near the innermost part; but at the extremity it diminishes to 22 feet; preserving, as will be seen by these measures, a considerable degree of regularity throughout. The length is 227 feet. The sides of this cave are, like the front, columnar, and in a general sense perpendicular; though, when accurately viewed, they are, in the same way,

far from possessing that geometric regularity which accompanies all the views of it hitherto published. The columns are frequently broken and irregularly grouped, so as to catch a variety of direct and reflected tints, mixed with unexpected shadows, that produce a picturesque effect which no regularity could have given. The ceiling is various in different parts of the cave. It is deeply channelled in the middle by a fissure parallel to the sides, and prolonged from the point of the exterior arch to the end. That portion which lies on each side of this fissure toward the outer part of the cave, is similar to the upper incumbent bed, being formed of a minutely fractured rock. In the middle it is composed of the broken ends of columns, which produce an ornamental and somewhat architectural effect; while at the end, a portion of each kind of rock enters into its formation. From attending only to one or other of these portions, different observers have described the ceiling in a different manner; and each party has accused the other of misrepresentation. The surfaces of the columns above, are sometimes distinguished from each other by the infiltration of carbonate of lime into their interstices. As the sea never ebbs entirely out, it forms the only floor to this cave; but the broken range of columns which produces the exterior causeway, is continued on each side within it. This range is most perfect at the eastern side, and admits of access over the broken summits to the further end, provided the water be not too high; but on the western, they terminate at some distance from the extremity. The lower portions of the last columns lose at length their regularity of form, and coalesce into a rude mass of rock. "It would be no less presumptuous than useless," says Mr. Maculloch, "to attempt a description of the picturesque effect of that to which the pencil itself is inadequate. But if this cave were even destitute of that order and symmetry, that richness arising from multiplicity of parts combined with greatness of dimension and simplicity of style, which it possesses; still, the prolonged length, the twilight gloom half concealing the playful and varying effects of reflected light, the echo of the measured surge as it rises and falls, the transparent green of the water, and the profound and fairy solitude of the whole scene, could not fail strongly to impress a mind gifted with any sense of beauty in art or in nature."

There are other caves, namely, Mackinnon's, or the Scart or Cormorant's cave, and the Boat cave. The height of Mackinnon's cave from the water, at a quarter ebb, is 50 feet, and its breadth 48, so that it presents a large square opening, which, from its depth, catching dark shadows, produces a powerful effect, equal perhaps to that of the Great cave, although neither attended by the same symmetry nor elegance of design. The length is 224 feet, and the interior dimensions throughout are nearly equal to the aperture; excepting at the extremity, where the roof and walls approach a little, and a beach of pebbles is thrown up. The next cave is situated more to the eastward, and is known by the name of the Boat cave, apparently because it is accessible only by sea. However insignificant in dimensions, it is far from being so in picturesque effect, since the symmetry of the columnar range in that part of the face under which it lies is even greater than near the cave of Fingal. Its height is from 14 to 16 feet above the high-water, the undulation of the sea preventing greater precision in the measurement, and its breadth is 12 feet. The roof and sides are smooth, and the whole interior presents a long parallel opening like the gallery of a mine, without interest or beauty. The length is estimated to be 150 feet.

STAFFARDA, a small town in Piedmont, near which the French, under marshal Catinat, defeated the duke of Savoy in 1690; 3 miles north of Saluzzo.

STAFFELSEE, a small lake of Bavaria, near Murnau. It is about 2 miles square, and has in the middle a small island, with a church.

STAFFELSTEIN, a small town of Bavarian Franconia, on the Maine, with 1200 inhabitants; 19 miles east of Culmbach, and 27 north of Nuremberg.

STAFFIELD,

STAFFIELD, a township of England, in Cumberland; $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-east of Penrith.

STAFFISH, *adj.* Stiff; harsh. *Obsolete.*—A wit in youth not over dull, heavy, knotty, and lumpish, but hard, tough, and though somewhat *staffish*, both for learning and whole course of living, proveth always best. *Ascham.*

STAFFORA, a river of Austrian Italy, which passes by Voghera, and joins the Po; 8 miles west-south-west of Pavia.

STAFFORD, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Stafford, of which it is the county town. It is situated on the north bank of the river Sow, about three miles from its junction with the Trent. Though low, the situation is extremely pleasant. The town is of an irregular oval figure, extending from south-east to north-west. The streets are well paved, and the houses are mostly built of brick, in a regular and compact manner. Though consisting properly only of one parish, the town contains two churches, St. Mary's and St. Chad's. The former is a spacious building, in the form of a cross. It consists of a nave, two side aisles, a transept, and a chancel of three aisles, with an octagonal tower in the centre, which contains a peal of eight musical bells. This church appears to have been founded at a very early period; the precise date is unknown. It has since been almost entirely rebuilt, and only a few remains of the more ancient structure are now visible. The general style of architecture is the early pointed: the altar-piece within the church is an elegant piece of workmanship; the organ is reckoned one of the finest in the kingdom. The font presents a singular piece of antiquity: it is very large, and of a heavy construction: the bottom part is a square of two feet diameter, and is ornamented on three sides with human figures lying flat on their faces: on the fourth side is the figure of a ram. Within the church is a number of ancient and modern monuments, some of which are deserving of attention. St. Mary's church, prior to the reformation, was a collegiate. King Stephen bestowed it on the bishop and chapter of Lichfield and Coventry; and at the dissolution, a dean and 13 prebendaries were attached to it. St. Chad's church is a very ancient building; early in the last century it was cased with brick, except the tower, which remains in its original state, which was formed after the most ancient Saxon plan. Besides the churches, Stafford contains places of worship for Independents, Presbyterians, Methodists, and Quakers. The other public buildings in the town are various, and well deserving of notice. The county-hall stands near the centre of the town, and is a spacious and neat modern building; it extends 100 feet in front, and contains a number of elegant apartments, appropriated to different purposes: the assembly room, which reaches nearly the whole length of the front, leads to the court-rooms which are placed on each side. In the centre is a stair-case, at the top of which is the grand jury room, and several other offices. Behind the county-hall, is an elegant and convenient market-place. The county infirmary stands in the Foregate, on the north road, and is a plain respectable building; it is supported by voluntary contributions. The county-gaol is situated nearly opposite the infirmary, and is an extensive modern building, containing about 150 separate cells; its regulations and internal economy are excellent. A county lunatic asylum on a very extensive scale, has been lately erected near to the gaol, and is considered one of the most complete and commodious buildings of the kind in the kingdom. The free-school has been taken down and rebuilt: it was originally founded and endowed (according to an inscription in St. Mary's church), by king Edward VI. in the year 1550. Previous to the dissolution, Stafford contained a variety of monastic institutions: at the north end of the walls stood a house of Franciscans, or Grey Friars, founded by Sir James Stafford of Soudan; a priory of Black Friars was founded about the year 1180, by Richard Reece, bishop of Lichfield, or by Gerard Stafford; and on the green, at the south end of the town, Ralph Lord Stafford, bestowed a portion of ground on the Austin Friars, on which

they founded an establishment in 1344. About a mile and a half south-west of the town, on the summit of a hill, stood the castle of the barons of Stafford, upon the site of which two towers and a banqueting room, on the plan of the original building, have been lately erected by the Jer-ningham family, who now possess the estates, and have laid claim to the ancient barony of Stafford. South of the castle stood the mansion house, the usual residence of the family of Stafford. Stafford had anciently four gates, and was defended, except on the side next the Sow, by a wall and a ditch, supplied with water from the river. When taken by the republican army in 1643, the wall was razed and the ditch filled up, so that no remains of it can now be discovered. The chief trade of Stafford consists in the manufacture of boots and shoes; there is also a considerable business carried on in tanning, both for home consumption and exportation. The canal to the Trent has been of great advantage to the trade of the place. By the charter of Edward VI. Stafford is governed by a mayor, recorder, 10 aldermen, 10 common councilmen, a town-clerk, and two sergeants-at-mace. The borough sends two members to parliament, and has done so since the 23d of Edward I. The right of election is in the resident burgesses not receiving parochial relief, and the mayor is the returning officer: the number of voters is estimated at upwards of 600. The earliest authentic mention of Stafford is in the Saxon Chronicle, A. D. 913, when Ethelfleda, countess of Mercia, sister of Edward the Elder, built a castle here, of which no vestige now remains. Stafford appears to have been a town of considerable importance prior to the Norman conquest. Early in the tenth century it was considered the chief town of the district; in Domesday Survey, it is termed a city, and was governed by two bailiffs. The earliest charter of incorporation now extant was granted by king John in the 7th year of his reign. This charter was confirmed by Edward VI. and many new privileges added to the town. Queen Elizabeth established the assizes and sessions here, by act of parliament. The ancient custom of borough English, by which the youngest son succeeds to property, in preference to the elder children still prevails here. The town of Stafford gave the title of baron, viscount, and earl, from the time of William the Conqueror till the beginning of the last century, when it became extinct. It was again renewed in 1786, by the elevation of earl Gower to the title of marquis of Stafford. Market on Saturday, and seven annual fairs; 16 miles north-west of Lichfield, and 135 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 48. N. long. 2. 7. W.

STAFFORD, WEST, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Dorchester.

STAFFORD, a post township of the United States, in Tolland county, Connecticut. It contains a famous medicinal spring, with good accommodations for visitors. The waters are chalybeate. Population 2235; 73 miles west-south-west of Boston.

STAFFORD, a township of the United States, in Monmouth county, New Jersey. Population 1239.

STAFFORD, a county of the United States, in the north-east part of Virginia, bounded north by Prince William county, north-east by the Potomac and Prince George county, south by the Rappahannock, and west by Culpeper and Fauquier counties. Population 9830, including 4195 slaves. Chief town, Falmouth.

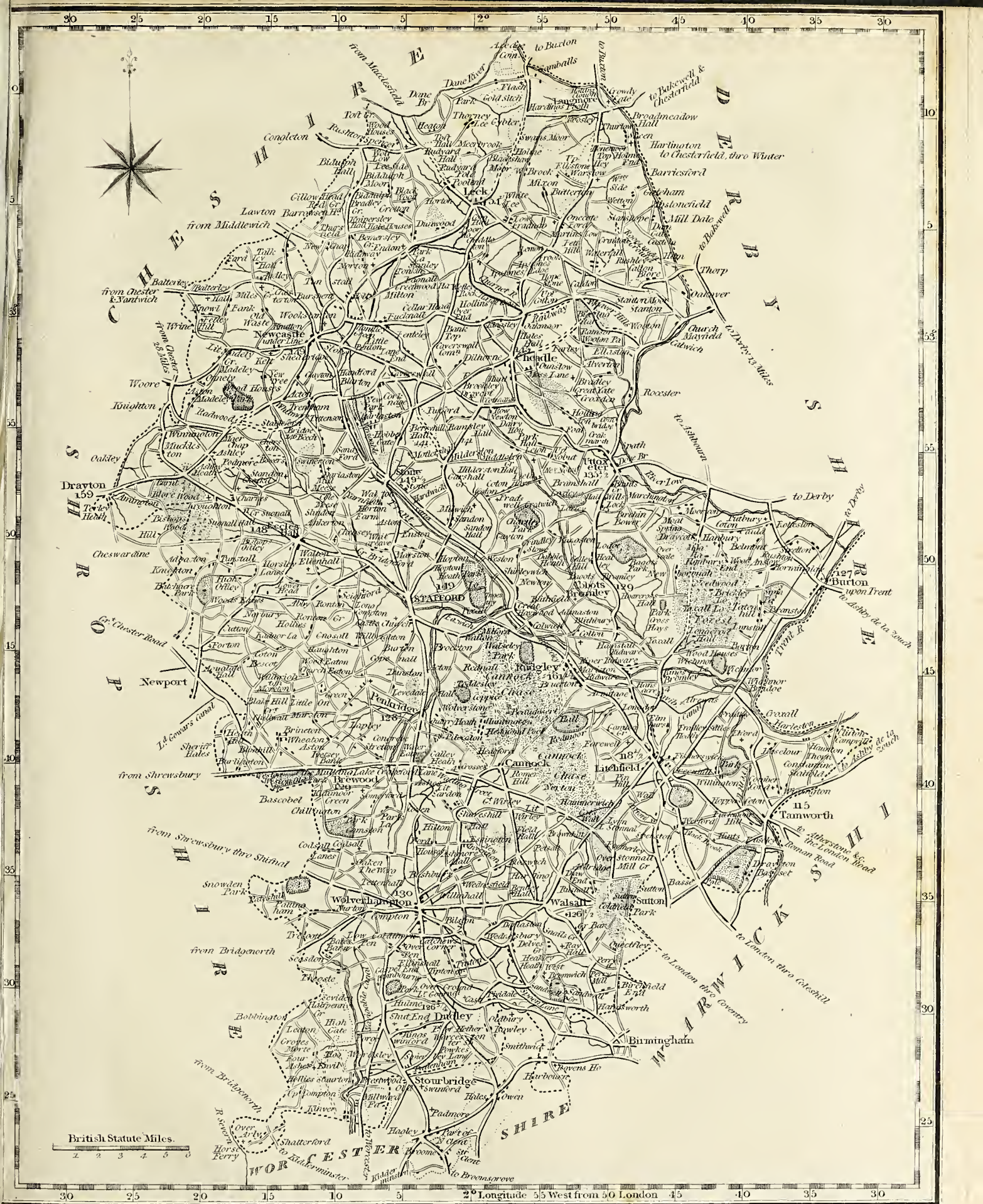
STAFFORD, a post village of the United States, in Stafford county, Virginia. Lat. 38. 24. W. long. 77. 26. N.

STAFFORDSHIRE, an inland county of England, nearly in the centre of the kingdom, bounded on the north by Cheshire and part of Derbyshire, on the east by Derbyshire and Warwickshire, and between these for a short way also by Leicestershire; on the south by Worcestershire, and on the west by Shropshire and Cheshire. It is divided from Derbyshire by the rivers Dove, Trent, and Meese; the other boundaries are chiefly artificial, and in the south-west the county is much indented by detached projections from Worcestershire and Shropshire. Its figure is an oblong or oval

oval, much elongated, and stretching from north to south. Its extreme length is 60 miles, the greatest breadth from east to west 38 miles, and the average breadth from 15 to 20. It lies within the parallels of 52. 23. and 53. 13. N. lat. and between 1. 36. and 2. 27. W. long. It contains 1196 square miles, or 765,000 acres, with 254 inhabitants to each mile. It is divided into five hundreds, viz., Cuttlestone, Offlow, Pyrehill, Seisdon, and Totmanslow; and 183 parishes, in which are one city, Lichfield; three boroughs, Stafford, Newcastle, and Tamworth; and 17 other market towns, viz., Abbot's Bromley, Brewood, Burton, Burslem, Cheadle, Eccleshall, Hanley, Lane-End, Leek, Longnor, Penkridge, Rugeley, Stone, Uttoxeter, Walsall, Wednesbury, and Wolverhampton. It sends ten members to parliament, two for the county, two for Lichfield, and two for each of the three boroughs.

The aspect of Staffordshire is various; a range of hills runs along the north-western border, spreading out towards the north, over the whole breadth of the county. These hills are termed the Moorlands; they form the beginning of that chain of hills which extend northwards through Yorkshire to the borders of Scotland. To this bleak and hilly district in the north and north-west, the other parts of the county in the south, middle, and east, present a striking contrast, being generally level, or only interspersed with gentle eminences. A few detached hills, however, rise to a greater height, such as the limestone hills of Bowley, the hills of Clent and Barr-Beacon, and various others of less elevation, as the high grounds on Cannock heath, the hills of Bushbury and Essington, Kinver-Edge, Tcttenhall-Wood, and some places near Enville. Cannock heath, which was anciently covered with a great forest of oak, presents now the appearance of a naked and barren waste, and scarcely a tree remains to enliven the scene. According to the trigonometrical survey, Weaver hill, one of the highest peaks of the Moorlands, is elevated 1154 feet above the level of the sea; Ashley heath, 803; and Castle Ring, 715. According to Pitt's survey, Bushbury hill is elevated 650 feet; Barr-Beacon, 750; the highest peak of Rowley hills, 900 feet. The rivers of Staffordshire rise mostly in these high grounds within the county, and are none of them of any great magnitude, but are, notwithstanding, of vast benefit to the county, by supplying the water for its extensive system of artificial navigation. The Trent is the principal river, and to which most of the other streams are tributary. It rises in the northern extremity of the county, among the Moorlands, near Biddulph, and traverses the whole county from north-west to south-east, running in a winding course through the middle of it, first southwards by the potteries and Stone, then eastwards to its junction with the Tame on the east of Lichfield; and lastly, north-eastwards to Burton, where it enters Derbyshire, after a course of upwards of 50 miles. In its course it receives, either directly or through other channels, the following waters, which mostly rise also in the Moorlands:—the Dove, the Manyfold, and the Hamps or Hanse; the two latter of which run under ground a considerable way, near Ilam; the Churnet, the Blythe, the Teyn, the Sow, and the Penk. The Tame rises in the south of the county, and passing by Tamworth, joins the Trent near Wichnor. The Stour and Smestall run southwards into the Severn, which itself runs through the county for a mile or two on the south-west. Some lakes occur in this county, but they are not numerous, nor of much importance; the principal is that of Aqualate, 1848 yards long, and 672 broad. The climate of this county varies considerably with the elevation of the ground; but even in the low lands, the air is sensibly colder than in many of the more southern counties. The Moorland is a dreary and cold track; the snow lying long. The west wind here usually brings rain, but the east and south winds fair weather, unless the wind changes to the south from the west, in which case the rain continues. The climate, on the whole rather inclines to wet; and upwards of 36 inches of rain are supposed to fall annually. The hay harvest is from the middle of June to the end of July. Corn harvest is in Au-

gust and September; but in some early seasons, pease, oats, and barley, have been harvested about the end of July. The strong clayed soil prevails mostly in two very considerable tracks: the one lies between the Trent and the Dove, extending from Burton westwards, nearly to Stowe; the other extends from Stowe southwards to Brewood, and from Stafford to the western border of the county. A small track also occurs at the south-western point of the county, near the Severn. The light soil occurs in a district which stretches from the Trent southwards along the Tame and the eastern border of the county, nearly to Birmingham; and from the Tame westwards beyond Lichfield, in another district on the south-west, extending on each side of the river Stour, from Pattingham southwards to Worcestershire; and in a third smaller district, westward of Brewood. The calcareous district is of considerable extent, and situated chiefly between the Dove and the town of Ipstones on the west; and between Farley on the south, and Warslow on the north; two other tracks of smaller extent occur at Dudley and Walsall. The mixed soil comprehends all the rest of the county. The meadow and pasture land extends along the banks of the principal rivers and canals, traversing, along with them, all the other districts indiscriminately. They usually partake of the nature of the arable soils in their neighbourhood, with the addition of the sediment of water, when within reach of the streams. In some particular spots, peat earth forms the soil in the meadow ground, and when properly drained and meliorated, becomes valuable pasture and meadow land. Of this arable there are 200,000 acres of clay loam, or friable mixed loam; 200,000 acres of gravelly and sandy loams or other mixed, including calcareous soils; and 100,000 acres of light, sandy, gravelly, or other soils, tolerably adapted for turnip. Of the uncultivated lands, to the amount of 180,000 acres, there are 39,040 of roads, rivers, canals, &c. and 141,760 of waste lands, forests, woods, &c., of which 100,000 acres may be set down as irreclaimable. Staffordshire is not very remarkable for its agriculture; the industry and resources of the county being more directed to mines and manufactures. Of late years much has been done to introduce every established improvement. A general county agricultural society, upon an enlarged and liberal plan, and one near Newcastle, have been founded. They have done much to encourage the best modes of cultivation; but hitherto their exertions have not been attended with all the good effects which could be wished. Underground draining to a very great extent, has been lately executed in this county, though in many instances not very substantially. The value of estates varies from 10,000/ a-year, to that of the smallest freeholder. The farms are of all sizes, from 20 acres to 500; but the smaller ones are much less numerous than formerly. Leases are often granted for 21 years. The cultivated lands of the county are nearly all inclosed, not more than 1000 acres now remaining open. The fences are generally bad, being a mixture of the black and white thorn, hazel, alder, maple, bramble, and briars. They are ill kept, occupy much land, and are full of gaps. The field produce commonly cultivated, is whea rye, barley, oats, beans, peas, vetches, buck-wheat, hemp, flax, turnips, potatoes, cabbages, rape; to these may be added clovers, refoils, and two or three of the real grasses. That of turnip has been much extended of late; but the defective course almost generally pursued is fallow, wheat, oats, seeds. Lime is now used in considerable quantities, in place of a bad clay marl; and a large portion of the arable land is laying down rapidly to grass. Turnip cabbage has been also tried, as well as sainfoin, lucerne, burnet, and other artificial grasses. The practice of drilling has made considerable progress, but much of the sowing is still performed in the old broadcast way. Kitchen garden stuffs are sufficiently abundant, but fruits fall much short of the consumption of the county. The grass lands of this county are of very considerable extent, comprehending all the low land along the courses of the several rivers. These are in many parts fertilized by the floods of the rivers, and yield a very rich pasturage. On the banks of the Dove in particular, the land



STAFFORDSHIRE.

Engraved for the Topographical Ordnance Survey.

is remarkable for fertility, and is covered with perpetual verdure, the inundations of the river adding greatly to the natural productiveness of the soil. Irrigation has been much extended, with the most beneficial effects. The water meadows at Trentham, belonging to Lord Stafford, and at Betteley belonging to Mr Tollet, are upon a great scale. Staffordshire can scarcely be reckoned a breeding district, yet many gentlemen and farmers breed a considerable number of cattle and sheep. Calves and hogs are kept on most farms. More cattle and sheep are reared within the county, than supplies its own consumption; and great numbers are sold to dealers for the markets of the metropolis. The cattle of this county are generally of the long horned breed, the stock of which has been gradually improving for many years. The sheep are of various breeds, viz., the grey faced without horns; the black faced horned; the white faced without horns, &c. The old and new Leicester are particularly common on the pasture grounds, on different districts. Notwithstanding a vast quantity of trees have been cut down within the last 30 or 40 years, this county is still well stocked with wood of every description. The estate of Lord Bagot, in the neighbourhood of Abbot's Bromley, contains several hundred acres of the finest and richest oaks perhaps in the kingdom. Next to this, for the value of its woods, is the estate of Chillington; and a variety of other plantations of valuable timber are scattered throughout the county. Of the wastes and unimproved lands of the county, the most extensive is in the southern part, Cannock heath. In the north are Morredge, Wetley moor, Stanton moor, and Holington heath. Needwood forest, a track of 10,000 acres which abounds with beautiful and romantic scenery, and was at no long period a complete waste; has lately been in great part inclosed and cultivated.

The strata of coal may be fairly termed inexhaustible, as they have been ascertained to exist over a space of 50,000 acres in extent; and in the southern part of the county the seams are in many places of the extraordinary thickness of 8 10 and even 12 yards. The quantity already consumed since the earliest times, does not exceed a tenth part of the whole. The coal is in general of excellent quality. The coal district extends in the southern part of the county, from Cannock heath, including a part of it, to near Stourbridge in length, and from Wolverhampton to Walsall in breadth. In the north of the county, coal occurs in several detached places; chiefly in the neighbourhood of Newcastle and the potteries, and in the neighbourhood of Cheadle and Dilhorn. A singular species, called the peacock coal, from the prismatic colours it exhibits, is dug up in many places. It is to be regretted that there exists in this county the same want of economy in working this most necessary mineral, as in the other coal districts of England. The strata of iron ore are also very extensive, and they usually lie under, and alternate with the coal. They are particularly abundant, and of excellent quality, in the neighbourhood of Wednesbury, Tipton, Bilston, and Sedgely; also west from Newcastle. Besides iron, both copper and lead ores exist in this country. The most important copper mine is that of Ecton hill, near Warslow, on the estate of the Duke of Devonshire; another is wrought at Mixon, in the neighbourhood of Leek. In Ecton hill there is also a considerable vein of lead, and another occurs not far from Stanton moor. The limestone of this county occurs in very great abundance. The hills of Sedgely and Dudley Castle on the south, afford an inexhaustible supply; it is also found at Rushall and Hayhead, but above all on the north-east Moorlands, and along the banks of the upper parts of the Dove, where the greatest consumption could not lessen the quantity in any sensible degree. The lime-works on Caldon Low, and in the neighbourhood of the Weaver hills, are particularly extensive. Several of the tunnels of the canals pass through the limestone hills, and here vast caverns have been hollowed out, without removing the surface soil. Besides supplying the county, the lime is sent to various other places for mortar. It is also used extensively as a manure. In some places the limestone approaches to, and

passes into, marble, and in others it is chiefly composed of petrified marine animal remains. The marble is of various kinds. That species known by the name of ronce marble, is very abundant in Yelpersley Tor and the adjoining hills. It consists of a white and shining grit, streaked with red, and takes so good a polish, that it has frequently been used for chimney pieces and monuments. Grey marble is found in considerable plenty at Stansop and at Poke hill: not far from Bentley hill there is a good supply of a jet black colour, but so hard as not to be easily worked. When burnt it makes fine emery. Alabaster, which is a sulphate of lime, occurs in great abundance, particularly on the banks of the river Dove. It was formerly raised to a considerable extent, but at present few of the quarries are wrought. In some places it is so solid and compact of texture, as to be applied to the paving of churches, and to form tables, chimney-pieces, and grave stones. The coarser kind, when heated, becomes soft and brittle, and being pounded, forms a kind of stucco. Freestone of very good quality occurs in this county, and there are extensive quarries of it in different places. Bilstone affords a freestone of very fine grit, fit either for mouldings or building; and excellently adapted for grindstones of the finer sort. Gornal near Sedgely has also plentiful quarries of a coarser and cheaper freestone, used for the same purposes as that of Bilstone. Tixall produces an excellent and durable building freestone, which is easily raised in blocks of almost any dimension; and the same material is again found at Wrottesley, Brewood Park, Pendeford, and a great many other places. Clays of every description are abundant in this county, and form the principal material of its potteries. Pottery clay of several sorts is found, particularly in the neighbourhood of Newcastle, in which district the potteries are chiefly carried on. At Amblecot is a clay of a dark bluish colour, of which are made the best glass-house pots of any in England. Great quantities of it have been sent to different parts of the kingdom, and glass-houses have even on this account been erected in the neighbourhood. A blue clay at Darlaston, near Wednesbury, is sold to glovers to make an ash colour; and yellow and red ochre, for colouring and painting, are found here. In the beds of grey marble in Langley Close, a black chalk occurs, and also a fine reddish earth under a rock near Himley Hall, which is little inferior to the red chalk of Frome. The manufactures of Staffordshire are various and extensive. Besides the iron foundries, blast furnaces, and slitting mills, and other branches of the iron trade, which, especially in the southern districts, employ great numbers of people, they consist chiefly of potters' ware, glass, hardware articles, nails, toys, and japanned goods. The potteries of Staffordshire have acquired no small share of celebrity, from their vast extent, but more particularly from their perfection, and from the great improvements which were introduced into the manufacture, by the inventive genius and indefatigable labours of Mr. Wedgwood. It occupies an extent of about 10 square miles, and contains a number of populous towns, in which the works are carried on, chiefly in the parishes of Burslem and Stoke. In this district the soil contains, in almost every part, a great variety of clays, covering strata of coal, rich, productive, and easily worked. Between them are other strata of clays, most of which form excellent fire bricks; for the construction of kilns and furnaces; and in particular there is a species of clay called Sagger clay, which is almost peculiar to this district, and is invaluable to the earthen-ware manufactory, as it has the property of bearing an intense degree of heat; and is therefore made into vessels, called Sagers, in which the ware is placed in the ovens, in order to be hardened. From these natural advantages, the pottery business was early begun here; and the existence of some kind of earthen-ware manufactory can be traced at least two centuries back. This was of the very coarsest kind; but in 1690, a material improvement was introduced by two ingenious foreigners of the name of Elers. This was a new species of glaze, formed by throwing into the kiln a quantity of common salt; and the inhabitants of Burslem and the

adjacent villages are said to have flocked with astonishment to see the immense volumes of smoke which, on casting in the salt, arose from what they termed the "Dutchmen's ovens." A capital improvement was afterwards made by Mr. Astbury, in the body of the ware itself, by using pounded flint along with the clay. But the salt glaze being still very imperfect, and the ware itself unskilfully executed, it was beginning about the year 1760, to be supplanted by an importation of a finer manufacture from Frome, when Mr. Wedgwood began his famous improvements. His first great production was a very superior kind of earthen-ware for the table, now known by the name of queen's ware, which, from its neatness and elegance of execution, and excellent qualities, soon came into general estimation and use. Continuing his experiments, Mr. Wedgwood invented five other distinct species of earthen-wares, varying in their qualities, but all admirably adapted for the different uses, and possessing properties which the art was thought hitherto incapable of producing. These different kinds of ware are now in universal demand; and being fashioned by the industry and ingenuity of the manufacturers, into an infinite variety of forms, both for ornament and use, constitute nearly the whole of the present fine English earthen-wares and porcelain, which are become the source of a most extensive trade, and may, without doubt, be ranked among the most important manufactures of the united kingdom. According to the evidence of the late Mr. Wedgwood before the two houses of parliament, in 1785, the manufacturing part alone of the pottery business in Staffordshire, then gave bread to 15,000 or 20,000 people; but this according to him, was a small object, when compared with the immense quantity of employment which it created for other classes of workmen in different parts of the kingdom. After the year 1785, the pottery trade increased to a still greater extent, but received a severe check, and greatly declined during the late war, more especially by the interruption of our trade with America, to which much of our earthen-ware was annually exported. The manufacture of glass is most considerable in the vicinity of Stourbridge, where a variety of very lofty and spacious glass-houses have been erected. Wolverhampton, and the many populous villages in its neighbourhood, are distinguished for their manufacture of locks, which are esteemed equal to any in England: buckles, steel toys, and particularly watch chains, are also among the noted productions of this town. The staple manufacture of Walsall and its neighbourhood, consists chiefly of shoe buckles and clasps, to which may be added, saddlers' ironmongery. Vast quantities of nails are made in many of the country parishes in this neighbourhood, women and children being employed in it, as well as men. Wolverhampton and Bilston produce a variety of plated, lacquered, japanned, and also some enamelled goods. At Darlaston and Willenhall, and the adjoining country, tobacco and snuff boxes are finished in various ways. At Stafford, the manufacture of shoes, both for home consumption and exportation, is very considerable. The hat manufacture is carried on at Newcastle and Burton, and in some other towns in the county, on a large scale. Tin and brass are among the productions in Staffordshire; and there are several smelting and brass works near the copper mines, particularly at Stone and Whiston, Oak-Moor, and near Cheadle. The cotton manufactures at Rocester, Fazeley, Tamworth, Burton, and Tutbury, are very considerable. At Shirley Wich, between Stone and Heywood, there is a manufacture of salt, obtained by boiling brine, which is pumped from wells. At Leek, the silk trade is carried on to a considerable extent, and the tape manufacture at Cheadle and Teyn. Most of the raw wool grown in this county is sent to the stocking and clothing districts; and the woollen manufactures here are hence comparatively trifling; and the making of linen is mostly confined to private families for domestic use. The trade of Staffordshire consists in the exportation of its rude and manufactured produce, and the importation of the raw materials, and of various articles of domestic consumption. Both its trade and manufactures

have been greatly advanced by the extensive system of inland navigation, which at once connects this county not only with the metropolis, but with the Severn, the Mersey, and the Humber, and the three corresponding ports of Bristol, Liverpool, and Hull. The Grand Trunk canal, after crossing Cheshire, enters this county near Lawton, near which is the Harecastle tunnel. It thence proceeds by the Potteries, Stone, and Weston, through many other intermediate towns and villages, following nearly the course of the Trent, and at last entering it at Wilden in Derbyshire. From the Grand Trunk several branches strike off different ways, and from thence again proceed a number of smaller canals, intersecting the county in all directions. The Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal strikes off at Heywood, and running by Penkridge and Wolverhampton, joins the Severn near Bewdley. The Coventry and Oxford canal leaves the Grand Trunk at Fradley heath; and from this the Fazeley canal branches off to Birmingham. The Wirley and Essington canal leaves the Grand Trunk to the east of Lichfield, and joins the Birmingham canal on the one hand, and the Staffordshire and Worcestershire on the other. The public roads in Staffordshire are in general good, but the private ones are very indifferent. The bridges, tunnels, and other buildings of the kind, are numerous, and many of them of great merit as works of art. A county gaol and bridewell, a shire hall, and lunatic asylum, have been erected within a few years, in the county town, Stafford, upon a magnificent scale. Staffordshire, among the Britons, belonged to the Cornavii; among the Romans, to the province of Flavia Caesariensis; and during the Saxon heptarchy, formed part of the kingdom of Mercia. The two Roman military ways, Watling-street and Ikenild-street, pass through the county. The Roman stations in it that are known, are Pennocrucium near Stretton, and Etocetum at Wall, near Lichfield. In the civil wars of Charles I. Staffordshire was considerably engaged; and in this county Charles II. lay concealed after the battle of Worcester.

Population returns in 1811:—

Houses.....	57,040
Inhabitants	295,153
Families employed in trade and manufactures	34,011
— in agriculture	18,361
Other families	10,165

In 1821, the population amounted to 171,668 males, 169,362 females.

STAFFSIO, a village of Sweden, in Sudermania, near Nykioping, with large iron-works, where cannon are made for export.

STAFFTREE, *s.* A sort of ever green privet.

STAFISBERG, a large and neat village of the Swiss canton of Berne; 14 miles south-south-east of Berne.

STAG, *s.* [H. Tooke pronounces it the past participle of the Sax. *stagan*, to ascend; a name well applied, he says; the raised and lofty head of the animal being the most striking circumstance at the first sight of him.] The male red deer; the male of the hind.

To the place a poor sequestered stag,
That from the hunter's aim had ta'en a hurt,
Did come to languish.

Shakspeare.

A colt or filly; also a romping girl. *North. Grose.* STAGBACH, a township of England, in Herefordshire; 2 miles west-south-west of Leominster.

STAGE, *s.* [*estage*, Fr., *stagie*, Teut. from *stijen*, elevate. *Kilian.*] A floor raised to view on which any show is exhibited; a raised floor of temporary use.—I have seen the whole front of a mountebank's *stage*, from one end to the other, faced with patents, certificates, medals, and great seals, by which the several princes of Europe have testified their esteem for the doctor! *Tatler.*—The theatre; the place of scenic entertainments.—One Livius Andronicus was the first *stage* player in Rome. *Dryden.*—Knights, squires, and steeds must enter on the *stage*. *Pope.*—Any place where any thing is publicly transacted or performed.

When we are born, we cry that we are come
To this great *stage* of fools.

Shakspeare.

A place

A place in which rest is taken on a journey; as much of a journey as is performed without intermission. [Perhaps from the Goth. *staiga*, a way, a road; *staige*, Sax. the same.] Our next *stage* brought us to the mouth of the Tiber. *Addison*.—A single step of gradual process.—The changes and vicissitudes in wars are many; but chiefly in the seats or *stages* of the war, the weapons, and the manner of the conduct. *Bacon*.

To *STAGE*, *v. a.* To exhibit publicly. *Out of use*.

I love the people;

But do not like to *stage* me to their eyes;

Though it do well, I do not relish well

Their loud applause.

Shakspeare.

STAGE ISLAND, a small island near the coast of Maine, not far from Casco bay, remarkable for being the first land inhabited by Europeans in New England. It is very small, and now uninhabited.

STAGECOACH, *s.* A coach that keeps its stages; a coach that passes and repasses on certain days for the accommodation of passengers.—The story was told me by a priest, as we travelled in a *stagecoach*. *Addison*.

STAGEGELY, *adj.* Belonging to the stage; befitting the stage.—Nor may this be called an histrionic *parada*, or *stagely* visard and hypocrisy, while women seek to appear advantaged in stature, or in beauty. *Bp. Taylor*.

STAGEPLAY, *s.* Theatrical entertainment.—This rough-cast unheun poetry was instead of *stageplays* for one hundred and twenty years. *Dryden*.

STAGEPLAYER, *s.* One who publicly represents actions on the stage.—Among slaves, who exercised the polite arts, none sold so dear as *stageplayers* or actors. *Arbutnot*.

STAGER, *s.* A player.

You safe in your stage clothes,

Dare quit, upon your oaths,

The *stagers* and the stage-wrights too.

B. Jonson.

One who has long acted on the stage of life; a practitioner; a person of cunning.

I've heard old cunning *stagers*

Say, fools for argument use wagers.

Hudibras.

One cries out, these *stagers*

Come in good time to make more work for wagers. *Dryden*.

STAGERY, *s.* Scenic exhibition; show on the stage.—Likening those grave controversies to a piece of *stagery*, or scene-work. *Milton*.

STAGEVIL, *s.* A disease in horses. *Diet.*

STAGGARD, *s.* A four year old stag. *Ainsworth*.

To *STAGGER*, *v. n.* [*staggeren*, Dutch.] To reel; not to stand or walk steadily.

He struck with all his might

Full on the helmet of th' unwary knight:

Deep was the wound; he *stagger'd* with the blow. *Dryden*.

To faint; to begin to give way.—The enemy *staggers*: if you follow your blow, he falls at your feet; but if you allow him respite, he will recover his strength. *Addison*.—To hesitate; to fall into doubt; to become less confident or determined.—A man may, if he were fearful, *stagger* in this attempt. *Shakspeare*.

To *STAGGER*, *v. a.* To make to stagger; to make to reel.

That hand shall burn in never-quenching fire,

That *staggers* thus my person.

Shakspeare.

To shock; to alarm; to make less steady or confident.

The question did at first so *stagger* me,

Bearing a state of mighty moment in't.

Shakspeare.

STAGGERING, *s.* Act of reeling.—The immediate forerunners of an apoplexy are a vertigo, *staggering*, and loss of memory. *Arbutnot*.—Cause of staggering or making to stagger.—This shall be no grief unto thee, [in the margin, no *staggering*, or stumbling.] 1 *Samuel*.

STAGGERINGLY, *adv.* In a reeling manner. *Hulock*.—Drunkards go *staggeringly* when they are top-heavy.

Granger.—With hesitation.—While we are but *staggeringly* evil, we are not left without parentheses of consideration; thoughtful rebukes, and merciful interventions, to recall us to ourselves. *Brown*.

STAGGERS, *s.* A kind of horse apoplexy.—His horse past cure of the fives, stark spoiled with the *staggers*. *Shakspeare*.—Madness; wild conduct; irregular behaviour. *Out of use*.

I will throw thee from my care for ever

Into the *staggers*, and the careless lapse

Of youth and ignorance.

Shakspeare.

STAGHIGLIHOLE, a small town of the Sardinian states, in the Milanese, in the province of Bobbio, on the river Coppa. Population 1000.

STAGIRA, a small town of European Turkey, in Macedonia, remarkable only as the birthplace of Aristotle, whence he is called the Stagirite. It is situated on the gulf of Contessa; 16 miles west-north-west of that town, and 46 east-south-east of Salonica.

STAGNANCY, *s.* The state of being without motion or ventilation.

Though the country people are so wise

To call these rivers, they're but *stagnancies*,

Left by the flood.

Cotton.

STAGNANT, *adj.* [*stagnans*, Lat.] Motionless; still; not agitated; not flowing; not running.

Immur'd and buried in perpetual sloth,

That gloomy slumber of the *stagnant* soul.

Irene.

To *STAGNATE*, *v. n.* [*stagnare*, Lat.] To lie motionless; to have no course or stream.

Where creeping waters ooze,

Where marshes *stagnate*.

Thomson.

STAGNATION, *s.* Stop of course; cessation of motion. It is often applied figuratively to moral or civil images.—As the Alps surround Geneva on all sides, they form a vast bason, where there would be a constant *stagnation* of vapours, did not the north wind scatter them from time to time. *Addison*.

STAGNO, a small town of the Austrian states in Dalmatia, on the isthmus which joins the peninsula of Sabioncello with the continent. It is a bishop's see; and about a mile from the town is a fortress called Stagno Piccolo, or Little Stagno. It has considerable fisheries, and a good harbour, but is unhealthy; 30 miles north-west of Ragusa.

STAGNOVICH, a village in the west of European Turkey, in Romania, the residence of the bishop of Montenegro.

STAGOUS, an inland town of European Turkey, in Albania, not far from Trikala. It contains about 4000 inhabitants, and in the environs are several of the monasteries called Meteora, situated on steep rocks.

STAGS, rocks on the south coast of Ireland, at the entrance into Cork harbour. Lat. 51. 48. N. long. 8. 15. W.

STAGS, or *BROADHAVEN*, rocks in the Atlantic, near the west coast of Ireland. Lat. 55. 22. N. long. 9. 36. W.

STAGS, of *CASTLEHAVEN*, rocks on the southern coast of Ireland; 7 miles south of Castlehaven. Lat. 51. 26. N. long. 9. 7. W.

STAGSDEN, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 5 miles west-by-south of Bedford. Population 517.

STAGSHAW, or *STAGSHAWBANK*, a small hamlet of England, in Northumberland, where there are considerable fairs for horses annually on Whitsun Eve, and 4th July.

STAGVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Orange county, North Carolina.

STAHL (George Ernest), a celebrated physician and chemist, was born at Anspach, in Franconia, in October, 1660. He studied medicine at the university of Jena, and laid the foundation of his fame, immediately after his graduation in 1684, by commencing a course of private lectures among the students of that place. His advancing reputation procured for him the appointment of physician in ordinary to the Duke of Saxe-Weimar in 1687. On the establishment

ment of the university at Halle, in 1694, Frederic Hoffmann, with his accustomed liberality, solicited the appointment of a medical professorship for Stahl, who accepted the office, and became the rival of that distinguished physician as a teacher of medical systems, but not in the exercise of candour and liberality towards his colleagues. Stahl was conscious of possessing considerable mental powers, and paid little respect to the opinions of others; and he became the leader of a sect or school of physicians, in opposition to the mechanical theorists, in which he was followed by many eminent persons, not only in Germany, but in other countries, as by Perault in France, Gaubius in Holland, Porterfield and Simpson in Scotland, and by Nichols and Mead in England, notwithstanding the very fanciful nature of the hypothesis on which his system was founded. The "Conspetus Medicinæ," of Juncker was published to illustrate his doctrines in Germany; and a succinct account of the system was given by Dr. Nichols, in his work "De Animâ Medicâ," in this country.

Physicians had always remarked a certain power in the animal body of resisting injuries and correcting some of its disorders, which they had called *nature*, and *vis medicatrix naturæ*, and Van Helmont had already ascribed some degree of intelligence to this power. But it remained for Stahl to refer this power entirely to the *rational soul*, which, he affirmed, not only originally formed the body, but is the sole cause of its motions, in the constant excitement of which life consists. For he maintained that the soul abhors the dissolution of its body, and therefore excites and directs all its motions, the vital and involuntary as well as the voluntary motions, to prevent that dissolution, by obviating putrefaction, and expelling the corrupted humours by various appropriate organs or excretories; in a word, that all the functions of the body are entirely directed by the mind, which intelligently perceives the tendency of all impressions, external and internal, made upon the body, and excites such motions as may favour the beneficial, and obviate the injurious influence of all causes acting upon it. Whence he farther contended, that diseases, such as fevers and spasmodic affections, were in fact the motions voluntarily excited by the rational soul, for the purpose of opening emunctories, and expelling some offending cause. Generally speaking, therefore, it was maintained, that diseases were salutary efforts of the presiding soul, and were to be assisted, and not interrupted, by the interference of art: yet it was somehow admitted, that the mind, from surprise, fear, or despair, occasioned by too sudden or vehement impressions made upon it, occasionally excited adverse motions, which it was right to moderate. Independently of the visionary character of this hypothesis, it was justly deprecated as leading physicians to neglect the use of remedies, or to use only the most inert and frivolous ones; and also to set little value upon the collateral studies of medical science, even upon anatomical researches, which Stahl maintained had little or no reference to the art of healing. And, in fact, both he and his followers, trusting principally to the attention and wisdom of nature, adopted that inactive mode of *curing by expectation*, la *médecine expectante*, as the French have called it; they zealously opposed the use of some of the most efficacious remedies, such as opium, cinchona, and mercury; and were extremely reserved, even in the use of general evacuations, such as bleeding, vomiting, &c., although their system led them to refer almost all the disturbances of the motions of the system to a plethora, or too great abundance of the blood. This hypothesis was maintained by Stahl in several publications, with much ability and ingenuity; and it continued to influence a great number of intelligent physicians for a long time. His principal medical work, in which his system is displayed in its most matured form, is entitled "Theoria Medica vera, Physiologiam et Pathologiam sistens," printed at Halle in 1708.

The merits of Stahl as a chemical philosopher are of a much higher character; and the school which he founded in this science, after extending its influence long and universally among those who pursued the same inquiries, has only been

superseded of late by farther discoveries. He was the inventor of the celebrated theory of *phlogiston*, which appeared to explain the phenomena of combustion and inflammability, and was received every where with high applause, and which, in fact, occasioned Germany to become the great school of chemistry. It cannot be denied, indeed, although later experiments have subverted the groundwork, that this hypothesis tended greatly to simplify the ideas, and perfect the operations of chemists, and entitled its author to a high rank amongst the improvers of science. His principal chemical work was entitled, "Fundamenta Chymicæ dogmaticæ et experimentalis," first printed in 1729, and several times reprinted; but before that period he had published several other works on this subject, such as "Dissertationes de Metallurgiæ et Docimasticæ Fundamentis," 1697; and, in the same year, "Experimenta et Observationes 300 Chymicæ et Physicæ," in which work he principally advanced his doctrine of phlogiston. He also published in the German language some essays on "Sulphur," and "On Salts."

Stahl was elected a member of the Academy Naturæ Curiosorum in 1700. He was called to visit Frederic William, King of Prussia, at Berlin, in 1716; and afterwards returned several times to that capital, where his reputation was very high, and where at length he was attacked with a fatal disease, in 1734, in the seventy-fourth year of his age. See *Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Médecine. Gen. Biog.*

STALID, *participle adjective*. Sober; grave; regular; composed; not wild; not volatile.

Put thyself

Into a 'haviour of less fear, ere wildness
Vanquish my staid^r senses.

Shakspeare.

To our weaker view,

O'erlaid with black, staid wisdom's hue.

Milton.

STALIDNESS, *s.* Sobriety; gravity; regularity; contrariety to wildness.—If sometimes he appears too gay, yet a secret gracefulness of youth accompanies his writings, though the *staidness* and sobriety of age be wanting.

To STAIN, *v. a.* [*ystaenio*, Welsh, from *ys* and *taenu*.

"Rhag Gwyar or Gnawd,

"Afar *ystaenawd*." Taliessyn, an old British poet. Dr.

Johnson.—Serenius notices the Welsh word, and adds *stein*, Goth. color; *steina*, pingere, bitumine obducere.] To blot; to spot; to maculate.

Lend me a looking-glass:

If that her breath will mist or *stain* the stone,
Why then she lives.

Shakspeare.

To dye; to tinge.

The Inn is most amiss—

And hath but merely *stained*-painted walls.

Davies.

To disgrace; to spot with guilt or infamy.

Of honour void, of innocence, of faith, of purity,
Our wonted ornaments now soil'd and *stain'd*.

Milton.

STAIN, *s.* Blot; spot; discoloration.—We no where meet with a more pleasing show than what appears in the heavens at the rising and setting of the sun, which is wholly made up of those different *stains* of light that shew themselves in clouds of a different situation. Addison.—Taint of guilt or infamy.—Ulysses bids his friends to cast lots; for if he had made the choice himself, they whom he had rejected might have judged it a *stain* upon them for want of merit. Broome.—Cause of reproach; shame.—Hereby I will lead her that is the praise, and yet the *stain* of all womankind. Sidney.

STAINBROUGH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles from Barnsley.

STAINBURN, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 1 mile east of Workington.

STAINBURN, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles north-east of Otley.

STAINBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2½ miles west-south-west of Colsterworth.

STAIN'DROP,

STAINDROP, a village and parish of England, in the county of Durham; 5 miles from Barnard Castle. It was formerly a market town. In the neighbourhood is the elegant mansion of the Earl of Darlington, called Raby castle. It is an irregular building, but is entirely embattled and surrounded by a fosse. It was built by John de Neville, about the year 1378.

STAINER, *s.* One who stains; one who blots; one who dyes; a dyer.

STAINES, a market town of England, in the county of Middlesex, situated on the northern banks of the Thames, over which there is a strong timber bridge, connecting the counties of Surrey and Middlesex. The Thames is here about 80 feet broad. Of late years the town has been greatly improved. Most of the houses extend along the sides of the great western road; but the parish church, with a few buildings, are situated nearly half a mile north-west of the chief mass of building. The church consists of a chancel, nave, and north aisle, separated by circular columns and pointed arches. The door of the chancel is of early Norman architecture. A square embattled tower at the west end was built by Inigo Jones in 1631, as appears by an inscription on the south side. Besides the church, here are meeting-houses for the Quakers, Anabaptists, and Methodists. A Lancasterian school has been recently established, and is supported by voluntary contributions. The bridge, in its present state, was completed in 1807. This bridge appears to have been one of the most ancient in the country. So far back as the year 1262, three oaks out of Windsor forest were granted for its repairs by Henry III.; and numerous grants of pontage or temporary tolls for the same purpose, were made from time to time in the subsequent reigns, which were confirmed by acts of parliament in 1509 and 1597. In 1791 an act was passed for building a new bridge, and allowing certain tolls to defray the expence. Under this act, a stone bridge of three arches was begun in August 1792, and opened in March 1797; but one of the piers giving way, the building was taken down, and an iron bridge substituted. This, however, also failed, and the builders were obliged to support it on wooden piles and frame-work. Staines is a lordship of the crown, and is governed by two constables and four headboroughs. In old records Staines was written *Stana*, a Saxon word for a stone; and Camden supposes that the name was derived from a stone that was fixed on the bank of the river here, to denote the extent of the jurisdiction of the city of London over the Thames westward. A stone, bearing the date of 1280, on the margin of the water, near the church, is still preserved here. In 1811, Staines parish contained 355 houses, and 2042 inhabitants. Market on Friday, and two annual fairs; 16 miles from Hyde Park corner.

STAINESBY, a small village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, on the banks of the Tees, near Yarm.

STAINFIELD, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; 3½ miles north-north-west of Bourne.

STAINFIELD, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles south-by-west of Wragby.

STAINFORTH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, on the banks of the Don. The Stainforth and Keadby canal commences here, and passing Thorne, enters Lincolnshire at Crowle Bridge. Population 508; 3½ miles west-north-west of Thorne.

STAINFORTH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles north of Settle.

STAININGTON, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-by-north of Sheffield.

STAINLAND, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Halifax. Population 2077

STAINLESS, *adj.* Free from blots or spots. *Not in use.*

The phenix wings are not so rare,
For faultless length and *stainless* hue.

Sidney.

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Free from sin or reproach.

I cannot love him;

Yet I suppose him virtuous, know him noble,
Of great estate, of fresh and *stainless* youth. *Shakspeare.*

STAINLEY, NORTH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles north of Rippon.

STAINLEY, SOUTH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-west of Knaresborough.

STAINMORE, or **STANEMORE**, a township of England in Westmoreland; 4 miles east-south-east of Brough. Population 502.

STAINS, a town of France; 6 miles north of Paris. Population 1100.

STAINSBY, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 6 miles south-east of Chesterfield.

STAINTON, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 1½ mile north-west of Carlisle.

STAINTON, a township of England, in Cumberland; 3 miles south-west of Penrith.

STAINTON, a township of England, in Durham; 1½ mile east-by-north of Barnard Castle.

STAINTON, a hamlet of England, in Durham; 8 miles west-by-north of Stockton-upon-Tees.

STAINTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5 miles west of Wragby.

STAINTON, a township of England, in Westmoreland; 4½ miles south-by-east of Kendal.

STAINTON, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles south-by-west of Doncaster.

STAINTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles south-west of Richmond.

STAINTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles north-north-west of Stokesley.

STAINTON DALE, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles from Scarborough.

STAINTON-IN-THE-VALE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-east of Market Raisin.

STAINTON MARKET, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 7 miles east-by-north of Wragby

STAINVILLE, a small town in the north-east of France, in the department of the Meuse, on the Saux; 22 miles north-west of Vaucouleurs.

STAIR, *s.* [*stægen*, Sax., *stege*, Suetl., from *steigan*, M. Goth., *stiga*, Su. Goth., to ascend, to mount. *Serenius.* We have thus, in our northern dialect, *stee* or *stey*, a ladder, from the old verb *sty*, to ascend.] Steps by which we ascend from the lower part of a building to the upper. *Stair* was anciently used for the whole order of steps; but *stair* now, if it be used at all, signifies, as in Milton, only one flight of steps.

How many cowards, whose hearts are all as false

As *stairs* of sand, wear yet upon their chins

The beards of Hercules and frowning Mars. *Shakspeare.*

STAIR, a parish of Scotland, in Ayrshire, five miles long, by two broad, lying on the banks of the river Ayr. Population 614.

STAIRCASE, *s.* The part of a fabric that contains the stairs.—To make a complete *staircase* is a curious piece of architecture. *Wotton.*

STAKE, *s.* [*stæce*, *stæce*, Sax.; *stake*, Swed.; from the Su. Goth., *sticka*, to pierce. *Serenius.* And in like manner Mr. H. Tooke refers *stæc* to the verb *stæcan*, to stick, to pierce.] A post or strong stick fixed in the ground.

He wanted pikes to set before his archers;

Instead whereof sharp *stakes*, pluckt out of hedges,

They pitched in the ground. *Shakspeare.*

In France the grapes that make the wine grow upon low vines bound to small *stakes*, and the raised vines in arbors make but verjuice. *Bacon.*—A piece of long rough wood.

While he whirl'd in fiery circles round

The brand, a sharpen'd *stake* strong Dryas found

And in the shoulder's joint inflicts the wound. *Dryden.*

Any thing placed as a palisade or fence.
That halloo I should know: what are you, speak?
Come not too near, you fall on iron stakes else. *Milton.*

The post to which a beast is tied to be baited.
Have you not set mine honour at the stake,
And baited it with all the unmuzzled thoughts
That tyrannous heart can think? *Shakspeare.*

Any thing pledged or wagered. I know not well whence it has this meaning: I suppose it is so named from being at stake, that is, in a state of hazard, like an animal baited, and in hazard from which it cannot be withdrawn. *Dr. Johnson.*—It is more probably from the Teutonic *stecken*, to fix; whence to set out or settle.

The increasing sound is borne to either shore,
And for their stakes the throwing nations fear. *Dryden.*

The state of being hazarded, pledged or wagered.—Every moment Cato's life's at stake. *Addison.*—The stake is a small anvil, which stands upon a small iron foot on the work-bench, to remove as occasion offers; or else it hath a strong iron spike at the bottom let into some place of the work bench, not to be removed. Its office is to set small cold work straight upon, or to cut or punch upon with the cold chisel or cold punch. *Moxon.*

To STAKE, *v. a.* To fasten, support or defend with posts set upright.—Stake and bind up your weakest plants and flowers against the winds, before they in a moment prostrate a whole year's labour. *Evclyn.*—To wager; to hazard; to put to hazard.—Persons after their prisons have been flung open, have chosen rather to languish in their dungeons than stake their miserable lives on the success of a revolution. *Addison.*

STALACTITES, *s.* [from *σταλαξω*, Gr.] *Stalactites* is only spar in the shape of an icicle, accidentally formed in the perpendicular fissures of the stone. *Woodward.*

STALACTICAL, *adj.* Resembling an icicle.—A cave was lined with those *stalactical* stones on the top and sides. *Derham.*

STALAGMITES, *s.* Spar formed into the shape of drops. *Woodward.*

STALBRIDGE, a market town of England, in the county of Dorset, situated near the banks of the river Stour. The whole parish lies on a rocky bottom, whence the vicinity is supplied in great abundance with building stones. The manufacture of stockings is also carried on here to a considerable extent. Here is a large ancient church and a charity school. In the centre of the town is a neat stone cross, which, including the base, is 30 feet high. At the top is a square block, with four niches. Those on the east and west fronts have the crucifixion, with the Virgin and St. John. On this block stood a cross, and from the top of the freestone of the pyramid, to the hole in which this cross was fixed, the height is 10 feet. At the bottom of this block are several coats of arms. The pyramid itself is 12 feet high, and all the angles are fluted. On one side of it is a defaced figure of our Saviour, with a lamb at his feet. The four sides of the base are adorned with bas-reliefs, one of which seems to represent the resurrection of Christ, who holds a cross in his hand. The whole stands on three octagon flights of steps, each diminishing in the ascent. The manor of Stalbridge belonged at one time to the celebrated philosopher Robert Boyle, who resided and studied here in the early part of his life. In 1811, the parish of Stalbridge contained 141 houses, and 890 inhabitants. Market on Monday, and two annual fairs; 9 miles east of Sherbourne, and 112 west-south-west of London.

STALE, *adj.* [*stel*, Teut.] Old; long kept; altered by time. *Stale* is not used of persons otherwise than in contempt; when it is applied to beer, it commonly means worse for age.—Nappy ale, good and *stale*. *Old Ballad of the King and Miller of Mansfield.*—Used till it is of no use or esteem; worn out of regard or notice.—The duke regarded not the muttering multitude, knowing that rumours grow *stale* and vanish with time. *Hayward.*

STALE, *s.* [from *stælan*, Sax., to steal.] Something exhibited or offered as an allurement to draw others to any place or purpose; a decoy.

Had he none else to make a *stale* but me?
I was the chief that rais'd him to the crown,
And I'll be chief to bring him down again. *Shakspeare.*

In Shakspeare, it seems to signify a prostitute.
I stand dishonour'd, that have gone about
To link my dear friend to a common *stale*. *Shakspeare.*

[*stalle*, Teut., *urina*.] Urine; old urine.—The smell of *stale*, as I observed before, is admirable against the vapours! *Swift.*—Old beer; beer somewhat acidulated. — [*stete*, Dutch, a *stick*.] A handle.

But, seeing th' arrowes *stale* without, and that the head did
goe
No further then it might be seene, he call'd his spirits again. *Chapman.*

At the game of chess applied to the king, when he is forced into a situation from which he cannot move without going into check: by which the game is ended.—They stand at stay, like a *stale* chess, where it is no mate, but the game cannot stir. *Bacon.*

To STALE, *v. a.* To wear out; to make old. *Not now in use.*

Age cannot wither her, nor custom *stale*
Her infinite variety. *Shakspeare.*

To STALE; *v. n.* [*stallen*, Teut., *stallare*, Ital.] To make water.

Having ty'd his beast t' a pale,
And taken time for hoth to *stale*. *Hudibras.*

STALELY, *adv.* Of old; long time.

All your promis'd mountains
And seas I am so *stalely* acquainted with. *B. Jonson.*

STALENESS, *s.* Oldness; state of being long kept; state of being corrupted by time.—Provided our landlord's principles were sound, we did not take any notice of the *staleness* of his provisions. *Addison.*

STALHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 7 miles south-east of North Walsham. Population 471.

STALISFIELD, a parish of England, in Kent; 2 miles north-north-east of Charing.

To STALK, *v. n.* [*stælcen*, Sax. *pedetentum ire*. Originally, our word meant to *step slowly*. "To the bedde he stalketh styll." *Gower, Conf. Am.*—"Ful thefely gan he stalke." *Chaucer, Leg. of Good Women.*] To walk with high and superb steps. It is used commonly in a sense of dislike.

Vexatious thought still found my flying mind,
Nor bound by limits, nor to place confin'd;
Haunted by nights, and terrify'd my days;
Stalk'd through my gardens, and pursu'd my ways,
Nor shut from artful bow'r, nor lost in winding maze. *Prior.*

It is often used with some insinuation of contempt or abhorrence.

Bertran
Stalks close behind her, like a witch's fiend
Pressing to be employed. *Dryden.*

To walk behind a stalking horse or cover.—The king asked how far it was to a certain town: they said six miles. Half an hour after he asked again: one said six miles and a half. The king alighted out of his coach, and crept under the shoulder of his led horse: and when some asked his majesty what he meant, I must *stalk*, said he; for yonder town is shy, and flies me. *Bacon.*

STALK, *s.* High, proud, wide, and stately step.
Great Milton next, with high and haughty *stalks*,
Unfetter'd in majestic numbers walks. *Addison.*

STALK, *s.* [Mr. H. Tooke considers this word as the participle

participle of the Saxon *ƿrigan*, to ascend; and says, "that perhaps it should be written *stawk*, (as we pronounce it), or *stak*, (the *a*, as formerly, broad;) and indeed the *l* may have been introduced to give the broad sound to our modern *a*. This, however, is only my conjecture; being unable otherwise to account for the introduction of *l* into this word. *Div. of Purl*. ii. 283. This conjecture and etymology must give place to the derivation offered by Serenius, namely, the Swedish *stelk*, or *stielke*, the same as our *stalk*; (and he also mentions "A Sax. *stalc*,") and this he deduces from the ancient word *stall*, basis, foundation, which is from *staa*, to stand.] The stem on which flowers or fruits grow.

Small store will serve, where store,
All seasons, ripe for use hangs on the *stalk*. *Milton*.

The stem of a quill.—Viewed with a glass, they appear made up of little bladders like those in the plume or *stalk* of a quill. *Grew*.

STALK, LOCH, a lake of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire; 2 miles long, and half a mile broad, giving rise to the river Laxford.

STALKED, *adj.* Having a stalk: as the long-stalked pear. See PEAR.

STALKER, *s.* One who stalks.—Let's ha' good cheer to-morrow night at supper, *stalk stalker*, and then we'll talk; good capon, and plover, do you hear, sirrah? *B. Jonson*.—A kind of fishing net. *Stat.* 13 Rich. II. ch. 20.

STALKINGHORSE, *s.* A horse either real or fictitious, by which a fowler shelters himself from the sight of the game; a mask; a pretence.—Hypocrisy is the devil's *stalkinghorse*, under an affectation of simplicity and religion. *L'Estrange*.

STALKY, *adj.* Hard like a stalk.—It grows upon a round stalk, and at the top bears a great *stalky* head. *Mortimer*.

STALL, *s.* [*ſtæl*, *ſteal*, Saxon; *stal*, Dutch; *stalla*, Italian.] A crib in which an ox is fed, or a horse is kept in the stable.

Duncan's horses,
Beauteous and swift, the minions of the race,
Turn'd wild in nature, broke their *stalls*, flung out,
Contending 'gainst obedience. *Shakespeare*.

A bench or form where any thing is set to sale.
Stalls, bulks, windows,
Are smothered up, leads fill'd, and ridges hors'd
With variable complexions; all agreeing
In earnestness to see him. *Shakespeare*.

[*Stall*, Swedish; *stal*, Armoric.] A small house or shed in which certain trades are practised.

All these together in one heap were thrown,
Like carcases of beasts in butcher's *stall*;
And in another corner wide were strown
The antique ruins of the Roman's fall. *Spenser*.

The seat of a dignified clergyman in the choir.—The pope creates a canon beyond the number limited, and commands the chapter to assign unto such canon a *stall* in the choir and place in the chapter. *Ayliffe*.

To STALL, *v. a.* To keep in a stall or stable.—For my part, he keeps me rustically at home; or, to speak more properly, sties me here at home unkept: for call you that keeping, for a gentlemān of my birth, that differs not from the *stalling* of an ox? *Shakespeare*.—[For *install*.] To invest.

Long may'st thou live to wail thy children's loss;
And see another as I see thee now,
Deck'd in thy rights, as thou art *stall'd* in mine. *Shakespeare*.

To STALL, *v. n.* To inhabit; to dwell.—We could not *stall* together in the world. *Shakespeare*.—To kennel.

STALLAGE, *s.* Rent paid for a stall.—[In old books.] Laystall; dung; compost.

STALLATION, *s.* [From the second sense of *To stall*].

Installation. *Obsolete*.—Then prepared he has fast for his translation from the see of Lincoln to the see of Yorke, as he did before to his *stallation*. *Cavendish*.

STA'LLFED, *adj.* Fed not with grass, but dry feed.
Every one must every day sustaine
The load of one beast, the most fat and best
Of all the *stallfed*, to the wooer's feast. *Chapman*.

STALLINGBOROUGH, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-west of Great Grimsby.

STA'LLION, *s.* [*ysdalwyn*, an old Welsh word: the one is derived from the other; but which from which I certainly cannot tell. *Wotton*.—*Stalon*, old Fr.; *stallone*, Ital.; *stalhengst*, Dutch.—Junius thinks it derived from *ſtælan*, to leap. *Dr. Johnson*.—Serenius derives it from *stall*, *stallr*, Su. Goth. Our ancient word is *stalaunt*: "To be turned out for a *stalaunt*." *Transl. of Bp. Gardiner's De Ver. Obed.* 1553.] A horse kept for mares.

If fleet Dragon's progeny at last
Prove jaded, and in frequent matches cast,
No favour for the *stallion* we retain,
And no respect for the degenerate train. *Dryden*.

STALLUPONEN, a small town of East Prussia, in the government of Gumbinnen. Population 2300; 40 miles south-east of Tilsit, and 80 east of Königsberg. Lat. 54. 37. 7. N. long. 22. 34. 12. E.

STALMYEE, a township of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles north-north-east of Poulton. Population 438.

STALOWICZI, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Minsk; 10 miles from Pinsk. In 1789 the Poles under Oginski were defeated here with great loss, by the Russians under Suwarrow.

STA'LWORTH, *adj.* [*ſtæl-pýrð* Sax. of uncertain origin. *Dr. Johnson* notices this word under *stallworn*, believing the latter to be a mistake for *stalworth*. *Warburton*, in a note on *Shakespeare* had printed a line from *Fairfax*, (which *Dr. Johnson* inadvertently assigned to *Shakespeare*), upon which *Mr. Edwards* in referring to that author, found the real word to be *stalworth*. There is, perhaps, no such word as *stallworn*. *Todd*.] Stout; strong; brave. Used by *Wicliffe*. *Now wholly obsolete*.—His *stalworth* steed the champion stout bestrode. *Fairfax*.

STAMATA, or STAMATI, a small village between Athens and Marathon, at the distance of 15 miles from the former.

STAMBACH, a small town of Bavarian Franconia, in the principality of Bayreuth; 18 miles north-north-east of Bamberg.

STAMBOURNE, a parish of England, in Essex; 5 miles north-west of Castle Hedingham. Population 1356.

STAMBRIDGE, GREAT and LITTLE, two adjoining parishes of England, in Essex; 2 miles north-east of Rochford.

STAMEN, *s.* [Lat.] Threads; foundation.—You are to know, that all, who enter human life, have a certain date or *stamen* given to their being. *Tatler*

STAMFORD, or STANFORD, an ancient and considerable market and borough town of England, in the county of Lincoln. It is situated on the banks of the river Welland, at the south-western angle of the county, on the borders of Rutlandshire and Northamptonshire. One of its parishes, *St. Martin's* or *Stamford Baron*, is in Northamptonshire, but the greater part of the town is built on the slope of a hill on the Lincoln side of the river. The town is large but irregularly built; most of the houses are of freestone, covered with slate. When approached from the south, it presents an interesting and picturesque appearance, several of the old buildings being grouped together with the towers and steeples of the churches. *Stamford* appears anciently to have been divided into 14 wards or parishes, but in 1461 some of the churches and houses were consumed by fire; and in 1547 the northern part of the town was divided, by act of parliament, into five parishes; *St. Martin's* constituting a sixth, The former are *St. Michael's*, *St. Mary's*, *St. George's*, *All Saints*, and *St. John the Baptist*. *St. Michael's* church stands near the centre of the town, and is supposed to have been

been the most ancient, part of it having existed antecedent to the year 1230. It consists of a nave and choir, with north and south aisles, and chancels extending beyond the aisles. The windows of this building were decorated with figures and heraldic ornaments, of which there are now no remains. St. Mary's church appears to have been built about the latter end of the 13th century, on the site, perhaps, of one much earlier. The upper part of the chancel contains a monument, without armorial ensigns, device, or inscription, but merely a statue in armour, lying besides a female figure: it was erected, according to Leland, to the memory of Sir David Philips and his wife, the former of whom distinguished himself in the battle of Bosworth field. St. George's church is a plain building, consisting of a chancel, a nave, north and south aisles, with a rectangular embattled tower at the west end. It was rebuilt in 1450 by William Bruges, the first garter king of arms, who bequeathed to it many valuable presents. The remains of David Cecil, high sheriff of Northamptonshire in 1542, grandfather of lord Burleigh, are here entombed. All Saints church is a large and well proportioned building consisting of a nave, two aisles, and chancels. At the west end of the north aisle rises the steeple, a lofty and handsome structure, embattled with octagonal turrets at the corners, and surmounted by a spire of a similar form, crocketed at the angles, from the base to the summit. This church was built at the expense of Mr John Brown, a merchant of the staple at Calais, who, with his wife, are buried at the upper end of the north aisle. St. John's church which was rebuilt about the year 1452, consists of a nave and two aisles, with a chancel at the east end of the first, and separated from it by elegant screen-work. The roof is adorned with figures carved in wood and stone, and the windows contain some admirable specimens of stained glass. St. Martin's church is a large and handsome building, consisting of a nave, two chancels and aisles, and a square pinnacled tower. At the upper end of one of the chancels are deposited the remains of Richard Cecil and his wife, the immediate progenitors of lord Burleigh. Here is also a splendid monument of William Cecil, baron of Burleigh, and several others deserving of attention. Stamford formerly contained several monastic establishments, and is related by tradition to have been at one time a seat of a university. In 1333, according to Camden, many of the masters and students at Oxford retired to Stamford, on account of a violent dispute which arose between the northern and southern scholars. Several of these, however, returned to Oxford, and soon afterwards a prohibition was issued by Edward III. for any person to study or perform scholastic exercises elsewhere than in the universities, on pain of certain forfeitures. In the reign of Henry III. the Carmelites had a monastery here, and gave public lectures on divinity and the liberal arts. Other religious houses also were converted into schools, and Stamford became famed for literary instruction. The other public schools which were supposed to constitute part of the above mentioned university, were Brazenose college, a school from which that of Oxford is supposed to have taken its name, and which was taken down in 1668, and a charity school erected in its place; Sempringham-hall, Black-hall, Peterborough-hall, and Vaudey-hall. The schools at present supported in Stamford are Radcliffe's free school, Wells's, or the Petty school, the Blue-coat school, and a school for girls on Dr. Bell's system. The charitable foundations in the town are numerous. The chief of these is one founded by William Brown, in the reign of Richard III. and the revenues of which have greatly increased. Another was erected by Mr Thomas Truesdale in 1730. Besides these, there are certain other charities, with various institutions of a similar kind. Of the other public buildings, the town-hall stands near St. Mary's church and was erected in 1776, the old hall being at that time taken down. It consists of two handsome fronts, and contains 20 apartments, a guard room, a house of correction, and a gaol. In St. Mary's-street is a small theatre, which was built in 1768: and in the south-west corner of St. George's-square is a spacious assembly-room which was erected in 1725.

A new row of commodious 'butchers' shambles has been recently erected. The river Welland is navigable to Stamford for boats and barges, and by this navigation some trade is carried on, chiefly in coals, malt, and freestone. The town is governed by a mayor, 12 aldermen, and 24 burgesses. It returns two members to parliament. The right of election is vested in the housekeepers paying scot and lot, and who receive no alms. The number of voters is about 500, and the mayor is the returning officer. The custom of borough English still prevails here; and the practice of bull baiting has been long in vogue, and is still repeated annually on the 13th November. Stamford is of great antiquity. It was a place of note in the time of the Danes and the Saxons. It is mentioned in Domesday Survey as containing 141 mansions, and 15 laymen or civil magistrates. It had an ancient castle, which was probably built by the Danes. After passing in subsequent ages through the hands of various possessors, it was granted by queen Elizabeth to lord Burleigh. Scarcely any vestiges of it are now visible. In the time of William the Conqueror, Stamford was governed by the laymen or aldermen. The privilege of sending members to parliament was conferred on it by Edward IV., who also incorporated the civic officers of the town by charter. Charles II. gave it a new charter, which was confirmed by James II. Market on Monday and Friday; 46 miles south-east of Lincoln, and 90 north of London. Lat. 52. 40. N. long. 0. 29. W.

STAMFORD, a small village of England, in Bedfordshire, near Southill.

STAMFORD, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 4½ miles north-east of Alnwick.

STAMFORD, a township of the United States, in Bennington county, Vermont. Population 378.

STAMFORD, a post township of the United States, in Fairfield county, Connecticut, on Long Island Sound; 31 miles north-east of New York. This township contains a considerable village, situated on Mill River, a small stream which flows through the town, into the sound.

STAMFORD, a post township of the United States, in Delaware county, New York; 15 miles east-north-east of Delhi. Population 1658.

STAMFORD-BRIDGE, EAST, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 7½ miles east-north-east of York.

STAMFORD-BRIDGE, WEST, a hamlet adjoining the foregoing, remarkable in history for a bloody battle, in which Harold defeated the Danes, ten days before the invasion of William the Conqueror, from which event the place was anciently called Battle-bridge.

STAMFORDHAM, a parish of England, in Northumberland; 12½ miles north-west of Newcastle-upon-Tyne. Population 1813.

STAMFORD HILL, a small but improving village of England, in Middlesex, between Newington and Tottenham.

STAMIN, *s.* [*estamine*, Fr.] A slight sort of stuff; kind of woollen cloth.—Wearing of here or of *stamin*. *Chaucer*.

STAMINA, *s.* [Lat.] The first principles of any thing.—A prerogative, that had moulded into its original *stamina* irresistible principles of decay and dissolution. *Burke*.—The solids of a human body.—[In botany.] Those little fine threads or capillaments which grow up within the flowers of plants, encompassing round the style, and on which the apices grow at their extremities.

To STAMINATE, *v. a.* To endue with stamina.—The persons who, Moses tells us, lived to so great an age, were the special favourites of God, and formed and *staminated* by the immediate hand of God with peculiar principles of vitality. *Biblioth.*

STAMINEOUS, *adj.* [*stamineous*, Lat.] Consisting of threads.—*Stamineous* flowers are so imperfect as to want those coloured leaves which are called petals, and consist only of the stylus and the stamina; and such plants as do bear these *stamineous* flowers Ray makes to constitute a large genus of plants.

STAMMEL, *s.* [*estamel*, old French]. A species of red colour.

Redhood, the first that doth appear
In *stammel*: scarlet is too dear.

B. Jonson.

A kind of woollen cloth: perhaps a corruption of *stamin*.—His table with *stammel* or some other carpet neatly covered. *Comment.*

STAMMEL, *adj.* Of a reddish colour.

I'll not quarrel with this gentleman
For wearing *stammel* breeches.

Beaum. and Fl.

STAMMEL, a small town of the Prussian province of Cleves and Berg; 6 miles from Cologne. Population 900.

To STAMMER, *v. n.* [*stamer*], Sax. a stammerer; *stameren* Teut. to stammer; from the M. Goth. *stamms*, stammering. *Serenius.*] To speak with unnatural hesitation; to utter words with difficulty.

She *stammers*; oh what grace in lisping lies!
If she says nothing, to be surc she's wise.

Dryden.

To STAMMER, *v. a.* To pronounce or declare imperfectly.

They are famed to be a pair of absolute men:—
By my troth, I think fame but *stammers* them.

Beaum and Fl.

STAMMERER, *s.* One who speaks with hesitation.—A *stammerer* cannot with moderation hope for the gift of tongues, or a peasant become learned as Origen. *Bp. Taylor.*

STAMMERING, an hesitation or interruption of speech, which seems generally to arise from fear, eagerness, or some violent passion, that prevents a child's articulating rightly, by the confusion which it occasions in the vibrations that descend into the muscular system; so that, finding himself wrong, he attempts again and again, till he hits upon the true sound. It does not therefore begin, in general, till children are of an age to distinguish right from wrong in respect of pronunciation, and to articulate with tolerable propriety. A nervous disorder of the muscles of speech may have a like effect. When the trick of stammering has once begun to take place in a few words, it will extend itself to more and more from very slight resemblances, and particularly to all the first words of sentences, because then the organs pass in an instant from inactivity to action, whereas the subsequent parts of words and sentences may follow the foregoing from association; just as in repeating *memoriter*, one is most apt to hesitate at the first word in each sentence. A defect of memory from passion, natural weakness, &c., so that the proper word does not occur readily, also occasions stammering, and, like all other modes of speaking, it is caught, in some cases, by imitation.

Sometimes stammering takes place only in the utterance of such words as begin with certain letters, which are generally some of the labial or guttural consonants, as *b, p, m, c, g,* &c. Some persons, on the contrary, stammer in the utterance of all words indiscriminately, with whatever letter they begin, whether they be vowel or consonant, at certain times only; as *e. g.* when the speaker is placed in any situation that occasions hurry or embarrassment. Agreeably to the observations already made, we find that persons of great nervous irritability, and lively consciousness, are most liable to stammering. This sort of impediment is a bad habit, founded upon this constitutional susceptibility: and in attempting to remove stammering, while every attention should be paid such means as physical and medical science will point out for the strengthening of the corporeal system, it is of the utmost importance to induce the persons affected with it to reason on the subject. Let them practise the formation of the component parts of words (that is, simple vocal sounds and the powers of the consonants), singly, and in combination, alternately, till a facility and habit of subjecting the muscles concerned in speech to the will be acquired or regained. They should be accustomed to consider that which is true in fact, that the organs of speech are moved by muscles which, from the laws of animal economy, are the instruments

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of the will; though we are conscious of an act of the will only at the commencement of such actions.

The following directions, with variations according to circumstances, will be found to be attended with advantage, if duly and perseveringly complied with:—

In order to raise a voice, or that material of which speech is formed, let the vowels be practised in a natural key, but with firmness and strength, for ten minutes or a quarter of an hour, at least, every morning. Then let the powers of the consonants be formed, in their order, singly, and variously combined with the vowels.

After a little rest, if imagination supply a subject, by all means let an imaginary conversation take place for twenty minutes, half an hour, or even an hour, in a firm and natural tone of voice, using every effort of fancy, to suppose it directed to persons indiscriminately; that is, sometimes to servants, sometimes to equals in age and rank, and sometimes to elders, or those considered as superior in consequence and rank in society, from whatever cause. But if imagination do not furnish a topic, then let the time be spent in reading, in a tone as nearly approaching to the ease of familiar conversation as possible, taking care to manage the fancy as above. This will furnish the lesson:—and after an interval of a few hours, the same sort of conversation or reading should be repeated, two or three times more in the course of a day. And on mixing with real auditors, every exertion should be made to associate the ideas of their imaginary, with their actual presence.

These directions, it will be perceived, are founded upon the principle of the association of ideas; than which a more powerful principle, in the formation of human habits, cannot be conceived.

An ingenious writer, whose observations we are now citing, is of opinion, that it may be laid down as an incontrovertible position, that persons possessing an ordinary mental capacity, with an adequate share of industry and strength, may *certainly* overcome the habit of stammering, by means such as here pointed out. See "Instruction of the Deaf and Dumb," &c. by Joseph Watson, LL.D. 2 vols. 8vo. 1809.

STAMMERINGLY, *adv.* In a stammering manner.

STAMMERSDORF, a large village of Austria; 9 miles north of Vienna.

STAMMHEIM, a small town of the Swiss canton of Argovia, divided into Upper and Lower, and containing 3000 inhabitants.

To STAMP, *v. a.* [*stampen*, Dutch; *stamper*, Dan.] To strike by pressing the foot hastily downwards.

If Arcite thus deplore,

His sufferings, Palemon suffers more:

He frets, he fumes, he stares, he *stamps* the ground;

The hollow tow'r with clamours rings around. *Dryden.*

To pound; to beat as in a mortar.—Some apothecaries, upon *stamping* of colicoquintida, have been put into a great scouring by the vapour only. *Bacon.*—[*estamper*, Fr.; *stampare*, Ital.; *estampar*, Spanish.] To impress with some mark or figure.

Here swells the shelf with Ogilby the great;

There, *stamp'd* with arms, Newcastle shines complete. *Popc.*

To fix a mark by impressing it.

Of mere ambition, you have made

Your holy hat be *stamp'd* on the king's coin. *Shakspeare.*

To make by impressing a mark.—If two pennyweight of silver, marked with a certain impression, shall here in England be equivalent to three pennyweight marked with another impression, they will not fail to *stamp* pieces of that fashion, and quickly carry away your silver. *Locke.*—To mint; to form; to coin.

We are bastards all;

And that most venerable man, which I

Did call my father, was I know not where

When I was *stamp'd*.

Shakspeare.

To STAMP, *v. n.* To strike the foot suddenly downwards.

What a fool art thou,
A ramping fool, to brag, to *stamp*, and swear,
Upon my party! Thou cold-blooded slave,
Hast thou not spoke like thunder on my side? *Shakspeare.*

STAMP, *s.* [*estampe*, Fr.; *stampa*, Ital.] Any instrument by which a distinct and lasting impression is made.

'Tis gold so pure,
It cannot bear the *stamp* without alloy. *Dryden.*

A mark set on any thing; impression.
That sacred name gives ornament and grace,
And, like his *stamp*, makes basest metals pass;
'Twere folly now a stately pile to raise,
To build a playhouse, while you throw down plays. *Dryden.*

A thing marked or stamped.
The mere despair of surgery he cures;
Hanging a golden *stamp* about their necks,
Put on with holy prayers. *Shakspeare.*

A picture cut in wood or metal; a picture made by impression; a cut; a plate.—At Venice they put out very curious *stamps* of the several edifices, which are most famous for their beauty and magnificence. *Addison.*—A mark set upon things that pay customs to the government.

Indeed the paper *stamp*
Did very much his genius cramp:
And since he could not spend his fire,
He now intended to retire. *Swift.*

A character of reputation, good or bad, fixed upon any thing.—Authority; currency; value derived from any suffrage or attestation.—Of the same *stamp* is that which is obtruded upon us, that an adamant suspends the attraction of the loadstone. *Brown.*—Make; cast; form.

If speaking truth
In this fine age were not thought flatt'ry,
Such attribution should this Douglas have.
As not a soldier of this season's *stamp*
Should go so general current through the world. *Shakspeare.*

STAMPA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the district of Sondrio, near the Lake of Como.

STAMPALIA, or ISTAMPOLIA, anciently *Astypalaca*, a small island of the Grecian archipelago, situated about 60 miles west-north-west of Rhodes, in Lat. 36. 40. long. 26. 16. E. It is of an irregular form; 14 miles long and about 4½ broad. Its coasts afford several good bays and anchorage grounds, and the soil of the island is fertile; but water being scarce, and piratical incursions to be dreaded, the population is very thin: it consists of Greeks, in a very backward state of civilisation.

STAMPALIA, a small island of the Grecian archipelago, in the neighbourhood of Candia, with a harbour.

STAMPER, *s.* An instrument of pounding.—From the stamping-mill it passeth through the crazing-mill; but of late times they mostly use wet *stampers*. *Carew.*

STAMPFEN, STOMPFA, or STUPAWA, a small town of the west of Hungary; 10 miles north-by-west of Presburg. It is inhabited by Slowacs and Jews, the former mostly weavers, the latter petty merchants.

STAMPING GROUNDS, a post village of the United States, in Scott county, Kentucky.

STAN, amongst our forefathers, was the termination of the superlative degree: so *Athelstan*, most noble; *Betstan*, the best; *Leofstan*, the dearest; *Wistan*, the wisest; *Dunstan*, the highest. *Gibson's Camden.*

STANALL, a township of England, in Lancashire; 4 miles north-by-east of Poulton.

STANBRIDGE, a township of England, in Bedfordshire; 3 miles east-by-south from Leighton-Buzzard.

STANBRIDGE, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Bedford.

STANCEL, a small hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles from Doncaster.

To STANCH, *v. a.* [*estancher*, Fr.; *stagnare*, Ital.]

To stop blood; to hinder from running.—Iron or stone, laid to the neck, doth *stanch* the bleeding of the nose. *Bacon.*

To STANCH, *v. n.* To stop.—A woman touched the hem of his garment, and immediately her issue *stanch'd*. *St. Luke.*

STANCH, *adj.* Sound; such as will not run out.—What we endeavoured in vain may be performed by some virtuoso, that shall have *stancher* vessels and more sunny days. *Boyle.*—Firm; sound of principle; trusty: hearty; determined.—The standing absurdity, without the belief of which no man is reckoned a *stanch* churchman, is that there is a calf's-head club. *Addison.*

In politics, I hear, you're *stanch*,
Directly bent against the French. *Prior.*

In this sense is used a *stanch* hound. A dog that follows the scent without error or remissness.—Strong; not to be broken.

If I knew
What hoop would hold us *staunch* from edge to edge
O' th' world, I would pursue it. *Shakspeare.*

STA'NCHER, *s.* One that stops blood. *Sherwood.*

STA'NCHION, *s.* [*estanchon*, Fr.] A prop; a support.

STA'NCHLESS, *adj.* Not to be stopped.

There grows,
In my most ill-compos'd affection, such
A *stanchless* avarice, that, were I king,
I should cut off the nobles for their lands. *Shakspeare.*

STANCO, a small island in the Grecian archipelago, the ancient *Cos*, celebrated as the birth-place of Hippocrates and Apelles; it is about 70 miles in circumference, and 12 miles distant from the continent. The country is for the most part level, though on the eastern side there are some hills of small elevation. It contains large plantations of lemon trees, and abounds also with cypress and turpentine, and a number of medicinal plants. It produces that species of stone known by the name of whetstone, and the Latin name of which was derived from this island. There is one considerable town, situated in a bay, with a harbour, defended by a castle. Lat. 36. 46. N. long. 26. 56. E.

STANCO, a bay on the western coast of Asia Minor, deriving its name from the island which is situated at its mouth.

To STAND, *v. n.* preterite *I stood, I have stood.* [*standan*, Goth.; *stanban*, Sax.; *staen*, Dutch; *stare*, Ital.; *estar*, Span.; *stare*, Lat.] To be upon the feet; not to sit, kneel, or lie down.—The absolution to be pronounced by the priest alone *standing*, the people still kneeling. *Common Prayer.*—To be not demolished or overthrown.

What will they then? what but unbuild
A living temple, built by faith to *stand*? *Milton.*

To be placed as an edifice.—This poet's tomb *stood* on the other side of Naples, which looks towards Vesuvio. *Addison.*—To remain erect; not to fall.

To *stand* or fall,
Free in thine own arbitrement it lies. *Milton.*

Chariot and charioteer lay overturn'd,
And fiery foaming steeds: what *stood*, recoil'd
O'r weary'd, through the faint satanic host
Defensive scarce, or with pale fear surpris'd
Fled ignominious. *Milton.*

To become erect.
Mute, and amaz'd, my hair with horror *stood*;
Fear shrunk my senses, and congeal'd my blood. *Dryden.*

To stop; to halt; not to go forward.
The leaders, having charge from you to *stand*,
Will not go off until they hear you speak. *Shakspeare.*

Mortal, who this forbidden path
In arms presum'st to tread, I charge thee *stand*,
And tell thy name. *Dryden.*

To be at a stationary point without progress or regression.
Immense

Immense the pow'r, immense were the demand ;
Say, at what part of nature will they *stand* ? *Pope.*

To be in a state of firmness, not vacillation.—Common-
wealths by virtue ever *stood*. *Davies.*

My mind on its own centre *stands* unmov'd,
And stable as the fabric of the world,
Propt on itself. *Dryden.*

To be in any posture of resistance or defence.
Seeing how lothly opposite I *stood*
To his unnat'ral purpose, in fell motion
With his prepared sword he charges home
My unprovided body. *Shakspeare.*

From enemies heav'n keep your majesty :
And when they *stand* against you, may they fall.
Shakspeare.

To be in a state of hostility ; to keep the ground.—If he
would presently yield, Barbarossa promised to let him go
free ; but if he should *stand* upon his defence, he threatened
to make him repent his foolish hardness. *Knolles.*—Not to
yield ; not to fly ; not to give way.—Who before him *stood*
so to it ? for the Lord brought his enemies unto him.
Ecclus.—To stay ; not to fly.—At the soldiery word *stand*,
the flyers halted a little. *Clarendon.*—To be placed with
regard to rank or order.—Theology would truly enlarge the
mind, were it studied with that freedom and that sacred
charity which it teaches : let this therefore *stand* always
chief. *Watts.*—To remain in the present state.

That sots and knaves should be so vain
To wish their vile resemblance may remain ;
And *stand* recorded, at their own request,
To future days a libel or a jest. *Dryden.*

[*Estar*, Spanish.] To be in any particular state ; to be :
emphatically expressed.

Accomplish what your signs foreshow :
I *stand* resign'd, and am prepared to go. *Dryden.*

Not to become void ; to remain in force.
A thing within my bosom tells me,
That no conditions of our peace can *stand*. *Shakspeare.*

To consist ; to have its being or essence.—That could not
make that did the service perfect, as pertaining to the con-
science, which *stood* only in meats and drinks. *Heb.*—To
be with respect to terms of a contract.—The hirelings *stand*
at a certain wages. *Carew.*—To have a place.

If it *stand*
Within the eye of honour, be assured
My purse, my person, my extremest means,
Lie all unlock'd to your occasions. *Shakspeare.*

My very enemy's dog,
Though he had bit me, should have *stood* that night
Against my fire. *Shakspeare.*

To be in any state at the time present.
Opprest nature sleeps :
This rest might yet have balm'd thy broken senses,
Which *stand* in hard cure. *Shakspeare.*

So it *stands* ; and this I fear at last,
Hume's knavery will be the duchess' wreck. *Shakspeare.*

To be in a permanent state.
The broil doubtful long *stood*,
As two spent swimmers that do cling together,
And choke their art. *Shakspeare.*

To be with regard to condition or fortune.
I *stand* in need of one whose glories may
Redeem my crimes, ally me to his fame. *Dryden.*

To have any particular respect.
Here stood he in the dark, his sharp sword out,
Mumbling of wicked charms, conj'ring the moon
To *stand's* auspicious mistress. *Shakspeare.*

An utter unsuitableness disobedience has to the relation

which man necessarily *stands* in towards his Maker. *South.*
—To be without action.—A philosopher disputed with
Adrian the emperor, and did it but weakly : one of his
friends, that *stood* by, said, Methinks you were not like
yourself last day in argument with the emperor ; I could
have answered better myself. Why, said the philosopher,
would you have me contend with him that commands thirty
legions ? *Bacon.*—To depend ; to rest ; to be supported.—
He that will know, must by the connexion of the proofs see
the truth and the ground it *stands* on. *Locke.*—To be with
regard to state of mind.—*Stand* in awe and sin not ; com-
mune with your own heart upon your bed, and be still.
Psal.—To succeed ; to be acquitted ; to be safe.—Readers,
by whose judgment I would *stand* or fall, would not be
such as are acquainted only with the French and Italian
critics. *Addison.*—To be with respect to any particular.

Cæsar entreats,
Not to consider in what case thou *stand'st*
Further than he is Cæsar. *Shakspeare.*

To Heaven I do appeal,
I have lov'd my king and common-weal ;
As for my wife, I know not how it *stands*. *Shakspeare.*

To be resolutely of a party.—The cause must be presumed
as good on our parts as on theirs, till it be decided who have
stood for the truth, and who for error. *Hooker.*

Shall we sound him ?
I think he will *stand* very strong with us. *Shakspeare.*

It remains,
To gratify his noble service, that
Hath thus *stood* for his country. *Shakspeare.*

To be in the place ; to represent.—Chilon said, that
kings, friends and favourites were like casting counters ; that
sometimes *stood* for one, sometimes for ten. *Bacon.*—To
remain ; to be fixed.

How soon hath thy prediction, seer blest !
Measur'd this transient world, the race of time,
Till time *stand* fix'd. *Milton.*

To hold a course at sea ; to have direction towards any
local point.—The wand did not really *stand* to the metals,
when placed under it, or the metalline veins. *Boyle.*—To
offer as a candidate.—He *stood* to be elected one of the pro-
ctors for the university. *Walton.*—To place himself ; to be
placed.

The fool hath planted in his memory
An army of good words ; and I do know
A many fools that *stand* in better place,
Garnish'd like him, that for a tricky word
Defy the matter. *Shakspeare.*

Stand by me when he is going. *Swift.*—To stagnate ;
not to flow.

Where Ufens glides along the lowly lands,
Or the black water of Pomptina *stands*. *Dryden.*

To be with respect to chance.
Yourself, renowned prince, then *stood* as fair,
As any comer I have look'd on,
For my affection. *Shakspeare.*

To remain satisfied.—Though Page be a secure fool, and
stand so firmly on his wife's frailty, yet I cannot put off my
opinion so easily. *Shakspeare.*—To be without motion.
—I'll tell you who time ambles withal, who time gallops
withal.—Whom *stands* it still withal ?—With lawyers in
the vacation ; for they sleep between term and term, and
then they perceive not how time moves. *Shakspeare.*—To
make delay.—They will suspect they shall make but small
progress, if, in the books they read, they must *stand* to ex-
amine and unravel every argument. *Locke.*—To insist ; to
dwell with many words, or much pertinacity.—To *stand*
upon every point, and be curious in particulars, belongeth to
the first author of the story. *2 Maccab.*—To be exposed.—
Have I lived to *stand* in the taunt of one that makes fritters
of English ? *Shakspeare.*—To persist ; to persevere.

Hath

Hath the prince a full commission,
To hear, and absolutely to determine
Of what conditions we shall stand upon. *Shakspeare.*

To persist in a claim ; to adhere ; to abide.
Despair would stand to the sword,
To try what friends would do, or fate afford. *Daniel.*

To be consistent.—His faithful people, whatsoever they rightly ask, the same shall they receive, so far as may stand with the glory of God, and their own everlasting good ; unto either of which it is no virtuous man's purpose to seek any thing prejudicial. *Hooker.*—To be put aside with disregard.—We make all our addresses to the promises, hug and caress them, and in the interim let the commands stand by neglected. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

To STAND by. To support ; to defend ; not to desert.—If he meet with a repulse, we must throw off the fox's skin, and put on the lion's : come, gentlemen, you'll stand by me. *Dryden.*

To STAND by. To be present without being an actor.
Margaret's curse is fall'n upon our heads,
For standing by when Richard kill'd her son. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND by. To repose on ; to rest in.—The world is inclined to stand by the Arundelian marble. *Pope.*

To STAND for. To propose one's self a candidate.—How many stand for consulships ?—Three : but 'tis thought of every one Coriolanus will carry it. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND for. To maintain ; to profess to support.—Those which stood for the presbytery thought their cause had more sympathy with the discipline of Scotland, than the hierarchy of England. *Bacon.*

To STAND off. To keep at a distance.—Stand off, and let me take my fill of death. *Dryden.*

To STAND off. Not to comply.

Stand no more off,
But give thyself unto my sick desires. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND off. To forbear friendship or intimacy.

Our bloods pour'd altogether
Would quite confound distinction ; yet stand off
In differences so mighty. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND off. To have relief ; to appear protuberant or prominent.—Picture is best when it standeth off, as if it were carved ; and sculpture is best when it appeareth so tender as if it were painted ; when there is such a softness in the limbs, as if not a chisel had hewed them out of stoue, but a pencil had drawn and stroaked them in oil. *Wotton.*

To STAND out. To hold resolution ; to oppose.

King John hath reconcil'd
Himself to Rome ; his spirit is come in,
That so stood out against the holy church. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND out. Not to comply ; to secede.
Thou shalt see me at Tullus' face :
What, art thou stiff ? stand'st out ? *Shakspeare.*

To STAND out. To be prominent or protuberant.—Their eyes stand out with fatness. *Ps.*

To STAND to. To ply ; to persevere.

Palinurus, cry'd aloud,
What gusts of weather from that gath'ring cloud
My thoughts presage ; ere that the tempest roars,
Stand to your tackles, mates, and stretch your oars. *Dryden.*

To STAND to. To remain fixed in a purpose.

He that will pass his land,
As I have mine, may set his hand
And heart unto this deed, when he hath read ;
And make the purchase spread
To both our goods if he to it will stand. *Herbert.*

To STAND to. To abide by a contract or assertion.—As I have no reason to stand to the award of my enemies ; so neither dare I trust the partiality of my friends. *Dryden.*

To STAND under. To undergo ; to sustain.
If you unite in your complaints,
And force them with a constancy, the Cardinal
Cannot stand under them. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND up. To erect one's self ; to rise from sitting.
To STAND up. To arise in order to gain notice.—When the accusers stood up, they brought none accusation of such things as I supposed. *Acts.*

To STAND up. To make a party.—When we stood up about the corn, he himself stuck not to call us the many-headed monster. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND upon. To concern ; to interest. An impersonal sense.—Does it not stand me now upon ? *Shakspeare.*

To STAND upon. To value ; to take pride.—Men stand very much upon the reputation of their understandings, and of all things hate to be accounted fools ; the best way to avoid this imputation is to be religious. *Tillotson.*

To STAND upon. To insist.—A rascally, yea — forsooth, knave, to bear a gentleman in hand, and then stand upon security. *Shakspeare.*

To STAND, v. a. To endure ; to resist without flying or yielding.

None durst stand him ;
Here, there, and every where, enrag'd he flew. *Shakspeare.*
Love stood the siege, and wou'd not yield his breast. *Dryden.*

Oh ! had bounteous Heaven
Bestow'd Hippolitus on Phædra's arms,
So had I stood the shock of angry fate. *Smith.*

That not for fame, but virtue's better end,
He stood the furious foe, the timid friend,
The damning critic. *Pope.*

To await ; to abide ; to suffer.
Bid him disband the legions,
Submit his actions to the public censure,
And stand the judgment of a Roman senate. *Addison.*

To keep ; to maintain, with ground.
Turning at the length, he stood his ground,
And miss'd his friend. *Dryden.*

STAND, s. A station ; a place where one waits standing.
I have found you out a stand most fit,
Where you may have such 'vantage on the duke,
He shall not pass you. *Shakspeare.*

Rank ; post ; station. *Not used.*
Father, since your fortune did attain
So high a stand ; I mean not to descend. *Daniel.*

A stop ; a halt.
A race of youthful and unhandled colts
Fetching mad bounds, bellowing and neighing ;
If any air of music touch their ears,
You shall perceive them make a mutual stand ;
Their savage eyes turn'd to a modest gaze. *Shakspeare.*

Stop ; interruption.—Should this circulation cease, the formation of bodies would be at an end, and nature at a perfect stand. *Woodward.*—The act of opposing.

We are come off
Like Romans ; neither foolish in our stands,
Nor cowardly in retire. *Shakspeare.*

Highest mark ; stationary point ; point from which the next motion is regressive.—In the beginning of summer the days are at a stand, with little variation of length or shortness ; because the diurnal variation of the sun partakes more of a right line than of a spiral. *Dryden.*—A point beyond which one cannot proceed.

Every part of what we would,
Must make a stand at what your highness will. *Shakspeare.*

Difficulty ; perplexity ; embarrassment ; hesitation.—A fool may so far imitate the mien of a wise man as at first to put

put a body to a *stand* what to make of him. *L'Estrange*.
—A frame or table on which vessels are placed.

Such squires are only fit for country towns,
To stink of ale, and dust a *stand* with cloens;
Who to be chosen for the land's protectors,
Tope and get drunk before the wise electors. *Dryden*.

STANDAARBUIDEN, or ZANDERBIETEN, a village and lordship of North Brabant, in the marquise of Bergen-op-Zoom.

STANDARD, *s.* [стандард, Sax., from станбан; *standart*, old Fr.; *estandard*, mod.] An ensign in war, particularly the ensign of the horse.

To their common *standard* they repair;
The nimble horsemen scour the fields of air. *Dryden*.

That which is of undoubted authority; that which is the test of other things of the same kind.

First follow nature, and your judgment frame,
By her just *standard*, which is still the same. *Pope*.

That which has been tried by the proper test.—The English tongue, if refined to a certain *standard*, perhaps might be fixed for ever. *Swift*.—A settled rate.—That precise weight and fineness, by law appropriated to the pieces of each denomination, is called the *standard*. *Locke*.—The device of king Henry VII. was profound in making farms of a *standard*, that is, maintained with such a proportion of lands as may breed a subject to live in plenty. *Bacon*.—A standing stem or tree.—A *standard* of a damask rose with the root on, was set upright in an earthen pan, full of fair water, half a foot under the water, the *standard* being more than two foot above it. *Bacon*.

STANDARD, *adj.* Established; lasting in fame; chiefly applied to books as a *standard* work.

STANDARD-BEARER, *s.* One who bears a standard or ensign.—These are the *standard-bearers* in our contending armies, the dwarfs and squires who carry the impresses of the giants or knights. *Spectator*.

STANDARD-HILL, the *Durolerum* of the Romans, a hill of England, in Kent, south of Newington, by Sittingbourne, on which it is said Julius Cæsar encamped.—Also, a hill in Sussex, near Battel, now called Beacon-hill, where William the Conqueror raised his standard, the day before his battle with the English.

STAND-CROP, *s.* [*vermicularis*, Lat.] An herb.

STANDEL, *s.* A tree of long standing.—The Drunians were nettled to see the princely *standel* of their royal oak return with a branch of willows. *Howell*.

STANDER, *s.* One who stands; a tree that has stood long.—The young spring was pitifully nipt and over-trodden by very beasts; and also the fairest *standers* of all were rooted up and cast into the fire. *Ascham*.

STANDER *by*. One present; a mere spectator.

I would not be a *stander by* to hear
My sovereign mistress clouded so, without
My present vengeance taken. *Shakspeare*.

STANDER *up*. One who makes himself of a party.—The plausible, affected titles of public spirits, *standers up* for their country, and for the liberties, properties, and the rights of the subject. *South*.

STANDERGRASS, *s.* [*satyrion*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsworth*.

STANDERWICK, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3½ miles east-north-east of Frome.

STANDFORD BISHOPS, a township of England, in Herefordshire; 3½ miles south-east of Bromyard.

STANDFORD REGIS, a hamlet in the above township; 3 miles south-south-east of Bromyard.

STANDFORD, a hamlet of England, in Kent; 3½ miles north-west of Hythe.

STANDFORD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3 miles from Deddington.

STANDFORD DINGLEY, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 8½ miles east-north-east of Speenhamland.

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STANDGROUND, a village of England, in Huntingdonshire; 1 mile south-east of Peterborough. Population 442.

STANDIA, or DIA, a small island of the Grecian archipelago, a little to the north of Candia, opposite to the town of Candia. It is rocky and almost uninhabited, but has a harbour, where large ships, bound to Candia, generally discharge part of their cargoes; 10 miles north of Candia. Lat. 25. 36. N. long. 25. 9. E.

STANDIA, a small town of European Turkey, in Macedonia, on a small bay of the gulf of Salenichi; 15 miles north of Larissa.

STANDIA, a village on the western coast of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey. Lat. 36. 54. N. long. 27. 18. E.

STANDING, *part. adj.* Settled; established; not temporary.

Great *standing* miracle, that Heaven assign'd!
'Tis only thinking gives this turn of mind. *Pope*.

Lasting; not transitory.—The landlord had swelled his body to a prodigious size, and worked up his complexion to a *standing* crimson. *Addison*.—Stagnant; not running.—From *standing* lake to tripping ebb. *Milton*.—Fixed; not movable.

There's his chamber,
His *standing* bed and truckle bed. *Shakspeare*.

Continuing erect; not fallen; not cut down.—He let them go into the *standing* corn of the Philistines. *Judges*.

STANDING, *s.* Continuance; long possession of an office, character, or place.—Nothing had been more easy than to command a patron of a long *standing*. *Dryden*.—Station; place to stand in.—His coming in state, I will provide you a good *standing* to see his entry. *Bacon*.—Power to stand.—I sink in deep mire, where there is no *standing*. *Ps.*—Rank; condition.

STANDISH, *s.* A case for pen and ink.—I have newly made at least an essay of my invention in the structure of a little poor *standish*. *Wotton*.—A Grub-street patriot does not write to secure, but get something: should the government be overturned, he has nothing to lose but an old *standish*. *Addison*.

STANDISH, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire, where there is a medicinal spring, in great repute for the cure of many diseases; 4½ miles north-west of Stroud. Population 474.

STANDISH, a parish of England, in Lancashire; 3 miles north-west of Wigan. Population 6258.

STANDISH, a post township of the United States, in Cumberland county, Maine, on the Saco; 120 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 1378.

STANDLAKE, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 5 miles south-south-east of Witney. Population 577.

STANDLINCH, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4½ miles south-east of Salisbury.

STANDON, STANTON, or STANELOW, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Hertford. It is a place of some antiquity, and is mentioned by Ingulphus as having been granted to Croyland abbey in the early part of the 9th century, and as the place where abbot Brithmere, about the year 1030, built a spacious house for the accommodation of himself and his retinue, during his journeys to London. In the parish, also, was a preceptory of knights hospitallers, the remains of which are now connected with a farm-house, called Friars. Standon church contains many monuments and sepulchral memorials. In the eastern part of the chancel are the tombs of Sir Ralph Sadler and his family. Market on Friday, and one annual fair; 1 mile south-east of Pockridge, and 26 north-north-east of London.

STANDON, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 3½ miles north-north-west of Eccleshall.

STANE, *s.* [стан, Sax.] Our northern word for *stone*.

STANEMORE, a dreary district of England, in Westmoreland, between Brough and Kirkby-Steven, and partly in the parish of Bows, Yorkshire. Here is a fragment of Rerecross, placed as a boundary between England and Scotland, when Cumberland belonged to the latter kingdom.

STANFIELD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles north-west of East Dereham.

STANFOLD, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham, situated on the south-east side of the river Becancour, that bounds its front.

STANFORD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles south-west of Watton.

STANFORD, a village and parish of England, in the county of Worcester. The church here is an elegant Gothic building of stone, recently erected. About one mile distant are the remains of an old hermitage, called Stonehouse, some of the rooms of which are hewn out of the solid rock; 11 miles from Worcester. Population 122.

STANFORD-ON-AVON, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 11½ miles north-by-east of Daventry.

STANFORD-ON-SOAR, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire, situated on the river Soar, opposite to Loughborough, and 13 miles south-by-west of Nottingham.

STANFORD-IN-THE-VALE, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 4 miles east-south-east of Great Farringdon. Population 677.

STANFORD-LE-HOPE, a parish of England, in Essex, between Orset and the Thames, below Gravesend Reach. Here was formerly a ford, over the rivulet called by seamen, the Hope, which is now passed by a bridge.

STANFORD RIVERS, a parish of England, in Essex; 2 miles south-west of Chipping Ongar. Population 704.

STANFORD, a post township of the United States, and capital of Lincoln county, Kentucky, situated on a fertile and handsome plain. It contains a court-house, jail, a ropewalk, and about 100 houses; 40 miles south-south-west of Lexington, and 10 south-south-east of Danville.

STANFORD, a post township of the United States, in Dutchess county, New York; 18 miles north-east of Poughkeepsie. Population 2235.

STANG, *s.* [ʃtæŋz, Sax.; *ystang*, Welsh.] A perch; a measure of land.—These fields were intermingled with woods of half a *stang*, and the tallest tree appeared to be seven feet high. *Swift*.—A long bar; a wooden pole; the shaft of a cart: used in several parts of the north of England.

To ride the STANG. The preceding sense, and the present expression connected with it, Dr. Johnson has overpassed. It is still remembered in parts of the north of England; and may be traced to a very ancient origin. See Mr. Callender's account of the Goth. *nid stang*, the spear or pole of infamy, in his *Two Anc. Scott. Poems*, 1782, p. 153. *To ride the stang*, is to be mounted on a strong pole, borne on men's shoulders, and carried about from place to place; the rider representing usually a henpecked husband, and sometimes the husband who had beaten his wife. *To ride skimmington*, is, in some parts of England, of much the same import. See SKIMMINGTON, and Dr. Jamieson's *Scott. Dict.* in V. STANG.—A custom [is] still prevalent among the country people of Scotland; who oblige any man, who is so unmanly as to beat his wife, to ride astride on a long pole, borne by two men, through the village, as a mark of the highest infamy. This they call *riding the stang*; and the person, who has been thus treated, seldom recovers his honour in the opinion of his neighbours. When they cannot lay hold of the culprit himself, they put some young fellow on the *stang* or pole, who proclaims that it is not on his own account that he is thus treated, but on that of another person, whom he names. *Callender, Two Anc. Scott. Poems*.—The *riding of the stang* on a woman that hath beat her husband, is, as I have described, by one's riding upon a long piece of wood, carried by two others on their shoulders, where, like a herald, he proclaims the woman's name, &c. *Notes to Allan Ramsay's Poems, cited by Brand*.—There used formerly, and I believe it is still now and then retained, to be a kind of ignominious procession in the north of England, called *riding the stang*, when, as the glossary to Douglas's *Virgil* informs us, one is made to ride on a pole for his neighbour's wife's fault. *Brand, Pop. Antig.*

To STANG, v. n. [*stanga*, Icel.] To shooth with pain. *North. Grose*.

STANG-ALPE, a lofty mountain of the Austrian states, in Styria, to the south-west of Murau, between the circle of Judenburg and Carinthia. Elevation above the sea, 7550 feet.

STANGEBRO, a small town in the south of Sweden, in the province of Smaland, near Oalmar.

STANGERODE, a village of Germany, in Upper Hesse, near Grunberg, where the allies were defeated by the French in 1761.

STANGHOW, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-by-north of Guisebrough.

STANHOE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles south-west of Burnham Westgate. Population 374.

STANHOPE (Philip Dormer), Earl of Chesterfield, a nobleman celebrated as a great wit, statesman, and a man of letters, was the eldest son of Philip, third earl of Chesterfield, by lady Elizabeth Saville, daughter of George, marquis of Halifax. He was born in London, in September, 1694.

He had the misfortune to lose his mother while he was very young, and being neglected by his father, he was educated under the care of his grandmother, lady Halifax, who proved herself quite adequate to the task. His elementary instructions were received at home from able masters, who had the advantage of finding in their pupil admirable qualities, and an ardent desire of excelling in whatever he undertook. In his 18th year he was entered of Trinity-hall, Cambridge, where he applied himself with great assiduity to the studies pursued in that seat of learning. He was particularly attentive to eloquence, which he was aware was a principal requisite in a free senate; and with a view of becoming a good and forcible speaker, he marked down all the finest speeches of the ancients that came in his way, in the course of his reading, and formed his own style and manner by translating them; a practice which cannot be too warmly recommended to young men likely to come into public life. On quitting the university, this young nobleman made the usual tour of Europe; and it was at the Hague that he first began the cultivation of that enlarged acquaintance with mankind, which has been denominated seeing and knowing the world; but with this knowledge he acquired certain pernicious propensities, which adhered to him through life: among others was that of gaming. A visit of some length to Paris further contributed to fashion his manners, and to render him at length that model of true politeness, which he exhibited in after-life to his admiring countrymen. This was about the time of the demise of queen Anne, and he did himself high honour by the assertion of those principles of freedom which effected the succession of the house of Hanover, and which, during the whole of his political life, he steadily maintained. On his return to England in 1715, he was presented to the new sovereign, and appointed one of the gentlemen of the bed-chamber to the prince of Wales. He was elected member of parliament for one of the Cornish boroughs, in the first parliament of George I., and commenced a speaker in the debate respecting the impeachment of the persons concerned in the peace of Utrecht. Upon this occasion he manifested a juvenile violence, which produced an intimation from the opposite side, that advantage would be taken of his being under the lawful age for sitting in parliament. Upon this hint he immediately quitted the house, and set off for Paris. On his return, he was sometimes the defender and sometimes the opponent of ministerial measures; but his talents, at this time, do not appear to have made much impression on the house or the country. In reward, however, for his support of a motion for the augmentation of the army, he was, in 1723, made captain of the yeomen of the guards; and it was a proof of his disinterestedness, that when advised by his predecessor, lord Townsend, to make the post more profitable than he had done, by the sale of subordinate places, he replied, "I rather wish, in this instance, to follow your lordship's example than your advice." He was dismissed from this office in 1725; and in the following year, on the death of his father, with whom he had never been on terms of cordiality, he entered the House of Lords; and

joined the opposition. To this assembly his talents were better adapted than to the House of Commons. His eloquence, the fruit of much study, was less characterized by force and compass than by elegance and perspicuity, and especially by good taste, and a vein of delicate irony, which, while it sometimes inflicted severe strokes, never passed the limits of decency and propriety. "It was that of a man, who, in the union of wit and good sense with politeness, had not a competitor." These qualities were matured by the advantage of a familiar acquaintance with almost all the eminent wits and writers of his time; many of whom had been the ornaments of the preceding age of literature, while others were destined to become those of a later period. He knew how to appreciate genius and talents, and was the friend of Pope, and received him in almost all his select parties at Twickenham, where he met the first nobility in association with the most distinguished votaries of the muses.

Soon after the accession of George II. lord Chesterfield was nominated ambassador at the Hague. Scarcely was any man ever better adapted than his lordship to fill a diplomatic situation, as well on account of his natural acuteness, and of his conciliating manners, as his familiarity with the modes and usages of general society. He was, however, at this time but little acquainted with public business; but possessing the laudable ambition of rendering himself fully master of whatever he undertook, he spared no pains to acquire the knowledge for the post in which he was placed, and which at that time was a very important one; the Hague being, in fact, the centre of the principal political negotiations carrying on throughout Europe. In the year 1730 he was appointed high steward of the household, and he was, at the same time, decorated with the order of the garter. He now returned to Holland, and was instrumental in forming an important treaty between the courts of London and Vienna, and the States-general. In 1732 he obtained his recall; and on his return, he supported the plans of the prime minister, though there does not appear to have been any cordiality between them; and when Sir Robert Walpole introduced his famous excise measure, the earl spoke against him with all his force, and thereby gave so much offence that he was deprived of his offices, and he again joined the party in opposition. He married, in 1733, the countess of Walsingham, niece or probably daughter to the duchess of Kendal, who had been mistress to George I. She was a lady of great merit and accomplishments, and by her prudence contributed very much to retrieve the deranged affairs of her lord. The noble earl did not neglect to pay his court to the prince of Wales, who attached himself to the opposers of his father's government. Of his oratorical exertions, none was more generally admired than his speech against the bill for granting to the lord chamberlain the power of licensing dramatic performances. In 1741, his health being much impaired, he was advised to make the tour of the continent. In his way to the Spa, he saw, at Brussels, Voltaire, with whom he had contracted a friendship in England. At Spa his reputation, and the urbanity of his manners, drew upon him much flattering notice from persons of distinction; and a short stay at Paris introduced him to the most distinguished of both sexes for rank and talents in that capital, where he was equally gratified and admired.

His stay in the south of France was shortened by the state of political affairs at home. The attempts of France to ruin the house of Austria were threatening destruction to what was denominated the balance of power in Europe; and the miscarriages of the English ministers in their political measures spread discontent through the nation. This at length produced the fall of that statesman (Walpole), who had so long ruled the public councils; and a new administration was formed, in which lord Chesterfield had no place. This omission was probably owing, in great part, to the personal dislike of the king, who could not forget the severe things he had said with respect to the royal partiality to the interests of Hanover, and the sacrifices made of the interests of Great Britain to those of the electorate. He

took an active and most decided part in opposition to the measures of the ministry, and was said to be particularly happy in his speech against the gin-licence bill, and against that for continuing attainders upon the posterity of persons convicted of high treason. This last bill was introduced in consequence of the prospect of a new rebellion, promoted by France, and which soon after took place. This event produced a change in the ministry, and lord Chesterfield was sent out as ambassador to the United Provinces; a station which he had before occupied with much reputation. He effected the purpose for which he was sent, viz., that of engaging the Dutch to concur in earnest in the war against France; and returned in 1745, at the time of the breaking out of the rebellion in Scotland. He was immediately nominated to the high station of lord lieutenant of Ireland; an office of great importance at this period, when there was cause of apprehension from the prevalence of the Roman Catholic religion in that island. He set off for his government in the end of August, and by vigour on the one hand, and conciliation on the other, by strict integrity, and a frank undisguised system of policy, he kept every thing quiet in that kingdom, while the sister island was over-run with terror and commotion. Instead of abridging the catholics of their religious liberty, he favoured and augmented it; wisely judging, that the more openly they shewed themselves in attendance at their own places of worship, the less their secret machinations were to be regarded. He, however, kept a vigilant eye upon all their proceedings, but discouraged idle suspicions and malicious informations. A zealous Protestant once came, very officiously, as the noble lord thought, to inform him that one of his coachmen went privately to mass. "Does he?" said the lord lieutenant: "I will take care that he never drives me thither." He returned to England in April, 1746, when the rebellion was terminated by the victory gained at the battle of Culloden.

He now accepted the office of secretary of state, with the duke of Newcastle as his colleague. Never approving, in his own mind, of the war in which the nation was engaged, and constantly wishing for peace upon reasonable terms, he was nevertheless carried away, by a superior influence in the cabinet, to concur in the measures of the court, till their ill success induced him to draw up a strong memorial, which being disregarded, he resigned his place in February, 1748, and never afterwards joined in any administration. From this period till his death he lived as a private nobleman, attached to the arts and to letters, and was looked up to throughout Europe as inferior to none of his high rank for brilliancy of wit, and the polish of cultivated society. Being seized with a deafness in 1752, that incapacitated him, in a measure, for the pleasures of society, he led a retired life, amusing himself with his books and his pen. He engaged rather largely as a volunteer in a periodical work, entitled "The World," in which his contributions have a distinguished degree of excellence. His lordship maintained a character for wit and talents that had few equals. He rendered himself illustrious, as we have seen, by his eloquence in parliament, on many important occasions, of which there is a characteristic instance of his own relating. He was an active promoter of the bill for altering the style; on which occasion, as he himself relates in one of his letters to his son, he made so eloquent a speech in the house, that every one was pleased, and said he had made the whole very clear to them; "which," says he, "God knows, I never attempted. I could just as soon have talked Celtic or Slavonian to them as astronomy, and they would have understood me just as well." The high character which lord Chesterfield had supported through life received no small injury, soon after his death, from a full display of it by his own hand. He left no issue by his lady, but had a natural son, named Philip Stanhope, whose education was, for many years, a close object of his attention; and who was afterwards envoy extraordinary at the court of Dresden, but who died before his father. After the death of the earl of Chesterfield, Mr. Stanhope's widow published a course of letters, written by the

the father to the son, filled with instructions suitable to the different gradations of the young man's life to whom they were particularly addressed. These letters have been highly applauded, and as loudly condemned. They contain many admirable observations on mankind, and rules of conduct; but the author lays a greater stress on exterior accomplishments and address than on intellectual qualifications and sincerity, and allows a much greater latitude to fashionable pleasure than sound morality will admit. Indeed no apology can be made for a father's attempts to fashion his son to politeness, by recommending connections with married women, which, however lightly regarded in the licentious courts and capitals at which he himself had been a visitor and resident, must ever be considered as a most serious violation of private friendship, and of the most sacred bond of social life. These obnoxious parts would, in all probability, have been suppressed, had the author revised and published his own letters. On the other hand, there are, in the course of the volumes and the other works of lord Chesterfield, many examples of his useful and efficacious endeavours to serve the cause of morality. Whether the son followed the father's advice in respect to adultery we know not: but as to politeness of manners, it is well known that the reiterated admonitions produced quite the opposite effect. His lordship died in March, 1773, in the 79th year of his age. He had for some time been extremely infirm, and having outlived most of his friends and contemporaries, he was in fact reduced to a state in which he rather patiently endured life than enjoyed it. "It is unnecessary," says his biographer, "to add any thing to the view already given of his moral character: if it was very far from faultless, it certainly exhibited many excellencies, which enabled him to perform important services to his friends and country. In his literary capacity, he possessed wit, good sense, and a fine taste, in an uncommon degree. His style is of the purest English." Of his works, which, besides those already referred to, contain papers in some of the political journals of the day, speeches, state papers, and letters, French and English, a Collection, in 2 vols. 4to., with memoirs of his life, by Dr. Maty, was published in the year 1777.

STANHOPE, a parish, and formerly a market town of England, on the banks of the Weare, Durham. It has a spacious park, in which the Scotch army encamped, when they were opposed by Edward III.; 21½ miles west-by-north of Durham, and 264½ north-north-west of London. Population 6376.

STANHOPE, a post township of the United States, in Morris county, New Jersey.

STANHOPE POINT, a point of land on the west coast of the Duke of York's Island, in Clarence's Strait, off the west coast of North America. Lat. 56. 2. N. long. 237. 38. E.

STANFORTH POINT, a cape on the coast of New Hanover, situated at the entrance of Gardner's Canal. Lat. 53. 34. N. long. 231. 17. E.

STANIHURST (Richard), a divine and historian, was born at Dublin about the year 1545, of which city his father was recorder. He was educated at the University college, Oxford, after which he came to London, and studied the law in Furnival's Inn, and then at Lincoln's Inn. Returning to Ireland, he practised some time at the bar; but having abandoned the Protestant for the Roman Catholic religion he thought it necessary to remove to the continent, for the purpose of obtaining a freer exercise of the duties which he owed to his Maker. After this he entered into orders, and became chaplain at Brussels to Albert, archduke of Austria. He died in 1618, having obtained a very high reputation for learning. His writings are enumerated as follow: "Harmonia, seu Catena dialectica in Porphyrium;" "Descriptio Hibernicæ," inserted in Holingshed's Chronicle; "De Rebus in Hibernia gestis. Lib. IV." In this work we are told he took Giraldus Cambrensis for his guide, and he is said to have adopted freely the erroneous statements of that writer, though in some places he has corrected him from other writers. He published likewise "A

Life of St. Patrick," and several Catholic works. Mr. Stanihurst tried his powers as a poet, by a version of the four first books of Virgil's *Æneid* in English hexameters. It is remarkable only for the uncouthness of its diction.

STANIMAK, a small river of European Turkey, in Romania, which falls into the Maritza, or ancient *Hebrus*.

STANINGFIELD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles south-by-east of Bury St. Edmund's.

STANINGHALL, a village of England, in Lancashire, between Skipton and the ocean.

STANINGHALL, a village of England, in Norfolk, between Wursted and Norwich.

STANION, or **STANIERN**, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 4½ miles south-east of Rockingham.

STANISLAUS I. (Leizinski), king of Poland, born at Leopold in 1677, was son of a distinguished Polish noble, who, after occupying several important posts, was raised to that of grand treasurer of the crown. His son, the subject of this article, displayed, at a very early period, talents and dispositions which announced a character equally amiable and estimable. "His countenance," says his biographer, "expressed courage joined with sweetness, together with that air of openness and sincerity which is more persuasive than eloquence itself. He was brave, and enured to hardship and fatigue. He slept on a straw mattress, required scarcely any personal services from his domestics, was temperate, economical, adored by his vassals, and beloved by his friends." When Charles XII. of Sweden entered Poland, for the purpose of dethroning Augustus, Stanislaus, then palatine of Pomerania, was deputed to that prince from the confederation of Warsaw. In the conference with the monarch, he appeared to him in so favourable a light, that the Swede immediately took the resolution of raising him to the crown of Poland which was effected at an election held July 12, 1704, when Stanislaus was in his twenty-seventh year. The unexpected entrance of Augustus into Warsaw, when the king of Sweden was at a distance with his army, obliged Stanislaus to make a precipitate retreat: but by another change he was brought back, and crowned at Warsaw with his wife, in October 1705, and by a treaty in the following year, Augustus was compelled solemnly to abdicate the crown of Poland in favour of his rival. Stanislaus remained possessor of the kingdom till the fatal defeat of his patron Charles, at Pultowa, in July 1709. Being now unable to maintain himself in Poland, he withdrew with the Swedes into Pomerania, and thence crossed into Sweden, where he passed some time in retirement, while negotiations were carrying on to restore the peace of the north. As his abdication of the Polish crown seemed a necessary preliminary, he readily signified his own concurrence, and wrote to Charles at Bender to obtain his consent. Not being able, by letter, to persuade him, he resolved to try the effect of a personal conference; and accordingly assumed a feigned name, and, accompanied by two officers, proceeded for the frontiers of Turkey. On his arrival in Moldavia he was arrested, and brought before the Hospodar, who discovered his true person, and sent him to Bender, where he was detained as a prisoner, but was extremely well treated. He was suffered to depart in 1714, when he went to Deux Ponts, where he was joined by his family. A Saxon officer made an attempt to assassinate him but the design was discovered before it could be put into execution, and he pardoned and dismissed the conspirators. In 1719 he received intelligence of the death of Charles XII., and feeling himself now deprived of his protector, he applied to the court of France, which gave him a retreat in Alsace. Here he lived in a state of great obscurity, until his daughter the princess Mary, was unexpectedly chosen as queen to Lewis XV. This was in the year 1725, when Stanislaus removed to the castle of Chambord. On the death of Augustus in 1733, an attempt was made by the French monarch to replace Stanislaus on the Polish throne, and he repaired to Dantzic, in order to support the party which actually proclaimed him; but his competitor, the son of Augustus, and elector of Saxony, favoured by Austria and Russia, was more successful, and Stanislaus was obliged to quit

quit Dantzic in disguise, and through many dangers escaped to Konigsberg. He supported this reverse of fortune with philosophical resignation, and at the peace of 1736 he formally abdicated all claim and pretensions to the kingdom on condition of retaining the title, and being put in possession for life of the duchies of Lorraine and Bar. Thenceforth he lived as the sovereign of a small country, which he rendered happy by the exercise of virtues, that caused him to be named by the general voice of his subjects, "Stanislaus the Beneficent." Instead of imposing new and oppressive taxes, he relieved his people from the pressure of many which they had heretofore borne; yet he was able, by a prudent economy, to found many useful and charitable establishments, and to patronize the arts and sciences. He was himself attached to literature, and wrote various treatises on moral, philosophical, and political topics, which were published under the title of "*Œuvres du Philosophe Bienfaisant*," 4 vols. 8vo. These volumes were published in 1765, and the royal author of them died in the following year, universally lamented.

STANISLAUS-AUGUSTUS (Poniatowski). See **POLAND**.

STANISLAWCZY, a small town of Austrian Poland, in the circle of Zloczow, on the river Styr.

STANISLAWOW, a circle of Austrian Galicia, situated in the south-east of the province, adjacent to Hungary and the circles of Stryi and Tarnopol. It has a territorial extent of 1955 square miles, with 179,000 inhabitants. It consists for the most part of extensive and fertile plains, except on the frontiers of Hungary, where part of it is occupied by some lofty mountains of the Carpathian chain. It is watered by a number of rivers, the chief of which are the Dniester, the Pruth, and the Bistricza.

STANISLAWOW, a town of Austrian Poland, and the capital of the preceding circle. It is surrounded by a wall, and is well fortified; has a Catholic and an Arminian church, a gymnasium, a central school, and 6200 inhabitants. It has also a government depot of tobacco and snuff, and a considerable trade; 80 miles south-by-east of Lemberg, and 172 north-west of Jassy. Lat. 48. 56. N. long. 24. 43. E.

STANITZ, **STEINITZ**, or **ZDANICE**, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 21 miles east-south-east of Brunn. Population 1500.

STANK, *adj.* [*stanco*, Ital. *Dr. Johnson*.—Probably, as *Serenius* also notices, from the Icel. and Su. Goth. *stanka*, to pant for breath; and *to stank* is, in some parts of the north of England, to sigh.] Weak; worn out.

Diggon, I am so stiff and so *stank*,
That uneth I may stand any more,
And how the western wind bloweth sore,
Beating the withered leaf from the tree.

Spenser.

STANK, *s.* [*ƿanc*, Sax.; *ystanc*, Welsh.] A dam, or bank, to stop water. *Bailey*.—It has this meaning in the south and east of England. *Ray*.—In old English, it meant a pond or dam of water. *Mr. G. Chalmers*.—Thei lighted and ahiden beside a water *stank*. *R. of Brunne*.

STANK. The preterite of *stink*.—The fish in the river died, and the river *stank*. *Exod.*

STANKAU, a small town of the west of Bohemia, on the Radbusa; 9 miles north-north-east of Pilsen. Population 1000.

STANKY, an old town of Russian Poland, in the government of Kiev, on an eminence near the Dnieper.

STANLEY (Thomas), born at Cumberlow Green, in Hertfordshire, was the son of Sir Thomas Stanley, knight. He received his early education at home, under Edward Fairfax, the translator of Tasso's Jerusalem, and was admitted a gentleman-commoner of Pembroke-hall, Cambridge, in 1639. Having taken his degree of M. A., at that university, he went abroad, but returning during the civil war, he took up his residence in the Middle Temple. He there pursued his studies with much eagerness, and in 1651 published a volume of original poems, and a number of

translations in verse, from the ancient and modern languages. Turning his attention to graver topics, in 1655 he published the first volume of the work by which he is chiefly known, "The History of Philosophy; containing the Lives, Opinions, Actions, and Discourses of the Philosophers of every Sect." This was followed by three other volumes; they were afterwards republished in one volume folio; and in 1743, a quarto edition was given to the public. After the favourable reception which this work met with, the author published an edition of *Æschylus*, which was published in London in 1663, the text of which was copied into De Pauw's edition of 1745. He died in London, April 12, 1678, leaving behind him farther monuments of his industry and erudition, in manuscript, consisting of "Commentaries on *Æschylus*," in 8 vols. fol.: "Adversaria; or Remarks on Passages in various ancient Authors;" "Predictions on the Characters of Theophrastus;" and a Latin treatise on the first-fruits and tenths of the spoils mentioned in the Epistle to the Hebrews. He had been married to a Northamptonshire lady, co-heiress to a good estate, and he left a son, who published, at an early age, a translation of *Ælian's* "Various Histories."

STANLEY, a village of Scotland, in Perthshire, where there is an extensive spinning mill. Population upwards of 500.

STANLEY, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Wakefield. In the neighbourhood, there is a salubrious cold spring, esteemed efficacious in many scorbutic complaints; over which a bathing-room has been erected, with a dwelling-house for the use of its visitors. Population 3769.

STANLEY, a hamlet of England, in Wiltshire; 2 miles east-by-south of Chippenham.

STANLEY, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 6 miles north-east of Derby.

STANLEY, a township of England; in Staffordshire; 5 miles south-west of Leek.

STANLEY, PONTLARGE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles north-west of Winchcombe.

STANLEY, LEONARD'S and KING'S. See **LEONARD'S and KING'S STANLEY**.

STANLEY-TOWN, a small town of Pennsylvania, situated in the Alleghany mountains, on the road to Pittsburg. It consists of about 50 houses.

STANMER, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5 miles west of Lewes.

STANMORE, GREAT, a village and parish of England, in the county of Middlesex. It comprises 1400 acres of land, the greater part of which is occupied as meadow and pasture, but about 50 acres still remain in common. The village is of considerable extent, and consists chiefly of houses erected on the sides of the great road from London to St. Alban's. Within the parish are some handsome mansions and villas, the chief of which is Stanmore house, the elegant seat of the Countess of Aylesford. The house is seated in an extensive park, distinguished for its fine woods and varied surface. The present church of Stanmore was completed in 1632, at the sole expence of Sir John Wolstenholme: it is built of brick, and among other monuments in it, is one by Nicolas Stone, commemorating the builder of the church. From the number of Roman antiquities found within this parish, it is conjectured by Camden, Stukely and Reynolds, that the station called **SULLONIACÆ**, was at Brockley-hill. During the Anglo-Roman dynasty, this part of Middlesex, and a great part of Hertfordshire, were covered with woods. Fitzstevens, who wrote about 1170, says, that "an immense forest extends itself to the north of London, and is full of lairs and coverts of beasts and game." Population 840; 10 miles north-west of London.

STANMORE, LITTLE, a parish of England, adjoining to the above. Here is Canons, the ancient and celebrated seat of the Brydges family. This estate was rendered noted by the duke of Chandos, paymaster of the forces to Queen Anne, who having acquired great wealth, resolved to build two magnificent houses, to surpass any of the ducal resi-

dences in England. One was begun in Cavendish-square, London, but never finished; the other at Canons, was erected by the first architects in the kingdom. Italian artists were employed to finish the inside work, and the whole was executed in a style of the utmost elegance and splendour; the expence was estimated at not less than 250,000*l*. This mansion was taken down, and the materials sold by auction, in 1747. A small but neat villa was afterwards built in its place. Population 547.

STANNARDSVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Orange county, Virginia; 95 miles north-west of Richmond.

STANNARY, *s.* [from *stannum*, Lat.; *stean*, tin, Cornish; *steuer*, a tinner, pl. *stennerion*. *Pryce, Corn. Gramm.*] A tin mine.—If by public law the mint were ordained to be only supplied by our *stannaries*, how currently would they pass for more precious than silver mines! *Bp. Hall*.

STANNARY, *adj.* Relating to the tin-works.—A steward keepeth his court once every three weeks: they are termed *stannary* courts of the Latin *stannum*, and hold plea of action of debt or trespass about white or black tin. *Carew*.

STANNERN, a small town of the Austrian States, in Moravia; 6 miles south-by-east of Iglau. Population 1100.

STANNEY, GREAT and LITTLE, two hamlets of England, in Cheshire; 5½ miles north of Chester.

STANNINGTON, a parish of England, in Northumberland; 5 miles south-by-east of Morpeth. The church contains some elegant paintings on glass, presented by Sir M. W. Ridley. Population 1270.

STANNYEL, *s.* The common *stone-hawk*. See *Mr. Steevens's Note on Shakspeare*.—Dr. Jamieson and Mr. Mason consider the name as the Sax. *þrangilla*, which means the pelican. This may be doubted. It is called also *stanchil* in the north.—With what wing the *stannyel* checks at it! *Shakspeare*.

STANOVOI, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, forming part of the military line of the Issim. It is a square, flanked with four bastions, and contains a church and magazines, with a suburb of 70 houses; 8 miles south-west of Issim.

STANOVOY, a chain of mountains in Asiatic Russia, forming part of the great northern chain which crosses the breadth of that continent. It receives this name after turning to the north, near the source of the Aldane, whence it runs parallel to the Eastern sea or gulf of Okhotsk, leaving only a narrow plain intervening. It is of considerable height, and opposes serious difficulty to travellers proceeding to this extremity of the Russian empire. It is supposed to continue uninterrupted, though with some diminution of magnitude, to Cape Tchoutchi, at the north-east extremity of Asia; and the Alcutian and Fox isles may probably be considered in some degree as a continuation of it. An important and lofty branch passes into Kamtschatka and the Kurile islands. This chain is supposed to consist of chiefly granite and porphyry, though there are whole mountains composed of green jasper.

STANSFIELD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4½ miles north-by-east of Clare. Population 380.

STANSTEAD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles north-east of Wrotham.

STANSTEAD, ABBOTTS, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire, situated in a vale, by the river Lea; 2½ miles north-east of Hoddesdon. In this parish stands the Rye-house, remarkable for the Rye-house plot in reign of Charles I. Population 832.

STANSTEAD, MONTFICHET, a parish of England, in Essex, which derives its name from an ancient castle built here on an artificial mount, about a quarter of a mile from the church, some relics of which were not long since visible. Population 870; 18 miles north-west of Chelmsford.

STANSTEAD, a township of Lower Canada, on the eastern side of Lake Memphramagog, in the county of Richelieu. Population 2500.

STANTHORNE, a small village of England, in Cheshire, near Middlewich.

STANTON, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire; 3½ miles south-south-east of Bakewell. Population 656.

STANTON, a parish of England, in Derbyshire, situated near the Erwash and Derby canal; 8½ miles east-by-north of Derby. Population 356.

STANTON, a township of England, in the parish of Stepenhall, Derbyshire. Here is a very ancient chapel, the inside of which is still entire, and the ceiling, which was painted, carved and gilded, is in tolerable preservation. In the tower there are three rooms accessible by winding stone stairs; one of these was occupied by Pope, when he passed two summers here in retirement, while employed in his translation of Homer, and where he was frequently visited by Gay. Population 946; 12½ miles south-west of Derby, and 2 south-east of Burton-upon-Trent.

STANTON, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire; 5 miles west-by-south of Bridport.

STANTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 4½ miles north-east of Winchcombe.

STANTON, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 6½ miles south-by-east of Derby.

STANTON, a township of England, in Northumberland; 5½ miles north-west of Morpeth.

STANTON, a township of England, in Staffordshire; 4 miles west of Ashborn.

STANTON, a parish of England, in Worcester, near Ridmerly, on the borders of Gloucestershire.

STANTON, or STANNON, a parish of England, in Gloucester; 3½ miles east-by-north of Monmouth.

STANTON, a hamlet of England, in Lancashire, south-east of Dalton.

STANTON, a small town of England, in Lincolnshire, with a market on Monday; 6 miles east-north-east of Lincoln, and 146 north of London.

STANTON, ALL SAINTS and ST. JOHN'S, two united parishes of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles north-east of Ixworth. Population 816.

STANTON-ON-ARROW, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 5½ miles east-north-east of Kington. Population 370.

STANTON-UNDER-BARDON, a township of England, in Leicestershire; 9 miles north-west of Leicester.

STANTON, ST. BERNARD'S, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 5½ miles east-by-north of Devizes.

STANTON BARRY, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 3 miles west-by-south of Newport Pagnell.

STANTON-DREW, a parish of England, in Somersetshire, situated on the river Chew, which runs into the Avon near Pensford. At a short distance from the church is a monument resembling Stonehenge, supposed to have been a Druidical temple. It consists of a circle of stones 5 or 6 feet high, the diameter of which is 90 paces. Population 682; 2 miles west-south-west of Pensford.

STANTON FEN, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 2 miles south-by-east of St. Ives. Population 742.

STANTON FITZWARREN, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 2 miles south-west of Highworth.

STANTON ST. QUINTIN, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4 miles north-by-west of Chippenham.

STANTON ST. GABRIEL, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire, situated on the coast; 5 miles west-by-south of Bridport.

STANTON HARCOURT, a village and parish of England, in the county of Oxford, situated on the banks of the Thames. In the fields adjacent there is a large barrow, near which are some stones called the Devil's Coits: these are 8 feet high, and 7 broad near the bottom, and are supposed to have been formed by cementing together small stones, of which there are vast numbers in these fields. Population 553; 4 miles from Witney, and 6 west of Oxford.

STANTON LACY, a parish of England, in Salop; 3½ miles north-north-west of Ludlow. Population 1026.

STANTON

STANTON LONG, another parish in the above county; 13½ miles north-north-east of Ludlow.

STANTON LONG, a parish of England, in Cambridge-shire; 6½ miles north-west of Cambridge.

STANTON PRIOR, a parish of England, in Somerset-shire; 5 miles west-south-west of Bath.

STANTON ST. JOHN'S, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 4½ miles north-east of Oxford. Population 397.

STANTON-UPON-NINEHEATH, a parish of England, in Salop; 5 miles south-east of Wem. Population 571.

STANTON STONEY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles east by-north of Hinckley. Population 446.

STANTON, UPPER and LOWER, two hamlets of England, in the parish of Llanvihangel Crucorney, Monmouthshire, near Abergavenny.

STANTON-ON-THE-WOLDS, a hamlet of England, in Nottinghamshire, north of Plumtree.

STANTON-UPON-WYE, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 8½ miles west-north-west of Hereford. Population 512.

STANTON, a township of the United States, in Clermont county, Ohio, immediately below Red Oak creek.

STANTON HILL, a post village of the United States, in Charlotte county, Virginia.

STANTONSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Newcomb county, North Carolina.

STANTZ, a small but well built town in the interior of Switzerland. It has 2100 inhabitants, a neat church, a council-house, and a pleasant fruitful territory. It is the chief place of the canton of Unterwalden, and has a statue of Walkenried, one of the founders of Swiss independence. In 1799, an obstinate action was fought here between the Swiss and the French, and the town was taken by the latter; 8 miles south-east of Lucerne, and 42 east of Bern.

STANWAY, a parish of England, in Essex; 4 miles west-by-south of Colchester. Population 431.

STANWAY, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 3½ miles north-east of Winchcombe.

STANWELL, a parish of England, in Middlesex; 2½ miles north-east of Staines. Population 1032.

STANWICK, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2½ miles north-north-east of Higham Ferrars.

STANWICK, a small village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles north-by-east of Richmond.

STANWIX, or STANWICH, a village and parish of England, in Cumberland, adjoining to Carlisle, on the opposite side of the Eden. Here are vestiges of a Roman station. Population of the village, 400; of the parish, 1128.

STANZA, *s.* [*stanza*, Ital.; *stancc*, Fr.] A number of lines regularly adjusted to each other; so much of a poem as contains every variation of measure, or relation of rhyme. *Stanza* is originally a room of a house, and came to signify a subdivision of a poem; a staff.

So bold as yet no verse of mine has been,
To wear that gem on any line,

Nor till the happy nuptial house be seen,
Shall any stanza with it shine.

Cowley.

Horace confines himself strictly to one sort of verse or stanza in every ode. *Dryden*.—In quatrains, the last line of the stanza is to be considered in the composition of the first. *Dryden*

Before his sacred name flies every fault,
And each exalted stanza teems with thought.

Pope.

STANZIONE (Cavaliere Massimo), was born at Naples in 1585, and was a disciple of G. B. Caracciolo; he also received instructions in fresco painting from Belisario Cosenzio, one of the most eminent artists of his time, and indeed seems to have been exceedingly studious of the works of all the great painters of his day. He visited Rome, and in studying the works of Annibal Carracci, became intimate with Guido Rheni, into whose style he fell with so much success, that he obtained the name of *Il Guido Rheni di Napoli*.

It was in his native city that he principally exerted his ability in original productions, and was ranked amongst its ablest artists. Spagnoletto became jealous of him, and is said by Lanzi to have been guilty of a gross piece of perfidy to destroy the picture he had painted in competition with his Descent from the Cross, for the Certosa. The subject of his picture was Christ with the Maries, which having somewhat changed in tone, and become darker, Spagnoletto persuaded the monks to permit him to clean it; when he used some noxious preparation, which nearly destroyed the work. Upon application to Stanzone to remedy the mischief, he refused, declaring it should remain as it was, that the author of so disgraceful a procedure might reap the just fruits of his perfidy.

Among the considerable works executed by Stanzone at Naples, are the cielings of the churches of S. Paolo and del Gesu Novo, and a large picture at the Certosa, representing St. Bruno, presenting the regulations of his order to his monks. The small cabinet pictures by him are numerous, and much esteemed. He died at the age of 71, in the year 1656.

STANZ-STADT, a populous village in the Swiss canton of Unterwalden, on the lake of Lucerne, near the town of Stanz, inhabited chiefly by boatmen employed in the navigation of the lake.

STAPELIA [so named by Linnæus, in memory of Bodeus Stapel, a physician of Amsterdam, commentator on Theophrastus], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of contortæ apocineæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-cleft, acute, small, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, large, flat, thick, five-cleft beyond the middle: segments wide, flat, acuminate. Nectary, five leaflets, spreading, linear, grooved, emarginate, with a dagger point, opposite to the segments of the corolla. Leaflets five others, fastened alternately with three a little higher to the tube of the filaments, and running along it, vertical, bifid: interior segment erect, with the summit bent outwards; outer segment straight, compressed. Stamina: filaments five, united into a short tube. Each anther fastened internally to the base of each vertical leaflet of the nectary, and wider than it, incumbent on the stigma, short, two-lobed, two-celled, produced below on both sides into an earlet, contiguous to the margin to each of the neighbouring anthers as far as the tip, and ascending at the tip. Pollen united into ten corpuscles, crescent-shaped, flattish, ascending obliquely into the cells of the anther, each on a very short pedicel (with a transverse base, incumbent on the upper margin of the earlet,) fastened by pairs to five small twin coloured tubercles, placed on the apex of the earlets, and adhering to the angles of the stigma. Pistil: germs two, ovate, flat inwards. Styles none. Stigma common to both germs, large, placed on the tube of the stamens, acutely five-cornered, flat above, obliquely truncate-excavated at the sides for the reception of anthers. Pericarp: follicles two, long, awl-shaped, one-celled, one-valved. Seeds numerous, imbricate, compressed, crowned with a down. Receptacle free.—*Essential Character*. Contorted. Nectary a double little star covering the genitals.

In the distribution of this genus we have followed Willdenow, and have given his specific characters.

I.—Corolla five-cleft; segments hairy at the edge.

1. *Stapelia ciliata*, or ciliate stapelia.—Stem four-cornered, branched, decumbent, rooting, flowering at top; peduncle shorter than the corolla, which is papillose at bottom.—Native of southern Africa, below Boekland Berg.

2. *Stapelia revoluta*, or revolute-flowered stapelia.—Stem four-cornered, branched at the base, erect, flowering at top; peduncles shorter than the corolla; which is smooth, with the segments ovate, hairy at the edge, and revolute.—Native of southern Africa, in dry fields under shrubs: flowering in September and October.

3. *Stapelia hirsuta*, or hairy stapelia.—Branches ascending, four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncle round, length of the corolla, which is villose at bottom, with the segments

segments ovate, sharpish, and villose at the edge.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. *Stapelia sororia*.—Branches divaricating, four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles round, longer than the corolla, which is very villose at bottom, and wrinkled transversely with the segments, oblong, acute, villose at the edge.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. *Stapelia grandiflora*, or great-flowered stapelia.—Branches erect, four-cornered, club-shaped, flowering at the base; peduncles thickened at the base, shorter than the corolla, which is villose with the segments, lanceolate-acuminate, ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in hot places, as at Sondags river.

6. *Stapelia ambigua*.—Branches erect, four-cornered, club-shaped, flowering at the base; peduncles many-flowered; corollas hispid, with the segments ovate-lanceolate, acute, villose at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in dry deserts.

7. *Stapelia pulvinata*, or cushioned stapelia.—Stem four-cornered, decumbent; branches ascending, flower-bearing; bottom of the corolla raised and villose; segments roundish, wrinkled, acuminate, villose at the edge.—Native of southern Africa; among shrubs.

8. *Stapelia asterias*, or starry stapelia.—Branches erect, four-cornered, attenuated, flowering at the base; peduncles length of the corolla; the segments of which are ovate-acuminate, wrinkled, revolute and villose at the edge.—Native of the deserts of southern Africa.

9. *Stapelia gemmiflora*, or bud-flowering stapelia.—Branches erect, four-cornered, flowering at bottom; peduncles length of the corolla, which is rugged, with the segments ovate, acute, ciliate at the edge, five-nerved above.—Native of southern Africa, in dry places, among shrubs, beyond Platte Kloof.

10. *Stapelia divaricata*, or straddling stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, attenuated, divaricate-spreading, flowering in the middle; peduncles longer than the corolla, which is smooth, with the segments lanceolate, acuminate, rolled back, and ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa.

11. *Stapelia rufa*.—Branches four-cornered, erect, flowering at the base; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is wrinkled and starred at the bottom, with segments lanceolate, acuminate, ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in hot places beyond Platte Kloof.

12. *Stapelia acuminata*.—Branches four-cornered, ascending, flowering in the middle; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is wrinkled; and the segments are ovate, cusp-acuminate, ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in Namaqualand.

13. *Stapelia reclinata*.—Branches spreading, four-cornered, flowering above the base, peduncles longer than the corolla; which has a raised bottom, with lanceolate segments, ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa.

14. *Stapelia elegans*.—Branches diffused, oblong, roundish, four-cornered, flowering in the middle; peduncles longer than the corolla, which is hispid, with a pentagon bottom and lanceolate segments, ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa.

15. *Stapelia cæspitosa*, or tufted stapelia.—Branches pro-cumbent, four-cornered, flowering above the base; peduncles length of the corolla; the segments of which are lanceolate, acute, revolute and ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa under shrubs.

16. *Stapelia arida*, or dry stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, erect, flowering at top; peduncles longer than the corolla, which has a circular bottom, and oblong acute segments, ciliate at the top of the margin.—Native of southern Africa, in Kanna Land.

17. *Stapelia parviflora*, or small-flowered stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, spreading, flowering in the middle on the outside of the teeth; peduncles longer than the corolla; the segments of which are lanceolate, bluntish, and ciliate at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, Namaqua Land.

18. *Stapelia subulata*, or awl-shaped stapelia.—Branches

four-cornered, attenuated, nodding, flowering below the top; corollas nodding; segments oblong, acuminate-cusped with the hairs pointing one-way.—Native of Arabia Felix.

19. *Stapelia concinna*, or neat stapelia.—Stem four-cornered, erect, branched at top; branches spreading, simple, flowering at the base; peduncles length of the corolla; corollas hispid, with the segments ovate, acute, ciliate.—Native of southern Africa.

20. *Stapelia glandulifera*, or glandular stapelia.—Branches spreading, four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles longer than the corolla, which is covered with hairs glandular at the tip; with the segments ovate, acute.—Native of southern Africa, in the deserts about Nord Olifant's River.

II.—Corollas five-cleft; segments smooth at the edge.

21. *Stapelia pedunculata*, or long-peduncled stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, two or three-toothed at the tip, flowering in the middle; peduncles twice as long as the branches; segments of the corolla lanceolate, acuminate; at the base surrounded at the edge by pedicelled glands.—Native of southern Africa, in Camies Berg.

22. *Stapelia aperta*, or open-flowered stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, three or two-toothed at the tip, flowering at the base; peduncles twice as long as the branches; corollas wrinkled; segments ovate, obtuse, smooth at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in Namaqua Land, near Kok Fontein.

23. *Stapelia Gordoni*, or Gordon's stapelia.—Branches flowering at the top; tubercles round, spiny; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is five-toothed, flat, and wheel-shaped.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, in Groot Namaqua Land, toward Orange River.

24. *Stapelia pilifera*, or hairy-tubercled stapelia.—Branches flowering at the top; tubercles round, bristled; flowers sessile; segments ovate, cusp-acuminate, smooth at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, on very dry hills, under shrubs; as below Roggeveldt Bergen.

25. *Stapelia caudata*, or tailed stapelia.—Stem rough-haired, leafy; peduncles shorter than the corolla, drooping; segments of the corolla linear, acute.—Native of southern Africa.

26. *Stapelia articulata*, or jointed stapelia.—Branches flowering at the top; tubercles round, mucronate; flowers subsessile; corollas papillose; segments lanceolate.—Native of southern Africa, at Roggeveldt.

27. *Stapelia mammillaris*, or prickly stapelia.—Branches flowering in the middle, erect; tubercles hexagonal, spiny; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is smooth, with the segments lanceolate.

28. *Stapelia pruinosa*, or frosted stapelia.—Branches erect, four-cornered, flowering in the middle; peduncles shorter than the flower; corollas pubescent; segments ovate, acute.—Native of southern Africa, in Namaqua Land, among shrubs.

29. *Stapelia ramosa*, or branched stapelia.—Branches almost upright, four-cornered, flowering in the middle, on the outside of the teeth; peduncles shorter than the flower; corollas flat; segments lanceolate, rolled back at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, beyond Platte Kloof, near the hot baths.

30. *Stapelia pulla*, or black-flowered stapelia.—Branches erect, sub-hexagonal, flowering in the middle, on the outside of the teeth; peduncles shorter than the flower; segments of the corolla erect, lanceolate-acuminate, rolled back at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in hot sandy places in the desert.

31. *Stapelia adscenspens*.—Stem four-cornered, ascending, flowering at the top; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is smooth, with the segments linear, reflexed at the edge, and acute. Stems several, a foot or two high, at the base resting on the ground and striking root; above erect, with blunt notched angles. Branches erect, like the stems. Leaves alternate, sessile, on the angles of the branches, lanceolate, very minute. Flowers axillary, about the extremities of the branches, generally single, erect, small, variegated with

with dark purple and yellow. Calyx five-cleft to the bottom: divisions lanceolate. Corolla: tube scarcely any: border flat. Fillicles erect, as thick as a goose quill, four or five inches long.—This plant is not very common in the East Indies, of which it is a native.

32. *Stapelia quadrangula*.—Stem four-cornered; branches divaricating, flowering at the top; teeth truncate; flowers sessile.—Native of Arabia Felix.

33. *Stapelia incarnata*, or flesh-coloured stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, stiff, flowering at the top on the outside of the teeth; peduncles shorter than the corolla; the segments of which are lanceolate and acute.—Native of southern Africa, in dry sandy fields.

34. *Stapelia punctata*, or dotted stapelia.—Branches decumbent, oblong, somewhat four-cornered, flowering in the middle; peduncles twice as long as the corolla, which is bell-shaped, with the segments spreading, lanceolate, acute.—Native of southern Africa, in Namaqua Lands.

35. *Stapelia geminata*.—Branches decumbent, round, flowering at the top; peduncles geminate, length of the corolla; the segments of which are lanceolate, rolled back at the edge.—Native of southern Africa, in hot places, under shrubs.

36. *Stapelia decora*.—Branches oblong, decumbent, round, obscurely four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles longer than the flower; bottom of the corolla five-cornered; segments ovate-lanceolate, rolled back at the edge.—Native of southern Africa.

37. *Stapelia pulchella*.—Branches four-cornered, decumbent, flowering above the base; peduncles many-flowered; bottom of the corolla circular; segments ovate, acute.—Native of southern Africa.

38. *Stapelia vetula*.—Branches four-cornered, erect, flowering at the base; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is smooth; with the segments ovate, acuminate, three-nerved above.—Native of southern Africa, on mountains.

39. *Stapelia verrucosa*.—Branches ascending, four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles longer than the corolla, which is warted; with the segments ovate and acute, and the bottom five-cornered and rugged.—Native of southern Africa, in dry places: flowering in September and October.

40. *Stapelia irrorata*.—Branches from erect spreading, four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles longer than the corolla, which is wrinkled, with ovate acuminate segments.—Native of southern Africa, in dry places: flowering in September and October.

41. *Stapelia mixta*.—Branches four-cornered, ascending, flowering at the base; peduncles length of the corolla, which is wrinkled, with a circular raised papillose bottom, and ovate acuminate segments.—Native of southern Africa.

42. *Stapelia variegata*, or variegated stapelia.—Branches four-cornered, ascending, flowering at the base; peduncles longer than the corolla, which is wrinkled, with a circular concave wrinkled bottom, and ovate acute segments.—Native of southern Africa, on rocks, into the crevices of which it strikes the fibres of its roots.

III.—Corolla ten-toothed.

43. *Stapelia campanulata*, or bell-shaped stapelia.—Branches erect, four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles three-flowered; segments of the corolla larger, lanceolate, with a bell-shaped bottom.—Native of southern Africa.

44. *Stapelia barbata*.—Branches mostly four-cornered, erect, flowering at the base; peduncles shorter than the corolla, which is bell-shaped, with the segments larger, lanceolate, acuminate, rugged, clubbed and bearded.—Native of southern Africa.

45. *Stapelia venusta*.—Stem four or five-cornered, erect, branched at top; branches flowering at the base; peduncles longer than the corolla, bent down; corolla smooth; segments larger, ovate-acuminate, bottom concave, surrounded by an elevated ring.—Native of southern Africa, in Karro.

46. *Stapelia guttata*.—Branches somewhat spreading and

four-cornered, flowering at the base; peduncles length of the corolla; the segments of which are larger, ovate, acute, the bottom concave, rugged, surrounded by an elevated ring.—Native of southern Africa.

47. *Stapelia humilis*.—Branches four-cornered, spreading, flowering at the base; peduncles solitary, shorter than the corolla; the segments of which are larger, lanceolate, acute.—Native of southern Africa.

48. *Stapelia reticulata*, or netted stapelia.—Branches five-cornered, spreading, flowering at the base; peduncle in pairs, shorter than the corolla; the segments of which are larger, ovate, acute, the bottom bearded, surrounded by an elevated ring.—Native of southern Africa, in hollows of rocks, towards Olifant's River: flowering in spring and autumn.

IV.—Uncertain; the flowers being not yet known.

49. *Stapelia clavata*, or club-shaped stapelia.—Stem simple, thick, club-shaped, nettedly and obscurely warted, fruiting at the top.—Native of southern Africa, in sandy fields beyond Kopper-berg.

Propagation and Culture.—They are propagated here very easily during the summer months, by taking off any of the side branches, which, when planted, put out roots very freely.

STAPELEY, a village of England, in Cheshire, near Nantwich.

STAPENHILL, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 1 mile from Burton, from which it is divided by the river Trent. Population 447.

STAPHISAGRIA. See DELPHINIUM.

STAPHORST, a large village of the Netherlands, in the province of Overysse, with 2600 inhabitants; 10 miles north-north-east of Zwoll.

STAPHYLE, a word used by the old Greek writers, sometimes to express a grape, and sometimes an elongation of the uvula.

STAPHYLEA [abbreviated by Linnæus from *Staphylodendrum*. From *σταφύλη*, Gr., a raceme or bunch; that being the inflorescence of this shrub], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trygynia, natural order of trihilata rhamnii (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, concave, roundish, coloured, almost as big as the corolla. Corolla: petals five, oblong, erect, like the calyx. Nectary from the receptacle of the fructification, in the bottom of the flower, concave, pitcher-shaped. Stamina: filaments five, oblong, erect, length of the calyx. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ thickish, three-parted. Styles three, simple, much longer than the stamens. Stigmas obtuse, contiguous. Pericarp: capsules three, inflated, flaccid, united longitudinally by a suture, opening inwards by the acuminate apices. Seeds two, bony, globular, with an oblique point and an orbicular excavation by the side of the apex. The ternary number of the pistil and pericarp, in *Staphylea pinnata* becomes binary.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-parted. Petals five. Capsule inflated, connate. Seeds two, globular, with a wart.

1. *Staphylea occidentalis*.—Leaves doubly-pinnate; capsules three-cornered; seeds solitary; stem arboreous. Flowers white, odorous.—Native of Jamaica: flowering there in spring and autumn.

2. *Staphylea pinnata*, or five-leaved bladder-nut.—Leaves pinnate; styles and capsules two. This has several shrubby stalks arising from the same root, and growing ten or twelve feet high, covered with a smooth bark, and dividing into several branches, which are soft and pithy. The flowers come out upon long slender pendulous peduncles from the axils of the stalks near their extremity, in oblong bunches. The petals are white, and expand in form of a rose.—Native of the south of Europe.

3. *Staphylea trifolia*, or three-leaved bladder-nut.—Leaves ternate; styles and capsules three. This has a more substantial stem than the preceding; the bark of the old branches and stalks is smooth, and of a gray colour; that of the

young ones is of a light green, and very smooth.—Native of North America; and now as common in the nursery-gardens as the other sort.

Propagation and Culture.—Second and third sorts are usually propagated by suckers from the root, which the second sends out in plenty; these should be taken from the old plants in autumn, and their roots trimmed, then planted in a nursery, in rows at three feet distance, and one foot asunder in the rows; in this nursery the plants should stand one or two more years according to their strength, and then be transplanted to the places where they are to remain. They may also be obtained by seeds and cuttings.

STAPHYLEPARTES, the name of a chirurgical instrument, in use among the ancients for elevating the uvula. It is mentioned by Paulus Ægineta.

STAPHYLINUS, in Anatomy, the muscle of the uvula, commonly called azygus.

STAPHYLINUS, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera. The Generic Character is as follows:—Antennæ moniliform; four feelers; shell half as long as the body; wings folded up under the shells; tail not armed with a forceps, furnished with two exsertile vesicles. The insects of this genus are extremely rapacious, devouring not only the insects of other genera, but frequently each other. Many of them, when attempted to be caught, turn up the tail. The jaws are strong and exerted, with which they bite and pinch very hard: most of them are found in damp moist places, among substances, and a few upon flowers. There are about 180 species, separated into three sections, according as their feelers are filiform, hatchet-shaped, or clavate.

I.—All the Feelers filiform.

1. *Staphylinus aureus*.—Head, thorax, and shells, covered with ferruginous down; the abdomen is black, with cinereous bands.—It is found in Siam.

2. *Staphylinus hirtus*.—Hairy, black; thorax and hind-part of the abdomen yellow.—Found in sandy situations, in this country, and other parts of Europe.

3. *Staphylinus murinus*.—Pubescent, cinereous clouded; abdomen and legs deep black. The shells are blue, and polished beneath. The larva is six-footed, naked, and of a pale hue. The head and three first segments of the abdomen chestnut-brown; tail with two jointed bristles, and a cylindrical tubercle beneath.—It is found in this country, among decayed carcases and dung.

4. *Staphylinus olens*.—Black, opaque, immaculate; head broader than the thorax.—This is an English insect, but found likewise in many parts of the European continent.

5. *Staphylinus maxillosus*.—Pubescent black, with cinereous bands. The jaws of this insect are as long as the head; the antennæ are still longer; the shell covers one third of the abdomen; the legs end in small tufts of hair.

6. *Staphylinus erythropterus*.—Black; shells, base of the antennæ, and legs, are red; the head and thorax are unpolished, black; shells with two triangular spots; each side is composed of a few gilded hairs.

7. *Staphylinus politus*.—Black; thorax and shells polished; thorax with a line of impressed dots. This insect, when first caught, scatters a very fragrant odour.

8. *Staphylinus brunripes*.—Black; legs, base and tip of the antennæ, ferruginous; the antennæ are black, the first and two last joints are ferruginous; the eyes are white.

9. *Staphylinus marginatus*.—Black; sides of the thorax and legs are yellow. It is something less than the *staphylinus politus*, and of a glossy black.

10. *Staphylinus alpinus*.—Black; base of the antennæ, shells, and legs, livid. The body of this species is more depressed than is the case with regard to others; the antennæ are black, and pale at the base; the abdomen is black.—It inhabits the highest mountains of Lapland, on the birch.

11. *Staphylinus bifustulatus*.—Black; shells with a ferruginous dot behind.

12. *Staphylinus bi-guttatus*.—Black; shells with a whitish

dot; the eyes are prominent.—It inhabits the shores of the Baltic.

13. *Staphylinus fuscipes*.—Black; thorax roundish; shells and legs piceous; the body is small and thick; the edges a little blackish.

14. *Staphylinus atricapillus*.—Thorax rufous; shells brown, with a white dot and hinder margin.

15. *Staphylinus sanguineus*.—Gibbous, black; shells sanguineous; antennæ thicker towards the top. The antennæ are as long as the body; the head is rough; the shells are striate at the base; legs yellowish; thighs brown; body sometimes chestnut-brown.—This is found chiefly in France.

16. *Staphylinus caraboides*.—Yellow, immaculate.

17. *Staphylinus rugosus*.—Black; thorax and shells ruged. It is larger than the next. The head is flat; the thorax depressed, with longitudinal wrinkles.

18. *Staphylinus piceus*.—Black; thorax depressed, with three raised lines; the shells are piceous.

19. *Staphylinus flavus*.—Black; edges of the thorax and shells yellow; the latter with a brown fillet and outer margin; antennæ and legs yellow.

20. *Staphylinus litoreus*.—Black; shells grey on the fore-part; legs rufous.—It inhabits the sea-shores.

II.—Hind-feelers hatchet-shaped. Oxyporus.

21. *Staphylinus Rufus*.—Rufous; head and hind-part of the shells and abdomen are black.—It is found chiefly on fungi, in this and other European countries.

22. *Staphylinus lunulatus*.—Yellow; shells black, pale at the base and tip. Head is black; the tip of the abdomen is marked with a white ring.—It inhabits Europe, on fungi.

23. *Staphylinus merdarius*.—Black; thorax and shells rufous.—It is found in this and other European countries.

24. *Staphylinus chrysomelinus*.—Black; thorax rufous; shells testaceous, the margin at the base is black.

25. *Staphylinus rufipes*.—Glossy black; legs rufous.—It is found in the northern parts of Europe.

26. *Staphylinus hypnorum*.—Glossy-black; margin of the thorax, shells, and legs, testaceous; the body is black, glabrous, and polished.

27. *Staphylinus marginellus*.—Glossy-black; margins of the thorax and shells ferruginous. This is a very small insect.

III.—Fore-feelers clavate. Pæderus.

28. *Staphylinus riparius*.—Rufous; shells blue; the head and end of the abdomen are blackish. This is figured in Donovan's English Insects.

29. *Staphylinus elongatus*.—Hind-part of the shells and legs fulvous.

30. *Staphylinus fulgescens*.—Glossy-black; shells and ends of the legs testaceous; head slightly punctured. The head is marked with numerous small impressed dots.

STAPHYLOMA, is the name given, in Surgery, to that disease of the eye, in which the cornea loses its natural transparency, rises above its proper level, and even projects between the eye-lids, in the form of a whitish pearl-coloured tumour, which is attended with total loss of sight.

STAPHYLOSIS, a protuberance or protrusion of the choroid coat of the eye. See SURGERY

STAPLE. *s.* [*stapel*, Belg. et Sueth. emporium, ab antiquiori et Goth. *stapul*, columna, ædcs columnis compacta. *Serenius*. See also *Lye and Du Cange in Vocc. stapel* and *PATRONUS*. "*Patronus*, Gloss. Sax. Ælfr. ubi de partibus domûs, ꝛapal, quæ *basim* sonat, ut observat *Somnerus*."] A settled mart; an established emporium.

A *staple* of romance and lies,
False tears, and real perjuries.

Prior.

The customs of Alexandria were very great, it having been the *staple* of the Indian trade. *Arbutnot*.—Tyre Alexander the Great sacked; and, establishing the *staple* at Alexandria, made the greatest revolution in trade that ever

was known. *Arbutnot*.—The original material of a manufacture.

At Leister, for her wool whose *staple* doth excel,
And seems to overmatch the golden Phrygian fell. *Dryden*.

STAPLE, *adj.* Settled; established in commerce.

Some English wool, vex'd in a Belgian loom,
And into cloth of spongy softness made:

Did into France or colder Denmark roam,
To ruin with worse ware our *staple* trade. *Dryden*.

According to the laws of commerce.—What needy writer would not solicit to work under such masters, who will take off their ware at their own rates, and trouble not themselves to examine whether it be *staple* or no? *Swift*.

STAPLE, *s.* [*capul*, *Sax.*, a *prop.*] A loop of iron; a bar bent and driven in at both ends.

The silver ring she pull'd, the door she clos'd;
The bolt, obedient to the silken cord,
To the strong *staple's* inmost depth restor'd,
Secur'd the valves. *Pope*.

STAPLE, *MERCHANTS OF THE*, a denomination given to the first and most ancient commercial society in England, from their exporting the staple wares of the kingdom, which were wool, skins, lead, and tin, in their rough state for manufacture. This society is said to have had its rise in the year 1248; and it appears to have had the legal form of a corporation before the 12th year of Edward II. A. D. 1319; as there are records in the pipe-office of the Exchequer, which mention, that it was actually a corporation, with the title of the mayor and constables of the staple of England, who then had their staple at Antwerp, for conducting the sale of English staple wares, and the importation of such foreign goods as were wanted at home. However, in 1328, by 2 Edw. III. cap. 9. it was enacted, that the staples, on both sides of the sea, should cease, and that all merchant-strangers, &c., might go and come with their merchandize into England, after the tenor of the Great Charter. In 1336 the staple of wool was again fixed in Brabant; in 1341, at Bruges; and in 1348, at Calais; whither, and to no other place, all merchandize exported from England, Wales, and Ireland, either by denizens or aliens, were to be shipped from England and there landed. The customs from this staple are said to have then amounted to upwards of 60,000*l.* sterling yearly. In 1353, Edward III. removed the staple of wool from Bruges to Westminster, Canterbury, Chichester, Exeter, Winchester, Bristol, Lincoln, York, Norwich, Newcastle, and Hull, for England; and to Dublin, Cork, Waterford, and Drogheda, for Ireland. And it was enacted by 27 Edward III., and the act called the *statute of the staple*, that all staple wares for exportation should be first brought to some of these places only, where the custom should be paid, and exported by merchant-strangers only, under an oath not to hold any staple thereof beyond sea; which privilege was extended by 31 Edward III. to denizens also. Calais, however, still remained a staple.

In these staple-towns, courts of *law-merchant* were established, by the said statute, or determining all mercantile affairs, and for punishing and americing offenders. From the year 1375, the staple of Westminster seems to have been removed to the place called Staple-Inn, in Holborn; when Calais, which had been for many years a principal staple-port for dispersing, in more early times, the English wool, lead, and tin, and, in later times, the English woollen manufactures, under the conduct of the Merchant-Adventurers, into the inland countries of the Netherlands, France, and Germany, was lost to this country. In 1588, the staple for wool, &c. was established at Bruges; and queen Elizabeth, in the third year of her reign, granted a new charter of confirmation to the corporation of the mayor and constables of the staple of England, of all such privileges as they did, might, or ought to have enjoyed before the loss of Calais. However, king James I., in 1604, granted a new charter to the Merchant-Adventurers, and in 1617, confirmed

all their former powers and privileges for trading to the Netherlands and to Germany, with the woollen manufactures of England, exclusively of all who were not free of their company; in consequence of which, the merchants of the staple, who had before been declining, by the manufacture and exportation of our woollen cloth, were brought to ruin. And when at length it was judged expedient to enact a total prohibition of the exportation of our wool, it is no wonder that the staplers' company should become extinct. At this day they exist only in name; though they maintain the form of a corporation by annually electing the officers of their company, according to the direction of their ancient charters. This nominal corporation is kept up by those who deal in wool (still called woolstaplers), and who, in their corporate capacity, possess a small sum in the public funds, the interest of which serves to defray the expence of their meetings and elections. But they never had a hall, or office of their own, within the city of London, like other trading companies, although the Inn of Chancery in Holborn, so denominated from their warehouses, which were formerly situated there; as was also an office and warehouse of theirs, which, since the erection of the bridge at Westminster, has lost its place, as well as name of wool-staple, at the upper part of Cannon Row.

STAPLE, a township of England, in Kent; 3 miles south-west of Sandwich.

STAPLE, *FITZPAINE*, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles south-east of Taunton.

STAPLEFORD, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 3½ miles north-by-west of Hertford.

STAPLEFORD, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4½ miles east-by-south of Melton Mowbray.

STAPLEFORD, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 12 miles south-west of Lincoln.

STAPLEFORD, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire, near the canal and the river Erwash; 5½ miles west-south-west of Nottingham. Population 954.

STAPLEFORD, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4 miles north-north-west of Wilton.

STAPLEFORD, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 3 miles south-east of Cambridge.

STAPLEFORD ABBOTS, a parish of England, in Essex, near the river Rothing or Rodon, over which it had a ford; 5 miles south-east of Epping. Population 351.

STAPLELORD TAWNEY, another parish in the above county; 1 mile distant from the foregoing, on the opposite side of the Rothing.

STAPLEFORD BRUINE'S, a township of England, in Cheshire; 7 miles east-by-south of Chester.

STAPLEFORD FOULK'S, a township in the above county; 6 miles east of Chester.

STAPLEGATE, a village of England, in Kent, contiguous to the northern extremity of the city of Canterbury.

STAPLEGROVE, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 2 miles north-west of Taunton.

STAPLEHURST, a village and parish of England, in Kent, noted for the salubrity of its situation, and fruitfulness of the soil. Population 1341; 5 miles north-by-east of Cranbrook.

STAPLER, *s.* A dealer: as, a *wool-stapler*.—I do not mean only the *staplers* of Hamburg and Rotterdam. *Howell*.

STAPLETON, a parish of England, in Cumberland; 9½ miles east-north-east of Longtown.

STAPLETON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2½ miles north-east of Bristol. Here is a spring called the Boiling Well, the waters of which spring out perpendicularly like a boiling cauldron, and the stream is so copious as to drive a mill, a quarter of a mile distant from its source. Population 1921.

STAPLETON, a village of England, in Herefordshire, near Ludlow.

STAPLETON, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 3 miles north-by-east of Hinckley.

STAPLETON,

STAPLETON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 11 miles north-east of Richmond, and 2 south-west of Darlington.

STAPLETON, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles south-east of Pontefract.

STAR, *s.* [It may be curious to notice the concurrence of various languages in regard to *star*. Persian, *starra*. See *Sir T. Herbert's Trav.* Teut. *sterre*; Sax. *ŕœoppa*; Bretonne, *stêr*; Gr. *ἀστὴρ*; Germ. *stern*; Su. Goth. *stierna*; M. Goth. *stairno*. The word has been supposed by Wachter and others to have been formed from the verb, signifying to rule, to govern, to direct; as *sterren*, Teut., *steuren*, Germ., *stiuran*, Goth.] One of the luminous bodies that appear in the nocturnal sky.—When an astronomer uses the word *star* in its strict sense, it is applied only to the fixt stars; but in a large sense, it includes the planets. *Watts*.

Then let the pebbles on the hungry beech

Fillip the stars;—

Murdering impossibility, to make

What cannot be, slight work.

Shakspeare.

The pole-star.—Well, if you be not turn'd Turk, there is no more sailing by the *star*. *Shakspeare*.—Configuration of the planets supposed to influence fortune.

From forth the fatal loins of these two foes

A pair of *star* crost lovers take their life.

Shakspeare.

A mark of reference; an asterisk.—Remarks worthy of riper observation, note with a marginal *star*. *Watts*.

STAR, a village of Scotland, in Fifeshire, containing about 200 inhabitants.

STAR OF BETHLEHEM, *s.* [*ornithogalum*, Lat.] A flower. *Miller*.

STAR ISLAND, one of the isles of Shoals, belonging to Maine, in the United States.

STARACRIM. See *LEVKOPOL*

STARAJA RUSSA, a town in the west of European Russia, in the government of Novgorod, on the river Polista, not far from the lake Ilmen. It contains 5300 inhabitants, and has a considerable trade in hemp and flax; but the most important establishment is a salt work belonging to the government, which produces yearly about 60,000 tons of salt; 34 miles south of Novgorod, and 137 south-by-east of Petersburg.

STARAPPLE, *s.* A globular or olive-shaped soft fleshy fruit, inclosing a stone of the same shape. This plant grows in the warmest parts of America, where the fruit is eaten by way of dessert. It grows to the height of thirty or forty feet. *Muller*

STARASOL, a small town of Austrian Poland; 10 miles west-by-south of Sambor, with 3500 inhabitants, and some salt works.

STARBOARD, *s.* [*ŕœopborb*, Sax.] The right hand side of the ship, as larboard is the left. *Harris*.—On shipboard the mariners will not leave their *starboard* and larboard, because some one accounts it gibrish. *Bramhall*.

STARBOTTOM, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 13 miles north-east of Settle.

STARCH, *s.* [from *stark*, Germ., *rigidus, durus, solidus*; which Stiler and Wachter deduce from *starren*, *rigere, indurare*; hence the sense of *stiff* to the word: “à *stark*, *durus, rigidus, derivatur stærken, facere ut rigeat, à quo rursus fit stærke et stærke-mæl, gluten farinaceum, quo lintea solidantur.*” *Wachter*.] A kind of viscous matter made of flower or potatoes, with which linen is stiffened, and was formerly coloured.

Has he

Dislik'd your yellow *starch*, or said your doublet
Was not exactly Frenchified.

Fletcher.

A stiff, formal manner.—This professor is to infuse into their manners that beautiful political *starch*, which may qualify them for levees, conferences, visits. *Addison*.

STARCH is extracted from wheaten flour, by washing it in water. All farinaceous seeds, and the roots of most vege-

tables, afford this substance in a greater or less degree; but it is most easily obtained from the flour of wheat, by moistening any quantity thereof with a little water, and kneading it with the hand into a tough paste: this being washed with water, by letting fall upon it a very slender stream, the water will be rendered turbid as it runs off, in consequence of the fecula or starch which it extracts from the flour, and which will subside when the water is allowed to stand at rest. The residuum of the flower, which remains after the water has extracted all the fecula, and runs off colourless, will be found to be gluten.

Sir H. Davy conceives, that this matter or coagulated mucilage, which forms the greatest part of all grains and seeds which are used in the way of food, is generally combined with gluten, oil or albuminous matter. In corn, with gluten; in pulse, such as peas and beans, with albuminous matter; and in rape seed, lint-seed, hemp-seed, and the kernels of most nuts, with oils. He found that one hundred parts of good full-grained wheat sown in the autumn, afforded seventy parts of starch and nineteen parts of gluten: that one hundred parts of wheat sown in the spring yielded seventy parts of starch and twenty-four of gluten: that the same number of parts of Barbary wheat gave seventy-four of starch and twenty-eight of gluten: and that an equal number of parts of Sicilian wheat afforded seventy-five of starch and twenty-one of gluten. He has also tried different specimens of North American wheat, all of which have contained rather more gluten than those of British growth. In general, it is said, the wheat of warm climates abounds more in gluten and insoluble parts; and is of greater specific gravity, harder, and more difficult to grind, than that of others: and that the wheat of the south of Europe, in consequence of containing a larger proportion of gluten, is peculiarly fitted for making macaroni, and preparations of flour in which a glutinous quality is considered as an excellence.

In some trials made on barley, he obtained, from one hundred parts of a full, fair, Norfolk sort, seventy-nine of starch, six of gluten, and eight of husk; the remaining seven parts consisting of sweet or saccharine matter. The sugar in barley is suggested as probably the chief cause why it is more proper for malting than any of the other sorts of grain. It is stated that Einhoff, in his minute trials on barley-meal, found in three thousand eight hundred and forty parts, three hundred and sixty of volatile matter, forty-four of albumen, two hundred of saccharine matter, one hundred and seventy of mucilage, nine of phosphate of lime, with some albumen, one hundred and thirty-five of gluten, two hundred and sixty of husk, with some gluten and starch, two thousand five hundred and eighty of starch not quite free from gluten, and seventy-eight parts of loss in the whole. And that rye afforded to the same experimenter, in the same number of parts, two thousand five hundred and twenty of meal, nine hundred and thirty of husk, and three hundred and ninety of moisture; the same quantity of meal, on being analysed, gave two thousand three hundred and forty-five of starch, one hundred and twenty-six of albumen, four hundred and twenty-six of mucilage, one hundred and twenty-six of saccharine matter, and three hundred and sixty-four of gluten not dried. The remainder husk and loss.

STARCH, *adj.* [*ŕtarp*, Sax.] Stiff; precise; rigid.—If this will not do, 'tis but misrepresenting sobriety as a *starch* and formal, and virtue as a laborious and slavish thing. *Killingbeck*.

To **STARCH**, *v. a.* To stiffen with starch.

Her goodly countenance I've seen

Set off with kerchief *starch'd* and pinners clean.

Gay.

STARCHAMBER, *s.* [*camera stellata*, Lat.] A kind of criminal court of equity. *Now abolished*.—I'll make a *starchamber* matter of it: if he were twenty Sir John Falstaffs, he shall not abuse Robert Shallow, Esq. *Shakspeare*.

STARCHED, *part. adj.* Stiffened with starch.—Who?

this

this in the *starched* beard? *B. Jonson*.—Stiff; precise; formal.—As supercilious—as a *starch't* gallant is of any thing that may disorder his dress. *Hammond*.

STARCHEDNESS, *s.* Stiffness; formality.—Chancing to smile at the Moor's deportment, as not answering the *starchedness* of his own nation. *L. Addison*.

STARCHER, *s.* One whose trade is to starch.—The tailors, *starchers*, semsters. *Marston*.

STARCHLY, *adv.* Stiffly; precisely.—In answer to all this, I might with good pretence enough talk *starchly*, and affect ignorance of what you would be at. *Swift*.

STARCHNESS, *s.* Stiffness; preciseness.

STARCROSS, a village of England, in Devonshire; $\frac{1}{2}$ mile west of Exmouth.

TO STARE, *v. n.* [*ſtarpian*, Sax.; *stara*, Icel. et Sueth. fortiter adspectare. *Serenius*.] To look with fixed eyes; to look with wonder, impudence, confidence, stupidity, or horror.

And while he *stares* around with stupid eyes,
His brows with berries and his temples dies.

Dryden.

What dost thou make a shipboard?
Art thou of Bethlem's noble college free?
Stark *staring* mad, that thou should'st tempt the sea?

Dryden.

Struggling, and wildly *staring* on the skies
With scarce recover'd sight.

Dryden.

To stand out prominent.—Take off all the *staring* straws and jags in the hive, and make them smooth. *Mortimer*.—To stand up. [*starren*, Germ., *rigere*.] *Obsolete*.—His hair *stareth*, or standeth on end. *Barret*.

TO STARE, *v. a.* To affect or influence by stares.

Why dost thou not

Try but the virtue of that Gorgon face,
To *stare* me into statue?

Dryden.

TO STARE in the face. To be undeniably evident to. Both the following and the preceding examples are among those under the neuter verb, in Dr. Johnson's dictionary; but improperly.—Is it possible for people, without scruple to offend against the law, which they carry about them in indelible characters, and that *stares* them *in the face* whilst they are breaking it? *Locke*.

STARE, *s.* Fixed look.

I'the name of something holy, sir, why stand you
In this strange *stare*?

Shakspeare.

[*ſtarp*, Sax.; *sterre*, Teut.; *sturnus*, Lat.] The starling, a bird.—He, that hath nothing but language only, may be no more praised than a popinjay, a pye, or a *stare*, when they speake fealily. *Sir T. Elyot*.

STARER, *s.* One who looks with fixed eyes.

One self-approving hour whole years outweighs
Of stupid *starers*, and of loud huzzas.

Pope.

STARETON, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Stoneleigh, Warwickshire.

STARFISH, *s.* A fish branching out into several points. See *ASTERIA*.—This has a ray of one species of English *starfish*. *Woodward*.

STARGARD, an inland town of Pomerania, situated in a pleasant and fertile district on the river Ihna, which falls, at the distance of 20 miles, into the Oder. It is surrounded with a wall, has three small suburbs, and about 8600 inhabitants. It contains, on a small scale, manufactures of woollens, soap, and tobacco; also breweries and distilleries. It exports the corn of the neighbouring country by the Ihna, which is navigable without interruption to the Oder, and thence to the Baltic. Here are several schools for education on the usual plan; also one for teaching mechanical arts, on a more scientific plan than is generally done by masters to their workmen. Stargard suffered severely from war in the 16th and 17th centuries. In 1758 it was taken by the Russians; 21 miles east-by-south of Stettin.

STARGARD, a lordship of Germany, in the grand
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duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, which forms a very considerable part of that principality. Its superficial extent is 6350 square miles; its population about 60,000. The chief town is Stargard or Old Stargard, a small place with 900 inhabitants; 5 miles south-south-east of New Brandenburg.

STARGARD, or **STAROGRAD**, a small town of West Prussia, on the Fers; 27 miles south of Dantzic, and 41 north of Culm. Population 2800.

STARGAZER, *s.* An astronomer, or astrologer. In contempt.—A *stargazer*, in the height of his celestial observations, stumbled into a ditch. *L'Estrange*.—A fish so called. *Chambers*.

STARHAWK, *s.* [*astur*, Lat.] A sort of hawk. *Ainsworth*.

STARITZA, a small town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Tver, on the Wolga. It has 3400 inhabitants, who carry on some traffic with St. Petersburg, in corn and hemp; 55 miles south-west of Tver.

STARK, *adj.* [*ſtarp*, Sax.; *stark*, Germ.; *sterk*, Teut. and *sterkr*, Icel., are all used for strong, robust. The use of *stark* for *stiff* is shewn under the etymology of the substantive *starch*.] Stiff; strong; unbending; unyielding.

Many a nobleman lies *stark* and stiff
Under the hoofs of vaunting enemies.

Shakspeare.

Deep; full; still.

Consider the *stark* security

The commonwealth is in now; the whole senate
Sleepy, and dreaming no such violent blow.

B. Jonson.

Mere; simple; plain; gross.

To turn *stark* fools, and subjects fit
For sport of boys, and rabble wit.

Hudibras.

STARK, *adv.* It is used to intend or augment the signification of a word: as *stark* mad, mad in the highest degree. It is now little used but in low language.

He is *stark* mad, who ever says

That he hath been in love an hour.

Donne.

STARK, a county of the United States, in the east part of Ohio, which has Harrison and Tuscarawa counties on the south, Columbiana and Wayne counties on the east, and Portage on the north. The first settlement of this county commenced in 1806, since which time the emigration has equalled, if not surpassed, any thing ever witnessed in any part of the state. In 1815 the population was estimated at 9450.

STARKEA, in Botany, received that name from the pen of professor Willdenow, in honour of the Rev. Mr. Starke, a clergyman at Gros Tschirna, in Silesia, who has paid great attention to the cryptogamic plants of that country, and is the author of an essay on *Byssus Jolittus*, in the first volume of Sims and Konig's Annals of Botany. It is chiefly composed of the Linnæan *AMELLUS*; which see.

STARKENBACH, or **GILEMNICE**, a small town in the north-east of Bohemia; 15 miles north-by-east of Gitschin, and 59 north-east of Prague. Population 1200.

STARKENBURG, one of the three large provinces of which the grand duchy of Hesse-Darmstadt is composed. It lies between the Rhine and the Maine, the one forming the west, the other the north boundary. Its extent is about 1060 square miles; its population nearly 200,000. It forms the southern part of the grand duchy, contains the Bergstrass, one of the most picturesque parts of Germany, and in the south-east a portion of the wild forest track called the Odenwald. The mineral kingdom presents here no great variety. The vegetables consist of wheat, barley, oats, and flax; also of the fruits of the kind usual in this latitude, among which, in favourable situations, are vines. Offenbach is the only manufacturing place in the province. The chief town is Darmstadt, the capital of the whole principality; but the province takes its name from a castle situated on an eminence in the Bergstrass, near the town of Heppenheim. For religion, manners, &c., see *HESSÉ-DARMSTADT*.

STAR'KLY, *adv.* Stiffly; strongly.

As fast lock'd up in sleep as guiltless labour,
When it lies *starkly* in the traveller's bones. *Shakespeare.*

STAR'KS, a post township of the United States, in Somerset county, Maine; 200 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 828.

STAR'KSBOROUGH, a post township of the United States, in Addison county, Vermont; 28 miles west of Montpelier. Population 726.

STAR'LESS, *adj.* Having no light of stars.

A boundless continent,
Dark, waste, and wild, under the frown of night,
Starless expos'd. *Milton.*

Cato might give them furlo's for another world;
But we, like sentries, are obliged to stand
In *starless* nights, and wait th' appointed hour. *Dryden.*

STAR-LIGHT, *s.* Lustre of the stars.

Now they never meet in grove or green,
By fountain clear or spangled *starlight* sheen. *Shakespeare.*

Nor walk by moon,
Or glittering *star-light* without thee is sweet. *Milton.*

They danced by *starlight* and the friendly moon. *Dryden.*

STAR-LIGHT, *adj.* Lighted by the stars:

Owls, that mark the setting sun, declare
A *star-light* evening and a morning fair. *Dryden.*

STAR-LIKE, *adj.* Stellated; having various points resembling a star in lustre.—Nightshade tree with a wooden stem, green-leaved, and has *star-like* flowers. *Mortimer.*—Bright; illustrious.—The having turned many to righteousness shall confer a *star-like* and immortal brightness. *Boyle.*

These reasons mov'd her *star-like* husband's heart;
But still he held his purpose to depart. *Dryden.*

STAR'LING, *s.* [ræplɪz, Sax.; *sturnus*, Lat.] A bird; a stare; which is sometimes taught to talk as the magpie. See STARE.

I will have a *starling* taught to speak
Nothing but Mortimer, and give it him,
To keep his anger still in motion. *Shakespeare.*

A defence to the piers of bridges: probably from some old root similar to that of stare.

STARODUB, a town of European Russia, in the government of Czernigov. It has 4000 inhabitants, and a trade in hemp, potash, and cattle. It has also two well frequented annual fairs; 53 miles north-north-west of Novgorod-Sieverskoe, and 110 north-north-east of Czernigov.

STAROI BUCKOW, a town in the west of European Russia, in the government of Mohilev, on the Dnieper; 17 miles south-by-west of Mohilev.

STAROI OSKOL. See OSKOL STAROI.

STAROSOL, a small town of Austrian Poland; 50 miles south-west of Lemberg.

STAROVELSK, a small town of the south of European Russia, in the government of Slobodsk-Ukraine, on the river Aidar.

STARPA'VED, *adj.* Studded with stars.—In progress through the road of heaven *starpav'd*. *Milton.*

STARPROOF, *adj.* Impervious to starlight. *Unused.*

Under the shady roof
Of branching elm *starproof*. *Milton.*

STARHEAD, *s.* Doctrine of the stars; astronomy.

Ægyptian wisards old,
Which in *starhead* were wont have best insight. *Spenser.*

STAR'RED, *adj.* Influenced by the stars with respect to fortune.

My third comfort,
Starr'd most unluckily, is from my breast
Hal'd out to murder. *Shakespeare.*

Decorated with stars.

That *starr'd* Ethiop queen, that strove
To set her beauty's praise above
The sea-nymphs. *Milton.*

STAR'RING, *adj.* [*stellans*, Lat., from *star*. Dr. Johnson.—“I doubt if there be any such word in the language as *starring*. The true word, in the passage from Crashaw given by Dr. Johnson, is *staring*; and I wonder that the sense did not convince him that *starring* could be only the mistake of the copyist. I shall leave Dr. Johnson's definition of *starring* to be fitted with an example by others, if such a word there be. And here I will give the forcible lines of Crashaw, which are a translation from the Italian of Marino:

“His eyes, the sullen dens of death and night,
“Startle the dull air with a dismal red;
“Such his fell glances as the fatal light
“Of *staring* comets, that look kingdoms dead.”

See Crashaw's Poems, edit, 1670. *Todd.*] Shining with light; blazing with sparkling light.

STAR'RY, *adj.* Decorated with stars; abounding with stars.

Daphne wond'ring mounts on high,
Above the clouds, above the *starry* sky! *Pope.*

Consisting of stars; stellar.

Heaven and earth's compacted frame,
And flowing waters, and the *starry* flame,
And both the radiant lights, one common soul
Inspires and feeds, and animates the whole. *Dryden.*

Resembling stars.—Teas had dimm'd the lustre of her *starry* eyes. *Shakespeare.*

STARSHOOT, *s.* An emission from a star.—I have seen a good quantity of that jelly, by the vulgar called a *starshoot*, as if it remained upon the extinction of a falling star. *Boyle.*

STARSTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 1½ mile north-north-west of Harleston. Population 418.

STARSTONE, *s.* A kind of stone, having joints resembling the form of a star.—Hereabout are found *starstones*; but I was not then advised of it. *Ray*

To START, *v. n.* [Sax. rǣþpan, to move. Scott, and Mr. H. Tooke. Our word was, anciently, *stert*.] To feel a sudden and involuntary twitch or motion of the animal frame, on apprehension of danger.—*Starting* is an apprehension of the thing feared, and in that kind it is a motion of shrinking; and likewise an inquisition, in the beginning, what the matter should be, and in that kind it is a motion of erection; and therefore, when a man would listen suddenly to any thing, he *starteth*; for the *starting* is an erection of the spirits to attend. *Bacon.*

A shape appear'd
Bending to look on me: I *started* back;
It *start'd* back. *Milton.*

To rise suddenly; commonly with *up*.—They *starting* *up* beheld the heavy sight. *Dryden.*

Might Dryden bless once more our eyes,
New Blackmores and new Milbourns must arise;
Nay, should great Homer lift his awful head,
Zoilus again would *start up* from the dead. *Pope.*

To move with sudden quickness.
She at the summons roll'd her eyes around,
And snatch'd the *starting* serpents from the ground. *Pope.*

To shrink; to winch.
With trial fire touch me his finger end;
If he be chaste, the flame will back descend,
And turn him to no pain; but if he *start*,
It is the flesh of a corrupted heart. *Shakespeare.*

To deviate.
Th' old drudging sun from his long-beaten way,
Shall at thy voice *start* and misguide the day;
The jocund orbs shall break their measur'd pace,
And stubborn poles change their allotted place. *Cowley.*

To

To set from the barrier at a race.

When from the goal they *start*,
The youthful charioteers with heaving heart
Rush to the race.

Dryden.

To set out on any pursuit.

Fair course of passion, where two lovers *start*,
And run together, heart still yoked with heart.

Waller.

To *START*, *v. a.* To alarm; to disturb suddenly; to startle.

Direness, familiar to my slaught'rous thoughts,
Cannot once *start* me. *Shakspeare.*

To make to start or fly hastily from a hiding place; to rouse by a sudden disturbance.

The blood more stirs

To rouse a lion than to *start* a hare. *Shakspeare.*

To bring into motion; to produce to view or notice; to produce unexpectedly.

Conjure with 'em!

Brutus will *start* a spirit as soon as Cæsar. *Shakspeare.*

To discover; to bring within pursuit.—The sensual men agree in pursuit of every pleasure they can *start*. *Temple.*
—To put suddenly out of place.—One, by a fall in wrestling, *started* the end of the clavicle from the sternum. *Wiseman.*

START, *s.* A motion of terror; a sudden twitch or contraction of the frame from fear or alarm.

These flaws and *starts* would well become
A woman's story at a winter's fire,
Authorized by her grandam. *Shakspeare.*

A sudden rousing to action; excitement.

How much had I to do to calm his rage!
Now fear I this will give it *start* again. *Shakspeare.*

Sally; vehement eruption; sudden effusion.

Thou art like enough, through vassal fear,
Base inclination, and the *start* of spleen,
To fight against me under Percy's pay. *Shakspeare.*

Sudden fit; intermitted action.

Methought her eyes had crost her tongue;
For she did speak in *starts* distractedly. *Shakspeare.*

A quick spring or motion; a shoot; a push.—Both cause the string to give a quicker *start*. *Bacon.*—First emission from the barrier; act of setting out.

You stand like greyhounds in the slips,
Straining upon the *start*. *Shakspeare.*

To get the *START*. To begin before another; to obtain advantage over another.—*Get the start* of the majestic world. *Shakspeare.*—She might have forsaken him, if he had not *got the start* of her. *Dryden.*

START, *s.* [ʒteopt, Sax.] A tail; hence the name of the bird *redstart*. It signifies also the long handle of any thing. It is a common northern word.

START POINT, a cape of the English Channel, on the south-east coast of the county of Devon; 9 miles south of Dartmouth. Lat. 50. 11. N. long. 3. 38. W.

STARTER, *s.* One that shrinks from his purpose.

Stand to it boldly, and take quarter,
To let thee see I am no *starter*. *Hudibras.*

One who suddenly moves a question or objection.—A dog that rouses the game.—If Sheridan was not the staunchest hound in the pack, he was at least the best *starter*. *Delany.*

STARTFORTH, or *STRATFORD*, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-west of Greta Bridge.

STARTING, *s.* The act of starting.

Nor fright thy nurse

With midnight *startings*. *Donne.*

STARTING-HOLE, *s.* Evasion; loophole.—What trick,

what *starting-hole*, canst thou find out, to hide thee from this open shame. *Shakspeare.*

STARTINGLY, *adv.* By sudden fits; with frequent intermission.—Why do you speak so *startingly* and rash? *Shakspeare.*

STARTINGPOST, *s.* Barrier from which the race begins.

To *STARTLE*, *v. n.* To shrink; to move on feeling a sudden impression of alarm or terror.

The *startling* steed was seized with sudden fright,
And bounding o'er the pommel cast the knight. *Dryden.*

Why shrinks the soul

Back on herself, and *startles* at destruction? *Addison.*

To *STARTLE*, *v. a.* To fright; to shock; to impress with sudden terror, surprise, or alarm.

Such whispering wak'd her, but with *startled* eye
On Adam. *Milton.*

To deter; to make to deviate.—They would find occasions enough, upon the account of his known affections to the king's service, from which it was not possible to remove or *startle* him. *Clarendon.*

STARTLE, *s.* Sudden alarm; shock; sudden impression of terror.—After having recovered from my first *startle*, I was very well pleased at the accident. *Spectator.*

STARTUP, *s.* A kind of high shoe; a galage.

Draw close into the covert, lest the wet,
Which falls like lazy mists upon the ground,
Soak through your *startups*. *Fletcher.*

One that comes suddenly into notice.—That young *start-up* hath all the glory of my overthrow. *Shakspeare.*

STARTUP, *adj.* Suddenly come into notice. *A bad word.*—A new *start-up* sect. *Warburton.*

To *STARVE*, *v. n.* [ʒteappian, Sax. *sterven*, Dutch, to die.] To perish; to be destroyed. *Obsolete.*

To her came message of the murderment,
Wherein her guiltless friends should hopeless starve. *Fairfax.*

To perish with hunger. It has *with* or *for* before the cause; *of* less properly. Were the pains of honest industry, and of *starving* with hunger and cold, set before us, no body would doubt which to chuse. *Locke.*—An animal that *starves* of hunger, dies feverish and delirious. *Arbuthnot.*—To be killed with cold. It has *with* or *for* before the cause.

Have I seen the naked *starve* for cold,
While avarice my charity controll'd? *Sandys.*

To suffer extreme poverty.

Sometimes virtue *starves* while vice is fed:
What then? Is the reward of virtue bread? *Pope.*

To be destroyed with cold. Had the seeds of the pepper-plant been borne from Java to these northern countries, they must have *starved* for want of sun. *Woodward.*

To *STARVE*, *v. a.* To kill with hunger.

I cannot blame his cousin king,
That wish'd him on the barren mountains *starv'd*. *Shakspeare.*

To subdue by famine.

Thy desires

Are wolfish, bloody, *starv'd*, and ravenous. *Shakspeare.*

To kill with cold.

From beds of raging fire to *starve* in ice
Their soft ethereal warmth, and there to pine
Immovable, infix'd, and frozen round. *Milton.*

To deprive of force or vigour.—The powers of their minds are *starved* by disuse, and have lost that reach and strength which nature fitted them to receive. *Locke.*

STARVEGUT BAY, a bay on the south west coast of Jamaica, south of Starvegut Point.

STARVEGUT

STARVEGUT POINT, a cape on the south-west coast of Jamaica. Lat. 17. 58. N. long. 77. 45. W.

STARVELING, *s.* An animal thin and weak for want of nourishment.—If I hang, I'll make a fat pair of gallows; for old Sir John hangs with me, and he's no *starveling*. *Shakspeare.*

STARVELING, *adj.* Hungry; lean; pining.

Poor *starveling* bard, how small thy gains!

How unproportion'd to thy pains!

Swift.

STARWORT, *s.* [*aster*, Lat.] A plant; elecampane. STARYSZOW, a small town in the south of Poland; 60 miles south of Warsaw, and 9 south-west of Radom.

STASSFURT, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the duchy of Magdeburgh. Population 1600. It has an extensive salt work; 20 miles south of Magdeburgh.

STASZOW, a small town in the south of Poland, on the river Esama; 28 miles west of Sandomir, and 25 north-east of Cracow. Population 1600.

STATARY, *adj.* [from *status*, Lat.] Fixed; settled. The set and *statary* times of paring of nails, and cutting of hair, is but the continuation of ancient superstition. *Brown.*

STATE, *s.* [*status*, Lat.] Condition; circumstances of nature or fortune.

I do not, brother,

Infer as if I thought my sister's *state*

Secure.

Milton.

Modification of any thing.—Keep the *state* of the question in your eye. *Boyle.*—Stationary point; crisis; height; point from which the next movement is regression.—Tumours have their several degrees and times; as beginning, augment, *state*, and declination. *Wiseman.*—[*Estat*, Fr.] Estate; signiory; possession.

Strong was their plot,

Their *states* far off, and they of wary wit.

Daniel.

Mode of government.—No *state* can be named wherein any part of the body of those imperial laws hath the just force of a law, otherwise than as custom hath particularly induced it. *Selden.*—The community; the public; the commonwealth.

If any thing more than your sport
Did move your greatness, and this noble *state*
To call on him, he hopes it is no other
But for your health sake.

Shakspeare.

Hence *single state* in Shakspeare for individuality.

My thought, whose murder is but fantastical,
Shakes so my *single state* of man, that function
Is smother'd in surmise.

Shakspeare.

Civil power; not ecclesiastical.—The same criminal may be absolved by the church, and condemned by the *state*; absolved or pardoned by the *state*, yet censured by the church. *Leslie.*—A republic; a government not monarchial.

Well monarchies may own religion's name,
But *states* are atheists in their very fame.

Dryden.

Rank; condition; quality.

Fair dame, I am not to you known,
Though in your *state* of honour I am perfect.

Shakspeare.

Solemn pomp; appearance of greatness. [*Stact*, Su. Goth., *pompa*; *stact*, Icel., *jactantia*, *staeta*, *superbis gressibus incedere*. *Serenius.*]

There kings receiv'd the marks of sov'reign pow'r:
In *state* the monarchs march'd, the lictors bore
The awful axes and the rods before.

Dryden.

Dignity; grandeur.

He was staid, and in his gait
Preserv'd a grave majestic *state*.

Butler.

A seat of dignity.—This chair shall be my *state*, this dagger my sceptre, and this cushion my crown. *Shakspeare.*
—A canopy; a covering of dignity.

His high throne—under *state*
Of richest texture spread, at th' upper end
Was plac'd.

Milton.

A person of high rank. *Obsolete.* See STATES.—The archbishop of Grenada saying to the archbishop of Toledo, that he much marvelled, he, being so great a *state*, would visit hospitals. *Wits, Fitts and Fancies.*—The principal persons in the government.

The bold design
Pleas'd highly those infernal *states*.

Milton.

Joined with another word it signifies public.
Council! What's that? a pack of bearded slaves,
The scavengers that sweep *state* nuisances,
And are themselves the greatest.

Dryden.

To STATE, *v. a.* [*constater*, Fr.] To settle; to regulate.—He is capable of corruption, who receives more than what is the *stated* and unquestioned fee of his office. *Addison.*—To *state* it fairly, imitation is the most advantageous way for a translator to shew himself, but the greatest wrong which can be done to the memory of the dead. *Dryden.*

STATEDLY, *adv.* Regularly; not occasionally.—Why should not the body assume *statedly* the air of a thing, to which it is so often obliged to suit itself? *Philosoph. Lett. on Physiognom.*

STATELINESS, *s.* Grandeur; majestic appearance; august manner; dignity.—For *stateliness* and majesty what is comparable to a horse? *Morc.*—Appearance of pride; affected dignity.

She hated *stateliness*: but wisely knew
What just regard was to her title due.

Betterton.

STATELY, *adj.* [*statelig*, Su. Goth. *Serenius.*]—August; grand; lofty; elevated; majestic; magnificent.

A *statelier* pyramid to her I'll rear,
That Rhodope's or Memphis' ever was.

Shakspeare.

Elevated in mien or sentiment.—He maintains majesty in the midst of plainness, and is *stately* without ambition, which is the vice of Lucan. *Dryden.*

STATELY, *adv.* Majestically.—Ye that *stately* tread,
or lowly creep. *Milton.*

STATEMENT, *s.* The arrangement of a series of facts or circumstances. *Malone.*—The facts or circumstances so arranged; the thing stated. *Suppl. to Ash and Malone.*

STATEMONGER, *s.* One who is versed in the arts of government: perhaps in contempt for an over-busy politician.—I would therefore see the most subtle *statemonger* in the world chalk out a way for his majestic to mediate. *Ld. Keeper Williams.*

STATEN ISLAND, an island on the United States, which belongs to New York, and forms Richmond county. It is about 18 miles in length, and, where widest, 8 in breadth. On the south side is a considerable track of level, good land, but the island in general is rough, and the hills high. Population 5347.

STATEN LAND. See NEW ZEALAND.

STATE OF THE CHURCH, or ECCLESIASTICAL STATE. See POPE.

STATER, an ancient silver coin, weighing four Attic drachms, and worth about three shillings or three shillings and a penny sterling.

STATEROOM, *s.* A magnificent room in a palace or great house.

STATES, *s. pl.* Nobility. *Dr. Johnson.*—The other sceptre-bearing *states* arose. *Chapman.*

Kings, queens and *states*,
Maids, matrons.

Shakspeare.

STATESBURG, a post township and capital of the United States, in Claremont district, South Carolina, east of the Waterec.

STATES-GENERAL, the name of an assembly, consisting,

sisting, under the former government, of the deputies of the Seven United Provinces.

In this assembly, the deputies of each province, of what number soever they were, had only one voice and were esteemed as but one person, the votes being given by provinces. Each province presided at the assembly in its turn, according to the order settled among them: Guelderland presided first, then Holland, &c.

This assembly was the representative of the sovereignty of the Union, which resided properly in the general assembly of the states themselves of all the several provinces; but as that assembly ordinarily consisted of seven or eight hundred persons, it was resolved, after the departure of the earl of Leicester, in order to avoid expence, and the confusion of so numerous a body, that the provincial estates should for the future be ordinarily represented by their deputies, under the name of the States-general; who were always to reside at the Hague, and who alone were called States-general.

STATES-GENERAL OF FRANCE, assemblies which were first called A. D. 1302, and were held occasionally from that period to the year 1614, when they were discontinued, till they were summoned again at an interesting period, viz. in the year 1789. These States-general, however, were very different from the ancient assemblies of the French nation under the kings of the first and second race. The old States-general had only the privilege of advising and remonstrating; the legislative authority resided in the king alone.

STATESMAN, *s.* A politician; one versed in the arts of government.

It looks grave enough
To seem a statesman.

B. Jonson.

One employed in public affairs.—Is it a weakness which attends high and low; the *statesman* who holds the helm, as well as the peasant who holds the plough. *South.*—One who occupies his own estate; a small landholder. Used formerly in several parts of England, especially in the northern.

STATESVILLE, a post township and capital of the United States, in Iredell county, North Carolina, 24 miles west-south-west of Salisbury. It contains a court-house, jail, an academy, a church, and about 50 houses.

STATSWOMAN, *s.* A woman who meddles with public affairs; in contempt.—Several objects may innocently be ridiculed, as the passions of our *stateswomen*. *Addison.*

STAFFOLD, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 2½ miles north-east of Tamworth.

STATHENI, a people of India, in the number of those who were subjugated by Alexander.

STATHEUSIS [formed of *σθεωω*, *I heat*], a word used by the old writers to express the torrefaction or roasting of some medicines before a slow fire, as is done frequently at present with rhubarb, &c.

STATIC, or STATICAL, *adj.* Relating to the science of weighing, chiefly the body.—If one by a *statical* engine could regulate his insensible perspiration, he might, often, by restoring of that, foresee, prevent, or shorten a fit of the gout. *Arbutnot.*

STATICE [of Pliny, *Στατική* from *στήμι*, *statuo*; perhaps from its uprightness], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order pentagynia, natural order of aggregatae plumbagines (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth common, of a different structure in the species. Perianth proper, one-leafed, funnel-form: tube narrowed: border entire, plaited, scariose. Corolla funnel-form. Petals five, united at the base, narrowed below, above wider, obtuse, spreading. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla, inserted into the corolla by their claws. Anthers incumbent. Pistil: germ very minute. Styles five, filiform, distant. Stigmas acute. Pericarp: capsule oblong, somewhat cylindrical, membranaceous, five-cusped, one-celled, valveless.—Proper calyx contracted at the neck, expanded in the border, cherishing the capsule when the corolla withers. Seed single, oblong, hanging from a long cord.—*Essential Character.* Calyx

one-petalled, entire, plaited, scariose. Petals five. Seed one, superior.

1. *Statice armeria.* Thrift, or sea gilliflower.—Scape simple, headed; leaves linear, flat, obtuse. Common thrift has a perennial woody root, bearing many thick tufts of lax, linear, channelled, smooth, entire leaves.—Native of Europe and North America. This has two or three varieties.

2. *Statice juniperifolia*, or juniper-leaved thrift.—Scape simple headed; leaves linear, three-sided, rigid, pungent. Tufted, smooth.—Native of Spain and Portugal.

3. *Statice alliacea.*—Scape simple headed; leaves linear-lanceolate, acute.—Native of Spain on the mountains of Enguera, and at the foot of the mountain Montduber and Grospeña.

4. *Statice cephalotes*, or large simple-stalked thrift.—Scape simple headed; leaves oblong, flat, acuminate, attenuated at the base.—It is a native of Algarbia, in Portugal: also of Spain, about Cadiz, &c. Desfontaines found it in sands near La Calle, in Barbary.

5. *Statice graminifolia*, or grass-leaved thrift.—Scape panicled; branches three-sided; leaves linear, channelled.

6. *Statice limonium.* Sea thrift, or sea lavender.—Scape panicled, round; leaves oblong, obtuse, smooth, nerveless; with a sharp point under the tip, waved at the edge. Sea lavender, as it is commonly called, though it has scarcely any resemblance to lavender, and none of its aromatic quality, has a strong, perennial, woody root. This plant varies much as to luxuriance, being sometimes found with leaves scarcely an inch long, and not more than six or eight flowers in a panicle, and at other times much larger, with the flowers far more abundant. The bright blue colour distinguishes it at a distance, and that colour is tolerably permanent. Though less magnificent than some of the foreign species, it is a beautiful plant. The leaves are obovate-lanceolate, and quite entire. The scape is alternately branched, with the branchlets corymbed. Capsule covered by the calyx and corolla, oblong, roundish, membranaceous, five-cusped at the top. Seed smooth, somewhat of a rust colour.—There are two varieties of this common in England, and one found in France.

7. *Statice Gmelini.*—Scape panicled, angular; leaves oblong-ovate, emarginate, flat, cartilage-edged, mucronate beneath.—Native of Siberia, in salt places from the Jaick to Angara.

8. *Statice scoparia.*—Scape panicled, round; leaves oblong-ovate, coriaceous, mucronate, dotted beneath.—Native of Siberia.

9. *Statice latifolia*, or broad-leaved sea lavender.—Scape panicled, very much branched, rugged; leaves pubescent, with hairs in stellated bundles.—Found in Russian Tartary.

10. *Statice oleæfolia*, or olive-leaved sea lavender.—Scape panicled; branches angular-winged; leaves lanceolate, mucronate-cusped, cartilaginous at the edge. Root perennial, woody.—It grows naturally in Narbonne and Provence, Italy and Spain.

11. *Statice incana*, or hoary sea lavender.—Scape panicled; leaves lanceolate, three-nerved, somewhat waved, mucronate at the tip; branches of the panicle three-sided.—Native of Egypt and Siberia.

12. *Statice auriculæfolia*, or auricula leaved sea lavender.—Scape simple, round; spikes lateral and terminating, directed one way; leaves spatulate, acute.—Native of the coast of Barbary.

13. *Statice cordata*, or heart-leaved sea lavender.—Scape panicled; leaves spatulate, retuse.—It grows naturally near the sea, about Marseilles, Leghorn, the maritime rocks of Piedmont, Spain, &c., and in Barbary.

14. *Statice scabra*, or rough-branched sea lavender.—Leaves radical, obovate, oblong, obtuse; branches rugged.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

15. *Statice tetragona*, or square-stalked sea lavender.—Scape panicled, four-cornered; leaves obovate.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

16. *Statice reticulata*, or matted sea lavender.—Scape panicled, prostrate, flexuose; lower branches barren; leaves

wedge-

wedge shaped, awnless.—Native of the South of France and Malta. Wheeler observed it in Greece.

17. *Statice echioides*, or rough-leaved sea lavender.—Scape panicled, round, jointed; leaves rugged.—Native of the South of Europe, and in Barbary, near Mascar, in the clefts of rocks.

18. *Statice speciosa*, or plaitain-leaved sea lavender.—Scape branched, round; branches ancipital, winged; flowers imbricate; leaves obovate-cusped, mucronate, cartilaginous at the edge.—Native of Russia.

19. *Statice Tatarica*, or Tartarian sea lavender.—Scape branched, divaricating; branches three-sided; flowers distant; leaves lanceolate-obovate, mucronate.—Native of Russia.

20. *Statice echinus*.—Scape panicled; leaves subulate, mucronate.—Native of Greece, and the deserts of Media.—The remaining species of this section are *Statice flexuosa*, *purpurata*, *longifolia*, *minuta*, *pectinata*, *suffruticosa*, *monopetala*, *axillaris*, *cylindrifolia*, *linifolia*, *aurea*, *ferulacea-pruinosa*, *sinuata*, *lobata*, *spicata*, *mucronata*, *globularia*, and *spathulata*.

Propagation and Culture.—Thrift may be propagated by parting the roots in autumn, that the plants may take good root before frost comes on, and that they may flower stronger if they were planted in the spring. The common sea lavender, and most of the other sorts are abiding plants, and will thrive in the open air.

STATICS, *s.* [*στατική*, Gr.; *statique*, Fr.] The science which considers the weight of bodies.—This is a catholic rule of *statics*, that if any body be bulk for bulk heavier than a fluid, it will sink the bottom; and if lighter it will float upon it, having part extant, and part immersed, as that so much of the fluid as is equal in bulk to the immersed part be equal in gravity to the whole. *Bentley*.

Those who define mechanics the science of motion, make statics a subordinate part of it; viz. that part which considers the motion of bodies arising from gravity.

Others make them two distinct doctrines, restraining mechanics to the doctrine of motion and weight, in reference to the structure and power of machines; and statics to the doctrine of motion, considered merely as arising from the weight of bodies, without any immediate respect to machines. On which footing, statics should be the doctrine or theory of motion; and mechanics, the application of it to machines.

STATION, *s.* [*statio*, Lat.] The act of standing.

In *station* like the herald, Mercury,
New-lighted on a heaven-kissing hill. *Shakspeare*.

A state of rest.—All progression is performed by drawing on or impelling forward some part which was before in *station* or at quiet, where there are no joints. *Brown*.—A place where any one is placed.—The planets in their *station* listening stood. *Milton*.—Post assigned; office.—Michael in either hand leads them out of Paradise, the fiery serpent waving behind them, and the cherubims taking their *stations* to guard the place. *Milton*.—Situation; position.

The fig and date, why love they to remain
In middle *station* and an even plain;
While in the lower marsh the gourd is found,
And while the hill with olive-shade is crown'd? *Prior*.

Employment; office.—Whether those who are leaders of a party arrive at that *station* more by a sort of instinct, or influence of the stars, than by the possession of any great abilities, may be a point of much dispute. *Swift*.—Character; state.—Far the greater part have kept their *station*. *Milton*.—Rank; condition of life.—I can be contented with an humbler *station* in the temple of virtue, than to be set on the pinnacle. *Dryden*.

To **STATION**, *v. a.* To place in a certain post, rank, or place.—He gained the brow of the hill, where the English phalanx was *stationed*. *Lyttleton*.

STATIONARII, were men, thus called in the middle ages, who trafficked in books, made large fortunes by lending them out to be read, at exorbitant prices, not in volumes, but in detached parts, according to the estimation in which the author was held.

STATIONARY, *adj.* [*stationnaire*, Fr. *Cotgrave* Fixed; not progressive.—Mine own businesses are rather *stationary* than retrograde. *Wotton*.

STATIONER, *s.* A bookseller. [“The term *stationers* was appropriated to *booksellers* in the year 1662.—The company of *stationers* existed long before the invention of printing. A *stationer*, therefore, was a dealer who kept a *shop* or *stall*, as distinguished from an itinerant vender, whether of books or broomsticks.” *Pegge*.] Some modern tragedies are beautiful on the stage, and yet Tryphon the *stationer*, complains they are seldom asked for in his shop. *Dryden*.—A seller of paper, pens, ink, &c.

STATIONERY, *s.* The wares of a stationer—paper, pens, ink.

STATISM, *s.* Policy; the arts of government.—Hence it is, that the enemies of God take occasion to blaspheme, and call our religion *statism*. *South*.

STATIST, *s.* A statesman; a politician; one skilled in government.

I do believe,
Statist though I am none, nor like to be,
That this shall prove a war. *Shakspeare*.

STATISTIC, or **STATISTICAL**, *adj.* Political. [This word, as well as the substantive, is of very recent date in our language. *Todd*.]

STATISTICS, *s.* This word implies commonly that part of political science that regards the population, buildings, agricultural and manufactured productions, revenue, &c. Neither the derivation of the word, the meanings of its collaterals (of *statist* especially), nor the wants of our language, which has no word comprehending the whole of political science, warrant this restriction.

STATIUS (Publius Papinus), an eminent Roman poet, was born at Naples, in which city his father was settled as a teacher of oratory, and was in great reputation both for his lectures and poetry, in which he gained several prizes. Statius was born probably about the year A. D. 61. He early displayed a lively disposition and good talents, and soon became a votary of the muses with so much success, that during his father's life he obtained the crown in the poetical contests of his native place. He was thrice a victor in the poetical games celebrated at Alba. The poems which he addressed to several of the principal persons in Rome, are proofs of the friendships which he contracted with men of rank in that city; and a piece, which he recited in the quinquennial games instituted by Nero, and renewed by Domitian, procured for him a golden crown from that emperor, and the honour of admission to his table. He was vanquished at a contest in the Roman games, on which occasion he recited a part of his principal work, the *Thebaid*. According to Juvenal, he was heard with delight by a crowd of auditors in other public recitations of this poem: the satirist at the same time intimating, that notwithstanding this applause, the author might have starved, had he not sold his “*Agave*,” apparently a new composition, to a celebrated actor, a favourite of Domitian. He possessed a small estate and country house near the site of the ancient Alba, and lived in a decent state of mediocrity. Having no children of his own, he adopted a son, whose death he tenderly laments in one of his miscellaneous poems. The time of his own death is not known, but it is thought to have been about the year 96, when he was only 35 years of age. He is not even mentioned by any contemporary poet, except Juvenal. Martial, who celebrates many other poets, takes not the least notice of him. The existing works of Statius consist of the “*Sylvæ*,” or miscellaneous pieces, in five books; the “*Thebaid*,” an epic poem, in twelve books; and two books of an unfinished poem, entitled “*Achilles*.” “They all, says his biographer, display a considerable share of genius and real talent, but are vitiated by the false taste which then began to infest Latin poetry, and gave a turn to turgid and unnatural thoughts and expressions. Several pieces in the ‘*Sylvæ*’ are, however, pleasing and elegant. His principal work, the ‘*Thebaid*,’ holds no mean rank among epic poems, and once it

was a great favourite among the remains of antiquity. For this preference it was indebted to its swelling sentiments, verging to bombast, and to the savage and sanguinary character of its incidents, which suited the times of chivalrous turbulence. But with these faults it exhibits strokes of the real sublime, and considerable force and novelty in natural description, especially in the similies." The best editions are those of Caspar Barthius, 4to. 1664; of Veenhuysen, Lug. Bat. 8vo. 1671; and the Delphin, 2 vols. 4to. 1685. Markland's edition of the "Sylvæ" is highly esteemed.

STATUARY, s. [*statuaire*, Fr.; from *statua*, Lat.] The art of carving images or representations of life.—Painting and the *statuary*-art, cousin Germans to poetry. *Hake-will*.—The northern nations, that overwhelmed it by their numbers, were too barbarous to preserve the remains of learning more carefully than they did those of architecture and *statuary*. *Temple*.—One that practises or professes the art of making statues.

As the *statuary*,

That, by the large size of Alcides' foot,
Guess'd at his whole proportion.

Beaum. and Fl.

On other occasions the *statuaries* took their subjects from the poets. *Addison*.—How shall any man, who hath a genius for history, undertake such a work with spirit and cheerfulness, when he considers that he will be read with pleasure but a very few years? This is like employing an excellent *statuary* to work upon mouldering stone. *Swift*.

STATUE, s. [*statue*, Fr.; *statua*, Lat.] The Latin form was anciently followed by our writers; and continued to be in use, till late in the seventeenth century. "Let there be a fountain, or some fair work of *statuas*, in the midst of this court." *Bacon*.] An image; a solid representation of any living being.—Architects propounded unto Alexander to cut the mountain Athos into the form of a *statue*, which in his right hand should hold a town capable of containing ten thousand men, and in his left a vessel to receive all the water that flowed from the mountain. *Wilkins*.

To STATUE, v. a. To place as a statue; to form as a statue. *Unused*.

Thou shalt be worshipp'd, kiss'd, lov'd and ador'd;
And were there senses in his idolatry,
My substance should be *statued* in thy stead. *Shakspeare*.

To STATUMINATE, v. a. [*statumino*, Lat.] To support; to underprop. *Not in use*.—I will *statuminate* and underprop thee. *B. Jonson*.

STATURE, s. [*stature*, Fr.; *statura*, Lat.] The height of any animal.—What *stature* we attain at seven years we sometimes double, most times come short of at one-and-twenty. *Bacon*.

STATURED, adj. Arrived at full stature.

How doth the giant honour seeme
Well *statur'd* in my fond esteeme! *Hall*.

STATUTABLE, adj. According to statute.—I met with one who was three inches above five feet, the *statutable* measure of that club. *Addison*.

STATUTABLY, adv. In a manner agreeable to law.—Holder was *statutably* established in this place by Dr. Fell. *Warton*.

STATUTE, s. [*statutum*, Lat.] A law; an edict of the legislature.—Not only the common law, but also the *statutes* and acts of parliament, were specially intended for its benefit. *Spenser*.

STATUTORY, adj. Enacted by statute.—In the formulary and *statutory* part of law a plodding blockhead may excel; but in the ingenious and rational part of it, a plodding blockhead can never excel. *Johnson*.

STAVANGER, s. An old town in the south of Norway, on the coast. It was formerly a bishop's see, but, on the town being burnt down in 1686, the bishopric was removed to Christiansand. The cathedral, however, remains, and is the finest in Norway. The town contains 2500 inhabi-

tants, and has a small harbour and good fisheries; 85 miles north-west of Christiansand. Lat. 58. 58. 20. N. long. 5. 56. 45. E.

STAUBBACH, s. a celebrated cataract in the Swiss canton of Bern, near the village of Lauterbrunn. The quantity of water is small, but the descent is almost unexampled, the water falling from a height of 1400 feet.

To STAVE, v. a. [from *staff*.] To break in pieces: used originally of barrels made of small parts or staves.—If an irreverent expression, or a thought too wanton, are crept into my verses, let them be *stav'd* or forfeited like contrabanded goods. *Dryden*.—To push away as with a staff: with *off*.—How can they escape the contagion of the writings, whom the virulence of the calumnies have not *staved off* from reading. *B. Jonson*.—To pour out by breaking the cask.—The feared disorders that might ensue thereof have been an occasion that divers times all the wine in the city hath been *staved*. *Sandys*.—To furnish with rundles or staves.—This was the shameful end of Aloysius Gritus, Solyman's deputy in Hungary; who climbing too fast up the evil-*staved* ladder of ambition, suddenly fell, and never rose more. *Knolles*.

To STAVE, v. n. To fight with staves.

Equal shame and envy stirr'd
I' the enemy, that one should be heard
So many warriours, and so stout,
As he had done, and *stav'd* it out. *Hudibras*.

To STAVE and Tail, v. n. To part dogs, by interposing a staff, and by pulling the tale. The conquering foe they soon assail'd,
First Trulla *stav'd*, and Cerdon *tail'd*,
Until their mastiffs loos'd their hold. *Hudibras*.

STAVE, s. A metrical portion; a staff. It is a common term for the verse of one of the psalms appointed to be sung.

STAVELE, s. a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders, with 1000 inhabitants; 10 miles west-north-west of Ypres.

STAVELY, s. a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles south-west of Boroughbridge.

STAVELY, s. a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 4½ miles north-east of Chesterfield. Population 1793.

STAVELEY, s. a hamlet of England, in Lancashire; 9 miles north-east of Ulverston.

STAVELEY, NETHER, s. a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 5 miles north-west-by-north of Kendal.

STAVELEY OVER, s. a hamlet in the above county, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

STAVELOT, s. See **STABLO**.

STAVENISSE, s. a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Zealand, with 700 inhabitants; 13 miles west-north-west of Bergen-op-Zoom.

STAVEREN, s. a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Friesland, on the Zuyderzee, opposite to Enkhuisen. It is a very ancient place, having been once the residence of the kings of Friesland, and at a later period one of the Hanse towns. Its harbour was large and commodious but repeated inundations of the sea have choaked it up, reducing its trade to insignificance, and its population to 1100; 14 miles north-north-east of Endhuysen. Lat. 52. 54. N. long. 5. 13. E.

STAVERN, s. a small town of the south of Norway, with a fortress and harbour, which serves as a port to the town of Laurwig, and as a station for galleys and small ships of war.

STAVERTON, s. a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3 miles north-by-west of Totnes. Population 1001.

STAVERTON, s. a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 4½ miles north-east of Gloucester.

STAVERTON, s. a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2 miles west-south-west of Daventry. Population 448

STAVES, s. The plural of *staff*.

All in strange manner arm'd,
Some rustick knives, some *staves* in fire warm'd. *Spenser*.

STAVESACRE, s.

STA'VESACRE, *s.* Larkspur. A plant. See DELPHINIUM.

STAUFEN, a small town in the south-west of Germruy, in Baden, and the Brisgan; 24 miles north of Bale, and 9 south-south-west of Freyburg. It has 1500 inhabitants, and in the neighbourhood a lead and silver mine.

STAUFENBERG, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, on the Lahn: 5 miles north-north-east of Giessen, and 10 east-north-east of Wetzlar.

STAUGHTON, GREAT, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 10½ miles north-north-east of Bedford.

STAUGHTON, LITTLE, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 3 miles south-east of Kimbolton. Population 960.

STAVIGRAD, a small town of the Austrian states, in Military Croatia, on the coast of the Adriatic; 55 miles south-south-east of Fiume.

STAVLOS. See STAGIRA.

STAUNCH. See STANCH.

STAUNTON, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 10 miles south-west of Daventry.

STAUNTON, a post town of the United States, and capital of Augusta county, Virginia. It is delightfully situated in a healthy part of the country, regularly laid out, and contains 2 court-houses, a jail, an academy, 3 churches, and had in 1818, about 1500 inhabitants. About 12 miles north-west of the town there is a sulphur spring, which was discovered in 1815, and is now much visited; 40 miles west-north-west of Charlottesville, and 120 west-north-west of Richmond.

STAUNTON, a post township of the United States, in Miami county, Ohio, on the Miami; 1 mile east of Troy.

STAUNTON, a principal branch of the Roanoke, Virginia, in the United States. It rises on the west side of the Blue Ridge, and there has the name of Roanoke; but after its passage through the Blue Ridge, it takes the name of Staunton, which it retains to its junction with the Dan, on the west border of Mecklenburg county. After the junction, it resumes the name of Roanoke. It might be made navigable at a small expence, 100 miles above the junction.

STAUNTON HARROLD, a township of England, in Leicestershire; 3½ miles north-north-east of Ashby-de-la-Zouch

STAUNTON WYVIL, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 5 miles north-by-east of Market Harborough.

STAUNTON IN THE VALE, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 6½ miles south of Newark.

STAUNTON WHITE, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 4 miles from Chard.

STAVRES HOVED, a cape of Denmark, on the east coast of the island of Fyen. Lat. 55. 29. N. long. 10. 46. E.

STAURO KORAKI (signifying the Raven Cross), a mountain of Greece, in Attica, near the plain of Marathon.

STAUROPHORI [Σταυροφοροι, Gr., compounded of σταυρος, *a cross*, and φερω, *I carry*], in Church History, certain ecclesiastics, whose business it was to carry the cross in processions.

STAUROPHYLAX [Σταυροφυλαξ, Gr., derived from σταυρος, *a cross*, and φυλασσω, *I keep*], a dignified officer in the church of Constantinople, to whose care the keeping of the cross, founded by St. Helena, was committed.

STAVROPOL, a small town of the south-east of European Russia, on a branch of the Wolga, in the government of Simbirsk. It contains 2400 inhabitants, has a fort, and is agreeably situated in the midst of eminences covered with wood. The environs are inhabited by Calmucks, who, to the number of about 14,000, have been converted to Christianity, and have here their own court of justice and a school.

STAWELL, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 4 miles east-by-north of Bridgewater.

STAWICZYN, a small town of the west of Poland; 11 miles north of Kalisch. Population 1000.

STAWISZKEN, a small town in the north of Poland;

92 miles north-north-east of Warsaw, and 15 north of Lomza. Population 1250.

STAWLEY, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles west-by-north of Wellington.

STAXIGOE, a small village of Scotland, in Caithness. It has a harbour near the town of Wick.

STAXIS, a word used by the ancient physicians to express a distillation of the blood in drops from the nose.

STAXTON, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 6½ miles south-south-west of Scarborough.

To STAY, *v. n.* [*staa*, Su. Goth.; *staen*, Dutch.] To continue in a place; to forbear departure.—*Stay*, I command you, *stay* and hear me first. *Dryden*.—Nor must he *stay* at home, because he must be *stay* again by one-and-twenty. *Locke*.—To continue in a state.

The flames augment and *stay*
At their full height, then languish to decay. *Dryden*.

To wait; to attend; to forbear to act.

I'll tell thee my whole device
When I am in my coach, which *stays* for us. *Shakspeare*.

Would ye tarry for them till they were grown? would ye *stay* for them from having husbands? *Ruth*.—To stop; to stand still.

When she list, pour out her larger spright,
She would command the hasty sun to *stay*,
Or backward turn his course. *Spenser*.

To dwell; to be long.

Nor will I *stay*
On Amphig, or what deaths he dealt that day. *Dryden*.

To rest confidently: with *upon*.—They call themselves of the holy city, and *stay* themselves *upon* God. *Isa*.—To wait; to give ceremonious or submissive attendance: with *upon*.—Worthy Macbeth, we *stay upon* your leisure. *Shakspeare*.

To STAY, *v. a.* To stop; to withhold; to repress.—The Syrens sang to allure them into danger; but Orpheus sang so well that he *staid* them. *Raleigh*.—He took nothing but a bit of bread to *stay* his stomach. *Locke*.

To *stay* these sudden gusts of passion,
That hurry you from reason, rest assur'd
The secret of your love-lies with me only. *Rowe*.

To delay; to obstruct; to hinder from progression.

The joyous time will not be *stay'd*
Unless she do him by the forelock take. *Spenser*.

I was willing to *stay* my reader on an argument that appears to me new. *Locke*.—To keep from departure.—The people—*stayed* him that he should not depart from them. *St. Luke*.

If as a prisoner I were here, you might
Have then insisted on a conqueror's right,
And *stay'd* me here. *Dryden*.

To wait for; to stay for.—[*Estayer*, Fr.] To prop; to support; to hold up.—On this determination, we might *stay* ourselves without further proceeding herein. *Hooker*.—Aaron and Hurr *stayed* up his hands, the one on the one side and the other on the other. *Exod*.

STAY, *s.* [*estaye*, Fr.] Continuance in a place; forbearance of departure.

Determine,

Or for her *stay* or going; the affair cries haste. *Shakspeare*.

Should judges make a longer *stay* in a place than usually they do, a day in a county would be a very good addition. *Bacon*.

So long a *stay* will make
The jealous king suspect we have been plotting. *Denham*.

Stand; cessation of progression.—Bones, after full growth, continue at a *stay*; teeth stand at a *stay*, except their wearing. *Bacon*.—Affairs of state seem'd rather to stand at a *stay*, than to advance or decline. *Hayward*.—A stop; an obstruction; a hindrance from progress.

His fell heart thought long that little way,
Griev'd with each step, tormented with each *stay*. *Fairfax*.

Restraint; prudence; caution; discreet steadiness; sobriety of judgment.

For her son

In her own hand the crown she kept in store,
Till riper years he raught, and stronger *stay*. *Spenser*.

Many just and temperate provisos, well showed and foretokened the wisdom, *stay* and moderation of the king. *Bacon*.—A fixed state.

Who have before, or shall write after thee,
Their works though toughly laboured will be
Like infancy or age to man's firm *stay*,
Or early and late twilights to mid-day. *Donne*.

A prop; a support.—Obedience of creatures unto the law of nature is the *stay* of the whole world. *Hooker*.

What surety of the world, what hope, what *stay*,
When this was once a king, and now is clay. *Shakespeare*.

Tackling that fixes and supports the masts.
With *stays* and cordage last he rigg'd a ship,
And, roll'd on levers, launch'd her in the deep. *Pope*.

Steadiness of conduct.

STAYED, *part. adj.* Fixed; settled; serious; not volatile.—Whatsoever is above these proceedeth of shortness of memory or of want of a *stayed* and equal attention. *Bacon*.
STAYEDLY, *adv.* Composedly; gravely; prudently; soberly; calmly; judiciously.

STAYEDNESS, *s.* Solidity; weight.—When substantialness combineth with delightfulness, and currentness with *stayedness*, how can the language sound other than most full of sweetness? *Camden*.—Composure; prudence; gravity; judiciousness.—Jesting—is a thing much unbecoming the *stayedness* of a christian. *Whately*.

STAYER, *s.* One who stops, holds or supports.

May Jove, the guardian of the capitol,
He, the great *stayer* of our troops in rout,
Fulfil your hopes, and animate the cohorts. *A. Philips*.

STAYLACE, *s.* A lace with which women fasten their boddices.—A *staylace* from England should become a topic for censure at visits. *Swift*.

STAYLESS, *adj.* Without stop or delay.

They fled the field

With *stainless* steppes, each one his life to shield.

Mir. for. Mag.

STAYLEY BRIDGE, a parish of England, in Cheshire, situated on the river Teame, over which there is an excellent stone bridge; 8 miles north-east of Stockport. Population 1104.

STAYMAKER, *s.* One that follows the trade of making stays. *Mason*.—Our ladies choose to be shaped by the *staymaker*. *Spence*.

STAYS, *s. pl.* Without singular: bodice; a kind of stiff waistcoat made of whalebone, worn by women.—No stubborn *stays* her yielding shape embrace. *Gay*.—Ropes in a ship to keep the mast from falling aft.—All masts, topmasts and flagstaves, have *stays*, except the spritsail topmast: the mainmast, foremast, with the masts belonging to them, have also back *stays*, which help to keep the mast from pitching forward or overboard. *Harris*.—[*stade*, Sax.] Station; fixed anchorage.—They were come upon the *stays*, when one of the sailors descried a galle. *Sidney*.

Our ships lay anchor'd close: nor needed we
Feare harme on any *staics*. *Chapman*.

Any support; any thing that keeps another extended.—Weavers, stretch our *stays* upon the west. *Dryden*.

To STAW, *v. n.* [*staa*, Su. Goth., to stand.] To be fixed or set; to stand still. Applied, in some parts of the north, to a cart when fixed in a rut; and to the stomach, when it is crammed.

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STEAD, *sted*, being in the name of a place that is distant from any river, comes from the Saxon *steb*, *steb*, a place; but if it be not upon the river or harbour, it is to be derived from *stade*, a shore or station for ships. *Gibson*.

STEAD, *s.* [*stads*, Goth.; *steb*, Sax.; *sted*, Dan. and Germ.; *stede*, Dutch.] Place. Obsolete in writing; but retained in our northern dialect; as it lies in such a *stead*.

Fly therefore, fly this fearful *stead* anon,
Lest thy foolhardize work thy sad confusion. *Spenser*.

They nigh approached to the *stead*
Where as those mermaids dwelt. *Spenser*

Room; place which another had or might have. It is scarcely used but with the preposition *in*.—If we had taken them clean away, or else removed them, so as to place *in* their *stead* others, we had done worse. *Hooker*.—Use; help. To stand *in stead*; to be of great use; to help; to advantage.—A compleat man hath some parts, whereof the want could not deprive him of his essence; yet to have them standeth him *in singular stead*, in respect of special uses. *Hooker*.—The frame of a bed.

The genial bed,
Sallow the feet, the borders and the *sted*. *Dryden*.

To STEAD, *v. a.* To help; to advantage; to support; to assist. A word somewhat obsolete.—We are neither in skill, nor ability of power greatly to *stead* you. *Sidney*.

It nothing *steads* us

To chide him from our eyes. *Shakespeare*.

To fill the place of another. *Obsolete*.—We shall advise this wronged maid to *stead* up our appointment, and go in your place. *Shakespeare*.

STEADFAST, *adj.* [*stebfast*, Sax.] Fast in place; firm; fixed.

How reverend is the face of this tall pile,
Whose massy pillars rear their aged heads
To bear aloft its arch'd and pond'rous roof,
By its own weight made *steadfast* and immoveable,
Looking tranquillity; it strikes an awe
And terror on my aking sight. *Congreve*.

Constant; resolute.

I hope her stubborn heart to bend,
And that it then more *steadfast* will endure. *Spenser*.

Be faithful to thy neighbour in his poverty; abide *steadfast* unto him in the time of his trouble. *Ecclus*.—Him resist *steadfast* in the faith. 1 *Pet*.—Not turned aside by fear.

What form of death could him affright,
Who unconcern'd, with *steadfast* sight,
Cou'd view the surges mounting steep,
And monsters rolling in the deep? *Dryden*.

STEADFASTLY, *adv.* Firmly; constantly.—God's omniscience *steadfastly* grasps the greatest and most slippery uncertainties. *South*.

STEADFASTNESS, *s.* Immutability; fixedness.

So hard these heavenly beauties be enfir'd,
As things divine, least passions do impress,
The more of *steadfast* minds to be admir'd,
The more they *stayed* be on *steadfastness*. *Spenser*.

Firmness; constancy; resolution

STEADILY, *adv.* Without tottering; without shaking.—Sin has a tendency to bring men under evils, unless hindered by some accident, which no man can *steadily* build upon. *South*.—Without variation or irregularity.

So *steadily* does fickle fortune steer
Th' obedient orb that it should never err. *Blackmore*.

STEADINESS, *s.* [*stebignýrre*, Sax.] State of being not tottering nor easily shaken.—Firmness; constancy.—John got the better of his choleric temper, and wrought himself up to a great *steadiness* of mind, to pursue his interest through all impediments. *Arbutnot*.—Consistent unvaried conduct.—*Steadiness* is a point of prudence as well as

of courage. *L'Estrange*.—A friend is useful to form an undertaking, and secure *steadiness* of conduct. *Collier*.

STEADY, *adj.* [ʃteɪdi, Sax.] Firm; fixed; tottering.—Their feet *steady*, their hands diligent, their eyes watchful, and their hearts resolute. *Sidney*.—Regular; constant; undeviating; unremitted.—He—sails between worlds and worlds with *steady* wing. *Milton*.

Steer the bounding bark with *steady* toil,
When the storm thickens and the billows boil. *Pope*.

Not wavering; not fickle; not changeable with regard to resolution or attention.

Now clear I understand,
What oft my *steadiest* thoughts have search'd in vain.
Milton.

A clear sight keeps the understanding *steady*. *Locke*.

To STEADY, *v. a.* To make steady.—The bird not only clings with its claws, but partly supports itself by strongly inclining its tail against the wall, making that a fulcrum; and, thus *steadied*, it works and plasters the materials into the face of the brick or stone. *White*.

STEAK, *s.* [ʃteɪk, Sax.; which Mr. H. Tooke considers as the participle of *stican*, to stick; a *steak* being “a piece or portion of flesh so small, as that it may be taken up and carried, *stuck* upon a fork, or any slender *sticking* instrument.” *Div. of Purl*, ii. 221.]—A slice of flesh broiled or fried; a collop.—The surgeon protested he had cured him very well, and offered to eat the first *steak* of him.

Fair ladies who contrive
To feast on ale and *steaks*. *Swift*.

To STEAL, *v. a.* preterite, *I stole*, part. pass. *stolen*. [*stilan*, Goth. *stela*, Icel. *stelan*, Sax.]—To take by theft; to take clandestinely; to take without right; *To steal* generally implies secrecy; to *rob*, either secrecy or violence. *Dr. Johnson*. The primitive is *still*, (Teut. *stille*), tacitly, hiddenly. *Callander*.

Thou rann'st a tilt in honour of my love,
And *stol'st* away the ladies' hearts of France. *Shakspeare*.

A schoolboy finding a bird's nest, shews it his companion, and he *steals* it. *Shakspeare*.—To withdraw or convey without notice.

Let us shift away, there's warrant in that theft
Which *steals* itself when there's no mercy left. *Shakspeare*.

To gain or effect by private and gradual means.

Young Lorenzo
Stole her soul with many vows of faith,
And ne'er a true one. *Shakspeare*.

To STEAL, *v. n.* To withdraw privily; to pass silently.—Fixt of mind to avoid further entreaty, and to fly all company, one night she *stole* away. *Sidney*.

I cannot think it,
That he would *steal* away so guilty like,
Seeing you coming. *Shakspeare*.

A bride
Should vanish from her clothes into her bed,
As souls from bodies *steal* and are not spy'd. *Donne*.
Now his fierce eyes with sparkling fury glow,
Now sighs *steal* out, and tears begin to flow. *Pope*.

To practice theft; to play the thief; to take any thing thievishly; to have the habit of thieving.—*Stealing* is the taking from another what is his, without his knowledge or allowance. *Locke*.

STEALER, *s.* One who steals; a thief.—The transgression is in the *stealer*. *Shakspeare*.

STEALINGLY, *adv.* Slyly; by invisible motion; by secret practice.—They were diverse motions, they did so *stealingly* slip one into another, as the latter part was ever in hand before the eye could discern the former was ended. *Sidney*.

STEALTH, *s.* The act of stealing; theft.—The owner proveth the *stealth* to have been committed upon him

by such an outlaw, and to have been found in the possession of the prisoner. *Spenser on Ireland*.

The *stealth* of mutual entertainment
With character too gross is written on Juliet. *Shakspeare*.

The thing stoleu.
On his back a heavy load he bare
Of nightly *stealths*, and pillage several. *Spenser*.

Secret act; clandestine practice.—*By stealth* means secretly; clandestinely; with desire of concealment; but, like *steal*, is often used in a good sense.—The wisdom of the same spirit borrowed from melody that pleasure, which, mingled with heavenly mysteries, causeth the smoothness and softness of that which toucheth the ear, to convey as it were by *stealth* the treasure of good things into man's mind. *Hooker*.

The monarch blinded with desire of wealth,
With steel invades his brother's life by *stealth*
Before the sacred altar. *Dryden*.

STEALTHY, *adj.* Done clandestinely; performed by stealth.

Now wither'd murder with his *stealthy* pace,
Moves like a ghost. *Shakspeare*.

To STEAM, *v. n.* [ʃteɪm, Sax.] To smoke or vapour with moist heat.

Let the crude humours dance
In heated brass, *steaming* with fire intense. *Philips*.

To send up vapours.—Ye mists that rise from *steaming* lake. *Milton*.

See, see, my brother's ghost hangs hovering there,
O'er his warm blood, that *steams* into the air. *Dryden*.

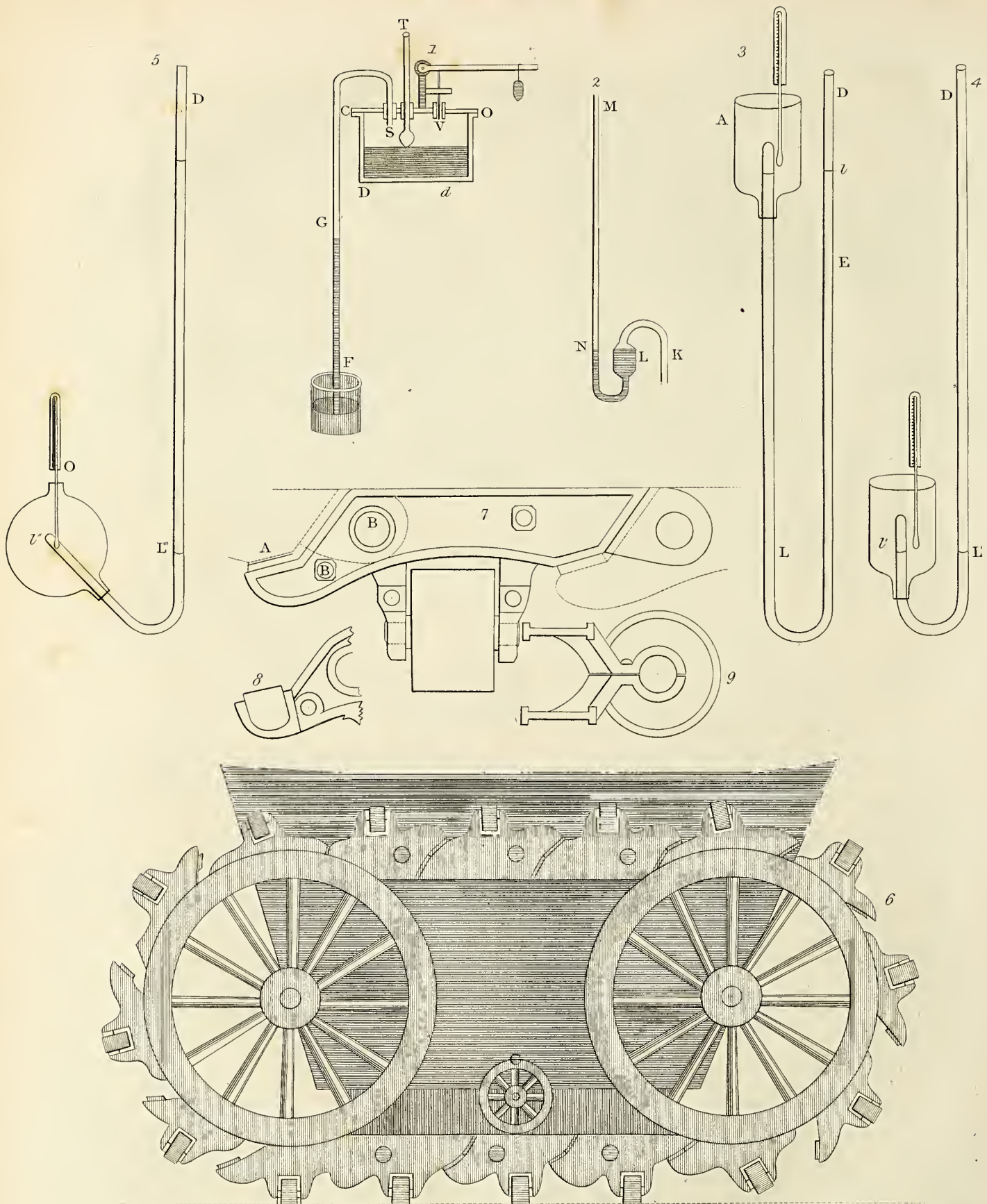
To pass in vapours.
Scarcely had Phœbus in the gloomy east
Got harnessed his fiery-footed team,
Ne rear'd above the earth his flaming crest
When the last deadly smoke aloft did *steam*. *Spenser*.

To STEAM, *v. a.* To exhale; to evaporate.
How ill did he beseeame
In slouthful sleepe his molten heart to *steme*. *Spenser*.

STEAM is the name commonly given in our language to the visible moist vapour which arises from all bodies which contain juices easily expelled from them by heats not sufficient for their combustion. Thus we say, the steam of boiling water, of malt, of a tan bed, &c. It is distinguished from smoke by its not having been produced by combustion, by not containing any soot, and by its being condensable by cold into water, oil, inflammable spirits, or liquids composed of these.

We see it rise in great abundance from bodies when they are heated, forming a white cloud, which diffuses itself and disappears at no very great distance from the body from which it was produced. In this case the surrounding air is found loaded with the water or other juices which seem to have produced it, and the steam seems to be completely soluble in air, as salt is in water, composing, while thus united, a transparent elastic fluid.

But in order to its appearance in the form of an opaque white cloud, the mixture with or dissemination in cold air is necessary. If a tea-kettle boils violently, so that the steam is formed at the spout in great abundance, it may be observed, that the visible cloud is not formed at the very mouth of the spout, but at a small distance before it, and that the vapour is perfectly transparent at its first emission. This is rendered still more evident by fitting to the spout of the tea-kettle a glass pipe of any length, and of as large a diameter as we please. The steam is produced as copiously as without this pipe, but the vapour is transparent through the whole length of the pipe. Nay, if this pipe communicate with a glass vessel terminating in another pipe, and if the vessel be kept sufficiently hot, the steam will be as abundantly produced at the mouth of this second pipe as before,



J. Pass sc.

1 & 2 Robisons instruments. 3, 4, 5 Ure's instruments. 6, 7, 8, 9, Sir Geo. Cayley's Engine.

before, and the vessel will be quite transparent. The visibility therefore of the matter which constitutes the steam is an accidental or extraneous circumstance, and requires admixture with cold air.

The opaque and cloudy appearance of steam, is explained by saying that the vapour is condensed by coming into contact with the cooler air. But there is something in the form of this cloud which is very inexplicable. The particles of it are sometimes very distinguishable by the eye; but they have not the smart star-like brilliancy of very small drops of water, but give the fainter reflection of a very thin film or vesicle like a soap bubble. If we attend also to their motion, we see them descending very slowly in comparison with the descent of a solid drop; and this vesicular constitution is established beyond a doubt by looking at a candle through a cloud of steam. It is seen surrounded by a faint halo with prismatical colours, precisely such as we can demonstrate by optical laws to belong to a collection of vesicles, but totally different from the halo which would be produced by a collection of solid drops. It is very difficult to conceive how these vesicles can be formed of watery particles, each of which was surrounded with many particles of fire, now communicated to the air, and how each of these vesicles shall include within it a ball of air; but we cannot refuse the fact. We know, that if, while linseed oil is boiling or nearly boiling, the surface be obliquely struck with the ladle, it will be dashed into a prodigious number of exceedingly small vesicles, which will float about in the air for a long while. Mr. Saussure was the first who distinctly observed this vesicular form of mists and clouds; and he makes considerable use of it in explaining several phenomena of the atmosphere.

STEAM ENGINE, s. An engine so called, because its first movement takes place in consequence of the generation and condensation of steam.

The steam engine is the first of a series of machines which, no doubt, will hereafter become numerous; differing from all those which preceded it in the circumstance that it is at once a *chemical* and a *mechanical* instrument. The minute changes in the fabric of matter that are produced by the agency of fire, form the prime movers of an engine which, in other respects, differs not from the machines moved by wind, water, or animal strength.

In the article **MECHANICS**, we have already so far anticipated the subject under consideration, that the reader is informed that by means of heat applied to a boiler, water is evaporated into a cylinder furnished with a valve; that the steam thus sent into the cylinder drives the air through the valves, and then that the steam is suddenly condensed by cold, so that instead of filling the whole cylinder, it scarcely occupied $\frac{1}{1000}$ of its previous space: that, consequently, a vacuum is formed which operates so as to pull down forcibly a piston inserted into the cylinder, and that thus the prime movement of the engine is effected. This principle, belongs to all engines, except the high-pressure—so that, in fact, the former are properly pneumatic machines, and it is only to the last that the term steam engine ought properly to be applied. But whatever kind of engine is used, the elasticity of the steam on the one hand, and its condensation on the other, are the only agents employed. The first points to be known, then, are the laws of this elasticity and of this condensation.

It is a well-known law of heat, that all bodies, when they pass from a solid to a fluid state, or from fluidity to the aeriform or gaseous state, imbibe, during such change, a considerable quantity of heat, which is not rendered apparent by the thermometer, or perceptible to our sense. As, for example:—a sheet of ice, and any fluid of the same temperatures being placed in an exalted temperature, the fluid will become warmer immediately, but the ice will not; and the ice will require many times more heat to melt and exalt it to the heat of the fluid. The reverse, also, holds good. Water returning to the state of ice, indicates the loss of many times more caloric than the said water does if it be made to return

to the *temperature* of ice, without being allowed to freeze (a restriction which we may easily command). So, also, water heated to 212° of Fahrenheit, requires 800 degrees of heat to convert its whole mass into steam;—yet this steam only makes the thermometer rise to 212°. And thus again, the steam, when condensed, gives out many times more caloric than the difference of its apparent temperatures in the states of vapour and water.

A vast number of experiments have been made with the view of discovering the precise quantity of the heat thus latent in steam. They disagree considerably, but perhaps we shall not err much in stating, that under the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere, steam, exhibiting 212 degrees of heat, actually contains about 1200°. Steam, therefore, when mixed with 6 times its weight of water at 32°, will raise the temperature of the latter to 212 degrees.

The preceding principle is of considerable use in its application to practical purposes. Wherever large quantities of boiling water are wanted, as in dyeing-houses, breweries, and the like, it is of great advantage to employ steam for heating the water: It is also used extensively in manufactories, for heating rooms; which it does very effectually, and without any of the unpleasant effects resulting from common stoves.

Now temperature being the cause of the evaporation of fluids, and atmospherical pressure the force that opposes that change, it follows that the phenomenon itself varies either with the temperature or the pressure: and elasticity being a property counteracting this pressure, and regulated solely by it, this depends on both temperature and pressure. Thus it happens, that when we diminish atmospherical pressure by an air-pump, the water contained in the vacuum boils and evaporates at a lower temperature than 212°; and thus it happens, also, that under an increased pressure, water may be forced to imbibe more than 212 degrees of heat ere it boils.

With regard to the law that governs the elasticity of steam, as many experiments have been made to discover it as have been performed with the view of finding out the law of heat. The former experiments have not had better success than the latter; for, though an approximation has been sufficiently near for most practical purposes, yet the results arrived at by the first experimentalists offer discrepancies that are not accounted for. Perhaps the fairest mode that we can adopt, is to lay before our readers some brief descriptions of the manner in which different scientific experimentalists have proceeded in their investigations, and the conclusions they have respectively arrived at. Omitting the earlier experimenters, such as Mr. Kairne, Lord Charles Cavendish, and others, we shall commence with the description Professor Robison has left us of his own mode of endeavouring to ascertain the relation between elasticity and temperature. He used an instrument of the kind engraved in Pl. I. fig. 1.

ABCD (fig. 1.) is the section of a small digester made of copper. Its lid, which is fastened to the body with screws, is pierced with three holes, each of which had a small pipe soldered into it. The first hole was furnished with a brass safety-valve V, nicely fitted to it by grinding. The area of this valve was exactly $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch. There rested on the stalk at top of this valve, the arm of a steelyard carrying a sliding weight. This arm had a scale of equal parts, so adjusted to the weight that the number on the scale corresponded to the inches of mercury, whose pressure on the under surface of the valve is equal to that of the steelyard on its top; so that when the weight was at the division 10, the pressure of the steelyard on the valve was just equal to that of a column of mercury 10 inches high, and $\frac{1}{4}$ th of an inch base. The middle hole contained a thermometer T, firmly fixed into it, so that no vapour could escape by its sides. The ball of this thermometer was but a little way below the lid. The third hole received occasionally the end of a glass pipe SGF, whose descending leg was about 36 inches long. When this syphon was not used, the hole was accurately shut with a plug.

The vessel was half filled with distilled water which had been purged of air by boiling. The lid was then fixed on, having the third hole S, plugged up. A lamp being placed under the vessel, the water boiled, and the steam issued copiously by the safety-valve. The thermometer stood at 213, and a barometer in the room at 29.9 inches. The weight was then put on the fifth division. The thermometer immediately began to rise; and when it was 220, the steam issued by the sides of the valve. The weight was removed to the 10th division; but before the thermometer could be distinctly observed, the steam was issuing at the valve. The lamp was removed farther from the bottom of the vessel, that the progress of heating might be more moderate; and when the steam ceased to issue from the valve, the thermometer was at 227. The weight was now shifted to 15; and by gradually approaching the lamp, the steam again issued, and the thermometer was at 132 $\frac{1}{2}$. This mode of trial was continued all the way to the 75th division of the scale. The experiments were then repeated in the contrary order; that is, the weight being suspended at the 75th division, and the steam issuing strongly at the valve, the lamp was withdrawn, and the moment the steam ceased to come out, the thermometer was observed. The same was done at the 70th, 65th, division, &c. These experiments were several times repeated both ways; and the means of all the results for each division are expressed in the following table, where column 1st expresses the elasticity of the steam, being the sum of 29.9, and the division of the steelyard; column 2d expresses the temperature of the steam corresponding to this elasticity.

I.	II.
35 inches.	219°
40	226
45	232
50	237
55	242
60	247
65	251
70	255
75	259
80	263
85	267
90	270 $\frac{1}{2}$
95	274 $\frac{1}{2}$
100	278
105	281

A very different process was necessary for ascertaining the elasticity of the steam in lower temperatures, and consequently under smaller pressures than that of the atmosphere. The glass syphon S G F, was now fixed into its hole in the lid of the digester. The water was made to boil smartly for some time, and the steam issued copiously both at the valve and at the syphon. The lower end of the syphon was now immersed into a broad saucer of mercury, and the lamp instantly removed, and every thing was allowed to grow cold. By this the steam was gradually condensed, and the mercury rose in the syphon, without sensibly sinking in the saucer. The valve and all the joints were smeared with a thick clammy cement, composed of oil, tallow, and rosin, which effectually prevented all ingress of air. The weather was clear and frosty, and the barometer standing at 29.84, and the thermometer in the vessel at 42°. The mercury in the syphon stood at 29.7, or somewhat higher, thus showing a very complete condensation. The whole vessel was surrounded with pounded ice, of the temperature 32°. This made no sensible change in the height of the mercury. A mark was now made at the surface of the mercury. One observer was stationed at the thermometer, with instructions to call out as the thermometer reached the divisions 42, 47, 52, 57, and so on by every five degrees till it should attain the boiling heat. Another observer noted the corresponding descents of the mercury by a scale of inches, which had its beginning placed at 29.84 from the surface of the mercury in the saucer.

The pounded ice was now removed, and the lamp placed at a considerable distance below the vessel, so as to warm its contents very slowly. These observations being very easily made, were several times repeated, and their mean results are set down in the following table: Only observe, that it was found difficult to note down the descents for every fifth degree, because they succeeded each other so fast. Every 10th was judged sufficient for establishing the law of variation. The first column of the table contains the temperature, and the second the descent (in inches) of the mercury from the mark 29.84:—

32°	3
40	0.1
50	0.2
60	0.35
70	0.55
80	0.82
90	1.18
100	1.61
110	2.25
120	3.00
130	3.95
140	5.15
150	6.72
160	8.65
170	11.05
180	14.05
190	17.85
200	22.62
210	28.65

Four or five numbers at the top of the column of elasticities are not so accurate as the others, because the mercury passed pretty quickly through these points. But the progress was extremely regular through the remaining points; so that the elasticities corresponding to temperatures above 70° may be considered as very accurately ascertained.

Not being altogether satisfied with the method employed for measuring the elasticity in temperatures above that of boiling water, a better form of experiment was adopted. A glass tube was procured of the form represented in fig. 2, having a little cistern L, from the top and bottom of which proceeded the syphons K and M N. The cistern contained mercury, and the tube M N was of a slender bore, and was about six feet two inches long. The end K was firmly fixed in the third hole of the lid, and the long leg of the syphon was furnished with a scale of inches, and firmly fastened to an upright post.

The lamp was now applied at such a distance from the vessel as to warm it slowly, and make the water boil, the steam escaping for some time through the safety-valve. A heavy weight was then suspended on the steelyard; such as it was known that the vessel would support, and at the same time, such as would not allow the steam to force the mercury out of the long tube. The thermometer began immediately to rise, as also the mercury in the tube M N; their corresponding stations are marked in the following table:—

Temperature.	Elasticity.
212°	0.0
220	5.9
230	14.6
240	25.0
250	36.9
260	50.4
270	64.2
280	106.0

This form of the experiment is much more susceptible of accuracy than the other, and the measures of elasticity are more to be depended on. In repeating the experiment, they were found much more constant; whereas, in the former method, differences occurred of two inches and upwards.

We may now connect the two sets of experiments into one table, by adding to the numbers in this last table the constant

constant height 29.9, which was the height of the mercury in the barometer during the last set of observations.

Temperature.	Elasticity.
32°	0.0
40	0.1
50	0.1
60	0.35
70	0.55
80	0.82
90	1.25
100	1.6
110	2.25
120	3.0
130	3.95
140	5.15
150	6.72
160	8.65
170	11.05
180	14.05
190	17.85
200	22.62
210	28.65
220	35.8
230	44.7
240	54.9
250	66.8
260	80.3
270	94.1
280	105.9

In the memoirs of the Royal Academy of Berlin for 1782, there is an account of some experiments made by Mr. Achard on the elastic force of steam, from the temperature 32° to 212°. They agree extremely well with those mentioned here, rarely differing more than two or three-tenths of an inch. He also examined the elasticity of the vapour produced from alcohol, and found, that when the elasticity was equal to that of the vapour of water, the temperature was about 35° lower. Thus, when the elasticity of both was measured by 28.1 inches of mercury, the temperature of the watery vapour was 209°, and that of the spirituous vapour was 173°. When the elasticity was 18.5, the temperature of the water was 189.5, and that of the alcohol 154.6. When the elasticity was 11.05, the water was 168°, and the alcohol 134°.4. Observing the difference between the temperatures of equally elastic vapours of water and alcohol not to be constant, but gradually to diminish, in Mr. Achard's experiments, along with the elasticity, it became interesting to discover whether and at what temperature this difference would vanish altogether. Experiments were accordingly made by Robison, similar to those made with water. They were not made with the same scrupulous care, nor repeated as they deserved, but they furnished rather an unexpected result. The following table will give the reader a distinct notion of them:—

Temperature.	Elasticity.
32°	0.0
40	0.1
60	0.8
80	0.8
100	3.9
120	6.9
140	12.2
160	21.3
180	34.
200	52.4
220	78.5
240	115.

We say that the result was unexpected; for as the natural boiling point seemed by former experiments to be in all fluids about 120° or more below their boiling point in the ordinary pressure of the atmosphere, it was reasonable to expect that the temperature at which they ceased to emit

sensibly elastic steam would have some relation to their temperatures when emitting steam of any determinate elasticity. Now as the vapour of alcohol of elasticity 30 has its temperature about 36° lower than the temperature of water equally elastic, it was to be expected that the temperature at which it ceased to be sensibly affected would be several degrees lower than 32°. It is evident, however, that this is not the case. But this is a point that deserves more attention, because it is closely connected with the chemical relation between the element (if such there be) of fire and the bodies into whose composition it seems to enter as a constituent part. What is the temperature 32°, to make it peculiarly connected with elasticity? It is a temperature assumed by us for our own conveniency, on account of the familiarity of water in our experiments. Ether, we know, boils in a temperature far below this, as appears from Dr. Cullen's experiments narrated in the *Essays Physical and Literary of Edinburgh*. On the faith of former experiments, we may be pretty certain that it will boil in vacuo at the temperature — 14°, because in the air it boils at + 106°. Therefore we may be certain, that the steam or vapour of ether, when of the temperature of 32°, will be very sensibly elastic. Indeed, Mr. Lavoisier says, that if it be exposed in an exhausted receiver in winter, its vapour will support mercury at the height of 10 inches. A series of experiments on this vapour similar to the above would be very instructive. We even wish that those on alcohol were more carefully repeated. If we draw a curve line, of which the abscissa is the line of temperatures, and the ordinates are the corresponding heights of the mercury in these experiments on water and alcohol, we shall observe, that although they both sensibly coincide at 32°, and have the abscissa for their common tangent, a very small error of observation may be the cause of this, and the curve which expresses the elasticity of spirituous vapour may really intersect the other, and go backwards considerably beyond 32°.

This range of experiments gave rise to some curious and important reflections in Robison's mind. He says, we now see that no particular temperature is necessary for water assuming the form of permanently elastic vapour; and that it is highly probable that it assumes this form even at the temperature 32°; only its elasticity is too small to afford us any sensible measure. It is supposed that even ice evaporates, since in an experiment to this purpose by Mr. Wilson in the *Philosophical Transactions*, a piece of polished metal, covered with hoar-frost, became perfectly clear by exposing it to a dry frosty wind.

Even mercury evaporates, or is converted into elastic vapour, when all external pressure is removed. The dim film which may frequently be observed in the upper part of a barometer which stands near a stream of air, is found to be small globules of mercury sticking to the inside of the tube. But their elasticity is too small to occasion a sensible depression of the column, even when considerably warmed by a candle.

With regard to the *cause* why increased pressure increases temperature and elasticity, Robison is of opinion that "Solution is performed by forces which act in the way of attraction; or, to express it more safely, solutions are accompanied by the mutual approaches of the particles of the menstruum and solved: all such tendencies are observed to increase by a diminution of distance. Hence it must follow, that air of double density will dissolve more than twice as much as water. Therefore when we suddenly rarely saturated air (even though its heat should not diminish) some water must be let go. What may be its quantity we know not; but it may be more than what would now become elastic by this diminution of surrounding pressure."

Another inference which may be drawn from these experiments is, that Nature seems to affect a certain law in the dilatation of aeriform fluids by heat. They seem to be dilatable nearly in proportion of their present dilatation. For if we suppose that the vapours resemble air, in having their elasticity in any given temperature proportional to their density

density, we must suppose that if steam of the elasticity 60, that is, supporting 90 inches of mercury, were subjected to a pressure of 30 inches, it would expand into twice its present bulk. The augmentation of elasticity therefore is the measure of the bulk into which it would expand in order to acquire its former elasticity. Taking the increase of elasticity therefore as a measure of the bulk into which it would expand under one constant pressure, we see that equal increments of temperature produce nearly equal multiplications of bulk. Thus if a certain diminution of temperature diminishes its bulk $\frac{1}{4}$ th, another equal diminution of temperature will diminish this new bulk $\frac{1}{4}$ th very nearly. Thus, in our experiments, the temperatures 110°, 140°, 170°, 200°, 230°, are in arithmetical progression, having equal differences, and we see that the corresponding elasticities 2.25, 5.15, 11.05, 22.62, 44.7, are very nearly in the continued proportion of 1 to 2. The elasticity corresponding to the temperature 260 deviates considerably from this law, which would give 88 or 89 instead of 80; and the deviation increases in the higher temperatures. But still we see that there is a considerable approximation to this law; and it will frequently assist us to recollect, that whatever be the present temperature, an increase of 30 degrees doubles the elasticity and the bulk of watery vapour.

That 4° will increase the elasticity from	1 to	$1\frac{1}{15}$
8	-	1 to $1\frac{1}{8}$
10	-	1 to $1\frac{1}{4}$
12 $\frac{1}{2}$	-	1 to $1\frac{1}{2}$
18	-	1 to $1\frac{1}{3}$
22	-	1 to $1\frac{2}{5}$
24	-	1 to $1\frac{3}{4}$
26	-	1 to $1\frac{4}{5}$

This is sufficiently exact for most practical purposes. Thus an engineer finds that the injection cools the cylinder of a steam engine to 192°. It therefore leaves a steam whose elasticity is three-fifths of its full elasticity, = 18 inches $\frac{3}{5}$. But it is better at all times to have recourse to a table framed from actual experiment. Observe, too, that in the lower temperatures, i. e. below 110°, this increment of temperature does more than double the elasticity.

This law obtains more remarkably in the incoercible vapours; such as vital air, atmospheric air, fixed air, &c., all of which have also their elasticity proportional to their bulk inversely: and perhaps the deviation from the law in steams is connected with their chemical difference of constitution. If the bulk were always augmented in the same proportion by equal augmentations of temperature, the elasticities would be accurately represented by the ordinates of a logarithmic curve, of which the temperatures are the corresponding abscissæ; and we might contrive such a scale for our thermometer, that the temperatures would be the common logarithms of the elasticities, or of the bulks having equal elasticity; or, with our present scale, we may find such a multiplier m for the number x of degrees of our thermometer (above that temperature where the elasticity is equal to unity), that this multiple shall be the common logarithm of the elasticity y ; so that $m \cdot x = \log. y$.

But our experiments are not sufficiently accurate for determining the temperature where the elasticity is measured by 1 inch; because in these temperatures the elasticities vary by exceedingly small quantities. But if we take 11.04 for the unit of elasticity, and number our temperature from 170°, and make $m = 0.010035$, we shall find the product $m \cdot x$ to be very nearly the logarithm of the elasticity. The deviations, however, from this law, are too great to make this equation of any use. But it is very practicable to frame an equation which shall correspond with the experiments to any degree of accuracy; and it has been done in French by Mr. Prony. It is as follows: Let x be the degrees of Reaumur's thermometer; let y be the expansion of 10,000 parts of air; let e be = 10, $m = 2.7979$, $n = 0.01768$; then $y = e^{m+nx} - 627.5$. Now e being = 10, it is plain that e^{m+nx} is the number, of which

$m+nx$ is the common logarithm. This formula is very exact as far as the temperature 60°, but beyond this it needs a correction; because air, like the vapour of water, does not expand in the exact proportion of its bulk.

We observe this law considerably approximated to in the augmentation of the bulk or elasticity of elastic vapours; that is, it is a fact that a given increment of temperature makes very nearly the same proportional augmentation of bulk and elasticity. This gives us some notion of the manner in which the supposed expanding cause produces the effect. When vapour of the bulk 4 is expanded into a bulk 5 by an addition of 10 degrees of sensible heat, a certain quantity of fire goes into it, and is accumulated round each particle, in such a manner that the temperature of each, which formerly was m , is now $m+10$. Let it now receive another equal augmentation of temperature. This is now $m+20$, and the bulk is $\frac{5 \times 5}{4}$ or $6\frac{1}{4}$, and the arithmetical increase of bulk is $1\frac{1}{4}$. The absolute quantity of fire which has entered it is greater than the former, both on account of the greater augmentation of space and the greater temperature. Consequently if this vapour be compressed into the bulk 5, there must be heat or fire in it which is not necessary for the temperature $m+20$, far less for the temperature $m+10$. It must therefore emerge, and be disposed to enter a thermometer which has already the temperature $m+20$: that is, the vapour must grow hotter by compression; not by squeezing out the heat, like water out of a sponge, but because the law of attraction for heat is deranged.

In the experiments of Robison, a main source of error had been, that he had neglected to keep the digester and the vacant part of the tube of the barometer of the same temperature as the digester. Mr. Dalton ingeniously obviated this inconvenience by a very simple contrivance. He procured a perfectly dry barometer tube of the usual size, and having introduced some mercury, which had been previously freed from air by boiling, marked the place where it became stationary. Then, dividing the space occupied by the mercurial column into inches and tenths, he poured out the mercury, and introduced some water to moisten the inside of the tube. On reversing the operation, that is, pouring out the water, and reintroducing the mercury, the water which adhered to the sides of the tube rose to the top of the mercurial column, where it formed a stratum from one-eighth to one-tenth of an inch in depth. The air was carefully excluded. Having thus satisfied himself as to the probable accuracy of the results to be obtained, he took an open cylindrical glass tube, two inches diameter and 14 inches long, in each end of which he fixed a cork. The corks were perforated in the middle, to admit the upper or vacant part of the barometer tube. The upper cork was fixed two or three inches below the top of the tube, and a small portion of it was cut away to allow water to be poured into the space between it and the lower cork. By this means, the upper or vacant part of the barometer tube was exposed to the several degrees of temperature from 32° to 155° inclusively; and the effect of heat, in the production of vapour within, was observed by the depression of the mercurial column. In experimenting on the higher temperatures, Mr. Dalton used a nearly similar apparatus, made of tin, with a syphon barometer, and thus obtained the remaining results up to 212 degrees.

The results of these experiments, from 32° to 212° inclusively, agree very closely with the results of experiments made by Dr. Ure.

Watt made experiments at a very early date, prior indeed to Robison's. Watt conducted his experiments with a tin pan, 5 inches diameter, and 4 inches deep, having an inverted barometer tube, 3 feet long, firmly fixed into a conical socket at the bottom, through which it passes. At one extremity of this tube was a bulb, an inch and a half in diameter, the capacity of which was nearly equal to the capacity of the tube. The bulb was filled with water, and the stem with mercury, and the lower end of the latter was immersed in a cistern

cistern of mercury. These were so perfectly freed from air, that the column of mercury in the tube was 34 inches high; when it was violently shaken, the mercurial column suddenly descended, and settled at 28.75 inches. Upon being inclined, a speck of air still remained; but when it was compressed by a pillar of mercury 27 inches high, this speck was not larger than a pin's head. When the tube was perpendicular, the mercury stood at 28.75 inches; and the column of water above it was about $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches, which is equal to half an inch of mercury. As the whole was 29.25 inches when the stationary barometer stood at 29.4, the difference, or pillar supported by the elasticity of the steam, was equal to 0.15 inch. The water in the pan was heated slowly by a lamp, and was stirred continually with a feather to distribute the heat equally throughout. By these means experiments were made from 55° to 196°·5 of temperature.

To determine the higher degrees of elasticity, Mr. Watt introduced a tube, 55 inches long, through a hole in the lid of a digester, and within the digester it terminated in a cistern of mercury. A thermometer was applied, as in the experiments of Professor Robison, and the digester was half filled with water, and heated by a lamp. This caused the air in the upper part of the digester to expand, and although a considerable quantity was allowed to escape, and the water heated to ebullition, still some remained, for the mercury stood at 213 $\frac{1}{2}$ °. Dissatisfied, however, with these experiments, Mr. Watt, in 1796, requested Mr. Southern to repeat them. The results clearly proved the accuracy of Mr. Watt.

Dr. Ure has thus detailed his experiments: "fig. 3 represents the construction employed for temperatures under and a little above the boiling point. Figs. 4 and 5 are used for higher temperatures; and the last is the most convenient. One simple principle pervades the whole train of experiments, which is, that the progressive increase of elastic force developed by heat from the liquid, incumbent on the mercury at $l' l''$, is measured by the length of column which must be added over L , the primitive level below, in order to restore the quicksilver to its primitive level above, at l . These two stations, or points of departure, are nicely defined by a ring of fine platina wire twisted firmly around the tube.

"At the commencement of the experiment, after the liquid, well freed from air, has been let up, the quicksilver is made a tangent to the edge of the upper ring, by cautiously pouring mercury in a slender stream into the open leg of the syphon D . The level ring below is then carefully adjusted.

"From the mode of conducting these experiments, there remained always a quantity of liquid in contact with the vapour, a circumstance essential to accuracy in this research.

"Suppose the temperature of the water or the oil in A to be 32° F., as denoted by a delicate thermometer, or by the liquefaction of ice; communicate heat to the cylinder A by means of two Argand flames playing gently on its shoulder at each side. When the thermometer indicates 42°, modify the flames, or remove them, so as to maintain a uniform temperature for a few minutes. A film, or line of light, will now be perceived between the mercury and the ring at l , as is seen under the vernier of a mountain barometer when it is raised a few feet off the ground. Were the tube at l and L of equal area, or were the relation of the areas experimentally determined, then the rise of the quicksilver above L would be one half, or a known submultiple of the total depression, equivalent to the additional elasticity of the vapour at 42° above that at 32°. Since the depressions, however, for 30 or 40 degrees in this part of the scale are exceedingly small, one half of the quantity can scarcely be ascertained with suitable precision, even after taking the above precautions; and besides the other sources of error, or, at least, embarrassment, from the inequalities of the tube, and from the lengthening space occupied by the vapour, as the temperature ascends, render this method of reduction very ineligible.

"By the other plan we avoid all these evils. For whatever additional elasticity we communicate to the vapour above l , it will be faithfully represented and measured by the

mercurial column which we must add over L , in order to overcome it, and restore the quicksilver under l to its zero or initial level, when the platina ring becomes once more a tangent to the mercury.

"At E a piece of cork is fixed, between the parallel legs of the syphon, to sustain it, and to serve as a point by which the whole is steadily suspended.

"For temperatures above the boiling point, the part of the syphon under E is evidently superfluous, merely containing in its two legs a useless weight of equipoise mercury. Accordingly, for high heats, the apparatus figs. 4 or 5 is employed, and the same method of procedure is adopted. The aperture at O , fig. 5, admits the bulb of the thermometer, which rests as usual on l'' . The recurved part of the tube is filled with mercury, and then a little liquid is passed through it to the sealed end. Heat is now applied by an Argand flame to the bottom of C , which is filled with oil or water; and the temperature is kept steadily at 212° for some minutes. Then a few drops of quicksilver may require to be added to D'' till L'' and l''' be in the same horizontal plane. The further conduct of the experiment differs in no respect from what has been already described. The liquid in C is progressively heated, and at each stage mercury is progressively added over L'' to restore the initial level, or volume at l''' , by equipoising the progressive elasticity. The column above L'' being measured, represents the succession of elastic forces. When this column is wished to extend very high, the vertical tube requires to be placed for support in the groove of a long wooden prism.

"The height of the column in some of the experiments being nearly 12 feet, it became necessary to employ a ladder to reach its top. It was found to be convenient in this case, after observing that the column of vapour had attained its primitive magnitude, to note down the temperature with the altitude of the column; then immediately to pour in a measured quantity of mercury nearly equal to three vertical inches, and to wait till the slow progress of the heating again brought the vapour in equilibrio with this new pressure, which at first had pushed the mercury within the platina ring at l'' . When the lower surface of the mercury was again a tangent to this ring, the temperature and altitude were both instantly observed. This mode of conducting the process will account for the experimental temperatures being very often odd and fractional numbers. They are therefore presented to the public as they were recorded on the instant.

"After bestowing the utmost pains in repeating the experiments during a period of nearly two months, it was found that the only way of removing the little discrepancies which crept in between contiguous measures, was to adopt the astronomical plan of multiplying observations and deducing truth from the mean. It is essential to heat with extreme slowness and circumspection the vessels $A B C$. One repetition of the experiment occupies, on an average, seven hours."

A surprising accordance is perceived in the numbers between 32° and 212, given by Dr. Ure and by Mr. Dalton, though the experiments were performed with different apparatus. This accordance is of course strong proof of the correctness of the results obtained.

The experiments of Mr. Philip Taylor were made with a strong boiler, furnished with the required thermometer and barometer. During the ascent of the mercurial column of the thermometer, and the corresponding descent of the barometer, the indications of temperature and elasticity were accurately noted; and when the steam had attained 320°, it was allowed gradually to subside, and the states of temperature and elasticity again ascertained. Thus a mean result was obtained, which is essential to great accuracy; for between the alternate ascents and descents of the mercurial columns there is some variation.

To save the trouble of continual reference to tables, as well as to obviate the necessity of numerous experiments, it has been attempted to construct formulæ by which the properties of unknown temperatures may be deduced from such as are known. In the first instance,
Dalton,

Dalton, in his experiments on temperatures between 32° and 212° perceived something like geometrical progression, with a ratio, however, gradually diminishing: Thus

	Inch.	Ratios.
the force at 32° =	·200	
122 =	3·500	17·50
212 =	30·000	8·57

and if divided, according to observation

the force at 32° =	·200	
77 =	·910	4·550
122 =	3·500	3·846
167 =	11·250	3·214
212 =	30·000	2·666

and if again divided:

the force at 32° =	·200	
54½ =	·435	2·17
77 =	·910	2·09
99½ =	1·820	2·00
122 =	3·550	1·92
144½ =	6·450	1·84
167 =	11·250	1·75
189½ =	18·800	1·67
212 =	30·000	1·59

and by another division we obtain the ratio for every addition of 11 degrees and a quarter to the temperature:

the force at 32° =	·200	1·485
43¼ =	·297	1·465
54½ =	·435	1·44
65¾ =	·630	1·43
77 =	·910	1·41
88¼ =	1·290	1·40
99½ =	1·820	
110¾ =	2·540	1·38
122 =	3·500	1·36
133½ =	4·760	1·35
144½ =	6·450	1·33
155¾ =	8·550	1·32
167 =	11·250	1·30
178¼ =	14·600	1·29
189½ =	18·800	1·27
200¾ =	24·000	1·25
212 =	30·000	

By this mode of estimation, Mr. Dalton concluded that, without the aid of experiment, he might, with tolerable accuracy, extend the table several degrees below 32° and beyond 212°. Thus, assuming the ratio for each interval of 11¼° above 212° to be 1·235, 1·222, 1·205, 1·190, 1·175, 1·160, 1·145, 1·130, &c. he has extended the table through many similar intervals, and determined the intermediate degrees, by interpolation. But these results differ very materially from those obtained by experiment.

M. Biot, in his "Traité de Physique," has deduced a general formula from Mr. Dalton's experiments, for calculating the force of steam at any given temperature. Respecting this formula, we may, in the first place, observe, that M. Biot represents the decrease of the logarithms of the elastic forces by a series of terms of the form $a n + b n^2 + c n^3$; $a b c$ being constant coefficients.

Thus $\log. F_n = \log. 30 + a n - b n^2 + c n^3$

To determine the coefficients $a b c$, he makes use of the elastic forces observed at the temperatures on the centigrade scale of 100°, 75°, 50°, and 25°; whence result these conditions:

	Inches.
$n = 0$	$F = 30·00$
$n = 25$	$F_{25} = 11·25$
$n = 50$	$F_{50} = 3·50$
$n = 75$	$F_{75} = ·91$

Substituting these conditions in the above general formula, and bearing in mind that the logarithm of a fraction is equal to the logarithm of the numerator, minus the logarithm of the

denominator, we shall have the three following equations of conditions:—

$$\begin{aligned} -0·4259687 &= 25a + 625b + 15625c \\ -0·9330519 &= 50a + 2500b + 125000c \\ -1·5180799 &= 75a + 5625b + 421875c \end{aligned}$$

Doubling the first, and subtracting it from the second, a disappears; trebling it, and subtracting it from third, a also disappears. Then dividing each of the two resulting equations by the coefficient of b , we have

$$\begin{aligned} -0·00006489160 &= b + 75c \\ -0·00006404635 &= b + 100c \end{aligned}$$

Subtracting one of these from the other, b will disappear; and dividing it by the coefficient of c , we shall have c . Next, by substituting the value of c in one of these equations, we get b . Lastly, putting b and c in one of the two first equations, we have a . Thus we shall find

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -0·01537419550 \\ b &= -0·00006742735 \\ c &= +0·00000003381 \end{aligned}$$

Whence the whole formula $\log. F_n = \log. 30 + a n + b n^2 + c n^3$ is completely determined, and may serve for calculating F_n , relative to any proposed value of n .

If we make, for example, $n = 100°$, we shall have the elastic at 100° below the boiling point, or at the temperature of melting ice. We thus obtain

$$\log. F_n = 1·4771213 - 2·1768831 = -0·7007618$$

Or employing negative indices in order to make use of the ordinary logarithmic tables.

$$\log. F_n = 1·2992382 \text{ whence } F_n = 0·19917 \text{ inches,}$$

Observation gives 0·200.

The error is obviously insensible; and we may adopt, says M. Biot, our formula as representing the experiments of Mr. Dalton. To introduce the Fahrenheit degrees into the formula, calling them f , and counting from 212°, we have $\frac{5}{9}f = n$; and substituting the value of n in the preceding formula, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} a &= -0·90854121972 \\ b &= -0·00002081091 \\ c &= +0·00000000580 \end{aligned}$$

Whence $\log. F_f = 1·4771213 + a f + b f^2 + c f^3$, f being the number of degrees of Fahrenheit, reckoning them from 212°, positive below and negative above this point of estimation.

By the above formula, thus elaborately investigated by M. Biot, Dr. Ure has computed the elastic forces of steam at the three successive temperatures of 232°, 262° and 312°, or 20°, 50° and 100°, above the boiling point of Fahrenheit's scale. First, we have $f = -20$ and $a f + b f^2 + c f^3 = 20 + 400b - 8000c$; f is negative, being above the point of departure 212°, and consequently, the products $a f$ and $c f^3$ are positive, while $b f^2$ becomes negative.

$$\begin{aligned} 20a &= 0·170824 \\ 400b &= -0·008324 \\ 8000c &= +0·000046 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &0·162546 + \log. 30 \text{ or} \\ &1·477121 \end{aligned}$$

$$\log. \text{ of } 43·62 = 1·639667$$

By M. Biot's formula therefore at 232° F 43·620
Mr. P. Taylor's experiment 43·00
At the temperature 262° Fahr.

$$\begin{aligned} f &= 50 \\ 50a &= 0·4270609 \\ 2500b &= -0·0520272 \\ 125000c &= +0·0007250 \end{aligned}$$

$$0·3757587$$

$$\log. 30 = 1·4771213$$

$$\log. \text{ of } F_{262^\circ} = 1·8528800 \text{ } F_{262^\circ} = 71·265$$

$$\text{Mr. P. Taylor's experiment } 72·50$$

At

At the temperature 312° Fahr.

$$\begin{aligned} f &= 100 \\ 100a &= 0.854121972 \\ 10.000b &= -0.208109100 \\ 1.000.000c &= +0.005800000 \\ &0.651812872 \\ &1.477121300 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log. of } F &= 2.128934172 \quad F_f = F \ 100 = 134.57 \\ \text{Mr. Dalton's calculation} &\dots\dots\dots 125.85 \\ \text{Mr. P. Taylor's experiment} &\dots\dots\dots 159.45 \end{aligned}$$

The disagreement between M. Biot's formula and experiment, though trivial in the lower temperatures, increases rapidly in the higher.

Dr. Ure has a formula admirably adapted to express the force of steam between 32° and 212°

"The elastic force at 212°, = 30 inches, being divided by 1.23, will give the force for 10° below; this quotient, divided by 1.24, will give that for 10° lower; and so on progressively. To obtain the forces above 212°, we have merely to multiply 30° by the ratio 1.23 for the force at 222°; this product by 1.22 for that at 232°, and thus for each successive interval of 10° above the boiling point. Thus $30 \times 1.23 = F_{222}$; $30 \times 1.23 \times 1.22 = F_{230}$ using F to denote the force at any temperature n, according to the notation of Laplace.

"By departing from the point 210° F, we shall obtain results equally accurate and more convenient for comparison with the experiments of Dr. Ure; and it is observed, that this latter rule may be better adapted to give the elastic force corresponding to any given temperature moderately distant from 212°.

"Let r = the mean ratio between 210° and the given temperature; n = the number of terms (each of 10°) distant from 210°; F, the elastic force of steam in inches of mercury.

"Then log. of F = log. 28.9 + n, log. r; the positive sign being used above, the negative below 210°. Or by common arithmetic, multiply or divide 28.9 according as the temperature is above or below 210°, by the mean ratio, involved to a power denoted by the number of terms. The product or quotient is the tension required.

"Example I.—The temperature is 140°. What is the corresponding elasticity of the vapour from water heated to that point?

"140° is 7 terms of 10° each under 210°; 1.26 is the mean ratio = $\frac{1.23+1.29}{2}$; and consequently r = 1.26; n = 7.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Log. } 28.9 &= 1.46090 \\ \text{Log. } 1.26 \times 7 &= 0.10037 \times 7 = -0.70259 \\ &0.75831 \text{ which is} \\ &\text{the logarithm of } 5.732 \text{ inches} \\ \text{Experiment gives } &5.77, \text{ leaving a difference of } .04, \\ &\text{which is inconsiderable.} \end{aligned}$$

"Example II.—What is the tension of steam at the temperature of 290°?

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \frac{1.23+1.16}{2} = 1.195 \quad n = 8 \\ \text{Log. } 28.9 &= 1.46090 \\ 8 \text{ log. } r &= 8 \times 0.07737 = +0.61896 \\ &2.07986 \text{ which is} \\ &\text{the logarithm of } 120.02 \text{ inches} \\ \text{Experiment gives } &120.15 \end{aligned}$$

"Example III.—Temperature 250°. Force of steam in contact with water?

$$\begin{aligned} r &= \frac{1.23+1.20}{2} = 1.215 \quad n = 4 \\ \text{Log. } 28.9 &= 1.46090 \\ 4 \text{ log. } r &= 4 \times 0.08458 = +0.33832 \\ &1.79922 \text{ which is} \\ &\text{the logarithm of } 62.98 \text{ inches.} \\ \text{Experiment gives } &61.90. \end{aligned}$$

The history of the steam engine has already been given under the article MECHANICS; but we shall, in this place, introduce some particulars of a more detailed nature than those we have yet entered into, to shew that of the steam engine on its present principle, Captain Savary was, undoubtedly, the first inventor.

The great elastic force of steam has been long known in the instrument called the *aeolipile* (see that article; and its property of condensation was also experienced in the use of the same instrument: the manner commonly practised for filling the ball with water being to plunge it into cold water, when heated and filled with steam; by which means the steam is condensed, and forms a vacuum sufficient to draw the water into the ball, although the orifice is so small that water could not be introduced by any other means. At the same time, the true principles of its action were so little understood, that the steam which issued from it, when placed on the fire, was supposed to be air produced by the decomposition of the water; and nearly all the old philosophers, who have described this instrument, proposed to employ it for blowing furnaces. The first idea of employing this force of steam to produce motion was by Brancas, a philosopher of Rome, who contrived a great number of different kinds of mills to be worked by the steam coming from a large *aeolipile*, and blowing against the floats or vanes of a wheel. We are obliged to this author for a number of other ingenious inventions, which he dedicated to M. Canci, governor of Loretto, in 1623, and published his work (*Le Machine*) at Rome the year following. The force, however, which he could have thus obtained from steam would have been found altogether inconsiderable, if he had ever put it in practice.

The earliest description which we have of a machine for raising water by fire, employed in raising steam from boiling water, is from the Marquis of Worcester, who, in the reign of king Charles II., and in the year 1663, published a small pamphlet, entitled "A Century of the Names and Scantlings of the Marquis of Worcester's Inventions," written in 1653.

This little work, it appears, was addressed to the king and parliament, and published with a view to obtain an encouragement from the public for the prosecution of 100 projects, which it details. No. 68. of this Century, contains as follows:—"68. An admirable and most forcible way to drive up water by fire; not by drawing or sucking it upwards, for that must be, as the philosopher calleth it, *intra sphaeram activitatis*, which is but at such a distance. But this way hath no bounder, if the vessel be strong enough: for I have taken a piece of a whole cannon, whereof the end was burst, and filled it three-quarters full of water, stopping and screwing up the broken end, as also the touch-hole; and making a constant fire under it, within twenty-four hours it burst, and made a great crack; so that having a way to make my vessels, so that they are strengthened by the force within them, and the one to fill after the other, I have seen the water run like a constant fountain stream forty feet high: one vessel of water, rarefied by fire, driveth up forty of cold water. And a man that tends the work is but to turn two cocks, that one vessel of water being consumed, another begins to force and re-fill with cold water, and so successively; the fire being tended and kept constant, which the self-same person may likewise abundantly perform in the interim between the necessity of turning the said cocks."

This passage certainly contains a description of an engine for raising water by the repellent power of steam; and from his

his expression, of one vessel of water, converted into steam, forcing up forty vessels of cold water to the height of forty feet, it is very probable that he had actually tried the experiment by a working model.

The marquis concluded his *Century of Inventions* by a promise to leave to posterity a book, wherein under each head the means of putting his several inventions in execution were to be described, with the assistance of plates; but as this work never appeared, we can only judge of his abilities by this specimen. He appears to have been a person of much knowledge and ingenuity; but his obscure and enigmatical account of these inventions, seems not so much intended to instruct the public as to raise wonder; and his encomiums on their utility and importance are, to a great degree, extravagant, resembling more the puff of an advertising tradesman, than the patriotic communications of a gentleman. The Marquis of Worcester was indeed a projector, and very importunate and mysterious withal in his applications for public encouragement.

It does not appear that he met with any public encouragement to his propositions; and though, at first sight, it seems surprising that an invention, by which the steam of boiling water is stated to be capable of producing a power equal to that of gunpowder, should be neglected for almost forty years; yet if we consider that the greater part of this *Century of Inventions* consists of things highly in the style of legerdemain, and some of them absolutely impossible, and contrary to all established rules of science, we need not so much wonder at the neglect which the whole experienced. For example, the 99th number of the *Century* is as follows:—"How to make one pound weight to raise an hundred as high as one pound falleth, and yet the hundred pounds descending doth what nothing less than one hundred pounds can effect."

It must be also further considered, that these projects were published at a time when true science was beginning to take place of empiricism.

The *Century of Inventions* appeared about three years after the establishment of the Royal Society, during the time of Mr. Boyle, Dr. Hooke, Dr. Wallis, Sir Christopher Wren, Sir Isaac Newton, and others equally skilled in calculations, as in the inventive parts of mechanics.

Under all these circumstances, it is not astonishing that the marquis's propositions in general should meet with a cool reception, or that this celebrated invention should be condemned to obscurity, amongst the other wonders with which it was accompanied.

The next attempt upon record, is that of Captain Thomas Savery, a commissioner of the sick and wounded, who, in the year 1698, obtained a patent for a new invention for raising water, and occasioning motion to all sorts of mill-work, by the impellent force of fire. This patent bears date the 25th July, in the tenth year of the reign of William III., that is 1698. The patent states, that the invention will be of great use for draining of mines, serving towns with water, and for working all sorts of mills.

In June 1669, he shewed a working model of his engine to the Royal Society, and in their *Transactions* for that year, viz. No. 253, vol. xxi. there is the following register:—

"Mr. Savery, June 14th, 1699, entertained the Royal Society with shewing a small model of his engine for raising water by the help of fire, which he set to work before them: the experiment succeeded according to expectation, and to their satisfaction." For the form and description of this engine, see the article *MECHANICS*.

Captain Savery, in the "*Miner's Friend*," in addition to the description of his engine, enumerates the following uses to which it may be applied, and which he describes rather fully, as follows; viz., 1st, to raise water for turning all sorts of mills; 2dly, supplying palaces, noblemen's and gentlemen's houses with water, and giving the means of extinguishing fires therein, by the water so raised; 3dly, the supplying cities and towns with water; 4thly, draining fens and marshes; 5thly, for ships; 6thly, for draining mines of water; and 7thly, for preventing damps in the said mines.

Dr. Harris, in his account of the fire engine, speaks of Captain Savery as one that he was acquainted with, and as a person of great merit and ingenuity. He first mentions another machine of Savery's, for rowing a ship in a calm by paddle-wheels placed at the vessel's side, of which the captain published an account in 1698; and it is worthy of remark, that the same kind of wheels, when actuated by improved steam engines, is the only method, amongst an infinite number of others, which at present has been found to answer for rowing vessels. Dr. Harris, in proceeding to the fire engine, says, "The other engine is for raising water by the force of fire, in which he has shewn as great ingenuity, depth of thought, and true mechanic skill, as ever discovered itself in any design of this nature." Notwithstanding this, Dr. Desaguliers has endeavoured to take away all the merit of the invention of the fire engine from Captain Savery, as if he had merely copied it from the Marquis of Worcester.

The account given by Dr. Desaguliers has been so frequently copied by different writers, that it is generally considered as correct; and we therefore think it a piece of justice to the memory of Captain Savery, to set his pretensions in a clearer light than has been generally done. The doctor says, "Captain Savery having read the Marquis of Worcester's book, was the first who put in practice the raising water by fire, which he proposed for the draining of mines. His engine is described in Harris's *Lexicon* (see the word *ENGINE*), which, being compared with the Marquis of Worcester's description, will easily appear to have been taken from him, though Captain Savery denied it; and the better to conceal the matter, bought up all the Marquis of Worcester's books that he could purchase in Paternoster-Row, and elsewhere, and burned them in the presence of the gentleman, his friend, who told me this. He said that he found out the power of steam by chance, and invented the following story to make people believe it; viz., that, having drank a flask of Florence at a tavern, and thrown the empty flask upon the fire, he called for a bason of water to wash his hands, and perceiving that the little wine left in the flask had filled up the flask with steam, he took the flask by the neck, and plunged the neck of it under the surface of the water in the bason, and the water of the bason was immediately driven up into the flask by the pressure of the air. Now he never made such an experiment then nor designedly afterwards, which I thus prove:—

"I made the experiment purposely with about half a glass of wine in a flask, which I laid upon the fire till it boiled into steam; then putting on a thick glove to prevent the neck of the flask from burning me, I plunged the mouth of the flask under the water that filled a bason, but the pressure of the atmosphere was so strong, that it beat the flask out of my hand with violence, and threw it up to the ceiling. As this must also have happened to Captain Savery, if ever he had made the experiment, he would not have failed to have told such a remarkable incident, which would have embellished his story."

This conclusion of the doctor's is altogether unphilosophical, and does not at all invalidate Captain Savery's account. We know that the Marquis of Worcester gave no hint concerning the contractibility or sudden condensation of steam, upon which all the merit of the modern engine depends. The Marquis of Worcester's engine was actuated wholly by the *elastic power of steam*, which he either found out, or proved by the bursting of a cannon, in part filled with water; but he gave not the least hint that steam so expanded is *capable of being again so far contracted in an instant*, as to leave the space it occupied in a vessel in a great measure a vacuum. This grand discovery was reserved to Captain Savery, and his account of its accidental origin is not at all improbable. The captain tells us, in the "*Miner's Friend*," that he did not bring his design to bear, until after a great number of fatiguing inquiries: and he actually erected several machines before he obtained his patent in July 1698. Many objections were made against the grant of that patent being passed; but in the hearing of these objections, the discovery of the Marquis of Worcester's prior claim was not mentioned:

mentioned: and, indeed, it is certain that the account given in the Century of Inventions could not instruct a person who was not sufficiently acquainted with the properties of steam to be able to invent the machine himself.

Desaguliers seems to have been too hasty in concluding that the captain had never made such an experiment as that of the wine-flask, because, in the single instances in which he tried it himself, he found the effect of the condensation took place in a much higher degree than reported by the captain. It is not difficult to conceive that a very small difference in the heat of the steam which filled the flask, and other circumstances, might create the whole of the difference in the result. And, on the whole, there is no reason to hesitate in believing that the captain actually took his hint of the condensation of steam from such an accident, and being of a very mechanical genius, he would naturally turn his thoughts towards the consideration of such a power; and the most obvious application of it would be to a machine on a construction similar to that described by the marquis. Or, if he really had been acquainted with, and considered the marquis's engine, he would easily see that the new principle of condensation might, with great advantage, be combined with the former, and thereby produce an effect more powerful than either of them could do alone. The only thing in the doctor's account which cannot now be disapproved is, that Captain Savery destroyed the Marquis of Worcester's books. Even if this is true, it may be accounted for; the captain must, first or last, have become acquainted with what had been before made public by the Marquis of Worcester; and after having in his books spoken of his invention, and his new power or cause of motion, and finding the marquis's inventions to be but little known, he might be tempted, in order to secure the whole credit and expected advantage to himself, to buy up the marquis's books and burn them. But the grounds for this assertion are very slight, and will never prevent the conclusion, that the great principle of obtaining force from the pressure of the atmosphere, by the condensation of the steam of boiling water, was a discovery for which we are indebted to Captain Savery, who had also the merit of first reducing it to practice in a most complete manner, in combination with the prior discovery of the marquis.

M. Amontons' Fire-Wheel.—The French writers who have treated of the steam-engine, seldom fail to mention Papin and M. Amontons as the first inventors of the method of raising water by steam, and speak of Savery as a person who put their ideas in execution, and brought them to perfection: we think it right on this account to state what was done by M. Amontons and Papin, although the attempts of the latter to employ the force of steam are not entitled to any notice, either from their originality, or from their real merit. It is probable, that the news of the patent granted to Savery in 1698, for raising water, and occasioning motion to mill-work by the impelling force of fire, excited the attention of the French academicians, before the means by which it was to be accomplished were made public, so as to be known abroad, and that they were thus induced to attempt the same thing; for in June 1699, which is the same month that Captain Savery shewed his machine at work before the Royal Society, M. Amontons delivered a memoir to the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, entitled "A commodious Way of substituting the Action of Fire instead of Men and Horses to move Machines."

This may be regarded as the first attempt to produce a circular motion by the means of fire, otherwise than by the aeolipile, or the fly of a smoke-jack: but as the motion of M. Amontons' wheel was to be produced by the alternate dilatation and contraction of air, and not of the steam of boiling water, it is nothing in common with Savery's machine, except that the first cause of motion is that of fire.

M. Amontons' fire-wheel, as he called it, consists of a number of close buckets, or chambers, placed in the circumference of a hollow wheel, and communicating with each other by valves opening in one direction; and a sufficient quantity of water is put into these buckets to fill about

one half of the number: another circle of similar buckets, but of larger dimensions, are placed on the outside of the circle of the former buckets; these large buckets contain air, and each one has a pipe conducted from it to one of the water-buckets which are nearer to the centre: a part of the circumference of the wheel, which is about the level of the centre, is exposed to the fire of a furnace, so that each air-bucket that passes will be heated; and also the lower part of the wheel is immersed in a cistern of cold water, so as to cool the same bucket again. The action of the machine may easily be understood. The air contained in the large bucket which is opposite the fire becomes heated and expanded, and by the pipe of communication it enters into that water-bucket which is at the low side of the wheel, and pressing upon the surface of the water therein, causes it to mount up through the other chambers, in the direction in which the valves open from one chamber to the next; the water, being thus accumulated in the chambers at one side of the wheel, will give it a preponderating power to turn round upon its axis. This motion brings another air-bucket opposite to the fire, and the air therein expands in its turn, and again elevates the water in the interior chambers as much as it had descended by the motion of the wheel; a continual succession is thus kept up, and the air-buckets which have passed the fire descend into the cold water, and the air is thereby cooled and reduced to its former bulk. By the communication with the water-buckets, the pressure of the expanded air is removed from within them, and puts them in a situation to repeat their action.

This machine is ingenious, and if a better application of fire, by rarefying water into steam, had not been discovered, it is possible that the invention of M. Amontons might have been further prosecuted. From his computations it would appear, that the machine he proposed would act with a considerable power; but as he exhibited no working model, or actual trial, it was never proved that the machine, if put into practice, would be capable of producing any thing near the effect promised by his calculations. Leupold, in his "Theatrum Hydraulicarum," 1724, proposed an improved form of this fire-wheel; and steam-engines have since been made with mercury, or fluid metal, contained within a hollow wheel, which is to be always kept on one side with the mercury by the force of the steam: they have not been found to equal other modes of applying the force of steam. Such of our readers as are curious to know more of the construction of M. Amontons' machine, can consult the original memoir; and they will also find a full account of it, with a figure, in Martin and Chambers' Abridgment of the Philosophical History and memoirs of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, vol. i.

Papin's Pretensions to the Invention of the Steam Engine.—M. Papin, to whom the French attribute the invention of the steam engine, was a doctor of physic, and professor of mathematics at Marburg, in Germany, and in 1680 he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society of London. In the following year, and whilst in London, he invented and published a method of dissolving bones, and other animal solids, in water, by confining them in close vessels, which he called *digesters*, and which he made sufficiently strong to retain the steam and prevent all evaporation, so as to acquire a great degree of heat. About the same time Dr. Hooke, the most inquisitive experimental philosopher of that inquisitive age, observed that water could not be made to acquire above a certain temperature in the open air, and that as soon as it begins to boil, its temperature remains fixed, and an increase of heat only produces a more violent ebullition, and a more rapid waste. Papin's experiments with his digester rendered the elastic power of steam very familiar to him, and when he left England, and settled as professor of mathematics at Marburg, he made many attempts to employ this force in mechanics, and even for raising water.

By his own account, it appears that he had made some experiments with this view in 1698, by order of Charles, Landgrave of Hesse, but without effecting any thing. This is all the reason the French have to consider him as the first inventor

inventor of the steam engine. Nine years after Savery's patent he published an account of his invention, in a tract, entitled "Ars nova ad aquam ignis adminiculo efficacissime elevandum."—"A New Method of raising Water by the Force of Fire," printed at Cassel, 1707. This machine, which is described in Belidor's "Architecture Hydraulique," vol. ii., does not essentially differ from that of the Marquis of Worcester, but is far less perfect than Savery's: it works wholly by the repellent power of steam: the only advantage is, that the receiver being made cylindrical, the steam is separated from the cold water by a floating piston, and that the water is made to flow in some degree constantly, by being thrown into a large air-vessel. In this publication, Papin admits that he had seen a draft of Savery's engine, but says, that in the year 1698 he made a great number of experiments, by order of his serene highness Charles, Landgrave of Hesse, in order to raise water by the force of fire, which he communicated to several persons, and particularly to M. Leibnitz, who answered, that the same thought had occurred to himself. He also acknowledged that Captain Savery was about that time working upon the same subject in England, and that Savery had first published the fruit of his researches; that from 1698 the affair had lain dormant till the year 1705, when he received a letter from M. Leibnitz, then in London, which contained a draft of Captain Savery's engine, and desired Papin's opinion upon it. On shewing this draft to the landgrave, he ordered Papin to resume the work, and perfect the inventions which he had begun; and which Papin then published, not with a view to make it supposed that Captain Savery had taken the thoughts from him, but to shew the world its obligation to the landgrave, in having first formed a design so useful, and in having brought it to its present degree of perfection; and he labours much to shew that his engine is preferable to that of Captain Savery. Although we must allow Dr. Papin to compliment his patron and himself upon the success they met with, after encountering many unforeseen difficulties and experiments, which succeeded, as he tells us, quite contrary to their expectations, yet it cannot be allowed that Papin's experiments in 1698 were the first, because the Marquis of Worcester's publication was earlier by no less than thirty-five years: nor were they probable to have been so early as Savery's beginning, since we cannot suppose that he would be at the expence of a patent, without some previous experiments to confirm his speculation, or that he could bring his engine to the degree of perfection in which he exhibited it to the Royal Society on the 14th of June, 1699, in less than a year, at a period when workmen were not ready or skillful in the execution of such machines as they now are in this country.

The various improvements on Savery's engine made by *Blakey* and others, will be found under the article *Mechanics*, where the reader is also referred to the inventions of *Newcomen*, *Fitzgerald*, *A. Woolf*, *James Watt*, and *Hornblower*. Numerous have been the attempts since that period to improve the construction of the steam engine, but until the year 1823, no very great change was introduced. In this year appeared Mr. Perkins's steam engine.

This invention, as described in the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal* for July 1823, appears to consist in substituting for the boiler a strong vessel of gun metal, which he very properly calls a *generator*, intending to subject the water to a heat of between 400° and 500°, and allowing it to escape only through a valve loaded with a weight equivalent to 35 atmospheres, while it is furnished with a safety valve loaded to 37, and with a gauge indicating, by means of a portion of compressed air, the actual pressure of the steam produced by it; and even the water that returns to the generator is subjected to a pressure of five or six atmospheres, which keeps it at a temperature of more than 300°. The generator contains eight gallons of water, or 2352 cylindrical inches, while the piston is two inches in diameter, and the cylinder 18 inches long, containing 72 cylindrical inches, or $\frac{1}{33}$ as much as the generator: affording a stroke of 12

inches, with a pressure initially of about 430 pounds on each square inch, that is, about 1300 pounds in the whole, or probably somewhat less, since the valve of the generator cannot be supposed to remain open long enough for the pressure on each side of it to become equal. The danger of explosion, which has hitherto prevented the general employment of engines with very high pressures, is here avoided by the great strength and the moderate dimensions of the apparatus; and besides the safety valves, a thin ball of copper, or a safety bulb, is provided, which will only sustain the pressure of 1000 pounds on the square inch, while every other part of the vessels is calculated to sustain 4000.

Mr. Perkins's mode of applying heat to the water appears in reality to be extremely advantageous, not so much from any evidence that has been produced respecting the performance of the engine, as from the fact asserted by the writer in the *Journal*, that "as much low pressure steam, of four pounds on the square inch, may be generated by one bushel of coals," employed upon three tubes of gun metal, communicating, by means of a loaded valve, with the boiler of a common engine, as by nine bushels applied in the ordinary manner. It has been conjectured that the heat is more easily communicated by the generator to the water, on account of the more intimate contact which subsists between them, and the absence of any nascent bubbles of steam in the neighbourhood of the common surface: but it appears to be more probable, that by far the most material part of the advantage depends upon the more perfect combustion of the coal at a high temperature near the external surface of the thick boiler: for it has been sufficiently proved by Sir. Humphry Davy and others, that an intense combustion evolves a much greater quantity of heat from the same materials than a more languid oxygenization.

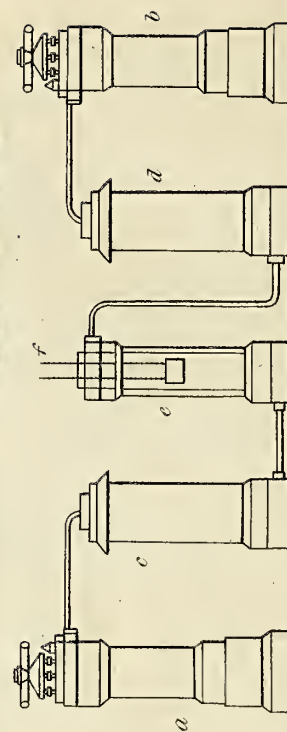
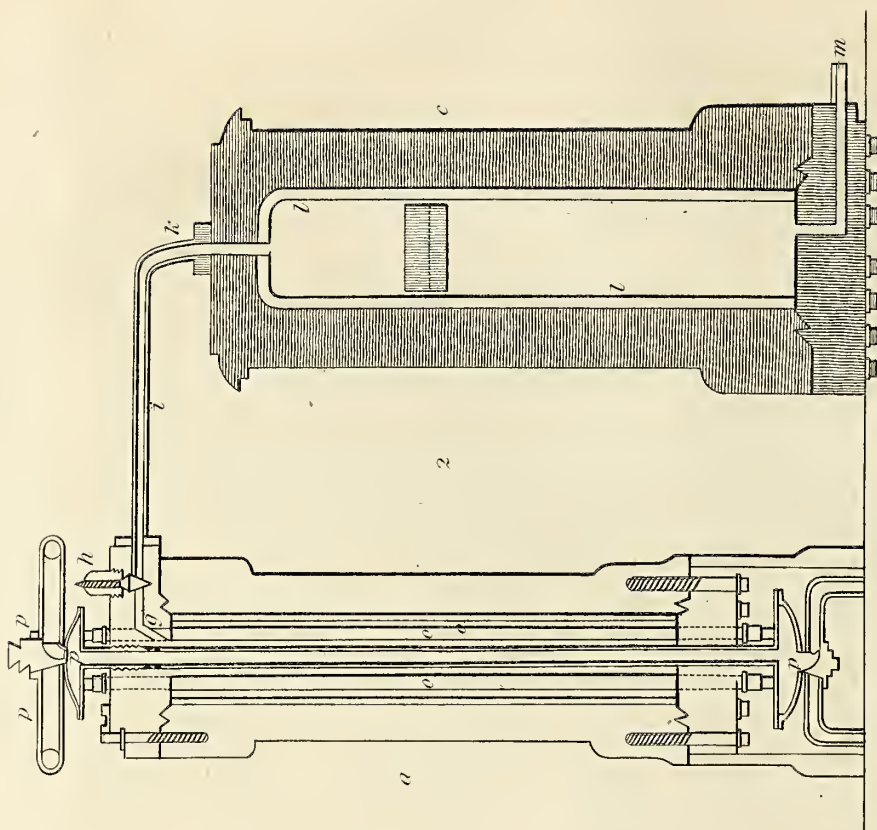
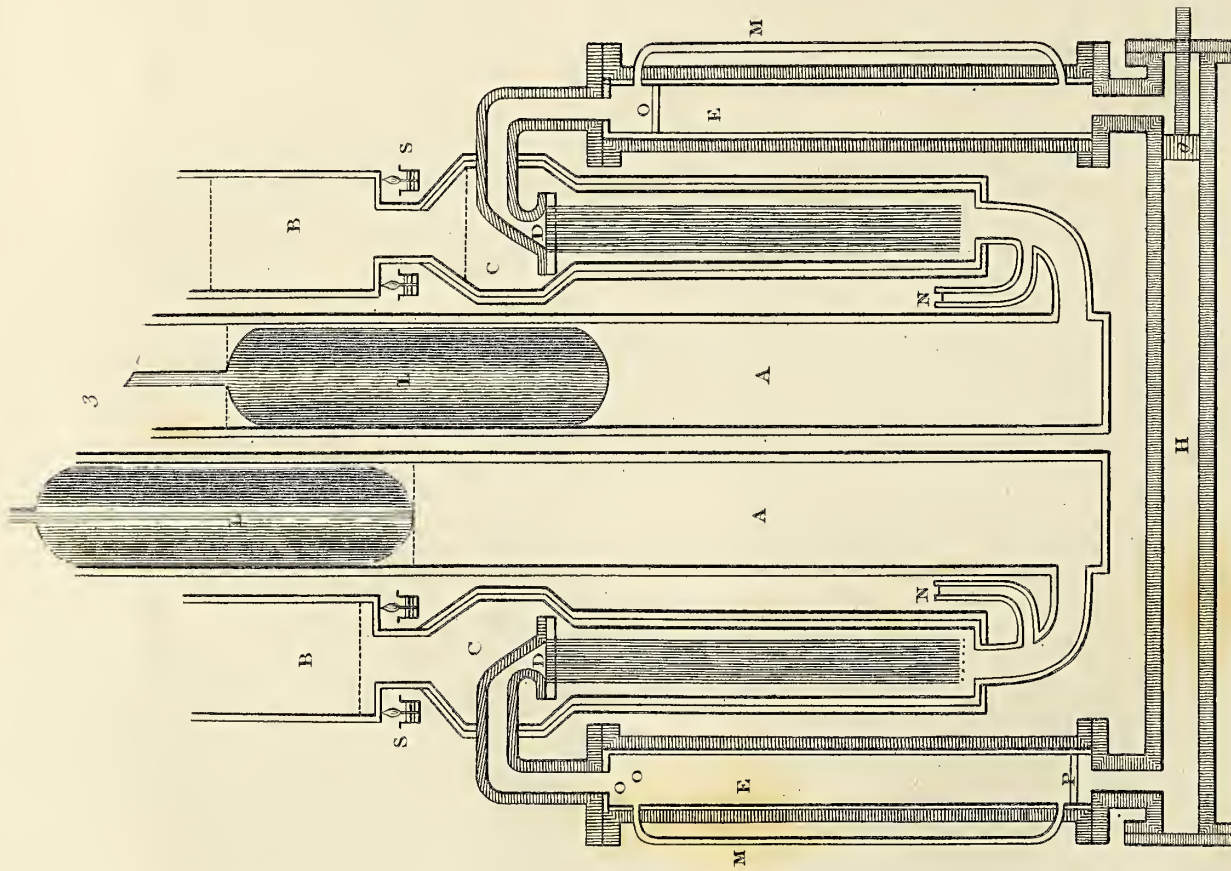
The quantity of water, thrown out at each stroke, appears, from the table of densities inserted in this article, to be $\frac{1}{10}$ of the quantity that you will fill the cylinder, that is $\frac{1}{3530}$ of the content of the generator, and its conversion into steam at any temperature would not require, at the utmost, more than 940° of heat, that is, a quarter of a degree for the whole of the water in the vessel, and possibly not above one-fifth of a degree.

Numerous projectors have endeavoured to alter or improve the construction of the present steam engine; but though considerable improvements have taken place in minor details, and in accurately determining the relative proportions of the different parts, no important and general improvement on the engines previously described has been effected. We speak here strictly of the steam engine; for, of late, a new era has been constituted in science by the introduction of other gaseous fluids than steam, as prime movers.—Such engines ought, however, more properly to be called *vacuum engines*; a term, indeed, which would also include the majority of steam engines. As, however, the subject is mentioned, we shall not wait till our alphabetical arrangement brings us to that term, but shall introduce here what we have to say concerning these new instruments of motion.

The experiments of Mr. Faraday and Sir H. Davy, in which the condensation of gases into liquids was effected, led to the formation of the first gas engine. That able engineer, Mr. Brunel, was the inventor of it. The gas he used, was the carbonic acid; and the following is the structure of his engine:—

It consists of five distinct cylindrical vessels (see fig. 1, Pl. II.) The two exterior vessels, *a* and *b*, contain the carbonic acid reduced to the liquid form, and are called the *receivers*; from these it passes into the two adjoining vessels, *c* and *d*, termed *expansion vessels*; these last, having tubes of communication with the working cylinder, *e*, the piston therein (shown by dots) is operated upon by the alternate expansion and condensation of the gas, giving motion to the rod, *f*, and consequently to whatever machinery may be attached thereto.

As the working cylinder, *e*, is of the usual construction,



1 & 2 Brunel's Engine. 3 Chevreton's Engine.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1827.

no further description of that part of the apparatus is necessary; and as the two vessels on one side of the cylinder are precisely similar to those on the other, a description of the receiver, *a*, and the expansion vessel, *c*, will apply to their counterparts, *b* and *d*; the two former (*a* and *c*) are therefore given in a separate figure in section, that their construction may be seen, and their operation better understood. The same letters of reference designate the like parts in both figures.

The communication of the condensing pump (before-mentioned) with the receiver, *a*, is through the orifice, *g*, which can be stopped at pleasure by the plug or stop-cock, *h*. When the receiver has been charged with the liquid and closed, a pipe, *i*, is applied to and connected to the expansion vessel, *c*, at *k*. *l* is a lining of wood (mahogany), or other non-conductor of heat, to prevent the absorption which would otherwise be occasioned, by the thick substance of the metal. The expansion vessel is connected through a pipe, *m*, to the working cylinder, *e*; these vessels contain oil, or any other suitable fluid, as a medium between the gas and the piston.

The receiver is a strong gun-metal vessel, of considerable thickness, in the interior of which are placed several thin copper tubes at *ooo*; the joints of these tubes through the top and bottom of the receiver are made perfectly tight by packing. The use of these tubes is to apply, alternately, heat and cold to the liquid contained in the receiver, without altering very sensibly the temperature of the cylinder. The operation of heating and cooling through the thin tubes, *ooo*, may be effected with warm water, steam, or any other heating medium; and cold water or any other cooling medium. For this purpose the tubes, *ooo*, are united by a chamber and cock, *pp*, by the opening of which, with the pipes, *oo*, hot and cold water may be alternately let in and forced through, by means of pumps, the cocks being worked in a similar manner to those in steam engines.

Now if hot water, say at 120°, is let in through the tubes of the receiver, *a*, and cold water at the same time through the receiver, *b*, the liquid in the first receiver will operate with a force of about 90 atmospheres, while the liquid in the receiver, *b*, will only exert a force of 40 or 50 atmospheres. The difference between these two pressures will, therefore, be the acting power; which, through the medium of the oil, will operate upon the piston in the working cylinder. It is easy to comprehend that, by letting hot water through the receiver, *b*, and cold water through the opposite one, *a*, a re-action will take place, which will produce in the working cylinder, *e*, an alternate movement of the piston, applicable by the rod, *f*, to various mechanical purposes as may be required.

It is to be observed, that the use of the gasometer and of the forcing-pumps is simply for obtaining the gas, and for charging the receivers with the liquid. When the receiver is once charged, and has been closed with the stop-cock, *h*, the gasometer and forcing-pumps are to be disconnected from the receiver by unscrewing the pipe, *i*, at the joint. The same pipe may, however, be used as the means of connecting the receiver with the expansion vessel; the adoption of two distinct pipes for these purposes is intentionally avoided, as it would become necessary in consequence to have two orifices, as well as two stop-cocks. It is obvious, that no difficulty exists in connecting the forcing pump with both receivers, as the small pipes used for that purpose may be made to reach either.

The most essential parts of this interesting invention are—the internal application of the tubes for conveying the heating and cooling medium; the cylindrical form, and the manner they are applied, rendering them capable of resisting the intense external pressure of the liquid, yet admitting of their being made so thin as to allow of the rapid and complete transmission of heat and cold through them; and the arrangements by which the receivers acting in opposition to each other produce, without any aid of intermediate valves, an alternating action, attended with scarcely any perceptible

diminution of power from friction, and bring into action a force so great, that it may almost be deemed irresistible.

A machine on the same principle was invented by Mr. Cheverton, and about the same time as Brunel's. It is not, however, so simple nor of so elegant an appearance, but has so much merit, that we shall introduce Mr. Cheverton's words:—He says, "I was, a few years ago, led by these views to turn my attention to the gases, having been forcibly struck with the prodigious pressure under which they are capable of being generated. Gunpowder, the fulminating powders generally, but especially that remarkable fluid, azotane, are examples in point. For mechanical purposes, a gradual production of gas is of course to be adopted. The evolution of carbonic acid gas, by the action of sulphuric acid on the carbonates, was an obvious case. On making the necessary calculations, this, with many other means, were found to be too expensive, because the scheme embraced this principle—an expenditure of the gas. It was, therefore, with no little pleasure that I read the paper laid before the Royal Society, containing an account of the experiments made by Sir Humphry Davy and Mr. Faraday, in which the condensation of the several gases into liquids was affected at a temperature, and under a pressure within practical limits, proving thereby that some of those gases to which my attention had been directed on the principle of their expenditure, could be reproduced in the fluid form, and used again in the same way as alcohol and ether. It immediately occurred to me, as a *sine qua non* condition of an engine working with such materials, that there be no moving joint to which the gas can have access; in short, that there must not be a possibility of its escape, and that the simplest and most obvious means of satisfying this condition, was to make the same vessel alternately a boiler and a condenser. Further consideration confirmed me in the idea of the practicability of this plan, since the difference of temperature required to produce a great difference in the elastic force of the gas is but a few degrees when the minimum elasticity is already considerable. The project of an engine, as represented in the figure prefixed, was therefore substantially completed; it remained only to adopt a mode of alternately heating and cooling the liquid employed. Several plans suggested themselves, but I prefer, for its simplicity, its certainty, and the ease with which it can be regulated, the method which will be immediately explained.

"Description of the Engine, fig. 3. Pl. II.—The figure presents a vertical section; with this remark, that as all the vessels have a circular form, an horizontal section becomes unnecessary. It is proper to observe, that the disposition of the parts as represented, has been adopted solely for the purpose of bringing the whole into one view. The engine consists of a duplication of parts, viz:—

"A A, two refrigerators, containing cold water. B B, calorators, containing hot oil. C C, alternators lined with wood, and filled alternately with the hot and cold medium. D D, generators, consisting of a cylindrical assemblage of capillary copper tubes, about half filled, at the minimum pressure, with the carbonic acid, or other liquid employed—they communicate with the upper end of E E, strong copper gasometers, lined with wood, nearly full of oil, at the minimum elasticity of the gas, but which, at its maximum, expels nearly the whole of it into the H, cylinder, in which works I, the piston. L L, solid wooden plungers. M M, capillary glass tubes, for observing the movements of the oil, and fixed in a particular manner—they are not absolutely necessary. N N, pipes for a constant supply of cold water. O O, pipes through which gas is in the first introduced, and oil occasionally injected, in order to supply the waste at the piston rod—they are closed in a particular manner. O P, boards floating on the oil. S S, circular cisterns containing oil, each having a circular row of lamps; (----), level of the water and of the oil; (.....), level of the separation between the water and the oil.

"Action of the Engine.—One of the gasometers being nearly full of oil, and the generator attached to it, with the

liquid contained therein, being reduced to the lower temperature, the elasticity of the gas is then at its minimum; but which will at all times be very considerable, especially if the carbonic acid, or the nitrous oxide, are the liquids employed; a flood of hot oil suddenly descends upon and surrounds the generator; instantly an evolution of gas takes place, and continues till its elasticity, pressing on the oil in the gasometer, causes the latter to rush into the cylinder, and carry with it the piston that works therein, to the further extremity. The duplication of the apparatus produces the return stroke, and thus an alternate movement is kept up. But to effect the re-action, the elasticity of the gas, which now occupies nearly the whole of the gasometer, must be reduced. For this purpose, the generator is flooded with cold water, which rises from below, bearing up the hot oil on its surface to the place from which it descended. The temperature of the generator and its liquid falls, the gas condenses rapidly on its extensive surface; its density as rapidly diminishes, it returns to its first elasticity, and the oil regains its former level in the gasometer. Again the water sinks, and the hot oil descends, and thus the same vessel becomes alternately a boiler and a condenser; in one case generating a gas, in the other a liquid.

“To force up the hot oil from the alternator into the calorator, in which it is heated, a plunger is immersed in the column of cold water contained in the refrigerator; this raises its level, and consequently the level of the column of water and oil with which it is in equilibrium. There is not the friction, concussion, or elaborate workmanship, which would attend a piston employed for this purpose. The specific gravity of the oil being less than that of water, there will of course be a difference and a varying difference in the altitude of the two columns when in equilibrium, according to well-known hydrostatic principles, but this is of no consequence. The plunger must be so proportioned, and immersed so deep, as to displace a body of water equal in volume to that of the oil elevated, besides what is required for the raising of its own level. Now it is obvious that here is an opportunity to regulate the power of the engine, for the less the plunger is raised the less is the descent of the hot oil, and consequently less of the liquid is exposed to its influence; a governor, therefore, would be very properly applied to the movements of the plungers. If a greater power is required than when the governor is at the extreme limit of its influence, that is, when the generator is entirely surrounded with hot oil, it may be produced by bringing the lamps nearer to the calorator, or by lighting a greater number of them. If, however, the same velocity of action is not required to be maintained, the engine, possessing in itself a source of self-regulation, will increase in energy for the occasion; because the slowness of the strokes, allowing a longer time for the heating of the liquid, its temperature will be raised to more than the ordinary degree, for this must be always less than that of the hot oil. The extent to which this enlargement of the power may be carried, and the facility with which it may be effected, is of great importance with respect to navigation, and will be duly appreciated by those conversant with the subject. It should be observed, that the action of the plungers must be a little in advance of that of the piston, in order to give time for the heating and cooling of the metal of the generator. There is this peculiarity in the engine, that it has neither valves, cocks, nor pumps, nor any moving joint, except that of the piston and its rod; hence its simplicity, and consequently the cheapness with which it may be constructed. The room which an eighty-horse power engine would occupy, would not probably be more than a cubical space of seven feet dimensions, so far as its cylinder and appendages are concerned. It would be quite practicable to attach a gauge to the engine, by which the pressure of the gas may be ascertained; and means are devised by which the height of the liquid in the generator may be known. The introduction of the carbonic acid, or other liquid employed, should be in the form of gas. For this purpose, the generator must be brought to a lower

temperature than the gasometer, which will occasion the greater part to condense therein; that which may form in the gasometer will distill over, after the apparatus for producing the gas is removed. It is also for this reason, that there is no fear that an accumulation of the liquid will take place in that vessel during the working of the engine. To prevent condensation, however, in any hurtful degree, its interior is lined with wood, and a board floats on the surface of the oil. Another plan would be, to maintain the gasometer at the higher temperature to which the liquid is raised; but this is by no means advisable if it can be avoided. The board is also of important use, in preventing the absorption of gas by the oil, during the greater pressure; which being evolved at the time of the collapse, would prove injurious, by diminishing the difference between the elastic forces. Oil is selected as the heating medium, because it is lighter than water, and has its boiling point so much higher. It is probable, however, that 212 degrees is a temperature sufficiently superior to that which the liquid will require to be raised, and such as will produce its almost instantaneous heating; if so, hot and cold water may be employed. From the relative position of the two mediums, little communication of heat can take place. The alternator is internally lined with wood, partly to prevent a loss of heat, but principally to preserve, as much as possible, the coldness of the water. In a locomotive engine, the water could only be occasionally changed; in the intervals, a cooling process may be at work, and the plungers would perform the office of a pump.”

The next of modern engines we feel it requisite to describe is, Mr. Eve's patent engine. We shall borrow in part his own description. He informs us, that he lays claim to improvements in the five following particulars:—

I. The application of revolving cones to rotary engines, for the purpose of compensating any loss by friction.

II. A steam generator so constructed of tubes, that the heat of the furnace shall cause the water to circulate constantly through these tubes, so that they shall be less liable to burn out or become oxidated.

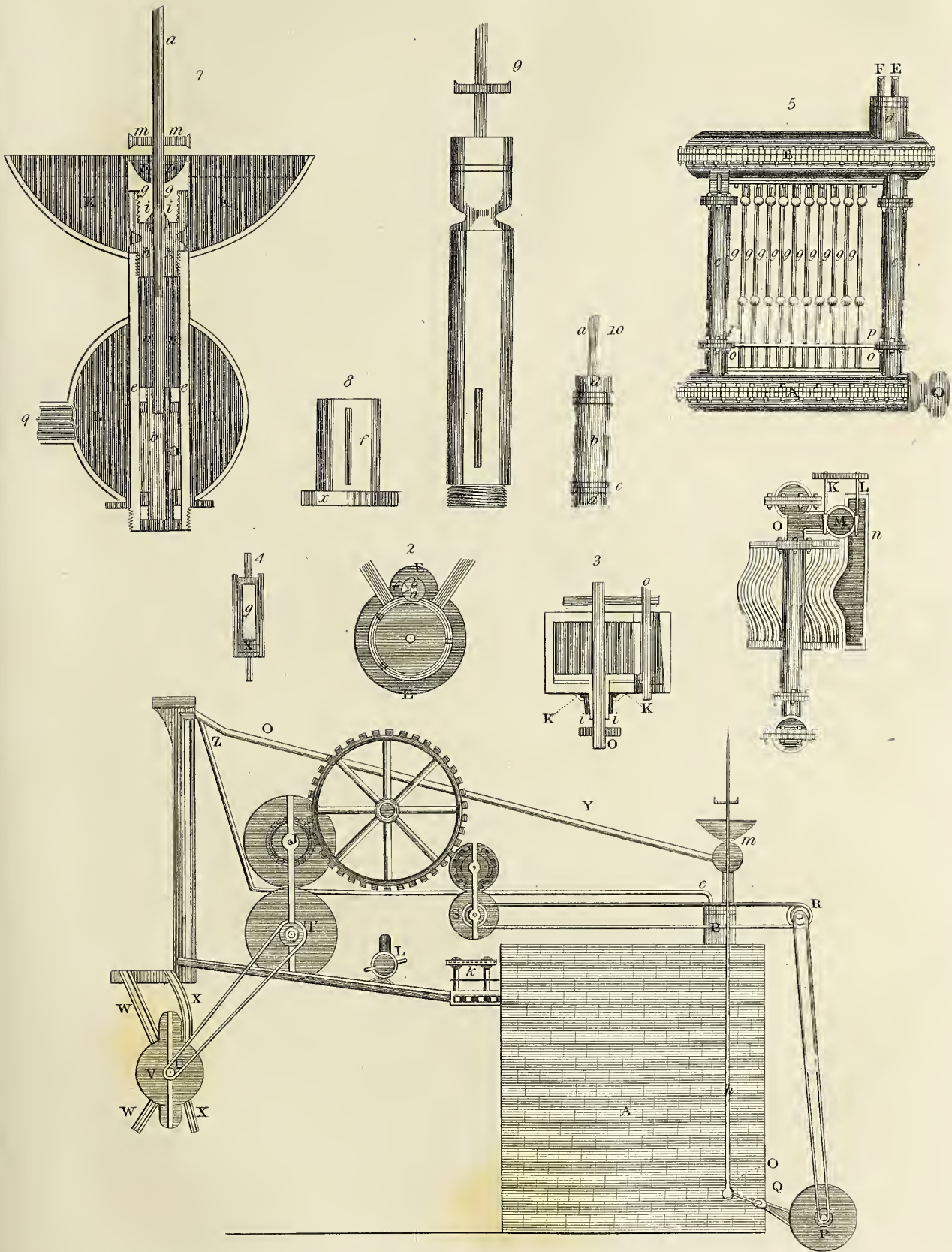
III. An arrangement of one or more revolving cock or cocks, for the purpose of supplying the generator with water, in lieu of the ordinary forcing-pump.

IV. A new safety apparatus, by which the elasticity of steam in boilers is ascertained by weight applied directly instead of indirectly, as with the ordinary steel-yard valve.

V. An arrangement of cog-wheels, with a compound engine in such a manner, that the steam after having acted as high pressure, may be used with low pressure, with greater effect than in any engine now in use.

The manner in which each of these improvements is effected, we shall now proceed to explain; taking the specification of the patentee for our guide.

I. *The revolving Cones.*—Fig. 2. Pl. III. presents an end section; and fig. 3, a longitudinal section of this part of an engine, constructed according to Mr. Eve's simplest manner.—*a a* are the cylinder and cone, revolving in contact in opposite directions, the cone having one groove, and being one-third of the diameter of the cylinder, which latter has three wings or pistons, *c c c*, the ends of which, as they revolve, touch the outer case, *e*, and do not admit any steam to pass. The steam is admitted through the pipe *f*, and acting on the wing *c*, causes the cylinder to revolve until the said wing passes the pipe, *g*, where the stratum of steam lodged between each two wings is allowed to escape; the wing which has thus passed, falls into the groove *d*, of the cone, the bottom of which groove touches in passing, thus allowing no steam to escape between. The said wing, *c*, then passes again by the steam-pipe, *f*, and is acted upon as before described, and so in rotation. The cylinder, *a*, which is firmly fixed to its axis, *b*, rests on one side, on the outer case, *e*, through which the axis projects; but as there is some friction produced by the revolution of the said cylinder at its two ends, touching the outer case, Mr. Eve has placed a false end, *h h*, under the opposite end of the cylinder, which false end slides on the axis, *b*, freely, and



Eve's Patent steam-engine.

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has a thread out at the end, by means of which, and the adjusting nut, *z*, the cylinder, if worn at the two ends can be easily tightened and adjusted. The adjusting nut is confined by the collar, *κ*, which collar is screwed to the outer case. The conical shape of the small runner, which can likewise be removed upwards or downwards in the outer case, serves to keep the two convex surfaces of the cylinder and cone in contact; so that no steam can escape between them. Mr. Eve conceives that from the conical shape of the runner, the longer the engine will be in use the better it will work, and the more steam-tight it will become.

By referring to fig. 4, which presents a longitudinal view of the conical runner, it will be seen that the groove, *d*, is cut into a separate piece of metal, which slides by an adjusting screw up and down in the empty space, *x*, so that when the engine is adjusted, the groove or the piece of metal into which the said groove is cut, can be moved up and down, so as to fit the wings of the cylinder by means of the adjusting screw, *o*. Two cog-wheels running into each other, are attached on the outside of the engine to the axis of the cylinder and cone, and are placed there for the purpose of producing a corresponding revolution of the said cylinder and cone, causing the groove of the cone to present itself regularly to the wings of the cylinder. *o* is a pinion, fixed to the other end of the axis, by means of which any machinery can be put into motion.

Mr. Eve has given a descriptions of two other modes of construction, founded on the same principle as the preceding; by means of which the power gained may be doubled, by the application of a double quantity of steam, but without any material augmentation in the size of the engine.

II. *The Steam Generator.*—Fig. 5 is a side view of the generator. *A*, the lower conduit pipe; *B* the steam receiver; *C C* are two pipes in which the water descends from the steam receiver to the lower or conduit pipe; *d* is the dome connected with the steam receiver, from which dome the steam enters into the steam-pipe, *F*, and into pipe *E*, which latter leads to the safety apparatus: *g g g g g g g g g g* are ten pipes which communicate with the lower conduit pipe, and the upper pipe or steam receiver. *p* is the grate and fire place, over the middle of which the smaller combination of pipes are placed: *o o* is the ash-pit; *Q* is an end which screws into the lower conduit pipe, by means of which the same may be cleaned out when necessary; the number of sections, number of pipes composing each section, and the manner in which the pipes are bent, is arbitrary. The generator or boiler is fed with water through the orifice *o*. The heat of the furnace will cause the water to circulate constantly through the tubes, thereby preventing the steam from driving the water out of them, and by which means they are in a great degree, prevented from burning out or oxidating. The tubes are from $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, and 1 and 2 inches diameter; they may be of copper, iron, or any other metal which is sufficiently strong to bear the pressure. The pressure will be comparatively small, on account of the small size of the pipes, although steam of the highest pressure be used. Mr. Eve's horizontal pipes are $1\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, and $9\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter; the vertical pipes $\frac{3}{4}$ inch thick, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches diameter. To the orifice of each of the section pipes, where they enter into the horizontal tubes, there are valves attached, so that in case of a rupture in one of the sections to which they belong, the unbalanced pressure of steam will force the water so rapidly into the particular section that is ruptured, as to cause the valves to close, thereby preventing any waste of steam, and detaching the ruptured section from the rest of the generator, whereby the engine need not be stopped, but will only lose so much of its power as the proportion of one section to the remaining sound ones would be. The two large vertical, as well as the two large horizontal tubes, are imbedded in brick-work, and the sections only are exposed to the heat of the fire; it is, therefore, inferred, that no steam will be found or generated in the former, while the action of the fire will cause the steam and water to ascend rapidly through the small pipes into the steam receiver, while the water in the steam receiver, being heavier than the water

combined with steam in the smaller pipes, will descend through the vertical tubes into the lower conduit pipe, thereby causing a continual circulation through all the tubes, great and small. The steam will of course accumulate at the top, and through the dome find its way to the steam-pipe and safety apparatus. In case the circulation should be too rapid; and to prevent the possibility of the water being forced into the steam-pipe before it descends again into the vertical pipes, Mr. Eve has placed a piece of sheet iron, perforated with small holes, similar to a strainer, in the middle of the steam receiver, all across from end to end.

III. *The revolving cocks*, by which the generator is supplied with water, are explained by fig. 6. *n*, is a vessel filled with water, of any convenient shape; one side of which vessel is near the furnace, so as to keep the water warm. A tube at *O* connects this vessel with the generator, and this tube has two revolving cocks, *K* and *L*, with a chamber, *m*, between them. The cocks are made to revolve equally by cog wheels gearing into each other; so that, if cock *K* is open towards the water reservoir, cock *L* will be closed towards the tube leading to the generator. The chamber between the cocks, will, therefore, be filled with water through the cock, *L*. By that time cock *K*, closes, and *L* opens towards the generator; the water in the chamber will then descend through *O*, into the generator, by its own gravity, and its place be occupied, in the chamber, by steam from the generator. Cock *K*, opens again towards the chamber, and *L* is closed towards the generator; the steam in the chamber will be condensed by the water now entering, or escape into the water reservoir, *n*. This revolution will go on continually. If water be presented by cock *L*, to the generator, and the said generator should be sufficiently full, the water being up to the dotted lines, in such a case the water will not be received, but remains in the chamber until part or the whole is wanted, the cocks constantly revolving. By this arrangement, the water can be kept constantly at the desired height.

IV. *The Safety Apparatus.*—Figs. 7, 8, 9, 10, elucidate Mr. Eve's improvements in the safety apparatus, as applicable to his tubular circulatory steam generator, or to any other boiler where high or low pressure steam is generated. Fig. 5, shows a longitudinal section of the compound tube: *a*, is the piston rod, screwed into the piston, *b*, which piston fits into the cylindrical tube, *c*, screwed or otherwise fixed at its base into the pipe that connects it with the steam receiver or boiler. *O* is a hole perforated through *b*, to allow the steam to ascend into the hollow space, *n*, above the piston, so that the pressure is equal on both sides with the exception of the piston rod, the diameter of which alone, is unbalanced. The piece, *h*, screwed into the upper part of the tube *c*, prevents the steam from ascending higher; another piece, *g g*, having a hollow space on the top, is screwed into *h*. Both these pieces have a hole bored in their centre, lengthways, of a diameter equal to the piston rod, *a*, and to allow it to work up and down. The hollow space, *i i*, in the middle of the two pieces, *g* and *h*, is filled with packing so as to prevent any escape of steam along the piston. The hollow space, *p*, at the top, is filled with oil; *K K* is a bason, with water up to the dotted line, to keep the upper part cool, the weights, with which the safety apparatus are intended to be loaded, are placed on the collar, *m*. The hollow tube, *e*, has longitudinal openings, as will be perceived by fig. 7, which presents an outside front view of the apparatus, and through these openings the steam escapes whenever the piston, *b*, rises. These holes may be of an indefinite length and breadth; a jacket, *F*, represented by fig. 6, which fits over the tube, *c*, and has likewise the same number of longitudinal holes cut through it, slides over the said tube, and by adjusting this jacket at *X*, the channel for the escape steam can be made narrower, accordingly as it may be desirable to have the piston rod raised more or less. The hollow vessel, *L L*, or a vessel of any other form, slides or is otherwise fixed over the lower part of the apparatus, so as to intercept the steam from incommoding the upper part of it where the rod is loaded. The pipe, *g*, leads from this hollow vessel, *L*,

to the steam condenser, or serves for the escape of steam. Fig. 8, represents an outside view of the piston: *a*, is the rod already described; *c c*, are packing rings, two on the upper side and two on the lower side. These rings press against the tube, *c*, in order to keep it steam-tight, so that no steam can escape through the longitudinal openings; *d d*, are two pieces of metal, screwed on at the top and base of the piston, to confine the packing rings.

V. *The high and low pressure combination.*—A, fig. 1, is the furnace containing the steam generator or boiler: B, is the dome on the top of the steam receiver, with the steam pipe, C, and safety apparatus, M. D, is a cock upon pipe C, through which steam is admitted to the high-pressure engine, E. After having acted upon it, the said steam passes into the low pressure engine, F, constructed on Mr. Eve's principle on a larger scale, so as to allow the steam to expand, and then act upon it as low pressure: E and F, have pinion wheels of an equal pitch, gearing into a spur wheel, G; these wheels determine the power given to each engine by regulating their motion with reference to the power required from each. The steam finds its escape at Z, into the condenser, H; the condensed steam or water runs through pipe, I, by its own gravity, towards the two revolving cocks, K, whence it is conveyed back to the feeding pipe in the steam generator. V, is an engine, constructed upon the plan explained under head I., having two induction and two ejection pipes, which engine serves as a pump in this particular situation. Pipe, W, sucks the water from the well or river, and carries it into the refrigerator: X receives the water in the refrigerator, and carries it downwards; P is the bellows, fanning the fire by means of a band round the axle, Q, connected with two pulleys, R and S, or by any other contrivance; O is the valve and lever of the bellows, connected, by rod N, with the safety apparatus; T and U, are pulleys, connected by a band to give rotary motion to pump V; but many other contrivances may be used; L is a cock, which is only opened before the engine is set to work, in order that the air may be driven out of the pipes and condenser by the steam; the cock may then be shut, and the engine set to work; Y is a pipe leading from the safety apparatus to the condenser. If an engine, therefore, be so contrived, and the boiler once filled with water, the same water will answer for working the engine, as long as all the pipes through which the steam and water circulate, are tight; or, at any rate, the loss of water will be very inconsiderable.

The advantages supposed to attend these engines are thus summed up by the patentee:—

“It is presumed, in the first place, that from a steam generator so small as the above-described, containing little water and steam, with the provision made in its construction against any danger, even were a rupture to take place, no danger could possibly happen to persons near the engine.

“It is also obvious, that the quantity of fuel consumed, will bear a proportion to the boiler or steam generator, and that, comparatively, very little can be consumed in so small a furnace as my steam generator requires.

“There are no reciprocating parts, levers, fly-wheels, or valves, but simply two revolving parts; and, if I may so speak, the whole power of the steam is appropriated by the direct or first intention. The relative weight and bulk of this engine will require a few more words for elucidation. A more concentrated power in steam engines is attainable in two ways:—the first is by using steam of great elasticity; thus, on Mr. Perkins's plan, a cylinder, two inches in diameter, would be sufficient for a ten-horse power. The second method of diminishing the dimensions of steam engines is, to increase their mobility; that is, to give greater velocity to the part or parts on which the steam acts. This, in all engines having reciprocating motions, is limited; for motion, alternately in opposite directions, requires a certain time, otherwise the whole power of the engine may be consumed by simply overcoming the inertia. Now it is certain, abstractedly considered, that as we increase the velocity of the piston, we may decrease the size of the engine; if follows, therefore, from the above premises, that if we could

conveniently make use of steam of 150 pounds to the inch, instead of mere atmospheric pressure, and have 150 strokes to the same engine instead of 15, we should require 100 times the power; or, what is the object at issue, have the same power with an engine and generator in that proportion smaller.

“The first object, as regards high pressure, it will not be too much to concede, as it has been long ago practically attained by Evans, and others. And, as to the velocity which this engine is calculated to admit of from its construction, though not unlimited, it is certainly very great, much more than ten times that of reciprocating engines, and much greater even than that of rotary engines, that have reciprocating parts. Thus, if these premises be correct, it cannot be too much to say that this engine ought to have the same power as the engines in common use, though of smaller dimensions; and that the weight will be reduced, not in proportion to the reduction of its superficial, but its cubic dimensions.

“The simplicity of the engine (the next desideratum), I conceive, cannot be well increased, as the engine itself consists of but two revolving parts. And lastly, as a result, the expense of erecting an engine of a given power, on the construction of the above, ought to bear a proportion to the diminution of its bulk and weight, and greater simplicity.

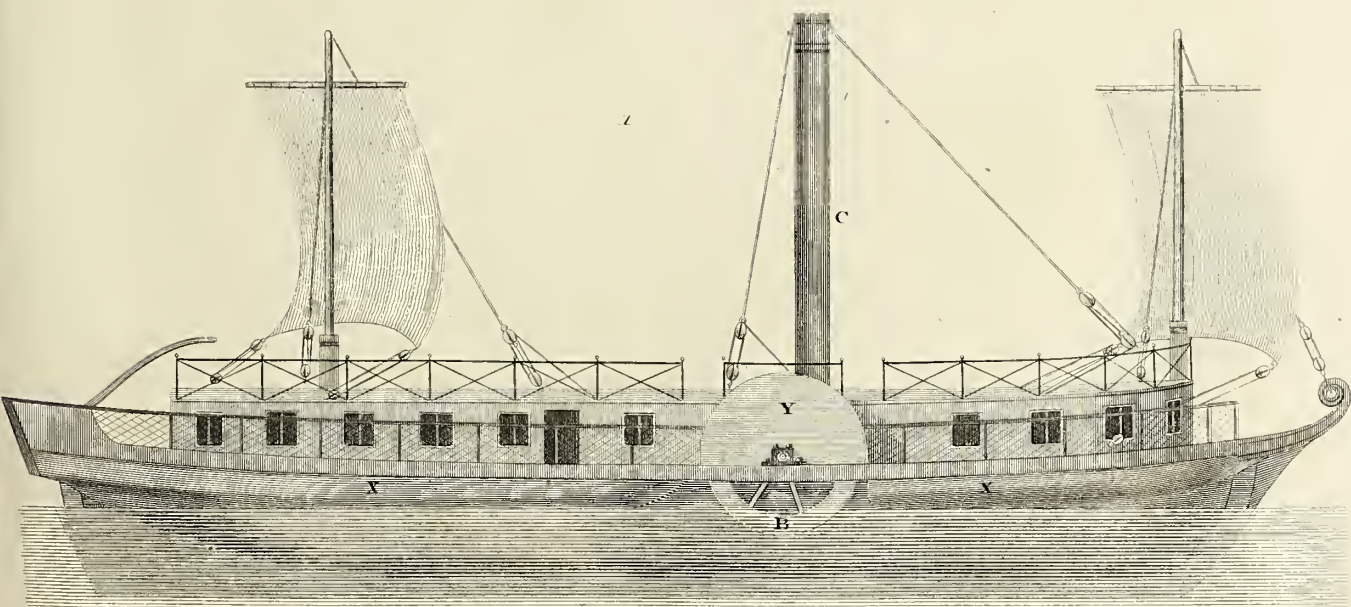
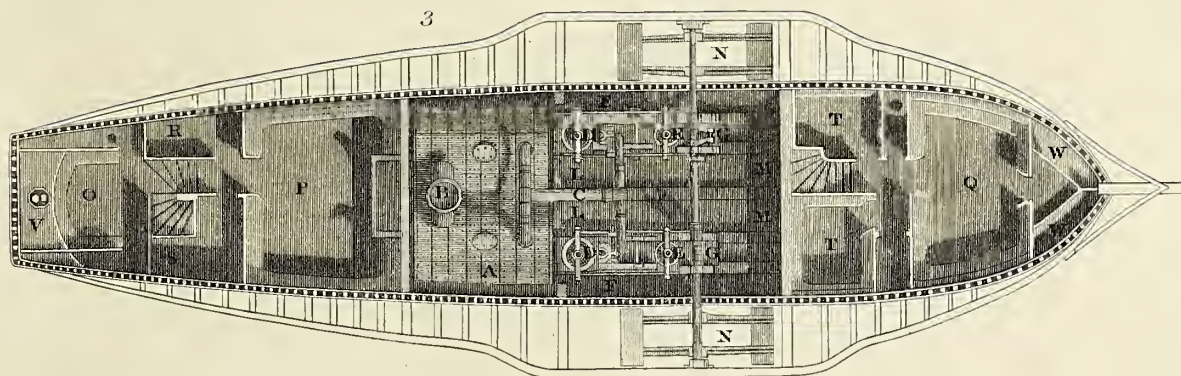
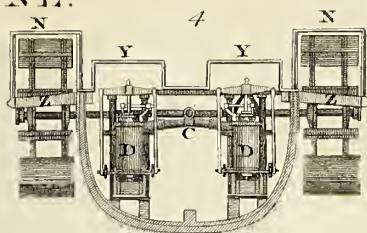
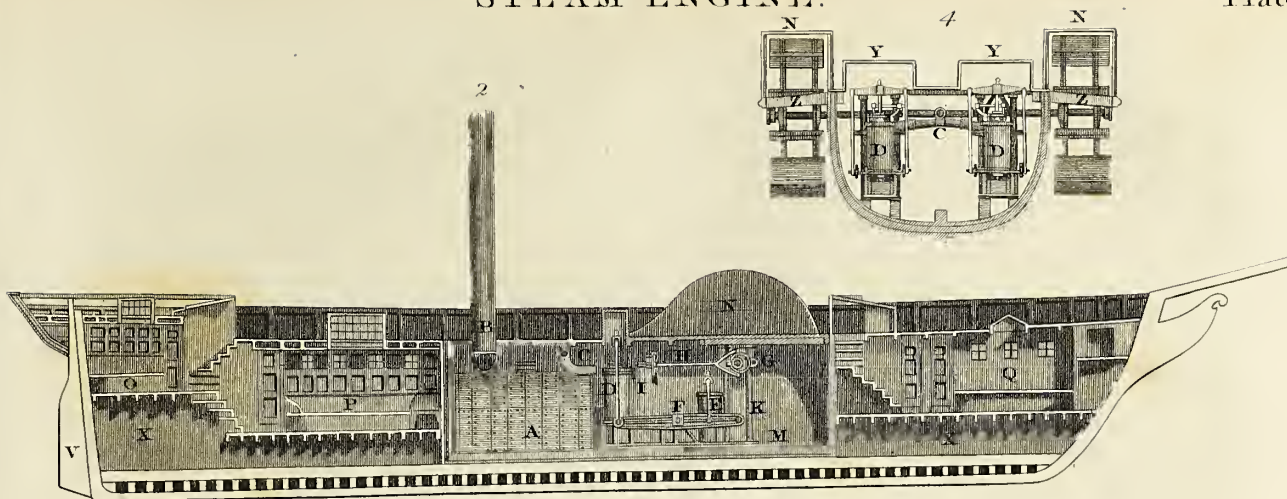
“The difficulty of availing ourselves of the advantage of using steam twice, that is, first as high pressure, and then in a condensing engine to any extent, is sufficiently apparent from the following considerations. It appears from Mr. Woolf's experiments, that steam, heated to balance six pounds to the inch, will expand into six times the volume under atmospheric pressure; at 20 pounds to 20 times; at 40 pounds to 40 times, and so on. Working with comparatively so low a pressure as 40 pounds to the inch, it would be found extremely inconvenient to use two engines whose capacities were as one to forty; and if not impossible, would appear ridiculous, if steam of 200 pounds elasticity, which is quite common in the United States, be used, as the second engine would have to be 200 times the capacity of the first, which, in this extreme case, would, at least, have a disproportionate appearance. All reciprocating engines, or those having reciprocating parts, will have to contend with this inconvenience; or, rather, can only avail themselves of a partial advantage from using high and low steam, as they have to work stroke for stroke. With my rotary steam engine the full benefit of this principle may be appropriated, as the engine that acts by high pressure may be made to revolve as much faster than the first as to allow of the full expansion of the steam before it is acted on, for the velocity may be carried to any extent required, without inconvenience.”

The application of the steam engine to navigation, and the earlier efforts that were made towards its improvement, are mentioned in the article MECHANICS. As, however, the subject is not very fully entered into in that place, we shall give it some further notice here. In the first place, as to the inventor of the steam, there are some disputes.

The method of propelling vessels by the action of wheels or paddles, instead of oars, is described in a very curious and learned treatise, *De Re Militari*, by Valturius, of Rimini, and first printed by John of Verona, in 1472.

From this book it is clear that, three or four centuries ago, boats, propelled by the action of paddle-wheels, were used on some of the large rivers in Italy, and, most probably, in other parts of the continent, for the transporting of troops. Valturius even speaks of pontoons, composed of three parts, like drums, which could be conjoined at any time, and again separated, to facilitate their carriage over land. The method of changing a reciprocating into a rotatory motion, by the help of a crank, though not applied to the steam engine till 50 or 60 years after its invention, had been understood and practised at the very dawn of the mechanical arts.

The atmospherical steam engine, which had been invented by Newcomen and improved by Beighton, began to be pretty generally adopted in the coal-works, about the year 1720; and



Elevation, plan, & section of a steam-boat.

Engraved for the Encyclopaedia Londinensis 1827.

and it does not seem to have required any great stretch of imagination to direct such an efficient power to other purposes besides the raising of water.

The first attempt, however, on record to apply steam to navigation, was made by a person of the name of Jonathan Hulls, who, on the 21st of December 1736, obtained a Patent, to endure for 14 years, for what may, without any impropriety, be called a *Steam-Boat*. The Letters Patent, and a description of this boat, illustrated with a plate, are contained in a very rare Tract, published by Hulls in 1737, under the following title: "A Description and Draught of a new invented Machine for carrying Vessels or Ships out of or into any Harbour, Port, or River, against Wind and Tide, or in a Calm."

Thus, Jonathan Hulls appears to have been the first person who suggested the propulsion of vessels by paddle-wheels moved by steam. His mode of converting the rectilinear into a rotatory motion was ingenious, though not so simple as the crank. It is most probable, however, that he possessed not the means, and did not receive at the time sufficient encouragement to carry his scheme into execution.

A long interval elapsed before a similar project was attempted. About the year 1772, the celebrated Mr. Watt had completely remodelled the steam engine; and before 1779 it was, by various improvements, reduced to a commodious form, and adapted to almost every purpose where great power was required. The idea of employing it to propel vessels then naturally suggested itself. One of the first to whom it occurred, was the Marquis De Jouffroy, who, in 1781, constructed a steam-boat on the Saone, at Lyons; it was 140 feet long, and he made several experiments with it.

In the year 1785, two keen competitors for the invention of steam navigation, appeared in America; namely, James Rumsey, of Virginia, and John Fitch, of Philadelphia.

But Mr. Symington was the first person who had the merit of successfully applying the power of the steam engine to the propulsion of vessels. Thomas Lord Dundas, of Kerse, wished him to construct a steam-boat for dragging vessels on the Forth and Clyde Canal, in place of horses. Agreeably to his Lordship's request, a series of experiments, which cost nearly 3000*l.*, were set on foot in the year 1801, and ended in 1802, upon a larger scale, and more improved plan, having a steam cylinder 22 inches diameter, and four feet stroke; and in March 1802, Lord Dundas, Archibald Speirs, Esq., of Elderslee, and several gentlemen of their acquaintance being on board, the steam-boat took in drag two loaded vessels, *Active* and *Euphemia*, of Grangemouth, Gow and Esplaine, masters, each upwards of 70 tons burthen, and with great ease carried them through the long reach of the Forth and Clyde Canal, to Port-Dundas, a distance of 19½ miles, in six hours, although the whole time it blew a very strong breeze right a-head; so much so, that no other vessels could move to windward, in the canal, that day, but those the steamer had in tow; which put beyond the possibility of doubt the utility of the scheme in canals or rivers, and ultimately on open seas; though in this state of forwardness it was opposed by some narrow-minded proprietors of the navigation, under a very mistaken idea, that the undulation of the water occasioned by the motion of the wheel, would wash and injure its banks: in consequence the boat was, with great reluctance, laid up in a creek of the canal, near Bainsford Drawbridge. In the year 1811, Henry Bell constructed the first steam-boat, *Comet*, to ply on the river Clyde, which was soon followed there by many more.

Considering the importance to America of navigating her mighty rivers, it is not surprising that the application of the power of steam to the propulsion of boats should, by persevering efforts, have been first carried into successful practice in that continent. This was achieved by the activity and zeal of Mr. Fulton, who appears evidently, however, to have derived all his primary knowledge of the subject from Mr. Symington's.

The first American steam-boat which completely succeeded, was launched at New York on the 3d of October

1807 (five years before the construction of the *Comet*, at Port-Glasgow), and soon after plied between that city and Albany, a distance of 160 miles.

In Britain, steam vessels were brought into general use in 1812, upon the Clyde. They were built at Port-Glasgow, Greenock, and Dumbarton, where the art of ship-building had for many years been conducted by carpenters eminent in their profession.

Having thus endeavoured to give a sketch of the origin of steam navigation, we shall now proceed to describe the form and parts of a steam-boat (suppose of 100 tons), and to some other details, calculated to furnish a more particular view of the present state of steam navigation in Britain and other countries.

Fig. 1. Pl. IV., is an elevation; fig. 2, a longitudinal section; fig. 3, a ground plan; fig. 4, a transverse section. The same letters refer alike to the respective parts of each figure: A, the two boilers, with their two manhole doors, one to each; B, the chimney; C, the steam pipes; DD, the cylinders of the two engines; EE, the two air pumps; F, the side lever; one on each side of each engine; GG, the crank of the paddle-wheel shaft; H, the rod that works the steam valves or hand gear, moved backward and forward by an eccentric wheel on the shaft; I, the nozzles; K, pillars of the framing; LL, the area where the firemen stands to put coals into the furnace; MM, place where the coals are stowed away; NN, the paddle-wheels and covers; O, ladies' parlour; P, principal cabin; Q, second cabin; having each a raised lantern or sky light, besides the lateral windows of P and Q; R, steward's room; S, breakfasting room; TT, refreshment rooms for the second cabin passengers; U, small boat ready to be let down on an emergency; V, rudder; WW, seamen's beds; XX, space for lumber or spare fuel. The fireman stands in the space LL; an iron trap-ladder leads down to it from the deck, flush with which are two horizontal gratings for the admission of fresh air to himself and the fire; his coals are built up behind him, and he brings down only a few lumps at a time, which he breaks into small pieces as required. The chimney B, is a series of sheet-iron cylinders rivetted at the joints, and slipt the one over the other. Each boiler has a flue within, making various convolutions under the surface of the water; through which the smoke and flame pass, until they enter the chimney.

These wheels being ponderous, acquire sufficient momentum to turn the crank, and supersede the necessity of a fly. The air-pump, feed-pump, and occasional cold water-pump, are wrought by rods from FF, the side horizontal levers. To prevent the waste steam of the boilers from annoying the passengers, a pipe conveys it into the chimney. Besides this, a waste steam valve is within reach of the engine-man, who loads and unloads it as he finds necessary: It is a curious fact, that a great flow of steam into the chimney prevents black smoke from issuing from it, which otherwise would. The paddle-wheels are firmly wedged on their shaft, and whatever pressure they exert against the water causes an equal re-action on the vessel, which is thus impelled either forwards or backwards according to the direction of circumvolution.

The principal cabin is painted, and otherwise tastefully fitted up, and furnished with a stove, the chimney of which rises up through the deck. The second cabin occupies the fore-end of the vessel, and is also completely furnished, though less elegantly. Small steam-boats, from 30 tons upwards, are generally laid out much in the same way, only varying according to the nature of their employment. When intended for sea voyages, a great part of the internal space is allotted for sleeping births.

It is remarkable that, after the first successful trial, very little improvement has been made in the construction of steam vessels. Experience has only fixed the suitable proportions of the several parts. Much, however, still remains to be done. The great objects wanted are to increase the power of the engine; to avoid the waste of force in the play of the paddles; and to render their action more equable.

The form and disposition of the paddles might certainly be improved. They seldom strike the water in the right direction, but splash it about, and leave it to impede the progress of the vessel. An irregular unpleasant motion is hence produced, and much force thereby lost. With a strong side-wind likewise, the larboard paddles are deeply immersed in the water, while the opposite ones are nearly suspended in the air, and scarcely act at all; the necessary consequence is, that, in such circumstances, the steam vessel describes a winding path, and becomes unmanageable by the helm. Proposals of various kinds have been made to obviate this defect; but though apparently ingenious, our practical engineers have not adopted them.

Of the application of steam to the propulsion of land-carriages, we have given an example in the article *MECHANICS*. The machine there described works by means of cogged wheels on a railway. On such a road it is easy to construct steam carriages that will travel with the most perfect safety, laden with almost any weight, and capable of the utmost velocity than can be required. The great expense of railways, however, has caused the use of these engines to be much circumscribed, and accordingly it has become a desideratum to construct a machine that could travel on the common roads. This is obviously very difficult, on account of the numerous irregularities presented to the feet of the engine; irregularities clearly of such a nature, that they cannot be calculated. Many ingenious attempts have been made; but that which appears to us to be the best, is Sir George Cayley's: he calls it his "Patent Universal Railway;" at fig. 6, Pl. I. it is seen. It is not furnished with its steam engine, but this is obviously easily added. This vehicle is formed by two endless chains, consisting of portions of a railway so jointed that they form an inflexible right line when resting on the ground, but each capable of coiling round a fore and hind wheel on one side of the wagon, and thus of revolving with them (see prefixed drawings.) Each joint carries with it a supporting piece or foot, which, in the engraving here given, is a small broad wheel, the line of its axle being parallel with the rail-chain. These, of course, give any required degree of lateral motion, but this movement is checked in the case of a road inclined towards one side, by a wheel placed on a hinged axle in such a manner as to operate laterally in the same way that a dray-pole does longitudinally when a carriage backs upon it: this wheel is not shown in the plate. Sledge-shaped feet are, on some occasions, substituted for these wheel-feet, particularly when broader supporting surfaces are necessary. Each link consists of a double frame of iron, with a space between them, so constructed as never to approach the two adjoining links within a couple of inches in any part but where the angular motion of the joint is stopped by a projecting piece of solid ash wood, resting on a flat face of iron (see A, fig. 7), where one link and its appendages are shown on an enlarged scale, and its connexion with the adjoining links by dotted lines.

A, fig. 8, shows a portion of the interior structure of a link, with the bed for the oak piece.

Fig. 9 is transverse section of the rail on a smaller scale, showing the mode of mounting the small wheels, each link being cast or forged in two pieces united longitudinally, by transverse bolts, B B, fig. 7.

C, in fig. 6, is a wheel not touching the rail-chain, but close to its surface, to support the chain when exposed to violent strains. This rail-chain obviously adds considerable weight to a vehicle, and it can only be determined by experiments on a large scale, whether this evil is more than counterbalanced by the very advantageous mechanical properties it possesses.

It is obvious from the construction, that if this vehicle were pushed forward over a precipice, it would keep putting down its feet in an horizontal line in the air, till the line of direction from the centre of gravity passed over the edge, then the whole would balance over and fall together; but if another precipice at the same horizontal level were within

reach of the leading foot before the vehicle did balance over, this foot would sustain the carriage in its path as correctly as if the way had been unbroken. Hence, as the hollow irregularities in bad roads will seldom, if ever, exceed half the length of the vehicle, these will not in the slightest degree affect the smooth course of the machine.

With respect to hard points that rise above the ordinary level of the road, three out of four will be avoided in the space between the feet; and as the number of points on which the chain rests must keep it about the average or middle height between the lowest and highest parts of the road, each elevated point that is hit by a foot will not cause more than half the immediate rise of wheel on the chain, that the usual depression on either side will give to an ordinary wheel on the road.

In addition to these advantages, the elevation is converted into an inclined plane of the length of one link, upon which the fore-wheel ascends, and into a similar but reversed inclined plane down which the hind-wheel descends, thus restoring the power required for the rise.

The perfect practicability of using steam for all purposes of conveyance, has been no where so completely shown as on the Darlington and Stockton railroad. The engine used here, will travel over the 25 miles seven times a-day, making 175 miles a day's work, with 90 tons, consuming seven tons of small coals each day, or 42 tons per week; which, at an average cost of 7s., will be 14*l.* 14s. One man and a boy in constant attendance, supposing the 24 hours equal to three days, will be three men and thirteen boys each day, at 16s. 6*d.*, will add 5*l.* 3s. 6*d.*, making the total weekly expense 19*l.* 17s. 6*d.* The engine will cost 600*l.*, 80 waggons 900*l.*, giving 1500*l.* for the entire expense.

Now, 90 tons will load six boats; each of these boats will be a day in performing 20 miles; therefore 52 boats, with 52 horses, 52 men, and 52 boys, will be required to execute the transfer of 90 tons 175 miles in one day; each horse will cost weekly a guinea, each man a guinea, and each boy 12s., forming a total weekly charge of 140*l.* 8s. in lieu of 19*l.* 17s. 6*d.* The 52 boats and horses will be worth 10,000*l.*, and requiring a considerably greater amount to keep them in repair; throwing a balance of full 7000*l.* per annum in favour of every locomotive engine that may be used. How many may eventually be at work it would be difficult to conjecture; but as 40 would be required to work the London, Birmingham, and Liverpool, and the Manchester and Stockport lines, in all probability not less than 500 would be employed: and, as the saving on every five engines would be equal to the interest of one million, the 500 would put the people yearly in possession of a sum as great as the interest of one hundred millions sterling, independent of the advantage of speed, and of the great saving of tonnage, the rail-road lines being one-third shorter than the canals in use. Finally, 1000 persons may be conveyed one mile, or one person 1000 miles, by locomotive engines, at the rate of eight miles an hour, at a cost of something less than five pence.

Of all the purposes that steam has been applied to, one of the most astonishing, though certainly not the most useful, is the projection of balls. The steam gun of Mr. Perkins was exhibited to the Duke of Wellington and other officers, in the year 1825, with the following surprizing results. At first, the balls were discharged at short intervals, in imitation of artillery firing, against an iron target, at the distance of thirty-five yards. Such was the force with which they were driven, that they were completely shattered to atoms. In the next experiment the balls were discharged at a frame of wood, and they actually passed through eleven one-inch planks of the hardest deal, placed at a distance of an inch from each other. Afterwards they were propelled against an iron plate one-fourth of an inch thick: at the very first trial the ball passed through it. The pressure of steam employed to effect this wonderful force did not at first exceed 65 atmospheres, or 900*lbs.* to the square inch; and it was repeatedly stated by Mr. Perkins, that the pressure might be carried

carried even to 200 atmospheres with perfect safety. Mr. Perkins next proceeded to demonstrate the rapidity with which musket balls might be projected by the same agency. To effect this, he screwed on to the gun-barrel a tube filled with balls, which falling down by their own gravity into the barrel, were projected, one by one, with such extraordinary velocity, as to demonstrate that, by means of a succession of tubes, filled with balls, fixed in a wheel, nearly one thousand balls per minute might be discharged. In subsequent discharges or volleys, the barrel, to which is attached a moveable joint, was given a lateral direction, and the balls perforated a plank nearly twelve feet in length. Thus, if opposed to a regiment in line, the steam-gun might be made to act from one of its extremities to the other. A similar plank was afterwards placed in a perpendicular position, and, in like manner, there was a stream of shot-holes from the top to the bottom. It is thus proved that the steam-gun has not only the force of gunpowder, but also admits of any direction being given to it. The advantage, in point of economy, is thus estimated:—Suppose 250 balls are discharged in a minute by the single-barrel steam-gun, or 15,000 per hour, this, for 16 hours, would require 15,000 ounces of gunpowder per hour, or 15,000 pounds weight for the 16 hours. The expense of gunpowder being 70s. per cwt., or 35*l.* per thousand, the total is 525*l.* Mr. Perkins says, that he can throw that number of balls in succession for the price of five bushels of coals per hour, or between 3*l.* or 4*l.* only for 16 hours.

The particulars of the structure of Mr. Perkins' gun, have not transpired; but it is of course sufficiently easy to be arrived at by any intelligent mechanic. War, is however, sufficiently dreadful in its present state, and, it is therefore hoped, that to the purpose of carnage, steam, hitherto sacred to the arts of peace, will never be applied.

STEAN, *s.* Applied by Spenser to the urn of Aquarius. [*Ἰσθῆνα, Sax. a pot.*] A vessel of stone. *Stean* is a jar, and still so called in the west of England.

Upon a huge great earth-pot *stean* he stood,
From whose wide mouth there flowed forth the Roman flood.
Spenser.

STEANBRIDGE, the name of three small hamlets of England, in Gloucestershire, in the parishes of Painswick, Bisley, and Stroud.

STEATITE, a mineral particularly distinguished for its unctuous feel, resembling that of soap. See MINEROLOGY.

STEATOCELE [from the Gr. *στέαρ, fat, κηλη, a tumour.*] A swelling of the scrotum, containing fat.

STEATOMA, *s.* [*στέατωμα.*] A species of wen.—If the matter in a wen resembles milk curds, the tumour is called atheroma; if like honey, meliceris; and if composed of fat, *scatoma*. *Sharp.*

STEBBING, a parish of England, in Essex; 3 miles north-east of Great Dunmow. Population 1072.

STEBBINGFORD, a small hamlet of England, in Essex, 3 miles from Dunmow, where there is a fair 10th July.

STECHELDEN. See STEPHANSFELDEN.

STECHWORTH, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 2 miles from Newmarket. Population 336.

STECKBORN, a small town of the Swiss canton of Thurgovia, on the lake of Zell; 7 miles west of Constance.

STEDHAM, a parish of England, in Sussex; 2 miles west-north-west of Midhurst.

STEE, or STEY, *s.* A ladder. Common in the north of England.

STEED, *s.* [*ἵπτεbe.*] A horse for state or war.
My noble steed I give him,
With all his trim belonging. *Shakspeare.*
Impresses quaint, caparisons and steeds. *Milton.*
Who, like our active African, instructs
The fiery steed, and trains him to his hand? *Addison.*

STEEL, *s.* [*ἱσῆλ, ἱσῆλε, Sax. stael, Dutch, stal, Icel. a stel, Su. Goth. rigidus; sic Icel. stacla, indurare. Serenius.*] A kind of iron, refined and purified by the fire with other in-

gredients, which renders it white, and its grain closer and finer than common iron. Steel, of all other metals, is that susceptible of the greatest degree of hardness, when well tempered; whence its great use in the making of tools and instruments of all kinds.

At her back a bow and quiver gay,
Stuff'd with *steel-headed* darts wherewith she quell'd
The savage beasts in her victorious play. *Spenser.*

With mighty bars of long-enduring brass
The *steel-bound* doors and iron gates he ties. *Fairfax.*

It is often used metonymically for weapons or armour.
Brave Macbeth with his brandish'd *steel*,
Which smok'd with bloody execution,
Carv'd out his passage till he had fac'd the slave.
Shakspeare.

Polish'd *steel* from far severely shines. *Dryden.*—Chalybeate medicines.—After relaxing, *steel* strengthens the solids, and is likewise an antiacid. *Arbuthnot.*—It is used proverbially for hardness; as hearts of *steel*.

STEEL, *adj.* Made of steel.
A lance then took he, with a keene *stele* head,
To be his keepe off, both 'gainst men and dogges. *Chapman.*

To STEEL, *v. a.* To point or edge with steel.
Add proof unto mine armour with thy prayers,
And with thy blessings *steel* my lance's paint. *Shakspeare.*

To make hard or firm. It is used, if it be applied to the mind, very often in a bad sense.—Lies well *steel'd* with weighty arguments. *Shakspeare.*

So service shall with *steed* fingers toil,
And labour shall refresh itself with hope. *Shakspeare.*

O God of battles! *steel* my soldiers' hearts,
Possess them not with fear. *Shakspeare.*

Let the *steel'd* Turk be deaf to matron's cries,
See virgins ravish'd with relentless eyes. *Tickell.*

So perish'd all those breasts the furies *steel'd*,
And curs'd with hearts unknowing how to yield. *Pope.*

STEEL is a most valuable metal, consisting of iron combined with carbon. It is chiefly used for edge-tools, and other cutting instruments, and from its fine polish is used in ornaments of various kinds.

In chemistry it is called a carburet of iron. Its hardness is greater than that of iron; and its most valuable property is, that it can be made harder than any other metal, by suddenly cooling it when heated to redness: also, if it is heated to a lower temperature than redness, and suddenly cooled, it becomes the most elastic of all the metals. It is of a darker colour when polished, and retains its polish longer, not being so liable to oxydate.

The specific gravity of steel is greater than that of iron, thus, the spec. grav. of cast-iron is .72070; malleable iron, .77880; steel in its soft state, .78404; hardened steel, .78180.

Steel is manufactured by two processes, one in which the steel is made from pig-iron at once in the finery: this is practised in Germany, and is called natural steel. Cemented steel is formed by stratifying bars of iron with powdered charcoal in a close vessel, and by keeping the mass at a brisk red heat for a longer or shorter time, depending upon the size of the bars. This process is called *conversion*. The test of the conversion being complete is its blistered appearance, from which it has been called *blistered* steel. It is from blistered steel that all the different kinds of steel are manufactured. These are principally of two varieties, viz. *cast-steel* and *shear-steel*.

Cast-steel is blistered steel fused and cast into ingots, which are afterwards drawn into rods by the hammer, or by rolling. By this change the steel becomes much harder and of course entirely free from those seams and other defects which exist in the blistered steel: this is what renders cast-steel so much better for polished goods: for when blistered

blistered steel is attempted to be polished, the surface is seen to abound with numerous spots, arising from mechanical defects in the bars previous to conversion.

Cast-steel works much harder under the hammer, and will not bear much more than a red heat, without breaking in pieces under it. This, however, is more especially confined to that commonly made; since cast-steel may be made which will bear a white and even a welding heat; but it requires a much greater heat for its fusion, and would in consequence be sold at a higher price.

The refuse of blistered or common steel is generally melted into cast-steel; but this is not of the best quality. The best cast-steel is made by melting the bars of blistered steel, which, for this purpose, are a little more converted than for ordinary purposes, in order to give the steel a little more carbon than if it were used in the state of blistered steel. The bars are broken into small pieces, for the purpose of stowing the greatest quantity in the crucible.

STEEL POINT; a cape on the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 58. 40. N. long. 62: W.

STEELE (Sir Richard), a political and miscellaneous writer of considerable note, was born at Dublin, either in 1671 or 1676. His father, who was of English extraction, had been for some time private secretary to the first duke of Ormond, through whose influence the son was sent, at an early age, to England, and placed at the Charter-House for education. In 1691 he was entered of Merton college, Oxford. Of his academical life little or nothing is known, except that he composed a comedy during his residence, which, by the advice of a fellow-collegian, he suppressed. He left the university without a degree, and feeling a strong inclination for the army, he entered himself as a private in the horse-guards, but his friends soon after procured for him an ensign's commission. Feeling that he might not be able effectually to resist the temptations incident to his age and situation, he drew up a little treatise for his own admonition, and which is well known even now, entitled "The Christian Hero:" this was printed in the year 1701, at which time the author was secretary to Lord Cutts, and had, by his means, obtained a company in a regiment of fusiliers. The seriousness of the work exposed him to some ridicule among his companions, and the more so, as it failed in producing the corresponding good effect in regulating his own morals; he therefore, "to enliven his character," as he says of himself, brought out a comedy, entitled "The Funeral, or Grief à-la-mode." This piece proved successful: it had the merit of uniting entertainment with the more direct purpose of moral improvement, than was usual among dramatists at that time. Either on this or on other accounts he attracted the notice of king William, who meant to have bestowed upon him some mark of the royal favour, but he did not live to effect his intention. He obtained the very humble office of gazette-writer under queen Anne; but he now pursued his career as a writer, and in 1704, brought out his comedy of "The Tender Husband," which was acted with great success. This was followed by "The Lying Lover," which was not well received.

In 1709, Steele began a series of periodical papers, which, more than any of his other exertions, has contributed to establish his fame. The "Tatler," with which it began, was formed upon a plan which included the political information of a common newspaper. Its main object was, however, to improve the morals and manners, by holding up to ridicule fashionable follies and vices of every kind, and inculcating just and liberal sentiments on common topics, with a general regard to the proper decorum of social life. The author was fully qualified for this task by a knowledge of the world, acquired in free converse with it, by natural humour and vivacity, and by a generous and benevolent way of thinking. He had likewise the felicity of being able to engage coadjutors of considerable talents, among whom were Addison and Swift. The "Tatler" was extensively circulated, and as, in its politics, it sided with the minister, Steele obtained the reward of a place among the commissioners of the stamp-duties, which he retained after the dismissal of

the ministers who had granted it. In 1711, this paper was succeeded by the more celebrated "Spectator," in which the plan was matured, the politics of the day were rejected, and the assistance of Addison and other eminent writers was more constant, though Steele continued his own most active services. This work was brought to a close, and the "Guardian" commenced in 1713, and was terminated in the same year. He afterwards engaged in other periodical works, but being subservient to mere political purposes, they have all been long since forgotten.

On taking a decided political character against the government, he resigned his post in the stamp-office, and likewise his pension, which he had hitherto received, as having belonged to the household of the late prince, George of Denmark. He was now returned member of parliament for the borough of Stockbridge. He had not taken his seat long before he was expelled as the author of certain publications to which his name was prefixed, and which the House voted to be seditious and scandalous libels. The most noted of these, entitled "The Crisis," was not written by Steele, but by a friend and political coadjutor. The charge exhibited on this occasion, that the libels, as they were called, contained many expressions highly reflecting upon her majesty, &c., maliciously insinuating that the Protestant succession in the house of Hanover is in danger under her majesty's administration. Steele met with very able as well as zealous defenders in Addison, the Walpoles, Lords Finch, Lunley, and Hinchinbroke; but the party in power was determined on the sacrifice, and the charge against him was affirmed by a majority of nearly two to one. After his expulsion, he engaged in some literary undertakings; but on the accession of George I. he was taken into favour, and was presented with a small appointment under government.

Having procured a licence to be chief manager of the royal company of comedians, he had interest enough to get this licence exchanged for a patent for life as governor of that company. In the first parliament of the new reign, he re-entered the House as a member for Boroughbridge, in Yorkshire; and in April 1715, he received the honour of knighthood, on presenting an address: and about the same time, the more substantial reward of 500*l.* was given him by Sir Robert Walpole, for special service. Thus encouraged, his fertile pen produced a variety of political tracts in favour of that cause which seemed at all times to be near his heart, as well in its depressed as in its triumphant state. Having been appointed, in 1717, one of the commissioners for enquiring into the estates forfeited by the late rebellion in Scotland, he went to that country, and was treated in it with great respect, notwithstanding the unwelcomeness of the errand on which he was sent. It was on this occasion that he conceived the project of forming an union between the Scotch and English churches, and had several conferences with the Presbyterian ministers respecting the restoration of episcopacy; but his zeal, it is said, was not directed by judgment. He obtained, and with much justice, the character of a projector, which was both the effect and cause of that perpetual embarrassment under which he laboured, and which was principally owing to a radical want of economy, and a strange inclination to expences. He was twice married, and with each wife he had a good fortune; yet he seems to have been always necessitous. In 1718, he had a project for conveying fish to market alive, for which he obtained a patent, which, instead of mending his circumstances, only involved him still deeper in difficulties. His biographers observe, that "it were to be wished that his distresses had occasioned no other sacrifices than that of money; but there is reason to suppose that they sometimes interfered with the dictates of conscience." Whiston says, that once having met with Steele, after a vote in parliament contrary to his former declarations, with which he slightly upbraided him, the knight replied, "Mr. Whiston, you can walk on foot, but I cannot." Steele's spirit was not, however, formed for implicit submission, and for his opposition to the peerage-bill in 1719, he was deprived of his theatrical patent. He appealed to the public, and was restored in the following

following year. He pleaded the cause of the nation by a pamphlet against the South Sea scheme. In 1722, he brought forward his comedy of "The Conscious Lovers," which was received with great applause. He dedicated it to the king, and was remunerated with 500*l.*; but his embarrassments pressed upon him; and in addition to his other misfortunes, he engaged in an unsuccessful law-suit. Broken in fortune and constitution, he retired to an estate in Wales, where he died in 1729.

He appears to have been much beloved for the benevolence and warmth of his heart: in understanding, he has been characterized as a man of parts rather than of genius: his productions are lively, but they display neither great force nor accuracy. His style and his train of thinking are equally lax and incorrect. He was a lover of virtue, and frequently painted it in pleasing and attractive colours. His reputation as a writer seems to have been much indebted to the partnerships which he formed; and his name is scarcely entitled to a place among those which throw peculiar lustre upon the period of English literature. *Biog. Brit.*

STEELER, in Ship-Building, a name given to the foremost or aftermost plank, in a strake which drops short of the stem and stern-post, and of which the end or butt nearest the rabbet is wrought very narrow, and well forward or aft. Its use is to take out the snying-edge occasioned by a full bow, or sudden circular buttock.

STEELY, *adj.* Made of steel.

Thy brother's blood the thirsty earth hath drunk,
Broach'd with the *steely* point of Clifford's lance.

Shakspeare.

Hard; firm: unmoved; unfeeling.—That she would unarm her noble heart of that *steely* resistance against the sweet blows of love. *Sidnev.*

STEE'LYARD, *s.* A kind of balance, in which the weight is moved along an iron rod, and grows heavier as it is removed farther from the fulcrum.—The muscle at the shoulder, by which the arm is raised, is fixed nearly in the same manner as the load is fixed upon a *steelyard*, within a few decimals, we will say, of an inch from the centre upon which the *steelyard* turns. *Paley.*

STEE'LYARD-SWING. In the philosophical Transactions (No. 462. sect. 5.) we have an account of the *steelyard*-swing, proposed as a mechanical method for assisting children labouring under deformities.

STEEN, or STEAN, *s.* A vessel of clay or stone. *Un-used.*

STEEN (Jan), one of the brightest ornaments of the Flemish school of painting, was born at Leyden, in 1636. His father was a brewer in that city, who, perceiving an inclination in his son for painting, placed him as a pupil with N. Knuffer, an historical painter at Utrecht.

That he might not be entirely dependent upon his talents as an artist, his father established him in a brewhouse at Delft; but this kindness, which might have secured him comfort, only afforded him the means of sensual indulgence, to which he was prone, and which, in a short time, led to the ruin of the concern; and his father finding him irclaimably bent on dissipation, at length abandoned him. He afterwards became a keeper of a tavern; but this was a more ruinous occupation than the former, and soon brought on the calamities his conduct merited; as he was said to be a more active consumer of his own stores than any of his customers.

Amidst the interruptions of indulgence and of business, he continued constantly to practise the art he had acquired; presenting generally the scenes and subjects in which he passed his time and were most congenial to him. The festivity, frolic, and fun of low life, in the alehouse or other places of public resort, he treated with the clearest expression and character; and executed them with a pure tone of colour, and a freedom of touch peculiarly his own. Sometimes, however, he soared somewhat higher, and entering the domestic circles of his friends, perpetuated with the greatest felicity the diversities of character and amusements

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which presented themselves to his observant and intuitive eye. In no man's pictures is an observer more amused with variety than in Jan Steen's; or more entertained by wit and humour, unless it be in those of our own Hogarth. His drawing and composition are in general very good, and his colour admirable, particularly in parts; but oftentimes his management of chiaro-scuro is deficient, and his pictures want air. While he lived, his works were not in much estimation; perhaps his vulgar and disorderly habits prevented them from being known: but since his death, and particularly since Sir Joshua Reynolds evinced an estimation of them, they have risen in value, and are now sold, when of fine quality, at very great prices, and sought with avidity. He died in 1689, at the age of 53.

STEEN PLAAT, a town on the west coast of the island of Gilolo. Lat. 1. 20. N. long. 127. 21. E.

STEENBERGEN, a fortified town of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, with a population of 4200. It was formerly a more considerable place, and was a sea-port; but the tide does not now come within two miles of it; 7 miles north of Bergen-op-Zoom, 19 west of Breda, and 25 north-north-west of Antwerp.

STEENBERGEN, a mountain of Southern Africa, in the territory of the Cape of Good Hope.

STEENDEREN, a small inland town of the Netherlands, province of Gelderland, with 2000 inhabitants; 6 miles south of Zutphen.

STEENKERKE, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault. It has only 700 inhabitants, but is remarkable for an obstinate battle fought here on 24th July, 1692, between the allies and the French, in which the latter were victorious; 4 miles north-west of Braine-le-Compte, and 13 north of Mons.

STEE'NKIRK, *s.* Formerly a cant term for a neckcloth.—As for ruffles and *steenkirks*, they were never added in the very splendor and luxury of the empire! *King.*

STEENWORDE, a small town in French Flanders, with 3200 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of linen, woollens, and leather; 22 miles north-west of Lille.

STEENWYCK (Henry), was born at Steenwyck in 1550. He was a scholar of John de Vries, a painter of perspective and architectural scenes. Steenwyck surpassed his master in the same subjects, viz., interiors of churches and Gothic buildings, which he painted with great neatness and clearness. His colouring is rich and brilliant, but he injured his effects by painting the lights too much in lines, unblended and too sharp, which destroys the appearance of solidity.

He died in 1603, and left a son, Henry Steenwyck, born in 1589 at Antwerp, who excelled him in the same line and manner. He usually painted on a larger scale than his father. Vandyck, with whom he lived in intimacy, recommended him to Charles I., who invited him to England, where he resided several years, and died in London. The pictures of both these painters were embellished with figures by friendly artists, as old Franck, Teniers, Breughel, Van Thulden, &c.

STEENWYK, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Overysse, on the river Aa, with 1800 inhabitants; 20 miles north of Zwoll.

STEENWYKER-WOLD, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Overysse, a little to the north of Steenwyk, with 800 inhabitants.

STEEP, *adj.* [*steap*, Sax.; *steypa*, Su. Goth., to fall or run down with violence; *stupa*, Swed., to fall. *Serenius.*] Rising or descending with great inclination; precipitous.—The mountains shall be thrown down, and the *steep* places shall fall. *Ezek.*

STEEP, *s.* Precipice; ascent or descent approaching to perpendicularity.

As that Theban monster that propos'd
Her riddle, and him, who solv'd it not, devour'd;
That once found out and solv'd, for grief and spight
Cast herself headlong from the Ismenian *steep*.

Milton.

Leaning

Leaning o'er the rails, he musing stood,
And view'd below the black canal of mud,
Where common sewers a lulling murmur keep,
Whose torrents rush from Holborn's fatal steep. *Gay.*

To STEEP, v. a. [stippen, Dutch.] To soak; to macerate; to imbue; to dip.

When his brother saw the red blood trail
Adown so fast, and all his armour steep,
For very fellness loud he gan to weep. *Spenser.*

Wheat steeped in brine twelve hours prevents the smut-tiness. *Mortimer.*

STEEP, a township of England, in Southamptonshire; 1 mile north of Petersfield. Population 436.

STEEP POINT, a cape on the south coast of the island of Java. Lat. 7. 32. S. long. 107. 3. E.

STEEP ROCKS, a ridge of rocks in the United States, forming the west bank of Hudson's river, beginning about 11 miles north of New York, and continuing, with some interruptions, 11 or 13 miles.

STEEPHOLMES, a small rocky islet of England, in the Bristol channel, under Quantock hills, which divides the counties of Somerset, Gloucester, and Bristol. It is a vast rock, about 1½ mile in circumference, in many parts overhanging the water, and inaccessible except by two very steep and dangerous passages. A few rabbits find subsistence upon it; and in summer it is the resort of vast numbers of sea-fowl.

STEEPINESS, *s.* State or quality of being steep.—The cragginess and steepness of places up and down is a great advantage to the dwellers, and makes them inaccessible. *Howell.*

STEEPING, GREAT and LITTLE, two adjoining parishes of England, in Lincolnshire; 3½ miles south-east of Spilsby.

STEEPLE, *s.* [ʔepel, ʔypel, Saxon.] A turret of a church generally furnished with bells; a spire.

They, far from steeples and their sacred sound,
In fields their sullen conventicles found. *Dryden.*

STEEPLE, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Corfe Castle.

STEEPLE, a parish of England, in Essex, situated on a creek of the Blackwater; 5 miles west-south-west of Bradwell.

STEEPLE BARTON, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 5 miles from Deddington.

STEEPLE, CLAYDON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire, 3½ miles from Winslow.

STEEPLE MAGNA, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

STEEPLE-MORDON, a parish of England, in Cambridge-shire; 3½ miles from Royston. Population 483.

STEEPLED, *adj.* Towered; adorned as with towers.—A steepled turbant on her head she wore. *Fairfax.*

STEEPLEHOUSE, *s.* A term given by the separatists to the churches of the established religion.—About caps and hoods, vestures and gestures, steeplehouses and churches, what fierce conflicts! *Bp. Taylor.*

STEEPLETON PRESTON, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 4 miles north-north-west of Blandford Forum.

STEEPLY, *adv.* With precipitous declivity.

STEEPNESS, *s.* Precipitous declivity.—Lord Lovel swam over the Trent on horseback, but could not recover the farther side, by reason of the steepness of the bank, and so was drowned. *Bacon.*

STEEPLY, *adj.* Having a precipitous declivity. *A poetical word.*

No more, my goats, shall I behold you climb
The steepy cliffs, or crop the flow'ry thyme. *Dryden.*

STEER, *s.* [stiurs, Goth.; ʔtype, ʔceop, Sax.; stier, Germ. Watcher and Serenius gave the more ancient words, tiur, Su. Goth.; tyr, Icel.; tarus, Welsh, from the Celt. taro, taru, to but, to strike; whence probably the Latin taurus.] A young bullock.

Nor has the steer,
At whose strong chest the deadly tiger hangs,
E'er plow'd for him. *Thomson.*

To STEER, v. a. [stiuran, Goth.; styra, stiorna, Icel. ʔceopan, ʔcypan, Sax.; stieren, Dutch.] To direct; to guide in a passage: originally used of a ship, but applied to other things.

A comely palmer, clad in black attire,
Of ripest years, and hairs all hoary gray,
That with a staff his feeble steps did steer,
Lest his long way his aged limbs should tire. *Spenser.*

To STEER, v. n. To direct a course at sea.—In a creature, whose thoughts are more than the sands, and wider than the ocean, fancy and passion must needs run him into strange courses, if reason, which is his only star and compass, be not that he steers by. *Locke.*—To conduct himself.

STEER, *s.* The instrument at the stern of the vessel by which its course is regulated.—A naked ship without *stere*. *Gower.*

STEE'RAGE, *s.* The act or practice of steering.—Having got his vessel launched and set afloat, he committed the *steerage* of it to such as he thought capable of conducting it. *Spectator.*—Direction; regulation of a course.

He that bath the *steerage* of my course,
Direct my suit. *Shakspeare.*

That by which any course is guided.

His costly frame
Inscrib'd to Phcebus, here he hung on high,
The *steerage* of his wings, and cut the sky. *Dryden.*

Regulation or management of any thing.
You raise the honour of the peerage,
Proud to attend you at the *steerage*. *Swift.*

The stern or hinder part of the ship.

STEE'RER, *s.* A steersman; a pilot. *Unused.*

STEE'RLESS, *adj.* Having no steer or rudder.

In a ship *stereless* (God wot)
They han her set, and bidden her learne sayle. *Chaucer.*

STEE'RSMATE, or STEE'RSMAN, *s.* [ʔceopet-mon, Sax.] A pilot; one who steers a ship.

The *steersman* seeks a readier course to run,
The souldier stirs, the gunner hies to gun. *Mir. for Mag.*

What pilot so expert but needs must wreck,
Embark'd with such a *steersmate* at the helm. *Milton.*

STEETON, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Bolton, Yorkshire; 7 miles from York.

STEETON, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-west of Keighley. Population 545.

STEEVENS (George), the most successful of all the editors and commentators of Shakspeare, born at Poplar in the year 1735 or 1736, was the son of an East India captain, afterwards a director of the company. The subject of this article received the elements of his education at Kingston-upon-Thames, and he had Gibbon, the celebrated historian, for his school-fellow. From hence he went to Eton, and in a few years was admitted a fellow commoner of King's college, Cambridge, and having acquired a large portion of classical literature, with a general taste for learned pursuits, he devoted his time and fortune to the study and collection of books.

On the first establishment of the Essex militia he accepted a commission, but he spent the concluding years of his life in almost total seclusion from the world, seldom mingling with society, but was found either in the shops of book-sellers, in the Shakspeare gallery, or in the morning conversations of Sir Joseph Banks.

Although not an original writer, he deserves a place among the chief literary characters of the age, considering the works which he illustrated, and the learning, sagacity, taste, and general knowledge which he constantly exhibited in his writings. With a great versatility of talents, he was eminent both by his pen and pencil; but his chief excellence lay

lay in his critical knowledge of an author's text; and the best specimen which he gave of his great talent is his edition of the works of Shakspeare. He had studied the age of Shakspeare, and employed a very large portion of his life in becoming acquainted with the writings, manners, and laws of that period, as well as the provincial peculiarities; whether of language or customs, which prevailed in different parts of the kingdom, but more particularly in those in which Shakspeare passed the early years of his life. He was continually increasing this store of knowledge by the acquisition of the obsolete publications of a former age, to obtain which he spared no expence. In preparing his last edition for the press, he gave a very singular example of diligence and perseverance. To this work he exclusively devoted a period of full eighteen months, during which he left his house at Hampstead every morning at one o'clock, and coming to London, without any regard to the weather, or the season of the year, he found a proof-sheet of Shakspeare ready for his perusal and correction. Thus, while the printers slept he was awake, by which means he completed in about the time already mentioned his splendid edition of the works of Shakspeare, in 15 vols. octavo.

Mr. Steevens died in the year 1800, at the age of about 65 years. See MALONE.

STEFANO, called IL FIORENTINO, is the only one of Giotto's scholars who aimed at something beyond the mere imitation of his master, whom, according to Vasari, he surpassed. He was born at Florence in 1301, and was the grandson of Giotto, by a daughter called Caterina. He was the first who attempted foreshortening; and if he failed of complete success, he certainly corrected perspective, and gave more varied turns, more character, and greater vivacity to heads. His most accredited works in the church of Asa Coeli at Rome, Sta. Spirito at Florence, and elsewhere, are no more. No authentic work of his remains, unless we except a Madonna in the Campo Santo at Pisa, undoubtedly in a greater style than the works of his master, but retouched. He died in the year 1350, aged 49. *Fuseli*.

STEFANO (Tomaso), according to Baldinucci, was the son and disciple of the foregoing artist, and born at Florence in 1324. He acquired the name of Il Giotto, from the great resemblance of his works to those of Giotto. A Pietà, which still remains of him at S. Remigio at Florence, and some frescoes at Assisi, bear indisputable marks of that style. He died at Florence, at the age of 32.

STEFANO, ST., a small town of the island of Sicily, on the northern coast of the Val di Demona, between the town of Cefalu and Caronia. It has a population of 3000, is pleasantly situated, and regularly built, but subject to the *mal aria* in the autumn months.

STEFANO, ST., a small island of Italy, in the bay of Naples, covered with wood, but neither cultivated nor inhabited.

STEFANO DI BELBO, ST., a small town of the continental Sardinian states, in the dutchy of Montferrat, province of Acqui, with 3200 inhabitants. It stands on the river Belbo; 14 miles east-south-east of Alba.

STEFANO DEL BOSCO, ST., a small town of the south part of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, with 2400 inhabitants.

STEFFELSDORF, GREAT. See RIMA-SZOMBATH.

STEFFENSKLINT, a promontory of Denmark, on the east coast of the island of Zealand.

STEFT, or MARKT-STEFT, a small town of Bavarian Franconia; 12 miles east-south-east of Wurzburg. It has a trade in corn, fruit, and the transit of goods, for the promotion of which a magazine has been erected, and a canal dug for the security of boats in winter, against the breaking up of the ice in the Maine.

STEG, *s.* [*stegge*, Icel.] A gander: *common in the north.*

STEGANO'GRAPHIST, *s.* [*στεγανος* and *γραφω*, Gr.] One who practises the art of secret writing. *Bailey*.

STEGANO'GRAPHY, *s.* [*στεγανος* and *γραφω*, Gr.] The art of secret writing by characters or cyphers, intelligi-

ble only to the persons who correspond one with another. *Bailey*.—Such occult notes, *steganography*, polygraphy, or magnetical telling of their minds. *Burton*.

STEGE, a small sea-port town of Denmark, in the island of Moen, with 900 inhabitants; 48 miles south-south-west of Copenhagen.

STEGEBORG, a small town in the south of Sweden, in the province of East Gothland, with a well-frequented harbour; 9 miles north of Calmar, and 20 east of Nordkioping.

STEGNOSIS [*Στεγνσις*, Gr.], an obstruction of any natural discharge, especially that by the pores.

STEGNOTIC, *adj.* [*στεγνωτικός*, Gr.] Binding; rendering costive. *Bailey*.

STEGNOTICS, [*Στεγνωτικά*, Gr. formed from *στεγα*, *constipō*, I close,] in Medicine, remedies proper to close and stop the orifices of the vessels, or emuncatories, when relaxed, stretched, lacerated, &c.

STEIGE, a village of France, in Alsace, with 900 inhabitants.

STEIGERBERG, a small town of the north of Germany, in Hanover, on the Weser; 31 miles west-north-west of Hanover. Population 800.

STEIGERWALD, a mountainous and woody track of the Bavarian states, lying along the south of the Maine, to the east of the principality of Wurzburg.

STEIGNTEN, a parish of Wales, in Pembrokeshire, near Haverford West. Population 1961.

STEIN, a small town in the north-east of Switzerland, in the canton of Schaffhausen, on the Rhine, where it issues from the lake of Zell. Population 1800. Here are some vestiges of Roman antiquities; 13 miles west of the town of Constance.

STEIN, a small town of Lower Austria, on the Danube, joined to another on the opposite side of the river by a wooden bridge. It is 37 miles west-north-west of Vienna, and half a mile from Krems. It has only 1000 inhabitants.

STEIN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden; 9 miles east of Carlsruhe. Population 1200.

STEIN, a village of Austrian Illyria, in Carinthia, on the Drave; 14 miles north of Laybach.

STEIN AM ANGER, or SZOMRATHELY, a small town of the south-west of Hungary, on the river Guntz; 68 miles south-south-east of Vienna, and 65 south-south-west of Presburg. It is pleasantly situated in the midst of a plain, but is poorly and irregularly built. It is a bishop's see; and the cathedral, the episcopal palace, the seminary, and the meeting place of the diets of the county of Eisenburg, form a square, which, by its neatness, exhibits a striking contrast to the rest of the town. The inhabitants, only 2200 in number, are chiefly Catholics. The town contains a number of Roman antiquities, having been the ancient *Sabaria*, which held the second rank among the Roman colonies in Illyria. Lat. 47. 13. 30. N. long. 16. 38. E.

STEIN AM KIRCHEN, a market town of Austria; 53 miles west of Vienna.

STEIN AM RITTEN, a large village and parish of the Austrian States, in Tyrol, with 3600 inhabitants; 18 miles north of Brixen.

STEIN AM STEIN, a populous village of the Swiss canton of Appenzel; 4 miles east-south-east of St. Gall.

STEIN-SCHONAU, a small town of the north-west of Bohemia, circle of Leutmeritz, with 1600 inhabitants, and manufactures of beautiful glass.

STEIN SEIFEN, a small town of Prussian Silesia, in the government of Reichenbach. Population 1000.

STEINABRUCKL, a small town of Lower Austria, with cotton manufactures.

STEINACH, the name of two small rivers of the west of Germany. The one is in the duchy of Coburg, and falls into the Saale; the other in the kingdom of Wirtemberg, passes by Puding, and joins the Neckar.

STEINACH, a village of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Meinungen. Population 1100; 25 miles north-west of Coburg.

STEINACH, or MARKT-STEINACH, a small town of Bavarian

Bavarian Franconia; 5 miles east-north-east of Schweinfurt, and 30 north-east of Würzburg. Population 1200.

STEINACH, or STADT-STEINACH, a small town of Bavarian Franconia; 35 miles north-east of Bamberg, and 17 north-north-west of Bayreuth. Population 1100.

STEINAU, a small town of Prussian Silesia, near the Oder. It is fortified, and has often been besieged in the wars of Germany. Population 2000; 23 miles south-east of Gros Glogau, and 34 north-west of Breslau.

STEINAU AN DER STRASS, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, county of Hanau. Population 1100; 16 miles south-west of Fulda, and 25 east-north-east of Hanau.

STEINBACH, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, lordship of Smalcalden, with 2100 inhabitants, employed chiefly in manufacturing hardware; 5 miles east of Smalcalden.

STEINBACH, a small town of the west of Germany, in the principality of Saxe-Meinungen, bailiwick of Altenstein. Population 1600.

STEINBACH, a small town of the west of Germany; 9 miles south-west of the town of Baden. Population 1700.

STEINBACH, a small but neat town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the Kocher.

STEINBACH, a large village of Upper Austria, on the river Steyer; 6 miles south of the town of Steyer.

STEINBACH, a village of Prussian Westphalia, in the duchy of Berg, near Muhlheim. In the neighbourhood are mines of iron, lead, and copper.

STEINBERG, a hill of Silesia, in the county of Glatz, with a fort which defends a pass into Bohemia.

STEINBUHEL, a large village of Austrian Illyria, in Carinthia; 1 mile south of Ratmannsdorf, with extensive iron-works.

STEINE, OLD, MIDDLE, and LOWER, three large villages of Prussian Silesia, in the county of Glatz, near Munschelburg.

STEINFELD, GREAT and LITTLE, two villages of France, in Alsace. They contain together about 1100 inhabitants.

STEINFELD, UPPER, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Marbach, with 1200 inhabitants.

STEINFURT, or BURG-STEINFURT, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, on the river Aa, and the chief place of a lordship belonging to the counts of Bentheim, but surrounded by the principality of Munster. Population 1300; 17 miles north-west of Munster, and 13 south-east of Bentheim.

STEINFURT, a small town of Prussian Westphalia; 11 miles south-south-east of Munster. Population 850.

STEINHAGEN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the government of Minden, with 1500 inhabitants, employed chiefly in linen weaving; 5 miles west of Bielefeld, and 25 north-west of Paderborn.

STEINHEIM, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the government of Minden, on the Emmer; 13 miles north-north-east of Paderborn. Population 1700.

STEINHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, on the Maine; 11 miles east of Frankfort. Population 900.

STEINHEIM ON THE MUR, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 14 miles north-by-east of Stutgard. Population 1300.

STEINHUDE, a small lake in the interior of Germany, in the county of Schauenburg-Lippe. It is about five miles in length, three in breadth, and on an average sixteen feet in depth. It contains an island, with a small fort called Wilhelmstein.

STEINHUDE, a small town on the above lake; 16 miles west-north-west of Hanover, with 900 inhabitants.

STEINHUN, or STONE-HEN, in Ornithology, a name given by the Germans to a bird of the LAGOPUS kind.

STEKAN, in Commerce, a liquid measure in Holland. Rhine and Mosel wine, and also spirits distilled from corn,

are sold by the aam, which contains 4 ankers, 8 stekans 21 viertels, 64 stoops, 128 mingels, 256 pints, or 1024 musies; which holds 8966 Dutch, 7705 French, or 9351 English cubic inches, or about 40½ English wine gallons.

STEINKIRCHEN, a village of Hanover, in the duchy of Bremen; 10 miles south-east of Stade.

STEINWEILER, a small town of the Bavarian circle of the Rhine, district of Landau. Population 1200.

STEINWIESEN, a large village of Bavaria, in the circle of the Maine, or principality of Bamberg.

STEKENE, a small town of the Netherlands, in East Flanders, situated on the canal leading from Ghent to Hulst; 17 miles north-east of Ghent. Population 3700.

STEKENITZ, or STEKENISSE. See STOCKENITZ.

STELE, *s.* [στῆλη, Sax.; stèle, Dutch.] A stalk; a handle.

STELE [Στήλη, Gr.], in Antiquity, a kind of punishment, being a pillar whereon a criminal was exposed, and on which was engraven an account of his crime.

STEELECHEIA, a word used by some authors to express the vena portæ.

STEELECHITES, in the Materia Medica, a name given by Dioscorides, and some other of the Greek writers, to a peculiarly fine kind of storax.

STEELECHIS, a strigil, or an instrument used in the baths to rub off the sweat from the skin.

STELIS, [στῆλις, an ancient Greek name for a sort of Misseltoe, parasitical, like this genus, upon trees], in Botany, a genus formed of some species of EPIDENDRON; which see.

STELLA (Jacques), an eminent French painter, was born at Lyons in 1596. In his twentieth year he travelled to Italy, intending to proceed to Rome to finish his studies; but was stayed in his progress at Florence, by Cosmo de Medici, to assist in the decorations preparing for the marriage of his son Ferdinand. The grand duke retained him in his service, and gave him a pension, with apartments; and he remained there seven years. At the end of that time he continued his intended journey, and at Rome he studied with unremitting attention the works of Raphael, in company with Nicolo Poussin, with whom he lived in intimacy and friendship.

Cardinal Richelieu recommended him to Louis XIV., and procured him a pension of a thousand livres, together with the employment of state painter.

Stella had considerable genius, but wanted a pure taste. His invention was ready, and his execution agreeable; the attitudes of his figures, however, exhibit the effect of study and the lamp; and nature is less frequently the guide of their expressions than art. His colouring is completely artificial; and yet with these defects, there is an agreeable air in his pictures; the parts are well balanced, and life and activity reign in them. He was most successful in his smaller productions. He died at Paris in 1647, aged 51.

STELLA, the name of a bandage in old Surgery, resembling a star, by the numerous crossings which it makes. It was employed after arteriotomy in the temple.

STELLA, a township of England, in Durham; 5½ miles west-by-north of Gateshead.

STELLA, a small river of Austrian Italy, in Friuli, which falls into the gulf of Venice, between the mouth of the Tagliamento and the town of Maranno.

STELLAR, *adj.* Astral; relating to the stars.

In part shed down
Their stellar virtue, on all kinds that grow
On earth; made hereby apter to receive
Perfection from the sun's more potent ray. *Milton.*

Salt dissolved, upon fixation, returns to its affected cubes, and regular figures of minerals, as the hexagonal of chrysal, and stellar figure of the stone asteria. *Glanville.*

STELLARIA [from the star-like form of the flowers], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order trigynia, natural order of caryophyllei, caryophyllæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved; leaflets ovate-lanceolate,

lanceolate, concave, acute, spreading, permanent. Corolla : petals five, two-parted, flat, oblong, shrivelling. Stamina : filaments ten, filiform, shorter than the corolla : alternately longer and shorter. Anthers roundish. Pistil : germ roundish. Styles three, capillary, spreading. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp : Capsule ovate, covered, one-celled, six-valved. Seeds very many, roundish, compressed. *Stellaria radians* has the petals five parted.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-leaved, spreading. Petals five, two-parted. Capsule superior, one-celled, many-seeded, six-toothed at top.

1. *Stellaria nemorum*, or wood stitchwort.—Root perennial, small, creeping. Stems several, weak and lax, three feet high, branched, hollow, round, leafy, with hairs scattered here and there on it, chiefly in the upper part. Leaves opposite, pale, green, entire, a little hairy. The numerous star-like flowers are visible at a distance, and of a delicate structure when closely examined. They are white and upright, in a terminating, dichotomous, many flowered, divaricating, pubescent panicle, having a pair of small leaves at each of the forkings.—Native of Europe, in woods. In Britain, it is confined to moist woods and borders of clear shaded springs, in the northern counties of England, and the low-lands of Scotland : flowering in May.

2. *Stellaria dichotoma*, or dichotomous stitchwort. —Leaves ovate, sessile ; stem dichotomous ; flowers solitary ; fruiting peduncles reflexed. Root annual.—Native of the mountains of Siberia.

3. *Stellaria radians*, or ray-flowered stitchwort.—Leaves lanceolate serrulate ; petals five parted.—Native of Siberia in bogs.

4. *Stellaria bulbosa*, or bulbous stitchwort.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, veinless beneath ; stem somewhat branched ; peduncle one-flowered ; root filiform, creeping, bulbiferous.—Native of the mountains of Carinthia, in moist shady places.

5. *Stellaria Holostea*, or greater stitchwort.—Leaves lanceolate, serrulate ; petals bifid ; calyx nerveless. Root perennial, creeping, weak, slender, jointed, sending down fibres to a considerable distance. Stems several, a foot high, decumbent at the base, then upright, supporting themselves among bushes or grass, otherwise the least breath of wind would lay them prostrate ; leafy, brittle, but with a strong woody structure in their inner part, as is the case with most of this tribe. Leaves in pairs at each joint, sessile, long, acuminate, a little revolute and serrulate at the edge. Flowers on very long, erect, rugged peduncles, from the axils of the upper pair of leaves, forming a sort of dichotomous panicle, white.—Native of Europe. Very frequent in woods, among bushes, and about dry hedge bottoms in England : flowering in May and June. Its large brilliant white starry blossoms render it conspicuous in the spring.

6. *Stellaria graminea*, or lesser stitchwort.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, quite entire ; panicle terminating, divaricating ; calyx three-nerved, equal, or nearly so, to the petal. Root perennial, creeping. The whole habit much like that of the preceding, but smaller, and of a grass-green, not glaucous colour.—Native of Europe. The white starry blossoms of this delicate plant prettily bespangle furze-bushes, heath, and low broom, on a gravelly or sandy soil.

7. *Stellaria glauca*, or glaucous marsh stitchwort.—Leaves linear, lanceolate, quite entire, glaucous ; peduncles erect ; calyx three-nerved, shorter than the petals.—Native of Germany and England : flowering in June and July.

8. *Stellaria crassifolia*, or thick-leaved stitchwort.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, thickish, glaucous ; peduncles one-flowered, solitary, axillary ; petals bigger than the calyx ; stem upright. Annual.—Native of Germany, in moist meadows.

9. *Stellaria uliginosa*, or bog stitchwort.—Leaves elliptic, lanceolate, quite entire, callous at the tip ; flowers sub-panicled, lateral ; petals shorter than the calyx. Root annual, small and fibrous.—Native of Europe, on the sides of springs, rivulets, ditches and wet springy meadows. In England not uncommon. It flowers in June and July.

10. *Stellaria undulata*, or wave-leaved stitchwort.—Leaves

oblong, waved ; stem angular ; flowers axillary.—Native of Japan, by way sides : flowering there in April.

11. *Stellaria cerastoides*, or Alpine stitchwort.—Leaves elliptic-oblong, obtuse ; stem subbiflorous ; calyxes one-nerved, pubescent. Root perennial, creeping. Flowers erect, white.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, Norway, Switzerland, France, Piedmont and Scotland.

12. *Stellaria multicaulis*, or many-stalked stitchwort.—Leaves lanceolate, smooth ; branches upright, quite simple ; peduncles subsolitary, terminating ; petals bigger than the calyx.—Native of the mountains of Carinthia.

13. *Stellaria humifusa*, or procumbent stitchwort.—Leaves ovate, mostly on one side, sessile ; stems procumbent, four-cornered ; peduncles solitary, abbreviated. This is an annual plant, with the petals a little larger than the calyx.—Native of Sweden and Norway.

14. *Stellaria biflora*, or two-flowered stitchwort.—Leaves awl-shaped ; branches two-parted ; petals emarginate ; calyxes striated. This is a small plant, with the appearance of a sagina.—Native of the mountains of Lapland. Perennial.

15. *Stellaria Groenlandica*, or Groenland stitchwort.—Stems decumbent, subbiflorous ; leaves linear, subciliate at the base ; petals emarginate ; fruits globular. Flowers large in proportion to the plant.—Native of Groenland.

16. *Stellaria arenaria*, or sandwort stitchwort.—Leaves spatulate ; stem erect, bifid ; branches alternate ; petals emarginate. Root annual, fibrous.—Native of Spain.

17. *Stellaria scapigera*, or scape-bearing stitchwort.—Stemless ; leaves linear-lanceolate, three-nerved ; peduncles radical, one-flowered. Perennial. — Native country unknown.

Propagation and Culture.—See ARENARIA.

STELLARY, *adj.* Astral ; starry. *Unused*. *Cocke-ram*.

STELLATE, *adj.* Pointed in the manner of a painted star.—One making a regulus of antimony, without iron, found his regulus adorned with a more conspicuous star than I have seen in several *stellate* regulus's of antimony and mars. *Boyle*.

STELLATE PLANTS, such as have their leaves growing on the stalks, at certain distances, in the form of a star with rays ; or such flowers as are star-like, or full of eyes resembling stars.

STELLATION, *s.* Emission of light as from a star.

STELLED, *adj.* Starry.—And quenched the *stelled* fires. *Shakspeare*.

STELLENBOSCH and DRAKENSTEIN. These two form an extensive district of the settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. They include the whole extent from Cape Agulhas, the southernmost point of Africa, to the river Koussie, the northern boundary of the colony. This district is 380 miles long, about 150 broad, and may contain an area of 55,000 square miles. The greater part consists of mountains, sandy hills, and Karroo plains, but the remainder is the finest land in the colony. It is in the possession of about 1200 families, forming a population of 7256 Christians. The slaves amount to 10,703, the Hottentots to about 5000, forming in all 22,959. About 39,146 English acres are under cultivation.

STELLENBOSCH, a village delightfully situated 26 miles to the east of Cape Town, at the foot of a range of lofty mountains, near the Cape of Good Hope. It contains 70 habitations, arranged in several streets and open squares, and planted with trees.

STELLERA [so named by Gmelin, in memory of Georg. Wilh. Steller, adjunct of the Academy at Petersburg], in Botany, a genus of the class octandria, order monogynia, natural order of vepreculæ thymelææ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx none. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form, permanent : tube filiform, long : border four or five cleft, with the lobes ovate. Stamina : filaments eight or ten, very short. Anthers oblong, alternately in the middle of the tube, and within the throat. Pistil : germ subovate.

Style very short, permanent. Stigma headed. Pericarp none. Seed one, shining, beaked: a nut. *Stellera passerina* has eight, and *Chamæjasme* ten stamens.—*Essential Character.* Calyx none. Corolla four-cleft. Stamina very short. Nut one, beaked.

1. *Stellera passerina*, or flax-leaved *stellera*.—This is an annual plant, resembling *thesium alpinum*. The stem and branches are terminated by long loose interrupted leafy spikes. Leaves linear. The flowers are sessile, three, four or five together, in the axils of two or rather three leaves, of which the two side ones are shorter, and may be considered as bractes. Corollas small, greenish, with yellow tips.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, France and Italy. It flowers in July and August.

2. *Stellera chamæjasme*, or Siberian *stellera*.—Leaves lanceolate; flowers terminating, racemed, naked, five-cleft. Perennial.—Native of Siberia.

STELLI'FEROUS, *adj.* Having stars.

To STELLIFY, *v. a.* [*stella* and *facio*, Latin.] To make a star; to turn into a star. This is a frequent word in our old poetry.—Whether Jove will me *stellify*. *Chaucer.*—By him who strives to *stellify* her name. *Drayton.*

STELLING, a hamlet of England, in Kent; 6 miles south-by-west of Canterbury.

STELLIO, in Zoology, the name by which authors call the swift or spotted lizard. See LACERTA.

STELLION, *s.* [*stellio*, Lat.] A newt. *Unused.*

STELLIONATE, *s.* [*stellionat*, Fr.; *stellionatus*, Lat.] A kind of crime which is committed [in law] by a deceitful selling of a thing otherwise than it really is: as, if a man should sell that for his own estate which is actually another man's.—It discerneth of crimes of *stellionate*, and the inchoations towards crimes capital, not actually committed. *Bacon.*

STELOCHITES, a name given to osteocolla.

STELO'GRAPHY, *s.* [*στυλογραφία*, from *στυλη*, Gr., a pillar, and *γραφω*, to write; *stélographic*, Fr.] The art of writing upon a pillar.—This pillar (of Jacob) thus engraved gave probably the origin to the invention of *stelo-graphy*. *Stackhouse.*

STEM, *s.* [*stemma*, Lat.; *stemu*, Sax.; *stamm*, Germ., which Wachter derives from *stan*, to stand.] The stalk; the twig.

Two lovely berries molded on one *stem*,
So with two seeming bodies, but one heart. *Shakspeare.*

The louting Spring with lavish rain
Beats down the slender *stem* and bearded grain. *Dryden.*

[*Stænma*, Swed.; *stamm*, Germ.] Family; race; generation. Pedigrees are drawn in the form of a branching tree.

I will say her worth to celebrate,
And so attend ye toward her glittering state;
Where ye may all, that are of noble *stem*,
Approach. *Milton.*

Progeny; branch of a family.

This is a *stem*
Of that victorious stock, and let us fear
His native mightiness. *Shakspeare.*

The prow or fore part of a ship.
Orante's barque, ev'n in the hero's view,
From *stem* to stern, by waves was overborn. *Dryden.*

STEM, in Botany, that part of a plant arising out of the root, and which sustains the leaves, flowers, and fruits.

To STEM, *v. a.* [*stænma*, Su. Goth.] To oppose a current; to pass cross or forward notwithstanding the stream. Above the deep they raise their scaly crests,
And *stem* the flood with their erected breasts. *Denham.*

STEMMATA, in Entomology, are three smooth hemispheric dots, placed generally on the top of the head, as in most of the hymenoptera, and other classes. The name was first introduced by Linnæus. See ENTOMOLOGY.

STEMODIA, in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia order angiosperma, natural order of personatæ scrophulariæ (*Juss.*)—*Generic Character.* Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, erect, equal, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, irregular: tube length of the calyx: border subbilabiate, almost upright; upper lip ovate, entire; lower three-parted, with the parts rounded and equal. Stamina: filaments four almost equal, length of the tube, all bifid. Anthers eight, each placed on an arm of the filaments. Pistil: germ bluntish. Style simple, length of the stamens. Stigma bluntish. Pericarp: capsule oblong, ovate, two-celled, two-valved: partition contrary. Seeds numerous, globular. Receptacle subcylindrical.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla two-lipped. Stamina four, each filament bifid, two-anthered. Capsule two-celled.

1. *Stemodia maritima*.—Root long, round, with lateral horizontal fibres. Stem from one to three feet high, erect, four-cornered, hirsute, sometimes in hedges near the sea-coast in a manner scandent. Leaves small, sessile, ovate-lanceolate, obtuse, serrate, thickish, hirsute: with smaller leaves in the axils of the larger. Flowers few, axillary, among the terminating leaves, small, white or blue.—Native of Jamaica, and very common by the sea-side, in all the southern parts of the island: it has a pleasant aromatic smell, with a bitterish taste.

2. *Stemodia durantifolia*.—Leaves ternate and connate; flowers subtern, subsessile.—Native of Jamaica.

3. *Stemodia viscosa*.—Leaves opposite, embracing; flowers peduncled, solitary. This is a small herbaceous plant, with a pleasant aromatic smell.—Native of Coromandel: found on dry fields, after the crop has been cut. The Telingas call it *Boda-sarum*.

4. *Stemodia ruderalis*.—Leaves ovate, serrate, petioled.—Native of the East Indies.

STEMONA, was so denominated by Loureiro, from the Gr. *σῆμα*, a *stamen*, because of the remarkable form and connection of those organs in its flower; which latter circumstance led him to refer the genus to the class monadelphia. His genus, however, proves to be no other than Mr. Dryander's *ROXBURGHIA*; see that article.

STEMPHYLA, a word used by the ancients to express the husks of grapes, or the remains of the pressings of wine. The same word is also used by some to express the remaining mass of the olives, after the oil is pressed out.

STEMPHYLITES, a name given by the ancients to a sort of wine pressed hard from the husks.

STEMPLES, in Mining, cross bars of wood in the shafts, which are sunk to mines.

STENANTHERA, [from *στενος*, narrow, or contracted, and *ανθηρα*, an *anther*] in Botany, a genus of the class petandria order monogynia, natural order of epacrideæ (*Brown.*)—*Generic Character.* Calyx: perianth inferior, permanent, double; the inner of five broad, ovate, equal, convolute leaves; outer of numerous ovate, concave, imbricated, bluntish, pointless scales, not so long as the former. Corolla: of one petal, tubular, deciduous; tube twice the length of the calyx, limb in five short, spreading, lanceolate, bluntish segments, bearded underneath at the extremity. Nectary a cup-shaped undivided gland surrounding the base of the germen. Stamina: filaments five, inserted into the tube, and enclosed within it, thick and fleshy, broader than the anthers, which are linear, in the mouth of the tube. Pistil: germen superior, roundish of five cells; style capillary, the length of the tube; stigma simple, obtuse. Pericarp: drupa nearly dry, globose. Seed: nut of three or more cells, with a thick shell.—*Essential Character.* Outer calyx of many imbricated leaves. Corolla tubular; its tube swelling, twice as long as the calyx, naked within; limb much shorter, spreading, bearded half way. Filaments included in the tube, fleshy, broader than their anthers. Drupa almost dry, of from three to five cells.

Stenanthera pinifolia, or pine-leaved *stenanthera*.—The stem is woody, erect, spreading, branched, scarred; the younger branches hairy, clothed with innumerable, crowded, awl-shaped,

awl-shaped, pungent, revolute, roughish, sessile leaves, about an inch long. Flowers axillary, erect, sessile, about the base of each branch, very beautiful, with a rich scarlet tube an inch long, and a yellowish-green limb, making a singular but most agreeable contrast. Drupa the size of a small pea, invested with the brown chaffy calyx.—Native of the neighbourhood of Port Jackson, New South Wales.

STENAY, a small town in the north-east of France, on the Meuse, with a population of 2300. It has some iron works, and is a fortified place, but was taken by the Austrians in 1792; 21 miles north-north-west of Verdun.

STENBOCK (Magnus), a distinguished Swedish general, son of Gustavus Otto Stenboch, a general under Charles X. and XI., was born at Stockholm in 1664. He was educated at Upsal, and in 1683 he set out on his travels, and having entered into the Dutch army, he served several campaigns with the allied forces in the Netherlands, and on the Rhine, under the princes of Waldec and Baden. He distinguished himself so much by his bravery and good conduct, that he was, in 1697, appointed to be colonel of a German regiment, then in the garrison at Wismar, where he employed his leisure time in composing a work on the art of war, entitled "The Swedish Military School," which, however, he did not find leisure or inclination to publish. He accompanied Charles XII. in almost all his expeditions, and contributed by his skill and exertions to the victory obtained at Narva. In the Polish campaign, till 1706, he sometimes accompanied the king and the main army, and sometimes was intrusted with the command of detached bodies employed chiefly in levying contributions; a service for which he was exceedingly well qualified: he was also employed in constructing bridges over such rivers as the Swedish army had to pass, on its incursions into Poland, and on its return from that country. In the year 1706 he attended the king to Saxony, where he was appointed governor of Scania. When he arrived there, he found every thing in the utmost confusion; the most shameful abuses had been committed; and in order to put an end to them, and deter others from similar practices, he put the laws into most severe execution; but a war breaking out put a stop to his plans of reform. When intelligence of the Swedes being defeated at Pultava reached Frederic IV. of Denmark, he made preparations for the invasion of Scania. Stenbock was appointed to oppose him; he put himself at the head of 8000 old troops and 12,000 new levies, and went in pursuit of the Danes, who were committing incredible ravages in the country. There was no time to clothe the newly raised troops in military array; of whom the greater part was dressed in frocks, and had pistols tied to their girdles with cords. They attacked the enemy; and what was wanting in order and discipline, was amply compensated in zeal; and these raw troops completely defeated the regular army of the king of Denmark. The Danes quitted Sweden with great precipitation, having first killed their horses, and destroyed by fire their baggage and magazines. They left behind them about 4000 wounded soldiers, of whom the greater part died, as well by the infection from the dead horses, as by the want of food, of which they had been deprived by their own countrymen. After Scania had been freed from the ravages of the enemy, Stenbock's first care was to strengthen the fortifications of Christianstad, being a place of great importance, for the defence of that part of Sweden. The activity which he displayed on this occasion, induced Charles, the year following, to entrust him with the direction of another enterprize, to the successful and speedy execution of which great importance was attached. This was to repair, as speedily as possible, with several regiments to join the troops in that province and to proceed afterwards, under the command of Stanislaus, to meet his Swedish majesty, on his proposed return from Turkey. In this measure he was thwarted by the senate, and he experienced many difficulties which he did not anticipate; of these, one was the want of money. He, however, went to Stockholm, and exerted himself so successfully, that he collected, in the course of a month, more than 300,000 rix-

dollars, and fitted out some vessels for his intended expedition. In the course of his voyage he fell in with the Danish fleet, by which he was attacked, and more than thirty of the Swedish ships were lost. In consequence of this unfortunate event, Stenbock drew up a paper in vindication of his own conduct. After this he took Rostock; and having received a considerable reinforcement of troops, gained a memorable victory, in 1712, over the Danish and Saxon forces: he then proceeded to the army in Holstein, and having burnt Altona, was, in the month of May, 1713, hemmed in at Tonningen, by the combined Danish, Saxon, and Russian army, in such a manner, that he was obliged to sign a capitulation. Being now a prisoner, he was conveyed by order of his Danish majesty to Copenhagen, and so closely confined, that he was separated from all his attendants, except two domestics, who obtained leave to wait upon him, and was in other respects subject to great restraint and severity. At length, exhausted by misery, chagrin, and disease, he drew up, in the beginning of the year 1716, an account of his sufferings, to serve, to use his own words, as a consolation to his distressed relatives, and, at the same time, to preserve his name and reputation to posterity. This work was printed in 1773, in Lonbom's "Anecdotes of celebrated and distinguished Swedes." He died in 1717, and was interred with military honours, in the garrison church of Copenhagen. After the conclusion of peace, his body was conveyed to Sweden, and deposited in the cathedral of Upsal. Stenbock was a man of talents, and always held in high estimation by Charles XII. In his political sentiments he adopted the system of his father-in-law, the celebrated Oxenstierna. He spoke his sentiments with freedom, and gave such advice as he thought most conducive to the good of his country. In speaking of the Polish war, in one of his letters, dated June 20th, 1702, he says, "according to every appearance, unless providence interfere in a very remarkable way, war will be declared against the republic. How we shall get out of it God only knows. For my part, I would run no risk, but in a war really undertaken on just principles." He had no share in the deposition of Augustus, for whom he had a sincere esteem. He incurred considerable blame for the severity which he exercised at Altona, and the ministers and generals of Poland and Denmark wrote to him complaining of his cruelty on that occasion; but Stenbock, who considered this measure, however harsh, as a just retaliation for the conduct of the Saxons and Danes at Stade, which they had bombarded and burnt to ashes, replied, "that he proceeded to such an extremity, in order to teach the enemies of his sovereign, in future, not to wage war like barbarians, and to cause the law of nations to be respected."

STENCH, *s.* [from *stencan*, Sax.] A stink; a bad smell.

Death, Death; oh amiable and lovely death!
Thou odoriferous *stench*, sound rottenness,
Arise forth from thy couch of lasting night. *Shakspeare.*

Dryden has used it for a good smell.

Black bulls and bearded goats on altars lie,
And clouds of savoury *stench* involve the sky. *Dryden.*

To STENCH, *v. a.* To make to stink. *Not proper.*—The foulness of the ponds only *stenceth* the water. *Mortimer.*—[For *staunch*, corruptly.] To stop; to hinder to flow.—They had better skill to let blood than *stench* it. *King Charles.*

STEN'CHY, *adj.* Having a bad smell.

Far nobler prospects these
Than gardens black with smoke in dusty towns,
Where *stenchy* vapours often blot the sun. *Dyer.*

STENCILING, a method of distemping walls in various patterns like paper.

STENCZICZ, a small town in the south of Poland, in the palatinate of Sendomir; 20 miles east of Radom.

STENDAL, or STENDEL, a town of the Prussian states, formerly the capital of the Old Mark of Brandenburg, but
now

now included in the government of Magdeburg. It is situated in a plain on the river Ucht, and is of considerable size, but is not proportionally populous, the inhabitants not amounting altogether to 5000. Here is a colony of French Calvinists, who carry on several manufactures, particularly woollen and leather, established by their ancestors. The town is old, and suffered greatly from fire in 1575, 1680, and 1687. Winkelmann, the well known writer on the antiquities of Rome, was a native of this place; 31 miles north-north-west of Brandenburg, and 62 west of Berlin.

STONE, a decayed parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2½ miles north-west of Brackley.

STENICO, a large village of the Austrian states, in Tyrol, circle of Roveredo, on the river Sarca.

STENNESS, a parish in the island of Pomona, in Orkney.

STENNESS, Loch, a small lake of Orkney, in the foregoing parish, noted for a remarkable causeway over it, forming a communication between two Druidical temples.

STENNESS, a small island of Shetland, on the north coast of the Mainland. It covers a small bay in Northmaven parish, where there is a good fishing station, with drying-houses and other conveniences.

STENNIGOT, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5½ miles west-south-west of Louth.

STENO (Nicholas), a distinguished physician, and subsequently bishop of Titiopolis, and vicar-apostolic of the northern countries, was born at Copenhagen in 1638. His father was a Lutheran and goldsmith to Christian IV. king of Denmark. Having had the advantage of studying medicine and anatomy under the celebrated Bartholin, whose friendship he obtained by his ingenuity and industry, he was well prepared to profit by his travels through various parts of Holland, Germany, France, and Italy, in visiting the best schools, in which he passed several years. He was at Amsterdam in 1660, and resided during the three succeeding years at Leyden, where he pursued his studies with the utmost diligence. He arrived at Paris in 1664, and at the end of two years more went to Vienna, traversed part of Hungary, and entered Italy by the Tyrol. He visited the principal cities of this fine country, and passed some time especially at Rome and Florence, in the latter of which cities his reputation reached the court of Ferdinand II., grand duke of Tuscany, who appointed him his physician about the year 1667, with a liberal salary. He was afterwards honoured with the esteem and confidence of Cosmo III., who selected him a preceptor to his son. His attachment to the Protestant religion had been shaken by the eloquence of Bossuet while he was at Paris, and in 1669 he abjured that faith, and adopted the Roman Catholic persuasion. Frederick III., king of Denmark, invited him, near the close of his reign, to return to Copenhagen; but he refused the invitation, because he could not obtain permission to exercise the religion which he had adopted; but Christian V. repeating the invitation without any such restraint, about the year 1672, Steno returned to his native city, and was appointed professor of anatomy. He found his change of sentiments and circumstances, however, productive of less agreeable results than he had anticipated, and he again quitted Denmark, and resumed the education of the young prince of the house of Cosmo, at Florence. Some time after his return, he entertained a wish to enter the ecclesiastical state, and he embraced that profession in 1677. He was speedily nominated, by pope Innocent XI., to the bishopric in Isauria, which we have already mentioned; and was afterwards appointed vicar-apostolical to all the states of the north, in which capacity he became a zealous preacher in Hanover, Munster, Hamburg, and various parts of Germany, and died in the course of his missionary labours, at Schwerin, in the duchy of Mecklenburgh, in 1686, in the 49th year of his age.

The works of Steno which are extant, relate principally to medical subjects. He was a zealous cultivator of anatomy, and the author of some discoveries relative to the minute circulation of the eye, the nose, and organs of voice, and to

the lymphatic vessels; as the papers which he communicated to the Academy of Copenhagen, and his other works, will testify. The titles of the latter are "Observationes de Oris, Oculorum, et Narium Vasis," 1662; this was enlarged and reprinted in 1664, with the new title "De Musculis et Glandulis Observationum Specimen." "Elementorum Myologie Specimen, seu Musculi Descriptio Geometrica," 1667. "De solido intra solidum naturaliter contento Dissertationis Prodomus," 1669. "Dissertatio de Cerebri Anatome," 1671; which had been published in French at Paris in 1669. "Epistolæ duæ Adversariæ," 1680. In this year he again published his first work, with some alterations, under a new title, "Observationes Anatomicae, quibus varia Oris, Oculorum, et Narium Vasa describuntur, novique Salivæ, Lachrymarum, et Muci fontes deteguntur, &c." Steno was the uncle of Winslow, who subsequently carried anatomical science to the highest pitch.

STENOCARPUS [from στενος, narrow, and καρπος, Gr. fruit], a genus of Brown's, the EMBOTHRUM of Linnæus; which see.

STENOCHILUS [from στενος, slender, and χελος, Gr. a lip.] a genus of Brown's, somewhat obscure.

STENOGRAPHY, s. [στενος and γραφω, Gr.; stenographic, Fr.] The art of writing in short hand.—Some will preamble a tale impertinently, and cannot be delivered of a jest, till they have travelled an hour in trivials, as if they had taken the whole tale by *stenography*, and now were putting it out at large. *Feltham*.

Mr. Byrom's method of short-hand, as improved by Mr. Molineux, being now generally esteemed the best and most practical system extant, we refer such of our readers as may wish to attain any proficiency in short-hand, to "An Introduction to Byrom's Universal English Short-Hand," by Mr. Molineux, of Macclesfield, explaining the *theory* of the art in a very clear and perspicuous manner; and to a supplementary work, entitled "The Short-Hand Instructor, or Stenographical Copy-Book," which exhibits the *practice*, adorned with its peculiar characteristics of ease and beauty. These two elegant little works form together a complete system of stenography, and have the merit of familiarizing Mr. Byrom's excellent method for the general use of schools, and for the particular guidance of those who, without the assistance of a living instructor, may be desirous of this attainment.

STENOSA, an island of the Grecian archipelago. It is about 10 miles in circumference, and its only inhabitants are a few goat herds and their flocks. Lat. 37. 5. N. long. 25. 55. E.

STENSON, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 4½ miles south-south-west of Derby.

STENSZEWO, a small town of Prussian Poland; 12 miles south-west of Posen. Population 800.

To STENT, v. a. To restrain; to stint. To *stent* is the Scottish word for cease or stop. Spenser uses it merely for the sake of his rhyme. See the verb active STINT.

Therewith Sir Guyon left his first emprise,
And turning to that woman, fast her hent
By the hoare lockes that hong before her eyes,
And to the ground her threw: yet nould she *stent*
Her bitter rayling and foule revilement. *Spenser*.

STENTON, a parish of Scotland, in Haddingtonshire; about 3½ miles long and 3 broad. Population 685.

STENTORIAN, adj. [from *Stentor*. The French have an old word like our *stentorian*, viz., *stentoré*; as, "voix stentorée, a huge voice, such a one as the Grecian Stentor had." *Cotgrave*.] Loud; uncommonly loud.—They echo forth in *stentorian* clamours. *Sir T. Herbert*.

STENTOROPHONICK, adj. [from *Stentor*, the Homeric herald, whose voice was as loud as that of fifty men, and φωνη, a voice.] Loudly speaking or sounding.

I heard a formidable noise,
Loud as the *stentorophonick* voice,
That roar'd far off!

Hudibras.

T^o

To STEP, *v. n.* [ʔæppan, Sax.; *stappen*, Dutch.] To move by a single change of the place of the foot.—One of our nation hath proceeded so far, that he was able, by the help of wings, in a running pace, to *step* constantly ten yards at a time. *Wilkins*.—To advance by a sudden progression.

Ventidius lately
Bury'd his father, by whose death he's *stepp'd*
Into a great estate. *Shakspeare.*

To move mentally.—When a person is hearing a sermon, he may give his thoughts leave to *step* back so far as to recollect the several heads. *Watts*.—To go; to walk.

I am in blood
Stept in so far, that should I wade no more,
Returning were as tedious as go o'er. *Shakspeare.*

To come as it were by chance.—The old poets *step* in to the assistance of the medalist. *Addison*.—To take a short walk.

My brothers, when they saw me wearied out,
Stepp'd, as they said, to the next thicket side
To bring me berries. *Milton.*

To walk gravely, slowly, or resolutely.—Pyrrhus, the most ancient of all the bashaws, *stept* forth, and, appealing unto his mercies, earnestly requested him to spare his life. *Knolles*.

STEP, *s.* [ʔæp, Sax.; *stap*, Dutch.] Progression by one removal of the foot.

Thou sound and firm-set earth,
Hear not my *steps*, which way they walk. *Shakspeare.*

One remove in climbing; hold for the foot; a stair.—While Solyman lay at Buda, seven bloody heads of bishops, slain in battle, were set in order upon a wooden *step*. *Knolles*.—Quantity of space passed or measured by one removal of the foot.—The gradus, a Roman measure, may be translated a *step*, or the half of a passus or pace. *Arbutnot*.—A small length; a small space.—There is but a *step* between me and death. *1 Sam*.—Walk; passage; (in the plural).

O may thy pow'r, propitious still to me,
Conduct my *steps* to find the fatal tree
In this deep forest. *Dryden.*

Gradation; degree.—The same sin for substance hath sundry *steps* and degrees, in respect whereof one man becometh a more heinous offender than another. *Perkins*.—Progression; act of advancing.—To derive two or three general principles of motion from phænomena, and afterwards to tell us how the properties and actions of all corporeal things follow from those manifest principles, would be a very great *step* in philosophy, though the causes of those principles were not yet discovered. *Newton*.—Footstep; print of the foot.

From hence Astrea took her flight, and here
The prints of her departing *steps* appear. *Dryden.*

Gait; manner of walking.
Sudden from the golden throne
With a submissive *step* I hasted down;
The glowing garland from my hair I took,
Love in my heart, obedience in my look. *Prior.*

Action; instance of conduct.—The reputation of a man depends upon the first *steps* he makes in the world. *Pope*.

STEP, in composition, signifies one who is related only by marriage. [ʔceop, Sax., from ʔcepan, to *deprive* or *make an orphan*; ʔceop-ʔæber, ʔceop-mober, &c. *Step-father*, *step-son*, and *step-daughter*, are terms almost obsolete in our language: but this is to be regretted, since they are far more concise and elegant, than the barbarous compound father-in-law, son in-law, &c.]

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You shall not find me, daughter,
After the slander of most *step-mothers*,
Ill-ey'd unto you. *Shakspeare.*

A father cruel, and a *step-dame* false. *Shakspeare*.—This queene endured some troubles in the reign of her *step-sonne* King Henry the Fifth. *Weeve*.

STEPAN, a small town in the west of European Russia, in Volhynia, with 3700 inhabitants; 46 miles north of Rovno.

STEPENITZ, a river of Prussia, in the government of Potsdam. It flows by Perleberg, and joins the Elbe at Wittenberg.

STEPENITZ, a river of the north of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg, which joins the Trave, near its entrance into the Baltic.

STEPHANESTE, a small town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, at the conflux of the Pruth and the Baszeu; 40 miles north of Jassy, and 116 north-west of Bender.

STEPHANIA [so named by Loureiro, from στεφανη, Gr., any thing encircling the summit of something else], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order monandria, natural order of sarmantaceæ asparagi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth of six rather acute, spreading leaves, the three alternate ones smaller. Corolla: petals three, small, obtuse. Stamina: filament one, as long as the calyx, thick and abrupt at the summit; anther circular, crowning the filament. Female—on a separate plant. Calyx as in the male. Corolla none. Pistil: germen superior, ovate; style none; stigma erect, elongated. Pericarp: berry minute, ovate. Seed solitary.—*Essential Character*. Male—Calyx of six leaves. Petals three, much smaller than the calyx. Anther annular. Female—Calyx of six leaves. Petals none. Stigma simple. Berry superior, with one seed.

1. *Stephania rotunda*, or round-rooted stephania.—Leaves peltate, roundish. Umbels compound.—Native of the woods of Cochin-china.

2. *Stephania longa*, or long-rooted stephania.—Leaves peltate, oblong. Heads of flowers lateral, sessile.—Found about the reed fences of Cochin-china.

STEPHANITÆ [στεφανίται, Gr.], in Antiquity, an epithet given to games and exercises, where the prize was only a garland.

STEPHANIVM, in Botany, a name given by Schreber to *Palicourea*.

STEPHANO, one of the highest hills of the small island of Ithaca, in Greece.

STEPHANOPHORUS [στέφανοφορος, Gr.], in Antiquity, the chief priest of Pallas, who presided over the rest. It was usual for every god to have a chief priest; that of Pallas was the Stephanophorus, just mentioned; and that of Hercules was called Dadouchus.

STEPHANSFELDEN, more commonly called STECKFELD, a small town of France, in Alsace; 16 miles from Strasburg.

STEPHANUS (Byzantius), a grammarian who flourished as it is conjectured, about the close of the fifth century, was professor in the imperial college of Constantinople, and composed a dictionary, containing nouns-adjective, derived from the names of places; and designating the inhabitants of those places. Of this work there exists only an abridgment, made by Hermolaus, and dedicated to the emperor Justinian. This work is known by the title Περὶ πόλεων, De Urbibus; but that of the original was Σδνικα: hence it has been inferred, that the author's intention was to write a geographical work. Much of the value of the original is unquestionably lost in the abridgment; yet learned men have derived considerable light from it; and it has been an object of critical illustration to Casaubon, Scaliger, and Salmasius. It was printed in Greek at Venice, in 1502, under the superintendance of Aldus Manutius.

STEPHENS, a parish of England, in the county of Cornwall; 1 mile west-south-west of Saltash. Trematon castle,

castle, which is in this parish, is situated on an eminence above the river Lynher. It was held under Robert, earl of Moreton and Cornwall, in the reign of William Rufus, by Rejerald de Vallerot. There are still some considerable remains of the original structure. Population 1121.

STEPHENS, CAPE, a cape on the north-west coast of America. Lat. 63. 33. N. long. 197. 41. E.

STEPHEN'S ISLAND, an island on the north-west coast of North America, about 30 miles in length, so called by Vancouver. It is about 10 miles to the north of Pitt's archipelago. On the north-west side of the island, a range of innumerable rocky islets and rocks extends for about a league and a half, and occupies a space of about two miles in width. Lat. 54. 11. N. long. 229. 30. E.

STEPHEN'S ISLAND, a small island in the north-west part of Cook's straits, in New Zealand. Lat. 40. 36. N. long. 185. 6. W.

STEPHEN'S ISLANDS, two small islands in the Eastern seas, discovered by Captain Carteret in 1767. They had a green pleasant appearance, and were well covered with trees; but whether they were inhabited he did not know. They run about north-west-by-west, and south-east-by-east: one is about three miles long, and the other about six. The passage between them appeared to be about two miles broad. They are surrounded with extensive reefs. Lat. 0. 22. S. long. 138. 39. E.

STEPHEN'S ISLAND, in Torres strait, north of Darnley's island, lying about long. 143. E. lat. 9. S. The cocoa nut grows abundantly here, and a tree which produces fruit resembling almonds. The natives dwell in huts, wherein are images of their gods; also several human skulls.

STEPHEN'S PASSAGE, the strait which divides Admiralty island from the west coast of North America. Its general direction is nearly north, in which direction it extends along the eastern shore of Admiralty island, when at Point Salisbury, on the continental shore, it divides into two branches. One of these, running in a north-west direction, along the north-east shore of Admiralty island, is separated into two channels by Douglas's island, and communicating with Chatham's strait and Cross sound, leads by this passage to the ocean. The channel between Douglas's island and the mainland, was found by Captain Vancouver's exploring party, to be interrupted with ice, even in the month of August. The other takes a north-east direction from Point Salisbury about 13 miles, and was encumbered with a great quantity of floating ice, the weather also being extremely cold. The shores at its termination spread out to east and west, and form a basin about a league broad, and two across. From the shores of this basin, Vancouver's party saw a compact body of ice extending some distance all around; and the adjacent region is composed of a lofty range of frozen mountains, whose sides, almost perpendicular, are formed entirely of rock, excepting close to the water side, where a few scattered dwarf pine trees found sufficient soil to vegetate in. Above these the mountains were wrapt in undissolving frost and snow. From the rugged gullies in their sides were projected immense bodies of ice, that reached perpendicularly to the surface of the water in the basin, and exhibited as dreary and inhospitable an aspect as the imagination can suggest. Lat. 57. 29. N. long. of the south entrance, 226. 35. E.

STEPHENS, POINT, a cape on the east coast of New Holland. Lat. 33. 41. S. long. 207. 50. W.

STEPHENS, ST., a parish of England, in Cornwall, adjoining to Launceston. Population 896.

STEPHENS, ST., a parish of England, in Cornwall; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-north-west of St. Austell.

STEPHENS, ST., a parish of the United States, in South Carolina, Charleton district.

STEPHENS, FORT ST., a newly established town of the United States, in Washington county, Alabama territory. It is situated on the west bank of the Tombigbee, at the head of the sloop navigation, and is in a state of rapid improve-

ment. It contains about 250 houses, a printing office, an academy, and 15 stores or shops. It is built on very uneven ground, but in a healthy situation. It is the seat of government for the Alabama territory. Population in 1817, 800. 100 miles above Mobile by land, 120 or 130 by the river; 103 miles from Washington. Lat. 31. 33. N.

STEPHENTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Rensselaer county, New York; 22 miles south-east of Albany. Population 2567.

STEPNEY, a large and populous village and parish of England, in the county of Middlesex, being one of the out parishes of the city of London, and which may be regarded as a suburb to the metropolis, being connected with it by ranges of buildings. It was formerly of such vast extent, that in subsequent times the following parishes have been produced out of it, viz., St. Mary Stratford, at Bow; St. Mary, Whitechapel; St. Ann's, Limehouse; St. John's at Wapping; St. Paul's, Shadwell; St. George, Ratcliffe Highway; Christ Church, Spitalfields; St. Matthew's, Bethnal Green, and Poplar; all which have been separated from it, and yet it still remains one of the largest parishes within the bills of mortality. It contains the hamlets of Mile End, Old and New Towns, and Ratcliffe. In the year 1794, it contained, according to Mr. Lysons, about 1530 acres of land (exclusive of the site of buildings), of which about 80 were then arable, about 50 occupied by market gardeners, and the remainder meadow, pasture, and marshy land. But since that year, the increase of buildings has reduced nearly to nothing the ground appropriated to these purposes. The church of Stepney, dedicated to St. Dunstan and All Saints, is a large building, consisting of a chancel, nave, and two aisles, separated by columns and pointed arches. At the west end is a square tower. Here are tombs of several illustrious characters, especially of Sir Henry Colet, lord mayor in 1486 and 1495, the father of Dr. John Colet, who founded St. Paul's school; Sir John Berry, a distinguished officer in the reign of Charles II.; Sir Thomas Spert, comptroller of the navy to Henry VIII. and founder of the Trinity-house. The font stands on a circular pillar, surrounded by four others of a smaller size. On the south side of the church are sculptures of the crucifixion, &c. In the wall of one of the porches is a stone, on which some verses are inscribed, dated 1663, and stating it to have been brought from Carthage. The churchyard contains, with many other celebrated names, those of Dr. Richard Mead and his father. Besides the church, this parish contains several Methodist meeting-houses. Adjoining to Poplar is Stepney Marsh, peculiarly celebrated for the richness of its pasture. The hamlet of Ratcliffe lies in the western division of the parish. It is about two miles and a half in circumference. The charity school here was begun in 1710; and the school-house in White horse-street was built by subscription in 1719, and has since received great additional benefactions. In this hamlet are the church, the Friends' meeting, the Mercers' alms-houses, a cemetery belonging to the Protestant dissenters, with dwellings for seven poor persons, and a school instituted by them in 1783. Mile End occupies the greater part of the northern division of the parish. In this hamlet is Brewer's meeting-house and a Methodist chapel. On the north side of the road are two Judaic cemeteries. Several other charitable institutions belonging to public bodies, are situated on this road. The origin of the name of Stepney is uncertain, but it is supposed to be derived from the Saxon for a timber wharf, or from *Stiben*, a corruption of Stephen. In 1299 Edward I. held a parliament here, in the house of Henry Walleis, lord mayor of London, and gave his confirmation to the great charter. Lands in the manors of Stepney, Poplar, and Bromley, descend by the custom of gavelkind.

STEPPE, a name given in Russia to its plains and flats, which are very extensive, and are interspersed among its mountainous tracts.

STEPPING, *s.* The act of going forward by steps.

Though

Though short be fall of old Corvino's age,
His *steppings* with the other footsteps fit.

More.

STEPPINGLEY, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 3 miles south-west of Amptill.

STEPPINGSTONE, *s.* Stone laid to catch the foot, and save it from wet or dirt.

Like *Stepping-stones* to save a stride,
In streets where kennels are too wide.

Swift.

STER. Used in composition, as *webster*, *malster*, *spinner*, &c. Somner derives this from the Sax. *steope*, direction, the power of a master. See Lye in *V. steope*.

STERBA, or CSORBA, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, in the county of Liptau, with 1400 inhabitants, chiefly Protestants.

STERBECKIA [so named in memory of Francis Van Sterbeek, author of *Theatrum Fungorum*], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of guttiferae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth three or five-leaved: leaflets roundish, concave, acute. Corolla: petals three or five, roundish, crenate, clawed, longer than the calyx. Stamina: filaments very many, capillary, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ ovate, superior. Style long, curved in at the top. Stigma headed, concave. Pericarp: capsule, cylindrical, long, corticose, one-celled, not opening. Seeds many, large, angular, incumbent on each other, nestling in the pulp.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three or five-leaved. Corolla three or five-petalled. Capsule corticose, not opening, legume-shaped, many-seeded. Seeds imbricate.

Sterbeckia lateriflora.—This is a scandent shrub. Leaves subopposite, petioled, elliptic, acuminate, quite entire, veined, smooth. Peduncles many flowered, very short, lateral. Flowers white, small.—Native of Guiana, in woods.

STERCORACEOUS, *adj.* [*stercorosus*, Lat.] Belonging to dung; partaking of the nature of dung.—Green juicy vegetables, in a heap together, acquire a heat equal to that of a human body; then a putrid *stercoraceous* taste and odour, in taste resembling putrid flesh, and in smell human fæces. *Arbutnot.*

STERCORARIANS, a name which the Roman church anciently gave to such as held that the host was liable to digestion, and all its consequences, like other food.

STERCORATION, *s.* [from *stercora*, Lat.] The act of dunging; the act of manuring with dung.—The first help is *stercoration*: the sheep's dung is one of the best, and the next dung of kine, and that of horses. *Bacon.*

STERCULIA [from *Stercus*. So named on account of its fetid smell], in Botany, a genus of the class dodecandria, order monogynia, natural order of tricocceæ, malvacæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, very large, coriaceous, flat, deciduous, five-parted: parts lanceolate, acute. Corolla none: but a nectary placed on a cylindrical column, bell-shaped, small, five-toothed: teeth subtrifid. Stamina: filaments ten or about fifteen, very short, two or three on each tooth of the nectary. Anthers ovate. Pistil: germ globular, five-grooved, in the bottom of the nectary. Style filiform, curved in. Stigma club-shaped, bifid or five-lobed. Pericarp: capsules five, ovate, reniform, from spreading reflexed, one-celled, opening by the interior angle. Seeds many, oval, fastened to the suture.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla none. Nectary bell-shaped, five-toothed, staminiferous, fastened to the column of the germ. Germ pedicelled. Capsules five, one-celled, opening by the inner side, many-seeded.

1. *Sterculia lanceolata*, or lance-leaved *sterculia*.—This is a tree of moderate size, with smooth, veined, lanceolate leaves; the fruit appears to consist of five rather larger ovate capsules disposed in a stellated direction on the footstalk; they are of a red colour and contain three or four large black round seeds in each.—Native of China.

2. *Sterculia balanghas*.—This is a tall tree, with a stem of two feet in diameter, thick branches, covered with a thick

ash-coloured bark, and furnished with alternate, smooth, veined, lanceolate leaves; in general about nine inches long and three broad: the flowers are produced in sparse fascicles at the tips of the shoots: the capsules are rather large, smooth, ovate, and stand by fives in a stellated direction; each capsule containing six, seven or eight moderately large round seeds.—Native of Malabar, Amboina, &c.

3. *Sterculia crinita*.—A tree of sixty feet high, branching in a spreading manner at the top: leaves alternately scattered, and on long footstalks: they are smooth above, downy beneath, where they are also of a reddish cast; the flowers are borne on panicles the footstalks of which have each a stipule at the base.—Native of Guiana, in the woods of Sinemare, and near the river Galibien,

4. *Sterculia cordifolia*, or heart-leaved *sterculia*.—Leaves cordate, obsolete, three-lobed; capsules acuminate, tomentose. Stem arborescent.—Native of Senegal.

5. *Sterculia colorata*, or coral *sterculia*.—Leaves five-lobed; lobes acuminate; calyxes cylindric-club-shaped; capsules oblong, smooth, coloured. Trunk erect, growing to a very great size. Bark ash-coloured, and a little scabrous. Branches numerous, spreading irregularly; bark as on the trunk, but smoother. Panicles terminating, small, numerous, red like coral, covered with many red stellated hairs. Flowers numerous, about an inch long. This tree casts its leaves during the cold season. It flowers in April, and then appears as if entirely covered with fine ramifications of red coral. Soon after the leaves make their appearance.—Native of the mountainous parts of the Rajahmundry Circar. Called by the Telingas *Caraka*.

6. *Sterculia urens*.—Leaves five-lobed; lobes acuminate; calyxes bell-shaped; capsules ovate, hispid. Trunk erect, very straight, with the top large and shady.—It is a very large tree, chiefly a native of the mountainous countries of the coast of Coromandel.

7. *Sterculia platanifolia*, or maple-leaved *sterculia*.—Leaves palmate, five-lobed; calyxes wheel-shaped, reflexed. This is a very lofty tree.—Native of Japan and China.

8. *Sterculia fetida*, or fetid *sterculia*.—Leaves digitate. This is a tree above the middle size, with spreading unarmed branches.—Native of the East Indies, Cochin-china, &c.

Propagation and Culture.—Propagated by seed; and treated in the same way as *Sida*.

STERDYN, a small town in the east of Poland, near the town of Siedlee.

STEREOBATA, or STEREOBATES [from *στερεοβατης*, Gr., *solid prop*], in Architecture, the basis or foundation, whereon a column, wall, or other piece of building is raised.

This answers pretty well to the continued fœcle or basement of the moderns.

STEREOCAULON [from *στερεος*, *hard and solid*, and *καυλος*, Gr., *a stem*], in Botany, a name applied to a genus of the Lichens, invented by Screber in his *Gen. Pl.* 768. See LICHEN.

STEREOGRAPHIC, *adj.* Delineated on a plane; done according to the rules of stereography.—The angles made by the circles of the sphere are equal to the angles made by their representatives in the *stereographic* projection. *Reid.*

STEREOGRAPHY, *s.* [*στερεος*, *solid*, and *γραφειν*, I write; Gr.; *stereographie*, Fr.] The art of drawing the forms of solids upon a plane.

STEREOMETRY, *s.* [*στερεος* and *μετρον*, Gr.; *stereometrie*, Fr.] The art of measuring all sorts of solid bodies.

STEREOTOMY, *s.* [*στερεος* and *τομω*, Gr.; *stereotomie*, Fr.] The art of cutting solids; as walls, arches, &c.

STEREOTYPE, [from *στερεος*, Gr., *solid*, and *τυπος*, *type*; *stereotype*, Fr.] A multiform solid type; a type-metal plate to print from at the letter-press; the art of making type-metal plates, or other solid multiform types. See PRINTING.

STEREOTYPE, or STEREOTYPIC, *adj.* Pertaining to stereotype.

To STEREOTYPE, *v. a.* [*stereotyper*, Fr.] To make type-metal plates to print from at the letter-press, or any other multiform solid types. To print a book with these plates.

STEREOTYPYPER, *s.* One who stereotypes.

STEREOXYLON [from *στερεος*, *hard and solid*, and *ξύλον*, Gr., *wood*, a name given by Ruiz and Pavon in their Flora Peruviana, to the genus by Linnæus ESCALLONIA; see that article.

STERILE, *adj.* [*sterile*, Fr.; *sterilis*, Lat., from *στερος*, Gr., which has the same meaning, and which is usually derived from *στερεω*, *to deprive*.] Barren; unfruitful; not productive; wanting fecundity.

Our elders say,
The barren, touched in this holy chase,
Shake off their *sterile* curse.

Shakspeare.

STERILITY, *s.* [*sterilité*, Fr.; *sterilitas*, from *sterilis*, Lat.] Barrenness; want of fecundity; unfruitfulness.—Spain is thin sown of people, by reason of the *sterility* of the soil, and because their natives are exhausted by so many employments in such vast territories. Bacon.

To STERILIZE, *v. a.* To make barren; to deprive of fecundity; or the power of production.—Go! *sterilize* the fertile with thy rage. Savage.

STERLING, *adj.* [of this word many derivations have been offered; the most probable of which is that offered by Camden, who derives it from the *Easterlings*, who were employed as coiners.] An epithet by which genuine English money is discriminated.—Several of them would rather chuse to count out a sum in sesterces than in pounds *sterling*. Addison.—Genuine; having past the test.—There is not one single witty phrase in this collection, which hath not received the stamp and approbation of one hundred years; he may therefore be secure to find them all genuine, *sterling*, and authentic. Swift.

STERLING, *s.* [*sterlingum*, low Lat. from the adjective.] English coin; money.

Accept this offering to thy bounty due,
And Roman wealth in English *sterling* view. Arbuthnot.

Standard rate.—*Sterling* was the known and approved standard in England, in all probability from the beginning of King Henry the Second's reign. Leake.

STERLING, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Vermont; 30 miles north-north-west of Montpelier. Population 121.

STERLING, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts, which contains a considerable village. Population 1472; 12 miles north of Worcester, and 44 west of Boston.

STERLING, a post township of the United States, in Windham county, Connecticut. Population 1101; 18 miles north-east of Norwich. Lat. 41. 42. N. long. 71. 53. W.

STERLINGVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Granville county, North Carolina.

STERLITAMAK, a small town in the interior of Russia, in the government of Orenbourg, at the confluence of the rivers Stela and Belaja. It is the depôt of the salt made from the lake of Iletzk; 75 miles south-by-east of Ufa.

STERN, *adj.* [rœynn, Sax.] Severe of countenance; truculent of aspect.—Why look you still so *stern* and tragical? Shakspeare.—Severe of manners; harsh; unrelenting; cruel.

Women are soft, mild, pitiful, and flexible:
Thou *stern*, obdurate, flinty, rough, remorseless.

Shakspeare.

Hard; afflicitive.

Mischief stood,
And with his *stern* steele, drew in streams the blood.

Chapman.

STERN, *s.* [rœann, or rœope, Sax.] The hind part of the ship where the rudder is placed.—They turn their heads to sea, their *sterns* to land. Dryden.—Post of management; direction.

The King from Eltam I intend to send,
And sit at chiefest *stern* of public weal.

Shakspeare.

The hinder part of any thing.

She all at once her beastly body raised,
With doubled forces high above the ground;
Tho' wrapping up her wreathed *stern* around,
Lept fierce upon his shield.

Spenser.

STERNA, the TERN, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order Anseres, of which the Generic Character is: bill subulate, straightish, pointed, a little compressed, without teeth; nostrils linear; tongue pointed; wings very long; tail mostly forked. Twenty-five species of this genus are enumerated by Gmelin: they are mostly inhabitants of the ocean, and feed on fishes. Many of them are found on the shores of large lakes and rivers. Four of the species are common to our own country. They breed among small tufts of rushes, and lay three or four eggs of a dull olive colour, spotted with black. The birds belonging to this genus are at all times clamorous and gregarious, but more particularly in the spring of the year, during the time of nesting. At this period they assemble in large flocks, and their activity seems greatly increased, for they repeat with eagerness their sharp piercing notes so incessantly, that persons cannot approach the place where they breed without being almost stunned with their noise. With us the terns are migratory, leaving our shores regularly on the approach of winter.

1. *Sterna Caspia*.—The Caspian tern has its body above of a plumbeous-ash colour; beneath and neck white; the bill is scarlet; the frontlet and legs are black. It is found, as its specific name denotes, on the Caspian sea, and is nearly two feet in length.—It frequents the sea-shores and banks; feeds on small fish and sea-insects, hovering over the water, and suddenly darting into it for its prey.

There are three varieties: 1. Crown black, spotted with white; tail-feathers with brown bars.—It inhabits Bombay, and is twenty-one inches long: its bill is red; and legs black. 2. Crown black; hind-head sub-crested; outer tail-feathers white from the middle to the tip; the bill is yellowish; and the legs black.—It inhabits China, and the Sandwich islands. 3. The bill in this is white; frontlet varied black and white; ears black; back and wings cinereous; quill and tail-feathers tipped with black.

2. *Sterna Cayanensis*, or Cayenne tern.—Cinereous; the feathers edged with reddish; beneath they are white; the hind-head is black.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is sixteen inches long.

3. *Sterna Surinamensis*, or Surinam tern.—Bill, head, neck, and breast, black; back, wings, and tail, cinereous; belly whitish; legs red.—It inhabits Surinam, and is about fifteen inches long.

4. *Sterna fuliginosa*, or sooty tern.—Black; beneath, cheeks, front, and shafts of the quill and tail-feathers, white. The bill and legs are white; the eggs yellowish, with brown and violet spots; outer tail-feathers white, except at the tip.—It inhabits the Atlantic and Antarctic seas, and is sixteen inches long.

5. *Sterna Africana*, or African tern.—White; bill and legs black; crown, wings, and tip of the tail, spotted. The crown is spotted with black, the wings with brown, and the tail with white; quill-feathers blueish-ash.—It is an African bird, and is about the size of the *Sterna fuliginosa*.

6. *Sterna stolidus*, or noddy.—Body black; front whitish; eye-brows black; bill and legs black; the hind-head is cinereous.—It is fifteen inches long; found chiefly within the tropics; is clamorous; seldom goes far from shore, and always rests at night.—It builds on rocks; and its eggs are excellent food.

7. *Sterna*

7. *Sterna Philippina*, or Philippine tern.—Claret-grey; cap white; band through the eyes, wings, tail, bill, and legs, black.—It is found on the shores of the Philippine islands; and is about twice as large as the common swallow.

8. *Sterna simplex*, or simple tern.—Above plumbeous; beneath, crown, greater and middle wing-coverts, white; band behind the ears and quill-feathers black. A variety has the bill and legs black. The bill and legs are red; some of the wing-coverts edged with brown.—It inhabits Cayenne; and is fifteen inches long.

9. *Sterna nilotica*, or Egyptian tern.—Cinereous; beneath white; head and neck with blackish spots; orbits black, dotted with white. The bill is black; and the legs of a flesh colour.—It inhabits Egypt; and is above the size of a common dove.

10. *Sterna cantiaca*, or Sandwich tern.—White; back and wings hoary; cap black; front with white spots; quill-feathers blackish, with a white shaft. The bill is black, but yellowish at the tip; the legs are black; wings longer than the tail; the egg is of an olive-brown, with purplish and crowded spots: it is full eighteen inches long, and is found on the Kentish coast, generally appearing about Romney in the middle of April, and leaving the country in September. It is rather common at Sandwich, where it was first noticed by Mr. Boys. There are two varieties of this species: 1. Tail hardly forked; body variegated; ears with a black spot. 2. Above black, varied with paler colours; beneath white; tail forked; bill and legs black.—This last is found in Finland.

11. *Sterna hirundo*; common, or greater tern.—The two outer tail-feathers are half black and half white. There is a variety that has black legs; outer tail-feathers entirely white. The greater tern is about thirteen inches from the tip of the bill to that of the toes; its breadth, when the wings are spread, is about two feet. It is of a slender but elegant form, which is increased by the beautiful plumage with which it is adorned. The back is covered with a grey mantle; the breast is of pure white, elegantly contrasted with a large black spot upon the crown of the head, resembling a hat; the bill and legs are red. Early in the spring this species arrives on our own coasts, and sometimes is seen a considerable way from the shore, in the interior parts of the country, hovering about the lakes and rivers. They are observed by sailors during the whole passage from Britain to Madeira. They are the most active fishers of all the aquatic tribes; instantaneously darting upon the prey which they observe from a great height in the air. After having dived and caught the booty, they as suddenly rise again to their former elevation.

The action of the stomach which this tribe exhibits is amazingly powerful; the fish being so completely digested in an hour, that the bird is ready to swallow a new meal. Those parts of the food that are nearest the bottom of the stomach are dissolved, and make way for the rest, which soon undergoes the same process.

Immediately after the arrival of this species of the tern, the pairing season commences; during which each female chooses a warm bed of sand, where she deposits three eggs, of a size far superior to what might be expected from a bird of her dimensions. The eggs of the tern are of different colours, some grey, others brown, and some of a greenish hue. The manner in which their eggs are hatched is as singular as their external appearance, for it is accomplished chiefly by the heat of the sun. If the weather be dry and warm, the female seldom hatches by day, but resumes her maternal functions regularly about the time that the influence of the sun begins to decrease.

The young are not all protruded at the same time, but in the order in which the eggs were laid; and at the interval of a day between each of the three birds. The young terns are no sooner protruded from the shell, than they leave the nest, and follow the parent bird, who supplies them with small morsels of the fish upon which they themselves feed. During the whole period of incubation, the

parent birds display great solicitude for the safety of their eggs and their young. Should a person at this period approach their nest, both parents dart down from the air, and flutter about him, uttering all the while the most piercing screams, expressive at once of their fear, anxiety, and rage. These paternal cares soon cease; the young soon become capable of pecking their own food when provided for them. For a few days they are fed by the mother's bill; afterward, what food the parents provide, they bestow without even alighting upon the ground. Fond of indulging in their aerial excursions, they drop down the food upon their young, that are waiting below to receive it.

Terns are provided with very large wings, and from this very circumstance the young are not soon able to fly, their wings not being strong enough to accommodate them for flight. In this circumstance they resemble the swallow, which remains longer in the nest than any bird of its size, and leaves it more completely feathered. During this period of nonage, the parent terns continue to shower down plentiful supplies of food to their young, who at a very early period begin to dispute for their prey, displaying that insatiable gluttony which characterizes their race. The colour of the first plumage is a whitish-grey; the true colour is not obtained till after the first moulting.

12. *Sterna minuta*, or lesser tern.—Body white; back hoary; front and eye-brows white.—It is found in divers parts of Europe and America; and is of small size.

13. *Sterna striata*, or striated tern.—White; hind-head and nape black; body above and wings with transverse black streaks. The bill is black; the legs are of a lead colour.—It inhabits Zealand.

14. *Sterna vittata*, or wreathed tern.—Cinereous; crown black; surrounded with white; the rump, vent, and tail, are white; the bill is red, and legs tawny. A variety has a cinereous tail, with white spots.—It is found in Nativity island.

15. *Sterna spadicea*, or brown tern.—Reddish-brown; vent white; bill and claws black; tail and quill-feathers dusky; the secondaries tipped with white.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is fifteen inches long.

16. *Sterna fuscata*, or dusky tern.—Body blackish, without spots; bill brown, and legs red.—It is found in the island of Hispaniola.

17. *Sterna fessipes*.—Black; back cinereous; belly white; legs reddish.—It inhabits in different parts of Europe and America; and is about ten inches long.

STERNAGE, *s.* The steerage or stern. *Not used.*

STERNBERG, a town of the Austrian States, in Moravia; 13 miles north-north-east of Olmutz. It is well built, with large houses, wide streets, and a spacious square. It contains 8000 inhabitants, employed chiefly in manufacturing woollen, linen, and canvas. It is a thriving place, and its population has for some time back progressively increased. Lat. 49. 40. N. long. 17. 13. E.

STERNBERG, a small town of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, principality of Wenden, near a small lake. It contains 1300 inhabitants, and is, alternately with Malchin, the place of assembling for the diets of the grand duchy; 18 miles south-east of Wismar.

STERNBERG, a small town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg; 23 miles south-east of Custrin, and 20 east of Frankfurt. Population 800.

STERNDAL, EARL, a township of England in Derbyshire; 5½ miles south-east of Buxton.

STERNE (Laurence), the son of Roger Sterne, a lieutenant in the army, and grandson of Sterne, archbishop of York, was born at Clonmell, in Ireland, in November 1713, put to school at Halifax in 1722, and entered at Jesus College, Cambridge, in 1732, with a view to the church. After he had taken orders, he was presented to the living of Sutton, in Yorkshire, through the interest of his uncle, Dr. Sterne, prebendary of York. In 1741 he was married, and by the same uncle's interest obtained a prebend in York cathedral.

thedral. By means of his wife, he became possessed of the living of Stillingfleet, where, and also at Sutton, the place of his residence, he performed duty for nearly twenty years. During this time, as he informs us, he amused himself with books, painting, fiddling, and shooting. About this time, the only production of his pen was a little piece entitled "The History of a Watch-Coat," printed, but not published, about 1738, describing with humour some squabbles among the dignitaries of York, after the manner of Swift. In 1759 appeared two volumes of his "Life and Opinions of Tristram Shandy," a kind of peculiar novel, which was much read, and generally admired. Some commended and some censured it. However, it secured profit to himself, as it was bought by the booksellers, and as it was the means of procuring for him the presentation of the curacy of Coxwold. Several volumes appeared in succession, and the last, or 9th, in 1766. This is an eccentric performance, formed upon the idea of a kind of self-taught philosopher, in the person of an elderly country gentleman, full of odd and singular notions, which he displays chiefly in the plan he forms for the education of an only son, commencing from, or rather before, his birth. The work is original in its composition and style; and abounds with a variety of characters, observations, and exquisite touches of the pathetic, intermixed with a sufficient quantity of the indelicate and indecorous. It was new in its plan and execution, and though it has been often imitated, nothing strictly resembling it has yet appeared. In 1768, our author published another work, entitled "Sentimental Journey," in 2 vols. 12mo., which exceeded the former publication in popularity. With regard to purity and decorum, it is chargeable with the same, though perhaps not with equal blemishes with the former. In 1760, availing himself of his fame, he published two volumes of "Sermons of Mr. Yorick," and two more in 1766. Sterne had long contended with a tendency to pulmonary consumption, which at length became a confirmed disease, and terminated his life in March 1768. He left a widow and a daughter. The latter married a French gentleman, and published, in 1775, a collection of her father's letters, in 3 vols. 12mo., to which were prefixed "Memoirs of his Life and Family." In the same year, an anonymous editor published "Letters from Yorick and Eliza," which were regarded as an authentic correspondence of Sterne with Mrs. Draper, an East Indian lady.

STERNFIELD, a parish of England, in Suffolk, near Saxmundham.

STERNLY, *adv.* [stɛrnlice, Sax.] In a stern manner; severely; truculently.

Sternly he pronounc'd
The rigid interdiction. *Milton.*

STERNNESS, *s.* Severity of look.

Of stature large, and eke of courage bold,
That sons of men amaz'd their *sternness* to behold.
Spenser.

Severity or harshness of manners,

I have *sternness* in my soul enough
To hear of soldiers' work. *Dryden.*

STERNOMANTIS [στερνομαντις, Gr.], a designation given to the Delphian priestess, more usually called Pythia.

STERNOMANTIS is also used for any one that had a prophesying demon with him.

STERNON, or, more usually STERNUM, *s.* [στερνον, Gr.] The breast-bone.—A soldier was shot in the breast through the *sternon*. *Wiseman.*

STERNOPTYX, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes, of the order Apodes, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—Head obtuse, teeth very minute; no gill-membrane; the body is compressed, without apparent scales; breast carinate, folded; belly pellucid. A single species only is mentioned by Gmelin, viz. —

Sternoptyx diaphana.—This is found in the American

seas: it is small, compressed, truncate before, narrowed and silvery behind. The eyes are large, and of an amber colour; the mouth is perpendicular; the tongue thick and rough; the upper lip is short, lower perpendicular, with four semi-circular depressed cavities from the ridge, and three others under the aperture of the gills; the aperture is oblique, with soft covers; the folds of the breast form a pellucid ridge; the back is of a greenish-brown colour, gibbous behind the fin, with a double ridge diverging towards the nostrils; it has no lateral line; the dorsal fin with an oblique, strong, spinous, immoveable ray, joined to which is a membrane very finely-toothed at the edge: pectoral fins of a fine amber colour; tail bifid.

STERNUTATION, *s.* [sternutatio, Lat.] The act of sneezing.

STERNUTATIVE, *adj.* [sternutatif, Fr., from *sternuto*, Lat.] Having the quality of provoking to sneeze.

STERNUTATORY, *s.* [sternutatoire, Fr., from *sternuto*, Lat.] Medicine that provokes to sneeze.

STERQUILINOUS, *adj.* [sterquilinum, Lat.; a dung-hill.] Mean; dirty; paltry. *Not in use.*

To STERVE, *v. n.* [stærppian, Sax.; *sterfen*, Germ.] To perish. Spenser often uses it, for the sake of his rhyme, instead of *starve*. It is also used by Chaucer. *Obsolete.*

Seven moneths he so her kept in bitter smart,
Because his sinful lust she would not serve,
Untill such time as noble Britomart
Released her, that else was like to *sterve*:
Through cruel knife that her deare heart did kerve. *Spenser.*

STERZINGEN, a small town of the Austrian states, in the Tyrol, at the foot of Mount Brenner. It contains 800 inhabitants, has a manufacture of sword blades, and in the neighbourhood a silver mine; 10 miles north-west of Brixen.

STESICHORUS, a Greek lyric poet, was born at Himera, in Sicily, and flourished about the year B.C. 612, being a person of some consequence in his native city; and he is said to have died in the year B.C. 556. His works were numerous, and much esteemed by the ancients. They were composed in the Doric dialect, but they have all perished, except a few fragments, amounting to 50 or 60 lines, printed in the collection of Fulvius Ursinus, Ant. 1568. To him we owe the first introduction into the ode of the triple division of strophe, antistrophe, and epode, which were called in a Greek proverb "the three things of Stesichorus," from which he is said to have derived his name, as signifying "placer of the chorus."

STETTEN, a large village of Germany, in Bavaria, not far from Augsburg, on a small lake also called Stetten, with 1100 inhabitants.

STETTEN AM KALTENMARK, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, in a rocky district called the Hart. Population 1000.

STETTEN IM REMSTHAL, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Stutgard, with 1600 inhabitants.

STETTEN UNTERM HEUCHELBERG, another small town of Wirtemberg; 11 miles west-by-south of Heilbronn. Population 1000.

STETTIN, a large town of the Prussian states, the capital of Pomerania, is situated on the Oder, about 60 miles from the Baltic. It stands on an eminence on the left bank of the Oder, which is divided here into four streams. Opposite to it, and connected by a long bridge over the main stream, is the part of the town called Lastadic. Stettin, including its three suburbs, contains 21,000 inhabitants, part of whom are descendants of French Protestant refugees. It has five gates, and several small squares. Of the public buildings the principal are the castle, the government house, the arsenal, the barracks, the hospitals, the exchange, the theatre, the public library. The government offices are in the castle. The majority of the inhabitants are Lutherans; and there is here an academical gymnasium, with several professors, and two assistants, who hold classes of divinity, law, medicine,

as well as of philosophy, mathematics, the classical, and some modern languages. The town school has been united with this institution since 1805; but there are in the place several other seminaries; among others, a navigation school. The manufactures are very diversified, comprising woollens, lincens, cotton, leather, soap, and tobacco; but above all, ships' anchors, of which, as of ships and boats built here, there is a large export. Stettin is the great outlet for the manufactures of Silesia, and the import of colonial goods and foreign fabrics required by that province, as well as by Berlin and other towns in Brandenburg. The vessels, in general small, that visit this town annually, are about 1000, of which nearly one-fourth are the property of merchants of the place. The drawbacks on its trade are the difficulty of navigating the Oder, vessels drawing more than seven feet water being obliged to stop at Swinemunde, a small town at the mouth of the branch of the Oder called the Swine. Of the exports, the leading articles are linen, corn, and timber; of the imports, coffee, sugar, cotton, dye-woods, and wine.

Stettin is a place of strength, but fell on 29th October, 1806, without resistance, into the hands of the French. It was garrisoned by them after their disastrous retreat from Russia in 1812, but obliged to capitulate in October, 1813, when the Dutch troops belonging to the garrison hoisted the Orange cockade. The adjoining country, called formerly the duchy of Stettin, was ceded to Sweden by the peace of Westphalia, but seized by the Prussians in the misfortunes of the latter years of Charles XII.; 80 miles north-north-east of Berlin. Lat. 53. 25. 36. N. long. 14. 45. E.

STETTIN, a government or large division of the Prussian states, comprising the middle part of Pomerania, beginning at the river Peene, and extending eastwards to a few miles beyond the Bega. Its area is computed at 6625 square miles, and its population at about 300,000. It is divided into the following 13 circles, viz., Randow, Anclam, Demmin, Usedom, Wollin, Greifenhagen, Pyritz, Saatzig, Naugard-Daber, Flemming, Greifenberg, Osten-Blucher, and Bork. See the proper names enumerated in this.

STETTIN, New, a small town of Pomerania, in the government of Coslin, with 1800 inhabitants, and a gymnasium; 41 miles south-by-east of Coslin, and 14 south-by-west of Baldenburg.

STEUART (Sir James), was born in 1712, and after a regular course of education at Edinburgh, devoted himself to the study of the law. In conformity to the fashion of the times he undertook a foreign tour, and having spent five years abroad, returned to his native country, an accomplished gentleman, in 1740. About three years after his return he married Lady Frances, the daughter of the Earl of Wemyss, and retired to his seat at Coltness. Having formed an acquaintance with the Pretender at Rome, he renewed his connection with him at Edinburgh, in the year 1745; but the hopes of the exiled prince being frustrated, Sir James removed to France, and remained at Sedan until the year 1754. In the following year he removed to Flanders, and began to communicate to the public the fruits of his literary labours. In 1757, during his residence at Frankfurt-under-the-Maine, he published "A Vindication of Newton's Chronology;" and having settled in the same year at Tubingen, in Germany, he there published his "Treatise on German Coins," in the German language. This was followed, in 1761, by "A Dissertation on the Doctrine and Principles of Money, as applied to the German Coin." Under assurances of protection in his native country, he settled at Coltness in 1763; and in this retirement he probably finished his work entitled "Inquiry into the Principles of Political Economy," on which he had bestowed the labour of eighteen years. In 1769 he again presented to the public, under the name of Robert Frame, "Considerations on the Interests of the County of Lanark." His full pardon passed the great seal in 1771; and in the following year he printed the "Principles of Money applied to the present State of the Coin of Bengal." He also wrote "A Plan for introducing an Uniformity of Weights and Mea-

asures," published after his death; and engaging in metaphysical speculations, he published "Observations on Beattie's Essay on Truth;" "Critical Remarks on the Atheistical Falsehoods in Mirabaud's System of Nature," 1779; and soon after, "A Dissertation concerning the Motive of Obedience to the Law of God." He died in November, 1780, at the age of 67. His collected works were printed at London in 1805, in six vols. 8vo.

STEUUBEN, a post township of the United States, in Washington county, Maine, on the Naraguagus; 311 miles north-east of Boston. Population 552.

STEUUBEN, a county of the United States, in New York, bounded north by Ontario county, east by Seneca lake and Tioga county, south by Pennsylvania, and west by Allegany county. Population 7246. Chief town, Bath.

STEUUBEN, a township of the United States, in Oneida county, New York. Baron Steuben died in this town in 1796, and here his remains lie buried, without any monument.

STEUUBENVILLE, a post town of the United States, and capital of Jefferson county, Ohio, situated on the Ohio. It is a very flourishing town, regularly laid out, and contained, in 1817, 453 houses, 3 churches, an academy, 2 banks, a market-house, a woollen manufactory, the machinery of which is put in motion by a steam-engine; a steam paper-mill; a flour-mill, and cotton manufactory, driven by steam power; a printing-office, from which is issued a weekly newspaper; an iron foundry, 27 mercantile stores, and 16 public inns. The progress of this place has been uncommonly rapid. In 1805, there were scarcely any houses where this town now stands, 69 miles by the river, below Pittsburg, 38 by land; 109 above Marietta, 25 north-east of St. Clairsville, and 150 east-by-north of Columbus. Population in 1810, 800; and in 1817, 2032. Lat. 40. 25. N. long. 8. 40. W.

STEVEN, *s.* [stɛpən, Sax.] A cry, or loud clamour. *Obsolete.*

Ne sooner was out, but swifter than thought,
Fast by the hide, the wolf Lowder caught;
And had not Roffy renne to the steven,
Lowder had been slain thilke same even.

Spenser.

STEVENAGE, a village, of England, formerly a market town, in the county of Hertford, pleasantly situated on the great north road, on a dry sandy hill. It consists of one large street, and several smaller ones, and contains a free school, and a small church. The name of the town was anciently written Stigerhaught. The manor was given by Edward the Confessor, to Westminster abbey, to which it was annexed, till Henry VIII. converted the abbey to a bishop's see, after its dissolution by Edward VI. Stevenage, with Ashwell and other manors in the county, became by grant the property of the see of London, to which they have since belonged. From James I. it received the grant of a weekly market and three annual fairs; but the neighbouring towns of Baldock and Hitchin have tended greatly to its decay. Nearly a mile southward are six large barrows, some of which have been opened, but nothing of consequence discovered. They appear to be composed of gravel and fine clay, and have been thought, from the titles of Dane and Mundane, which occur in this part of the county, to be of Danish origin; 12½ miles north of Hertford, and 31½ north-west of London.

STEVENSBURG, a post town of the United States, in Culpeper county, Virginia.

STEVENSTON, a considerable village in the district of Cunninghame, in Ayrshire. It contains 1777 inhabitants, among whom weavers and colliers are the most numerous classes. It is the seat of a small parish, of which the population amounts to 3607, a considerable part of the town of Saltcoats being situated within it. It is a very ancient place, being mentioned in charters as far back as in 1240. It is situated nearly a mile east from Saltcoats, and 5 west-by-north of Irvine.

STEVENSVILLE, a post village of the United States, in King and Queen county, Virginia.

STEVENSWAERT,

STEVENSWAERT, or **FORT ST. ETIENNE**, a village and fortress of the Netherlands, in the province of Limburg, on the Maese, with only 900 inhabitants; 19 miles north-east of Maestrcht.

STEVENTON, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 5 miles east of Whitechurch.

STEVENTON, or **STEVIINGTON**, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Bedford. Population 436.

STEVENTON, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 5 miles south-south-west of Abingdon. Population 584.

STEVIA [so named by Cavanilles, in memory of Peter James Steve, or Esteve, an eminent physician of Valencia], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-æqualis, natural order of compositæ discoideæ, corymbiferae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Common calyx simple, oblong, of several, nearly equal, leaves, in a simple row. Corolla: compound, uniform, discoid. Florets all uniform, perfect, fertile, funnel-shaped, with a five-cleft spreading limb, not numerous. Stamina: filaments in each floret five, capillary; anthers united into a cylindrical tube. Pistil: germen oblong; style thread-shaped; stigmas two, long and slender. Pericarp none, except the permanent upright calyx. Seeds solitary to each floret, oblong; down chaffy, or partly bristly. Receptacle small, naked.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle naked; down chaffy; calyx cylindrical, of a simple row of leaves. This genus is distinguished from eupatorium and ageratum, by its simple row of calyx-leaves. From the former, moreover, the chaffy seed-down keeps it clearly distinct.

1. *Stevia linearis*, or linear stevia.—Stems shrubby. Leaves simple, linear, entire. Seed-down of five lanceolate scales.—Native of New Spain.

2. *Stevia eupatorio*, or three-ribbed stevia.—Stem herbaceous. Leaves lanceolate, nearly entire, three-ribbed; flowers crowded; seed-down of short scales, with intermediate bristles.—Native of Mexico.

3. *Stevia salicifolia*, or willow-leaved stevia.—Leaves lanceolate, serrated; tapering and entire at each end. Seed-down of two awl-shaped bristles.—Native of Mexico.

4. *Stevia serrata*, or serrated stevia.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, most serrated towards the point. Seed-down of three short scales, with intermediate bristles.—Native of Mexico.

5. *Stevia pedata*, or compound-leaved stevia.—Leaves pedate, entire. Seed-down of several short equal scales.—Native of Mexico.

STEVIN (Simon), was born at Bruges after the middle of the 16th century, but the year of his birth is not ascertained. He was held in great estimation by Maurice, Prince of Orange, whose own taste led him to respect the mathematical and mechanical acquirements of Stevin, and he was employed in Holland as an inspector of the dykes. He seems to have been the first person who discovered the true proportion between the power and the weight on an inclined plane, which he accurately determined in all the different cases. In hydrostatics he was also no less an adept than in mechanics; and to him we owe the discovery of the famous paradox, that a fluid contained in a tube decreasing upwards, acts with the same pressure on the base as if the tube were every where uniform. He was also the inventor of a sailing-boat, which was moved entirely by the impulse of the wind, and with such velocity, that it conveyed passengers from Scheveling to Putten, though a distance of about forty miles, in the space of two hours.

It is also asserted by Swertius and Valerius Andreas, that Stevin could raise any weight with a small power, by a simple machine, called by the latter, "pantacrator." Stevin died at Leyden, according to Weidler, in 1633. His works are, "A Book of Arithmetic, in French," printed by Plantin, at Antwerp, in 1585, 8vo., and reprinted with his Algebra, in Flemish, in 1605; "Problematum Geometricorum, Lib. V." 4to.; and various other treatises in Flemish, translated into Latin by Snellius, under the title of "Hypomnemata Mathematica," Lugd. Bat 1608, 4 tom. fol., of which there is a French edition, with curious notes and additions by Albert

Girard, 1634, 6 vols. folio. The first contains arithmetic and algebra, with tables of interest; the second, cosmography, that is, the doctrine of triangles, geography, and astronomy; the third, practical geometry; the fourth, statics; the fifth, optics; and the sixth, castrametation, fortification by sluices, and general fortification. One of his treatises relates to the finding of harbours, and is entitled in the French edition, "Du Trouve-Port, ou la Manière de trouver les Havres," which was translated by Grotius into Latin verse, 1599, 4to. Montucla says, that none of Stevin's works contain any new things, except his Mechanics; but Dr. Hutton informs us, that his improvements in algebra were many and ingenious. *Hutton's Dict. and Mathematical Tracts.*

STEVIINGTON END, or **BARTLOW END**, a hamlet of England, in Essex; 5 miles north-east of Saffron Waldon.

STEUSSLINGEN, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, not far from Ehingen. Population 1100.

To STEW, v. a. [*estuver*, Fr.; *stoven*, Dutch.] To seethe any thing in a slow moist heat, with little water.—I bruised my skin with playing at sword and dagger with a master of fence, three veney's for a dish of *stew'd* prunes. *Shakspeare.*

To STEW, v. n. To be seethed in a slow moist heat.

STEW, s. [*estuve*, Fr.; *stufa*, Ital.; *estufa*, Span.; *stufwa*, Su. Goth.] A bagnio; a hot-house.—The Lydians were inhibited by Cyrus to use any armour, and give themselves to baths and *stews*. *Abbot.*—A brothel; a house of prostitution. This signification is by some imputed to this, that there were licensed brothels near the *stews* or fish-ponds in Southwark; but probably *stew*, like bagnio, took a bad signification from bad use.

I have seen corruption boil and bubble,
Till it o'er-run the *stew*.

Shakspeare.

With them there are no *stews*, no dissolute house, no curtesans. *Bacon.*—Making his own house a *stews*, a bordel, and a school of lewdness, to instil the rudiments of vice into the unwary flexible years of his poor children. *South.*—A prostitute. *Unused.*—It was so plotted betwixt the lady her husband, and Bristol, that instead of that beauty he had a notorious *stew* sent him. *Sir A. Weldon.*—[*stowen*, Dutch, *to store*.] A store-pond; a small pond where fish are kept for the table.

Full many a fat partrich had he in mewe,
And many a breme, and many a lucre in *stew*. *Chaucer.*

Meat stewed: as, a *stew* of veal, beef, or the like.—Confusion: as when the air is full of dust, smoke, or steam; which is a northern expression, as Grose observes.

STEWWARD, s. [*steward*, Sax.; Dr. Johnson. — From *stivardur*, Cimbr. of *stia*, *work*, and *vardur*, *warden*, *overlooker*.—One who manages the affairs of another.

There sat yclad in red,
Down to the ground, a comely personage,
That in his right hand a white rod managed;
He *steward* was, high diet, ripe of age,
And in demeanour sober, and in council sage. *Spenser.*

An officer of state.
The Duke of Suffolk is the first, and claims
To be high *steward*. *Shakspeare.*

To STEWARD, v. a. To manage as a steward. *Unused.*—Did he thus requite his mother's care in *stewarding* the state? *Fuller.*

STEWARDSHIP, s. The office of a steward.

The Earl of Worcester
Hath broke his staff, resign'd his *stewardship*. *Shakspeare.*

STEWART (Matthew, D.D.), professor of mathematics in the University of Edinburgh, was born in the year 1717. As soon as he left school in 1734, being intended for the church, he was placed at the University of Glasgow, where his application and proficiency engaged the peculiar notice and friendship of the two eminent professors, Dr. Hutcheson and Dr. Simson

Dr. Simson. In 1741, Dr. Simson recommended him to the celebrated Maclaurin, whose lectures he attended, and by which he signally profited. At this time he kept up a regular correspondence with Professor Simson, communicating to him the progress of his studies, and his geometrical discoveries, which were even at this time various and important, and receiving in return interesting information with regard to the *Loci Plani* and *Porisms* of Euclid. Both the professor and his student prosecuted their investigations of these abstruse subjects in different directions, but with similar success. The result of Mr. Stewart's enquiries was the discovery of those curious propositions, which he published in 1746, under the title of "General Theorems," and which gave him high rank, at an early age, among eminent geometers. The death of Maclaurin, in 1746, afforded an opportunity for his being advanced to the mathematical chair in the University of Edinburgh, so that he became the successor of that eminent mathematician and philosopher in September, 1747. His new office produced some change in the direction of his mathematical studies; and led him to make an application of geometry to those problems, for the solutions of which the algebraic calculus had been employed. The first specimen of his success in this way was the resolutions of Kepler's problem, founded on a general property of curves, which, perhaps, had never been before observed. This was published in the second volume of the "Essays of the Philosophical Society of Edinburgh," for 1756. The first volume of the same collection contains some other propositions, relating to the subject of porisms, and which are demonstrated with all the elegance and simplicity peculiar to the ancient analysis. Attached to the geometry of the ancients, Mr. Stewart had formed a plan of introducing its strict and simple mode of demonstration into the higher parts of the mixed mathematics; and in the prosecution of this plan he composed his "Tracts Physical and Mathematical," which were published in 1761. Mr. Stewart, in the first of these tracts, lays down the doctrine of centripetal forces in a series of propositions demonstrated, the quadrature of curves being admitted, with the utmost rigour, and requiring no previous knowledge of mathematics, except the elements of plane geometry and of conic sections. In the three following tracts the author proposed, in the same method, to determine the effect of those forces which disturb the motions of a secondary planet; and from these it was his design to deduce, not only the theory of the moon, but the sun's distance from the earth. But his declining health did not allow him to pursue the arduous investigation of these subjects. In the year 1763, when the result of the observations of the transit of Venus had been unsatisfactory to astronomers, Dr. Stewart determined to apply the principles he had laid down to this subject; and accordingly in this year he published his "Essay on the Sun's Distance," where, from actual computation, the parallax of the sun was found to be no more than 6."9, and consequently his distance nearly 29,875 semi-diameters of the earth, or about 118,541,428 English miles, a distance so much exceeding all former estimates as to excite surprise, and to produce a severe examination of the principles on which the calculation was founded. This "Essay" was the last work which Dr. Stewart published; but he declined engaging in any controversy on the subject. Some months before he published his "Essay," he presented to the public another work adapted to promote the study of the ancient geometry, and entitled "Propositiones Geometricæ more Veterum demonstratæ." Soon after the year 1763, the health of Dr. Stewart began to decline, and he therefore retired into the country. During the leisure of his advanced life, he took up the subject of the analogy between the circle and hyperbola; and he left among his papers some curious approximations to the areas of both. At length, the state of his health would not allow him to prosecute study even as an amusement; and he closed his honourable life in the month of January, 1785, at the age of 68 years. He left a son, the present distinguished Dugald Stewart.

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STEWART, a county of the United States, on the north side of West Tennessee. Population 4262, including 778 slaves.

STEWART'S ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the South Pacific ocean, discovered by Captain Hunter in the year 1791. They are five in number, low, and of no great extent. Lat. 8. 26. S. long. 163. 18. E.

STEWART, PORT, a harbour on the west coast of North America, so called by Vancouver. It is about half a league in length, and three quarters of a mile in breadth, and is from 6 to 9 fathoms deep. Its south point of entrance is in Lat. 55. 38. N. long. 228. 24. E.

STEWARTTOWN, a pleasant and thriving town of Scotland, situated on the Annock water, in the district of Cunninghame, in Ayrshire. It is the seat of an extensive parish. The chief manufactures are bonnet-making, for which it has long been famed, and other branches of weaving; 4 miles north-by-west of Kilmarnock, and 8 north-east of Irvine.

STEWARTSTOWN, a neat little village of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone; 5 miles north-north-east of Dungannon, and 77 north-east of Dublin.

STEWARTSTOWN, a post township of the United States in Coos county, New Hampshire, on the Connecticut; 40 miles north of Lancaster. Population 186.

STEWISH, *adj.* Suiting the brothel or stew.—Rhymed in rules of *stewish* ribaldry. *Bp. Hall.*

STEWKLEY, a parish of England in Buckinghamshire; 6 miles east-by-south of Winslow. Population 802.

STEWIPAN, *s.* A pan used for stewing.

STEWTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles east of Louth.

STEWY POINT, a cape on the coast of Labrador. Lat. 58. N. long. 61. 40. W

STEYER, a town of Upper Austria, and the chief place of the circle of the Traun, is situated at the confluence of the rivers Steyer and Enns, which separate the town from its two suburbs. It is a neat place, of considerable size, being about 3 miles in circumference, and containing above 10,000 inhabitants. Well built houses, pleasant gardens, and a number of country seats in the environs, impress a stranger with the idea of comfort on the part of the inhabitants. The town has some manufacturing establishments of cottons and woollens; but they are insignificant when compared with those of iron, which are said to give employment to above 12,000 men in the town and neighbourhood, and afford business to a number of mercantile houses. The largest establishment is a manufactory of fire arms, for account of government. Among the other articles are knives and forks, kitchen utensils of all kinds, sword blades, reaping hooks, and scythes. Steyer was originally a castle, built about the end of the 10th century, to check the inroads of the Magyars. On the expulsion of that formidable horde from the Austrian states, houses were built round the castle, so as at last to form a town, which was for some time the capital of a duchy, and gave name to the province of Styria. Steyer has suffered repeatedly from fires; 92 miles west-by-south of Vienna, and 16 south-south-east of Lintz. Lat. 48. 4. 45. N. long. 14. 20. 5. E.

STEYER, a river of Upper Austria, which rises among the mountains of Styria, traverses the circle of the Traun, passes the town of Steyer, where it is joined by the Enns, and after a farther course of 15 miles, falls into the Danube;

STEYERBERG, a small town of the north of Germany, in Hanover, near a hill of the same name; 9 miles south-west of Nienberg.

STEYERECK, a small town of Upper Austria, near the Danube; 4 miles below Lintz.

STEYL, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the duchy of Berg, near the Roer; 2 miles south-east of Essen, and 19 north-east of Dusseldorf. Population 1200.

STEYNING, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Sussex. It is situated in a healthy air, at the foot of a lofty hill, near the river Adur, and consists of

four transverse streets, which are but poorly built. The church, of which the nave only remains, is a building of great antiquity, and contains some very curious specimens of early Norman architecture. A free grammar school was founded here about the middle of the 16th century. Steyning is a borough by prescription, and sends two members to parliament, elected by the householders and inhabitants within the borough not receiving alms. The number of voters is about 80, and the returning officer is the constable, who is besides the chief magistrate of the place, and is appointed at the court leet of the lord of the manor. The members of this place were formerly elected in conjunction with Bramber, and intermitted till 31st Henry VI.; but at present each town is entitled to return two representatives, although one part of Bramber is in the centre of Steyning. At a very remote period, a Benedictine priory for monks existed here, founded by Edward the Confessor. Steyning derives its name from Steyne-street, an ancient road which passed through this part of the county. Market on Wednesday; a monthly one for cattle, and three annual fairs. The Michaelmas fair is very considerable for Welsh and other cattle, sheep, hogs, horses, wheat, seed, &c. The others are pretty large; 15 miles west of Lewes, and 51 south-by-west of London.

STEZYCA, a small town of Poland, on the Vistula; 11 miles south-south-east of Warsaw.

STHENIA, [from *σθενος*, *strength*], a word of great import in the Brunonian theory of medicine, implying an inflammatory diathesis, and standing in opposition to *asthenia*, or debility. See **PATHOLOGY**.

STHENIA [*Σθενια*], a festival of Argos, supposed to be kept in honour of Minerva, surnamed *Σθενιας*, [from *σθενος*], *strength*.

STHENIUS, denoting powerful or strong, one of the epithets of Jupiter; as *Sthenius*, or robust, was one of the epithets of Minerva.

STIA, a small town of Tuscany, in the province of Florence.

STIBADIUM, among the Romans, a low kind of table-couch, or bed of a circular form, which succeeded to the *triclina*, and was of different sizes, according to the number of guests they were designed for. They were called *hexaclina*, *octaclina*, or *enneaclina*, according as they held six, eight, or nine guests, and so of any other number.

STIBBARD, a parish in Norfolk; 5 miles east-by-south of Fakenham.

STIBIAL, *adj.* [from *stibium*, Lat.] Antimonial. *Un-used*.

STIBIARIAN, *s.* [from *stibium*.] A violent man; from the violent operation of antimony. *Obsolete*.—This *stibiarian* presseth audaciously upon the royal throne, and after some sacrifice, tendereth bitter pill of sacrilege and cruelty; but when the same was rejected because it was violent, then he presents his antimonial potion. *White*.

STIBINGTON, a parish in Huntingdonshire; 8 miles north-west of Stilton.

STIBIUM, *s.* [Latin.] Antimony.

Ceruse nor *stibium* can prevail,
No art repair where age makes fail.

Collop.

STICCADOS, *s.* [*sticadis*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsworth*.

STICH, *s.* [*στιχος*, Gr.] In some ancient Greek New Testaments, at the close of the Epistles, there were some numeral letters added, signifying how many *stichs* were in the Epistle. What these *stichs* were, the learned Suicerus informs us. A *stich* in poetry was a verse, whatsoever kinds or parts it may consist of: a verse is a measured line, whether it be iambick, heroic, or any other length. In rural affairs, a *stich* is an order or rank of trees; and a *verse* a furrow, or as much as the plowman turns up in one line. In military matters it is an order of ten men.

STICHOMANTIA, *στιχομαντεια*, in Antiquity, a sort of divination by verses, (commonly those of the Sibylline oracles), which being wrote on little pieces of paper, and

thrown into a vessel, the first drawn out was supposed to contain the will of the gods.

STICHO'METRY, *s.* [*στιχος* and *μετρον*, Gr.; *stichometric*, Fr.] A catalogue of books of Scripture, to which is added the number of verses which each book contains. *Chambers*.

STICK, *s.* [*sticca*, Sax., from *stican*; as *sticka*, Swed. a stake, from the verb *sticka*, to pierce, to stick.] A piece of wood small and long.

Some strike from clashing flints their fiery seed,
Some gather *sticks* the kindled flames to feed. *Dryden*.

Many instruments long and slender are called *sticks*; a thrust; a stab.

To **STICK**, *v. a.* preterite *stuck*; participle pass. *stuck*. [*stican*, *stician*, Saxon.] To fasten on so as that it may adhere.

Two troops in fair array one moment show'd;
The next, a field with fallen bodies strow'd:
The points of spears are *stuck* within the shield,
The steeds without their riders scour the field,
The knights unhors'd.

Dryden.

To **STICK**, *v. n.* To adhere; to unite itself by its tenacity or penetrating power.—The green caterpillar breedeth in the inward parts of roses not blown, where the dew *sticketh*. *Bacon*.—To be inseparable; to be united with any thing.—Generally in an ill sense.—In their quarrels they proceed to calling names, till they light upon one that is sure to *stick*. *Swift*.—To rest upon the memory painfully.—The going away of that which had staid so long, doth yet *stick* with me. *Bacon*.—To stop; to lose motion.

I shudder at the name!

My blood runs backward, and my faltering tongue
Sticks at the sound.

Smith.

To resist emission.

Wherefore could I not pronounce amen?
I had most need of blessing, and amen
Stuck in my throat.

Shakespeare.

To be constant to; to adhere with firmness: sometimes with *to*, and sometimes with *by*.—The knave will *stick by* thee, I can assure thee that: he will not out, he is true bred. *Shakespeare*.—Some *stick to* you, and some to t'other side. *Dryden*.—To be troublesome by adhering; with *by* or *to*.—I am satisfied to trifle away my time, rather than let it *stick by* me. *Pope*.—To remain; not to be lost.—Proverbial sentences are formed into a verse, whereby they *stick* upon the memory. *Watts*.—To dwell upon; not to forsake.—If the matter be knotty, the mind must stop and buckle to it, and *stick* upon it with labour and thought, and not leave it till it has mastered the difficulty. *Locke*.—To cause difficulties or scruple.—This is the difficulty that *sticks* with the most reasonable of those who, from conscience, refuse to join with the Revolution. *Swift*.—To scruple; to hesitate.—Every one without hesitation supposes eternity, and *sticks* not to ascribe infinity to duration. *Locke*.—To be stopped; to be unable to proceed.

He threw: the trembling weapon pass'd
Through nine bull-hides, each under other plac'd
On his broad shield, and *stuck* within the fast.

Dryden.

To be embarrassed; to be puzzled.—They will *stick* long at part of a demonstration, for want of perceiving the connection of two ideas, that, to one more exercised, is as visible as any thing. *Locke*.

To **STICK out**. To be prominent with deformity.—His flesh is consumed away that it cannot be seen, and his bones that were not seen *stick out*. *Job*.

To **STICK out**. To refuse compliance.

To **STICK**, *v. a.* [*stican*, Sax.; *sticken*, Teut.] To stab; to pierce with a pointed instrument.—The Heruli, when their old kindred fell sick, *stuck* them with a dagger. *Greuv*.—To fix upon a pointed body; as, he *stuck* the fruit upon his knife; to fasten by transfixion.

Her

Her death!

I'll stand betwixt: it first shall pierce my heart:
We will be *stuck* together on his dart.

Dryden.

To set with something pointed.

A lofty pile they rear;
The fabrick's front with cypress twigs they strew,
And *stick* the sides with boughs of baleful yew.

Dryden.

STICKFORD, a parish in Lincolnshire; 5 miles south-west of Spilsby.

STICKINESS, *s.* Adhesive quality; viscosity; glutinousness; tenacity.

STICKLAND, **WINTERBORNE**, a parish in Dorsetshire; 5 miles west-south-west of Blandford Forum.

To **STICKLE**, *v. n.* [from the practice of prize-fighters, formerly who placed seconds with staves or sticks to interpose occasionally.] To take part with one side or other.

Fortune, as she's wont, turn'd fickle,
And for the foe began to *stickle*.

Hudibras.

To contest; to altercate; to contend rather with obstinacy than vehemence.

Heralds *stickle*, who got who,
So many hundred years ago.

Hudibras.

To trim; to play fast and loose; to act a part between opposites.—When he sees half of the Christians killed, and the rest in a fair way of being routed, he *stickles* betwixt the remainder of God's host and the race of fiends. *Dryden.*

To **STICKLE**, *v. a.* To arbitrate. See Cotgrave in **V. ARBITRER**. "To *stickle*, to compound, to award, to adjudge by award."

Here Weever, as a flood affecting godly peace,
His place of speech resigns; and to the Muse refers
The hearing of the cause, to *stickle* all these stirs. *Drayton.*

STICKLEBAG, *s.* [Properly *stickleback* from *stick*, to prick; *pungitius*, Lat.] The smallest of fresh-water fish.—A little fish called a *sticklebag*, without scales, hath his body fenced with several prickles. *Walton.* See **GASTROSTEUS ACULEATUS**.

STICKLER, *s.* A sidesman to fencers; a second to a duellist; one who stands to judge a combat; an arbitrator.—Basilus, the judge, appointed *sticklers* and trumpets, whom the others should obey. *Sidney.*—An obstinate contender about any thing.—All place themselves in the list of the national church, though they are great *sticklers* for liberty of conscience. *Swift.*—A small officer who cut wood for the priory of Ederose within the king's parks of Clarendon. Rot. Parl. 1 Hen. 6. *Cowel.*

STICKNEY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 7 miles south-west of Spilsby.

STICKNEY, a small island on the south coast of New Holland, in Spencer's gulf.

STICKY, *adj.* Viscous; adhesive; glutinous.—Herbs which last longest are those of strong smell, and with a *sticky* stalk. *Bacon.*

STICTA, in Botany, from *στικτος*, *dotted*, alluding to the minute impressions on the under side of the frond; a name given by Schreber to one of the sections into which he proposes to divide the Linnæan genus of **LICHEN**; which see.

STIDD, a village of England, in Derbyshire, on the river Dove, south-west of Derby.

STIDDICOT, a hamlet in the parish of Titherington, Gloucestershire.

STIDDY, *s.* [*stedia*, Icel.] An anvil; also a smith's shop. *North.* See **STITHY**.

STIECHOWITZ, a small town in the interior of Bohemia, on the river Moldau; 15 miles south of Prague, and remarkable chiefly for its powder mills.

STIEGE, a small town of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick, with 900 inhabitants; 9 miles south of Blankenburg, on the Hartz.

STIEL, a village in the east of France, in Alsace, with 900 inhabitants.

STIENZ, a village in the north-west of the Netherlands in the province of Friesland, with 1200 inhabitants; 5 miles north-north-west of Leeuwarden.

STIERNHIELM (George), a learned Swede, was born in Dalecarlia, in the year 1598. Enjoying the friendship of Buræus, tutor to Gustavus Adolphus, he made great progress in literature and the sciences. Queen Christina treated him with respect, and nominated him antiquary of the kingdom; entrusted him also with the care of the public records, and conferring on him the title of "Custos Regni." In 1658 he was appointed by Charles X. provincial judge of Drontheim, in Norway; but when Drontheim was restored to Denmark, he became in 1661, a member of the council of war; and when the college of antiquities was established at Upsal, in 1666, he was appointed director. He died at Stockholm in 1672, at the age of 74. Stiernhielm was a man of great learning, and excelled in an extensive knowledge of languages. All languages, in his opinion, were derived from the Scythian, which he maintained to be older than the Hebrew itself. Among his numerous works were, "Magog Aramæo Gothicus, sive origines Vocabularum in Linguis pænia omnibus, ex Lingua Svetica veteri;" "Leges Vestrogothicae antiquæ, cum Præfatione et Indice Vocabulorum obscuriorum," Stock. 1663, fol.; "Ulphilas, seu Versio quatuor Evangeliorum Gothica, Literis Latinis quam Gothicis ediderat F. Junius, cum Versionibus parallelis, Sveogothica, Islandica, et vulgata Latina," &c. 1671; *ibid.* 4to.; "Epistola ad Olavum Verelium de Origine Vocabulorum Gothi et Svedi," prefixed to Hervaro Saga; Anticluverius, sive de Originibus Sveo-Gothicis," Holm. 1685, 8vo. "Archimedes Reformatus." He introduced hexameter or heroic verse, and Stiernhielm's "Hercules," is and will continue to be considered a masterpiece. *Gen. Biog.*

STIFF, *adj.* [ἄστυ, Sax.; *stiff*, Dan.; *styf*, Swed.; *stifur*, Icel; *stijf*, Dutch.] Rigid: inflexible; resisting flexure; not flaccid; not limber; not easily flexible; not pliant.

They, rising on *stiff* pinions, tower
The mid aerial sky.

Milton.

The glittering robe
Hung floating loose, or *stiff* with mazy gold. *Thomson.*

Not soft; not giving way; not fluid; not easily yielding to the touch.—Mingling with that oily liquor, they were wholly incorporate, and so grew more *stiff* and firm, making but one substance. *Burnet.*—Strong; not easily resisted.

On a *stiff* gale

The Theban swan extends his wings. *Denham.*

Hardy; stubborn; not easily subdued.

How *stiff* is my vile sense,
That I stand up, and have ingenious feeling
Of my huge sorrows! Better I were distract! *Shakspeare.*

Obstinate; pertinacious.—We neither allow unmeet nor purpose the *stiff* defence of any unnecessary custom heretofore received. *Hooker.*—Harsh; not written with ease; constrained.—*Stiff*, formal style. *Gondibert.*—Formal; rigorous in certain ceremonies; not disengaged in behaviour; starched; affected.—The French are open, familiar, and talkative; the Italians *stiff*, ceremonious, and reserved, *Addison.*—In Shakspeare it seems to mean strongly maintained, or asserted with good evidence.—This is *stiff* news. *Shakspeare.*

To **STIFFEN**, *v. a.* [ἄστυ, Sax.] To make stiff; to make inflexible; to make unpliant.

When the blast of war blows in our ears,
Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood,
Disguise fair nature with hard-favour'd rage. *Shakspeare.*

To make torpid.

Her *stiffening* grief,
Who saw her children slaughter'd all at once,
Was dull to mine. *Dryden and Lee.*

To **STIFFEN**, *v. n.* To grow stiff; to grow rigid: to become unpliant.

Aghast,

Aghast, astonish'd, and struck dumb with fear,
I stood; like bristles rose my *stiff'ning* hair.

Dryden.

To grow hard; to be hardened.

The tender soil, then *stiffening* by degrees,
Shut from the bounded earth the bounding seas.

Dryden.

To grow less susceptible of impression; to grow obstinate.

Some souls, we see,
Grow hard and *stiffen* with adversity.

Dryden.

STIFFHE'ARTED, *adj.* Obstinate; stubborn; contumacious.—They are impudent children and *stiffhearted*.
Ezek.

STIFFKEY, a parish in Norfolk, situated upon the coast;
3 miles-east of Wells.

STIFFLY, *adv.* Rigidly; inflexibly; stubbornly.—
In matters divine, it is still maintained *stiffly*, that they have
stiffnecked force. *Hooker.*—Strongly.

Hold, hold, my heart;
And you, my sinews, grow not instant old,
But bear me *stiffly* up.

Shakspeare.

STIFFNECKED, *adj.* Stubborn; obstinate; contumacious.

This *stiff neck'd* pride, nor art nor force can bend,
Nor high-flown hopes to reason's lure descend.

Denham.

STIFFNESS, *s.* [τῑμνησε, Sax.] Rigidity; inflexibility; hardness; inaptitude to bend.—The willow bows and recovers, the oak is stubborn and inflexible; and the punishment of that *stiffness* is one branch of the allegory. *L'Estrange.*—Inaptitude to motion; torpidness.

The pillows of this frame grow weak,
My sinews slacken, and an icy *stiffness*
Benumbs my blood.

Denham.

Tension; not laxity.

To try new shrouds, one mounts into the wind,
And one below their ease or *stiffness* notes.

Dryden.

Obstinacy; stubbornness; contumaciousness.—Firmness or *stiffness* of the mind is not from adherence to truth, but submission to prejudice. *Locke.*—Unpleasing formality; constraint.—All this religion sat easily upon him, without any of that *stiffness* and constraint, any of those forbidding appearances which disparage the actions of the sincerely pious. *Atterbury.*—Rigorousness; harshness.

There fill yourself with those most joyous sights;
But speak no word to her of these sad plights,
Which her too constant *stiffness* doth constrain.

Spenser.

Manner of writing, not easy but harsh and constrained.—Rules and critical observations improve a good genius, where nature leadeth the way, provided he is not too scrupulous; for that will introduce a *stiffness* and affectation, which are utterly abhorrent from all good writing. *Felton.*

STIFFORD, a parish in Essex; 1½ miles north-north-west of Gray's Thurrock.

To **STIFLE**, *v. a.* [*estoufer*, Fr.] To oppress or kill by closeness of air; to suffocate.

Where have you been broiling?
Among the crowd i' the abbey, where a finger
Cou'd not be wedg'd in more; I am *stifled*
With the mere rankness of their joy.

Shakspeare.

That part of the air that we draw out, left the more room for the *stifling* steams of the coals to be received into it. *Boyle.*—*Stifled* with kisses, a sweet death he dies. *Dryden.*—To keep in; to hinder from emission.—Whilst bodies become coloured by reflecting or transmitting this or that sort of rays more copiously than the rest, they stop and *stifle* in themselves the rays which they do not reflect or transmit. *Newton.*—To extinguish by hindering communication; to extinguish by artful or gentle means.—Every reasonable man will pay a tax with cheerfulness for *stifling* a civil war in its birth. *Addison.*—To suppress; to conceal.

If't prove thy fortune, Polydore, to conquer,
Trust me, and let me know thy love's success,
That I may ever after *stiffe* mine.

Otway.

To suppress artfully or fraudulently.—These conclusions have been acknowledged by the disputers themselves, till with labour and study they had *stified* their first convictions. *Rogers.*

STIFLE, *s.* The first joint above a horse's thigh next the buttock. *Mason.*

STIFFLEMENT, *s.* Something that might be suppressed or concealed.

Uttering nought else but idle *stiflements*,
Tunes without sense, words inarticulate.

Brewer.

To **STIGH**. See To **STRY**.

STIGLIANO, a small town in the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Basilicata, with 3500 inhabitants; 16 miles south of Tricarico.

STIGMA, *s.* [*stigma*, Lat.] A brand; a mark with a hot iron.—A mark of infamy.—Happy is it for him, that the blackest *stigma*, that can be fastened upon him, is that his robes were whiter than his brethren's. *Bp. Hall.*

STIGMA, a minute red speck in the skin, without any elevation of the cuticle, of the same nature as *petechia*, from which they differ only in magnitude.

STIGMA, in Botany and Vegetable Philosophy, an essential part of the Pistillum. See **BOTANY**.

STIGMATIC, or **STIGMATICAL**, *adj.* Branded or marked with some token of infamy, or deformity.

He is deformed, crooked, old and sere,
Vicious, ungentle, foolish, blunt, unkind,
Stigmatical in making, worse in mind.

Shakspeare.

STIGMATIC, *s.* A notorious lewd fellow, who hath been burnt with a hot iron; or beareth other marks about him, as a token of his punishment. *Bullokar.*—One on whom nature has set a mark of deformity. *Steevens.*—Foul *stigmatic*, that's more than thou canst tell. *Shakspeare.*

Thou art neither like thy sire nor dam;
But like a foul misshapen *stigmatic*,
Mark'd by the destinies to be avoided.

Shakspeare.

STIGMATICALLY, *adv.* With a mark of infamy or deformity.

If you spy any man that hath a look,
Stigmatically drawn, like to a fury. *Wonder of a Kingdom.*

To **STIGMATIZE**, *v. a.* [*stigmatiser*, Fr.] To mark with a brand; to disgrace with a note of reproach.—They had more need have their cheeks *stigmatised* with a hot iron, some of our Jezebels, instead of painting! *Burton.*

STILAGO, in Botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order triandria.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, hemispherical, almost entire, three-lobed. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments three, placed on the germ, spreading, longer than the calyx. Pistil: germ superior, roundish. Style cylindrical, permanent, shorter than the stamens. Stigma warted. Pericarp: drupe globular. Seed: nut globular. Male and female on separate trees.—*Essential Character.* Calyx one-leafed, pitcher-shaped. Corolla none. Female—Stigmas sessile. Drupe with a two-celled nut.

1. *Stilago Bunius.*—This is a tree, with the leaves alternate, petioled, simple, ovate-oblong, quite entire, smooth. Spikes alternate, naked, very long. Flowers small, scattered, sessile.—Native of the East Indies.

2. *Stilago diandra.*—Leaves alternate, on short petioles, nearly bifarious or two-faced, oval, entire, smooth, from two to four inches long, and from one to two broad. Stipules lanceolate. Spikes filiform, terminating, many-flowered. Bractes minute, one-flowered. Flowers very small, approximated.—In the male tree; perianth inferior, cup-form, obtusely four-toothed. Corolla none. Filaments two, four times longer than the calyx. Anthers thin, singly oval.—In the female; calyx inferior, closely embracing three-fourths of the germ, four or five-toothed. Corolla none.

Nectary.

Nectary, a yellow fleshy ring, surrounding the base of the germ. Germ obliquely ovate. Styles two, spreading; one of them always two-cleft. Stigmas simple. Drupe minute, succulent, one-celled. Nut one-celled, very small. It is a large tree.—Native of the mountainous parts of the Circars; and flowers in June.

The fruit, when ripe, is eaten by the natives. The wood serves for various uses.

STILAR, *adj.* Belonging to the stile of a dial.—At fifty-one and a half degrees, which is London's latitude, make a mark, and laying a ruler to the centre of the plane and to this mark, draw a line for the *stilar* line. *Moxon*.

STILBE [Στιλβη, *nitor*, *splendor*: from the shining appearance of the seeds], in Botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order dioecia.—Generic Character. Hermaphrodite.—Calyx exterior: perianth three-leaved (setting aside the four exterior ones): leaflets lanceolate, spreading and mucronate.—Interior: perianth one-leaved, five-toothed, cartilaginous. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form: tube length of the calyx: border five-parted: parts linear. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, placed on the throat. Anthers cordate, obtuse. Pistil: germ superior, ovate. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma acute. Pericarp none: but the interior calyx inclosing, hardened, deciduous. Seed one. Male, on a distinct individual. Calyx exterior as in the hermaphrodite. Interior none. Corolla as in the hermaphrodite; but the tube membranaceous. Stamina as in the hermaphrodite. Pericarp and seed none. Hermaphrodite: calyx exterior, three-leaved. Interior five-toothed, cartilaginous. Corolla funnel-form, five-cleft. Stamina four. Seed one, clypted with the interior calyx. Male similar. Calyx, interior none. Fruit none. (The sex on a distinct plant.)

1. *Stilbe pinastra*.—Branches alternate, stiff, rugged with the remaining bases of the leaves. Leaves whorled in clusters, acute, smooth. Spikes oblong, terminating, sessile, imbricate; with bractes the length of the flowers.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, by rivulets.

2. *Stilbe ericoides*.—Leaves in fours, lanceolate. Stature of an erica or heath. Spike terminating, sessile, growing out. Corollas even.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. *Stilbe cernua*.—Spikes drooping; leaves in fours. This is very like the first species, but the branchlets with the head hang down.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

STILE, *s.* [stigele, from stigan, Sax. *to climb*.] A set of steps to pass from one enclosure to another.—There comes my master and another gentleman from Frogmore over the *stile* this way. *Shakspeare*.

The little strutting pile,
You see just by the church-yard *stile*. *Swift*.

[*Stile*, Fr.] A pin to cast the shadow in a sun-dial. This should rather be *style*.—Erect the *stile* perpendicularly over the substilar line, so as to make an angle with the dial-plane equal to the elevation of the pole of your place. *Moxon*.

STILETTO, *s.* [Ital.; *stilet*, Fr.] A small dagger, of which the blade is not edged but round, with a sharp point.—When a senator should be torn in pieces, he hired one who entering into the senate-house, should assault him as an enemy to the state; and stabbing him with *stilettoes*, leave him to be torn by others. *Hakewill*.

STILICHO, or **STILICHON**. See **ROME**.
To STILL, *v. a.* [stillan, Sax.; *stillen*, Dutch; *stillen*, Germ., which has the substantive *stille*, *rest*; the Saxon, the adjective *stille*, *quiet*.] To silence; to make silent.

Is this the scourge of France?
Is this the Talbot so much fear'd abroad,
That with his name the mothers *still* their babes?
Shakspeare.

To quiet; to appease.—In all refrainings of anger, it is the best remedy to make a man's self believe, that the opportunity of revenge is not yet come; but that he foresees a time for it, and so to *still* himself in the mean time, and reserve it. *Bacon*.—To make motionless.—He having

a full sway over the water, had power to *still* and compose it, as well as to move and disturb it. *Woodward*.

STILL, *adj.* [stille, Sax.; *stil*, Dutch.] Silent; uttering no noise. It is well observed by Junius, that *st* is the sound commanding silence.

We do not act, that often jest and laugh:
'Tis old but true, *still* swine eat all the draugh. *Shakspeare*.

Your wife Octavia, with her modest eyes,
And *still* conclusion, shall acquire no honour,
Demuring upon me. *Shakspeare*.

Quiet; calm.

Atin when he spied
Thus in *still* waves of deep delight to wade,
Fiercely approaching to him, loudly cry'd. *Spenser*.

From hence my lines and I depart,
I to my soft *still* walks, they to my heart;
I to the nurse, they to the child of art. *Donne*.

Motionless.—Grecia sits *still*, but with no still pensiveness. *Sidney*.—That, in this state of ignorance, we short-sighted creatures might not mistake true felicity, we are endowed with a power to suspend any particular desire. This is standing *still*, where we are not sufficiently assured. *Locke*.—Continual; constant.

But that *still* use of grief makes wild grief tame,
My tongue should to thy ears not name my boys,
Till that my nails were anchor'd in thine eyes. *Shakspeare*.

Gentle; not loud. This, as well as the preceding sense, is overpassed in Dr. Johnson's and other dictionaries.—A *still* small voice. 1 *Kings*.—*Still* music. *Shakspeare*.

Me softer airs befit, and softer strings
Of lute or viol *still*, more apt for mournful things. *Milton*.

STILL, *s.* [stille, Germ.] Calm; silent.

Herne the hunter,
Sometime a keeper here in Windsor forest,
Doth all the winter time, at *still* of midnight,
Walk round about an oak with ragged horns. *Shakspeare*.

STILL, *adv.* [stille, Sax.] To this time; till now.—It hath been anciently reported, and is *still* received, that extreme applauses of great multitudes have so rarified the air, that birds flying over have fallen down. *Bacon*.—Nevertheless; notwithstanding.—The desire of fame betrays the ambitious man into indecencies that lessen his reputation; he is *still* afraid lest any of his actions should be thrown away in private. *Addison*.—In an encreasing degree.—The moral perfections of the Deity, the more attentively we consider, the more perfectly *still* shall we know them. *Atterbury*.—Always; ever; continually.—Unless God from heaven did by vision *still* shew them what to do, they might do nothing. *Hooker*.—After that.—In the primitive church, such as by fear being compelled to sacrifice to strange gods, after repented, and kept *still* the office of preaching the gospel. *Whitgift*.—In continuance.

I with my hand at midnight held your head:
And, like the watchful minutes to the hour,
Still and anon cheer'd up the heavy time,
Saying, what want you. *Shakspeare*.

STILL, *s.* A vessel for distillation; an alembic.
Nature's confectioner, the bee,
Whose suckets are moist alchemy;
The *still* of his refining mold,
Minting the garden into gold. *Cleveland*.

To STILL, *v. a.* To distil; to extract or operate upon by distillation.

Then starts she suddenly into a throng
Of short thick sobs, whose thundering volleys float,
And roll themselves over her lubrick throat
In panting murmurs, *still'd* out of her breast,
That ever bubbling spring. *Crashaw*.

To STILL, *v. n.* [stillo, Lat.] To drop; to fall in drops.
Out of use.

His sceptre 'gainst the ground he threw,
And tears *still'd* from him which mov'd all the crew.

Chapman.

STILL-LIFE, *s.* [A term in painting.] Things that have only vegetable life. *Mason.*—Even that, according to a term of art we commonly call *still-life*, must have its superiority and just preference in a tablature of its own species. *Id. Shaftesbury.*

STILLFRIED, a small town of Lower Austria, on the March. Near this town, Ottocar, king of Bohemia, was defeated and slain by the emperor Rodolph in 1278; 7 miles north-east of Weikersdorf.

STILLATITIOUS, *adj.* [*stillatitius*, Lat.] Falling in drops; drawn by a still.

STILLATORY, *s.* An alembic; a vessel in which distillation is performed.—In all *stillatories* the vapour is turned back upon itself, by the encounter of the sides of the *stillatory*. *Bacon.*—The room in which stills are placed; laboratory.—All offices that require heat, as kitchens, *stillatories*, stoves, should be meridional. *Wotton.*—These are nature's *stillatories*, in whose caverns the ascending vapours are congealed to that universal aquavitæ, that good fresh water. *More against Atheism.*

STILLBORN, *adj.* [*tille-bopene*, Sax.] Born lifeless; dead in the birth.

Grant that our hopes, yet likely of fair birth,
Should be *stillborn*; and that we now possess
The utmost man of expectation; we are
A body strong enough to equal with the king. *Shakspeare.*

STILLICIDE, *s.* [*stillicidium*, Lat.] A succession of drops.—The *stillicides* of water, if there be water enough to follow, will draw themselves into a small thread; because they will not discontinue. *Bacon.*

STILLICIDIOUS, *adj.* Falling in drops.—Crystal is found sometimes in rocks, and in some places not unlike the stitious or *stillicious* dependencies of ice. *Brown.*

STILLING, *s.* The act of stilling.—A stand for casks.

STILLINGFLEET (Edward), a learned prelate of the English church, was born in the year 1635; after preparatory education in the grammar-schools of Cranbourn and Ringwood, he was elected in 1648 to St. John's College, Cambridge, and was chosen fellow in 1653, and presented to the rectory of Sutton, in Bedfordshire, in 1657. In 1659, he published his "*Irenicum*, or the Divine Right of particular Forms of Church Government examined," hoping, by this publication, to remove the prejudices, and conciliate the attachment of those who were alienated from the church of England. In this treatise he maintains, that Christ did not determine the form of the government of his church by any positive laws; that the apostles adapted it to the various circumstances of time, place and persons; that episcopacy is lawful; that in the primitive church no invariable form of church government was adopted; and that the most eminent divines, at the Reformation, did not conceive any one particular form to be necessary. The *Irenicum* was highly commended for its learning and moderation; but the author himself, as Bishop Burnet says, desirous of avoiding the imputations of hostility to the church which it occasioned, retracted the book, and gave way to the humours of a high sort of people, beyond what became him, perhaps beyond his own sense of things. His next work was entitled, "*Origines Sacre*," or a rational Account of the Christian Faith, as to the Truth and Divine Authority of the Scriptures, and the Matters therein contained;" 4to. A work of his, published in 1685, was entitled "*Origines Britannicæ*, or the Antiquities of the British Churches," which gave an ample view of the origin and progress of Christian churches in Britain, since the first introduction of Christianity in the island to the conversion of the Saxons. He published a multitude of theological works, which betray great learning and talents.

STILLINGFLEET, a parish in the East Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the river Ouse; 8 miles south-by-west of York.

STILLINGIA [so named by Alexander Garden, in honour of Benjamin Stillingfleet], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order monadelphia, natural order of tricocæ euphorbiæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Male flowers digested in an amentaceous spike. Calyx: perianth many-flowered (seven-flowered), coriaceous, hemispherical, pitcher-shaped, quite entire; with two goblet-shaped glands. Corolla one petalled, fistular-funnel-form, widening gradually, much narrower than the calyx: mouth undivided, torn, ciliate. Stamina: filaments two, filiform, twice as long as the corolla, divaricating at the top, very slightly united at the base. Anthers twin reniform. Female flowers few, at the base of the same spike. Calyx: perianth one-flowered: the rest as in the males. Corolla superior. Pistil: germ roundish, between the calyx and corolla. Style filiform. Stigma three, distinct, recurved. Pericarp: capsule trilocous, subtrifurcate, subtrigonal, three-celled, surrounded at the base by the widened calyx. Seeds solitary, oblong, subtrigonal, with a transverse scar on the inner side.—*Essential Character.* Male: calyx hemispherical, many-flowered. Corolla tubular, crose. Female: calyx one-flowered, inferior. Corolla superior. Style trifid. Capsule tricocous.

Stillingia sylvatica.—This is a shrub, with many upright, round, milky stems, three feet high, terminated by a spike. Two branches commonly spring out at the base of the spike. Leaves alternate, petioled, remote, elliptic, serrulate, shining, spreading. Spike or ament terminating, sessile. Flowers small, yellow.—Native of Carolina, in pine woods.

STILLINGTON, a hamlet in Durham; 6½ miles north-west of Stockton-upon-Tees.

STILLINGTON, a parish in the East Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles east-south-east of Easingwold.

STILLNESS, *s.* [*tilleffe*, Sax.] Calm; quiet; silence; freedom from noise.

How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank!
Here will we sit, and let the sounds of music
Creep in our ears; soft *stillness* and the night
Become the touches of sweet harmony. *Shakspeare.*

Habitual silence; taciturnity.
The gravity and *stillness* of your youth
The world hath noted. *Shakspeare.*

STILLSTAND, *s.* Absence of motion.
The tide swell'd up unto his height,
Then makes a *stillstand*, running neither way. *Shakspeare.*

STILL VALLEY, a post village of the United States, in Sussex county, New Jersey.

STILL WATER, a post township of the United States, in Saratoga county, New York, on the west side of the Hudson. Bemas's Heights are in this township; 3 miles north of the village. This place is famous for a battle fought on the 19th of September 1777, between the Americans and British. Population 2492; 22 miles north of Albany.

STILL WATER, a post township of the United States, in Sussex county, New Jersey.

STILL WATER, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which runs south-east into the Great Miami, above Dayton, and opposite the mouth of Mad river.

STILLY, *adv.* [*tillice*, Sax.] Silently; not loudly; gently.

From camp to camp, through the foul womb of night,
The hum of either army *stilly* sounds. *Shakspeare.*

Calmly; not tumultuously.
Thus mindless of what idle men will say,
He takes his own, and *stilly* goes his way. *More.*

STILO, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, with a population of 1800. Here are the principal iron mines of Calabria. Some silver, lead and copper, are also found here; 22 miles south-east of Mileto.

STILO, a cape on the east coast of Calabria. Lat. 38° 27'. N. long. 16° 52'. E.

STILPO,

STILPO, a Grecian philosopher, who was a native of Megara, flourished in the third and fourth centuries, B. C., and is said to have died after the year 294 B. C. He is considered as belonging to the Megaric sect, and to have been a disciple of one of the successors of Euclid of Megara. When Ptolemy Soter captured Megara, he presented Stilpo with a large sum of money, and invited him to his court; but the philosopher returned the greater part of the present, and chose to retire during Ptolemy's stay at Megara to the island of Oegina. When Demetrius, son of Antigonos, took Megara, the soldiers were ordered to spare the house of Stilpo, and to return any thing that might have been precipitately taken from him. The philosopher being required to give an account of those effects which he had lost, replied "that he had lost nothing; for no one could take from him his learning and eloquence." To the conqueror he recommended himself by the pathetic manner in which he inculcated upon him the exercise of humanity. So great indeed was his fame, that when he visited Athens, the people ran out of their shops to see him; and even the most eminent philosophers of Athens took pleasure in attending upon his discourses. On moral topics, Stilpo is said to have taught, that the highest felicity consists in a mind free from the dominion of passion, a doctrine similar to that of the Stoics. He lived to a great age, and is said to have hastened his final departure by a draught of wine. *Diog. Laert. Brucker by Enfield*, vol. i.

To **STILT**, *v. a.* [*styllta*, Su. Goth. *to walk on stilts*.] To raise on stilts; to make higher by stilts.

This antic prelude of grotesque events,
Where dwarfs are often stilted.

Young.

STILTON, a village and parish of England, in the county of Huntingdon, situated on the high north road, and chiefly noted for its excellent cheese, which received the name of Stilton from having been first sold here, though it is now mostly manufactured in certain districts in Leicestershire. About one mile north of Stilton is Norman Cross, where very extensive barracks and a prison were erected during the late wars, the latter of which was appropriated to prisoners of war. The great Roman road to Ermine-street intersected this parish from north to south, between the two stations at Godmanchester called *Durotrivæ*, and at Castor called *Duroliponte*. In 1811, Stilton contained 107 houses and 663 inhabitants; 75 miles north of London.

STILTS, *s.* [*stylltor*, Swedish; *stelten*, Dutch; by some referred to the Sax. *ƿælcān*, *to stalk*; but they belong more justly to the Icel. *staula*, Su. Goth. *styllta*, *to take leisurely steps*. It has been said, that *stilts* were anciently used for the scaling of castles, walls, &c.] Supports on which boys raise themselves when they walk.—Some could not be content to walk upon the battlements, but they must put themselves upon *stilts*. *Howell*.

STIMULANT, *adj.* [*stimulans*, Lat.] Stimulating.—The solution of copper in the nitrous acid is the most acrid and *stimulant* of any with which we are acquainted. *Falconer*.

STIMULANT, *s.* A stimulating medicine.—*Stimulants* produce pain, heat, redness. *Chambers*.

To **STIMULATE**, *v. a.* [*stimulo*, Lat.] To prick.—To prick forward; to excite by some pungent motive.—To excite a quick sensation, with a derivation of blood towards the part.—Extreme cold *stimulates*, producing first a rigour, and then a glowing heat; those things which *stimulate* in the extreme degree excite pain. *Arbuthnot*.

STIMULATION, *s.* [*stimulatio*, Lat.] Excitement; pungency.—Some persons, from the secret *stimulations* of vanity or envy, despise a valuable book, and throw contempt upon it by wholesale. *Watts*.

STIMULATIVE, *adj.* Stimulating. *Suppl. to Ash*.
STIMULATIVE, *s.* A provocation; excitement; that which stimulates. *Malone*.

STIMULATOR, *s.* One who stimulates. *Scott*.
STINCHAR, a river of Scotland, in the county of Ayr,

and district of Carrick, which, after flowing to the south-west 22 miles, falls into the sea at Balantrae.

STINCHCOMBE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles west-by-north of Dursley. Population 371.

To **STING**, *v. a.* pret. *stung*, or *stang*; part. pass. *stang*, or *stung*. [*ƿringan*, Sax.; *stungen*, sore pricked, Icelandic.] To pierce or wound with a point darted out, as that of wasps.

The snake, rolled in a flowery bank,
With shining checker'd slough, doth *sting* a child
That for the beauty thinks it excellent. *Shakspeare*.

That snakes and vipers *sting* and transmit their mischief by the tail, is not easily to be justified, the poison lying about the teeth, and communicated by the bite. *Brown*.—To pain acutely.

No more I wave
To prove the hero.—Slander *stings* the brave. *Pope*.

The *stinging* lash apply. *Pope*.

STING, *s.* [*ƿring*, Sax.] A sharp point with which some insects are armed, and which is occasionally venomous.

His rapier was a hornet's *sting*,
It was a very dangerous thing:
For if he chanc'd to hurt the king,
It would be long in healing. *Drayton*.

Any thing that gives pain.—The Jews receiving this book originally with such *sting* in it, shews that the authority was high. *Forbes*.—The point in the last verse.—It is not the jerk or *sting* of an epigram, nor the seeming contradiction of a poor antithesis. *Dryden*.—Remorse of conscience.—The *sting* of conscience. *Sherwood*.

STINGER, *s.* Whatever stings or vexes. *Cotgrave*, and *Sherwood*. Hence a sort of fly with a sting, vulgarly called a horse-stinger.

STINGILY, *adv.* Covetously.

STINGINESS, *s.* Avarice; covetousness; niggardliness.—Here our author, in pure good nature to make amends for his *stinginess* in the matter we last remarked, gives us three rules. *Johnson*.

STINGLESS, *adj.* Having no sting.

This merry jest you must excuse,
You are but a *stingless* nettle. *Old Ballad*.

STINGO, *s.* [from the sharpness of the taste.] Old beer. *A cant word*. It appears, however, to be old.—Returning with a large quart of mighty ale, that might compare with *stingo*, for it would cut a feather, they tossed the cannikin lovingly one to another. *Comment. on Chaucer*.—Shall I set a cup of old *stingo* at your elbow? *Addison*.

STINGY, *adj.* [A corruption of the old word *chinchy*. "The rich *chinchy* grede." *Chaucer*, Rom. R. 6002. And so *chinchy*: "*Chinche* and felon is richesse." *Ib.* 5998. In both places meaning stingy, niggardly: so *chinchy* is used for covetousness, stinginess. See the *Gloss. to Urry's Chaucer*. The old Fr. *chiche*, miserable, niggardly, covetous, is considered as its origin; and Chaucer once uses *chiche*.] Covetous; niggardly; avaricious.—He relates it only by parcels, and wont give us the whole, which forces me to bespeak his friends to engage him to lay aside that *stingy* humour, and gratify the public at once. *Arbuthnot*.

To **STINK**, *v. n.* pret. *stunk* or *stank*. [*ƿringan*, Sax.; *stincken*, Dutch.] To emit an offensive smell, commonly a smell of putrefaction.—Most of smells want names; sweet and *stinking* serve our turn for these ideas, which is little more than to call them pleasing and displeasing. *Locke*.

STINK, *s.* [*ƿring*, Sax.] Offensive smell.—Those *stinks* which the nostrils straight abhor are not most pernicious, but such airs as have some similitude with man's body, and so betray the spirits. *Bacon*.

They share a sin; and such proportions fall,
That, like a *stink*, 'tis nothing to them all, *Dryden*.
By

By what criterion do ye eat, d'ye think?

If this is priz'd for sweetness, that for *stink*. *Pope*.

STINKARD, s. A mean stinking paltry fellow.—You perpetual *stinkard*, go; talk to tapsters and ostlers, you slave. *B. Jonson*.

STINKER, s. Something intended to offend by the smell.—The air may be purified by burning of stinkpots or *stinkers* in contagious lanes. *Harvey*.

STINKING ISLANDS, a cluster of islands near the east coast of Newfoundland. Lat. 40. 28. N. long. 52. 50. W.

STINKINGLY, adv. With a stink.

Can'st thou believe thy living is a life,
So *stinkingly* depending?

Shakespeare.

STINKPOT, s. An artificial composition offensive to the smell.—The air may be purified by fires of pitch-barrels, especially in close places, and by burning of *stinkpots*. *Harvey*.

STINSFORD, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 1 mile from Dorchester.

STI PHILL, a petty town of European Turkey, in the north of the Morea, province of Sicyonia. It was ruined by the Albanians after the unsuccessful invasion of the Russians, and insurrection of the Greeks, in 1770. Its ancient name was *Philius*.

To STINT, v. a. [Tintan, Sax.; *stynta*, Swed.; *stunta*, Icel.] To bound; to limit; to confine; to restrain; to stop. Then hopeless, heartless, gan the cunning thief,
Persuade us die, to *stint* all further strife. *Spenser*.

She *stints* them in their meals, and is very scrupulous of what they eat and drink, and tells them how many fine shapes she has seen spoiled in her time for want of such care. *Law*.

To STINT, v. n. To cease; to stop; to desist: a northern expression.

The pretty wench, left crying, and said, Ay;—
And, pretty fool, it *stinted*, and said, Ay. *Shakespeare*.

STINT, s. Limit; bound; restraint.—The exteriors of mourning, a decent funeral, and black habits, are the usual *stints* of common husbands. *Dryden*.—A proportion; a quantity assigned.

Our *stint* of woe
Is common; every day, a sailor's wife,
The masters of some merchant, and the merchant
Have just our theme of woe. *Shakespeare*.

How much wine drink you in a day? my *stint* in company is a pint at noon. *Swift*.

STINT, s. A small bird common about the sea-shores in many parts of England. *Chambers*. See **TRINGA**:

STINTANCE, s. Restraint; stoppage.—Nay, I cannot weep you extempore: marry, some two or three days hence I shall weep without any *stintance*. *The London Prodigal*.

STINTER, s. Whatever or whoever stints, restrains, or cramps.—Let us see whether a set form or extemporary way of praying by the spirit be the greater hinderer and *stinter* of it. *South*.

STIPA, in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of gramina, gramineæ or grasses.—Generic Character. Calyx: glume one-flowered, two-valved, lax, acuminate. Corolla two-valved: outer valve terminated at the tip by a very long twisted awn, jointed at the base and straight: inner valve length of the outer, awnless, linear. Nectary two-leaved: leaflets linear-lanceolate, membranaceous, gibbous at the base. Stamina: filaments three, capillary. Anthers linear. Pistil: germ oblong. Styles two, hirsute, united at the base. Stigmas pubescent. Pericarp none. Glume adnate. Seed one, oblong, covered.—*Essential Character*. Calyx two-valved, one-flowered. Corolla, outer valve with a terminating awn, jointed at the base.

1. *Stipa pennata*, or soft feather-grass.—Awns woolly. Root perennial, fibrous, tufted. Culms simple, a foot high, upright

slender, round, very smooth, without knots, clothed entirely with the sheaths of the leaves. The feathered awns are a beautiful and remarkable feature, at once distinguishing this from all our other grasses.—It has been found in several places in Germany, France, Italy, Spain, Barbary and Siberia.

Johnson, the editor of Gerarde's herbal, says it was nourished for the beauty in sundry of our English gardens; and that it was worn by sundry ladies and gentlewomen instead of a feather, which it exquisitely resembles.

2. *Stipa juncea*, or rush-leaved feather-grass.—Awns naked, straight; calyxes longer than the seed; leaves smooth within. Root perennial (or biennial).—Native of France, Switzerland, Silesia, Carniola and Barbary.

3. *Stipa capillata*, or capillary feather-grass.—Awns naked, curved; calyxes longer than the seed; leaves pubescent within. This resembles the preceding species very much.—Native of France, Germany, Switzerland and Italy. Perennial.

4. *Stipa aristella*, or short-awned feather-grass.—Awns naked, straight, scarcely twice as long as the calyx; germs woolly. Root perennial. Culms two feet high. Panicle subspiked, with two or three-flowered peduncles. Calyx length of the seed. Seed round, pubescent, with few villose hairs.—Native of the country about Montpellier.

5. *Stipa paleacea*, or chaffy feather-grass.—Awns half naked; panicle simple; leaves convoluted, awl-shaped, pubescent within. This has the appearance of the juncea.—Found about Tunis and in Egypt.

6. *Stipa tenacissima*, or tough feather-grass.—Awns hairy at the base; panicle spiked; leaves filiform. Habit of avena.—Native of Spain and Barbary, on sandy hills.

7. *Stipa Capensis*, or Cape feather-grass.—Awns hairy at the base; panicle spiked; leaves ensiform.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

8. *Stipa spicata*, or spiked feather-grass.—Awns hairy at the base; raceme spiked, directed to one side. Root perennial, creeping, producing many culms.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

9. *Stipa bicolor*, or two-coloured feather-grass.—Awns naked; seeds obovate, bearded at the base.—Native of Brasil, on Monte Video. Found by Thouin.

10. *Stipa avenacea*, or oat feather-grass.—Awns naked; calyxes equalling the seed. Culms slender.—Native of Virginia.

11. *Stipa membranacea*, or membranaceous feather-grass.—Pedicels dilated, membranaceous. The last flower but one sessile.—Native of Spain, where it was observed by Loeffling.

12. *Stipa barbata*, or bearded feather-grass.—Leaves rigid, striated on one side; panicle lax, elongated; awns very long, bearded from the base to the tip.—Native of Barbary, about Mascar and Tlemsen.

13. *Stipa parviflora*, or small-flowered feather-grass.—Leaves radical, stiffish, filiform; panicle diffused; awns naked, capillaceous. Roots perennial, fibrous, flexuose, long. Culms many, from the same head, slender, erect.—Native of dry hills, near Mascar, and in the kingdom of Tunis.

14. *Stipa tortilis*, or twisted-awned feather-grass.—Panicle spiked, rolled in at the base; inner calyx villose; awns twisted, villose at bottom. It is an annual grass.—Native of Barbary, in fields.

STIPE'ND, s. [*stipendium*, Lat.] Wages; settled pay.

All the earth,
Her kings and tetrachs are their tributaries;
People and nations pay them hourly *stipends*. *B. Jonson*.

To STIPE'ND, v. a. To pay by settled wages.—I, sir, am a physician; and am *stipended* in this island to be so to the governours of it. *Contin. of D. Quivote*.

STIPE'NDIARY, adj. [*stipendiarius*, Lat.] Receiving salaries; performing any service for a stated price.—His great *stipendiary* prelates came with troops of evil appointed horsemen not half full. *Knolles*.

STIPE'NDIARY,

STIPE'NDIARY, *s.* [*stipendiaire*, Fr., *stipendiarius*, Lat.] One who performs any service for a settled payment.—This whole country is called the kingdom of Tunis; the king wherof is a kind of *stipendiary* unto the Turk. *Abbot.*

If thou art become
A tyrant's vile *stipendiary*, with grief
That valour thus triumphant I behold,
Which after all its danger and brave toil,
Deserves no honour from the gods or men.

Glover.

To **STI'PPLE**, *v. n.* To engrave, not in stroke or line, but in dots. A term of art.

STI'PTICK. See **STYPTIC**.

To **STI'PULATE**, *v. n.* [*stipulor*, Lat.; *stipuler*, Fr.] This word is derived by some Latin etymologists from *stipe*, the ablative of *stips*, or *stipis*, a piece of money; or from *stipes*, a stake or landmark. But it comes from the Lat. *stipula*, a straw: "Dicta autem *stipulatio* à *stipulâ*; veteres enim quando sibi aliquid promittebant, *stipulam tenentes frangebant, quam iterum jungentes, sponsiones suas agnoscebant.*" Du Cange in V. **STI'PULATIO**. So an old English writer; "Their bargains (in the Isle of Man) are compleated, and confirmed, by the giving and taking of as mean a matter as a *straw*; as of old also, *per traditionem stipulæ*; from whence the phrase of *stipulation* came. Sadler, Rights of the Kingdom, 1649. Cole, iv. 69.] To contract; to bargain; to settle terms.—The Romans very much neglected their maritime affairs; for they *stipulated* with the Carthaginians to furnish them with ships for transport and war. *Arbutnot.*

STI'PULATION, *s.* [*stipulation*, Fr.] Bargain.—We promise obediently to keep all God's commandments; the hopes given by the gospel depend on our performance of that *stipulation*. *Rogers.*

STI'PULATOR, *s.* [*stipulateur*, Fr.] One who contracts or bargains. *Sherwood.*

To **STIR**, *v. a.* [*stiran*, Sax.; *stooren*, Teut. Formerly written *stere*; and by Spencer more than once, for the sake of his rhyme, *stire*. Butler, in his English Grammar, 1634, states our western dialect to be *stoor*.]—To move; to remove from its place.—My foot I had never yet in five days been able to *stir* but as it was lifted. *Temple.*—To agitate; to bring into debate.—Preserve the right of thy place, but *stir* not questions of jurisdiction, and rather assume thy right in silence than voice it with claims. *Bacon.*—To incite; to instigate; to animate.

With him is come the mother queen;
An Até *stirring* him to blood and strife. *Shakspeare.*

To raise; to excite.

The soldiers love her brother's memory;
And for her sake some mutiny will *stir*. *Dryden.*

To **STIR** *up*. To incite; to animate; to instigate by inflaming the passions.—This would seem a dangerous commission, and ready to *stir up* all the Irish in rebellion. *Spenser.*—To *stir* the factious rabble *up* to arms. *Rowe.*

To **STIR** *up*. To put in action; to excite; to quicken.—Hell is moved for thee to meet thee at thy coming; it *stirreth up* the dead for thee. *Isa.*—The use of the passions is to *stir up* the mind, and put it upon action, to awake the understanding and to enforce the will. *Addison.*

To **STIR**, *v. n.* To move one's self; to go out of the place; to change place.—No power he had to *stir*, nor will to rise. *Spenser.*—To be in motion; not to be still; to pass from inactivity to motion.—To become the object of notice.—If they happen to have any superior character, they fancy they have a right to talk freely upon every thing that *stirs* or appears. *Watts.*—To rise in the morning. This is a colloquial and familiar use.—If the gentlewoman that attends the general's wife be *stirring*, tell her, there's one Cassio entreats of her a little favour of speech. *Shakspeare.*

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STIR, *s.* [*stur*, Runic, a battle; *ystwrf*, noise, Welsh.] Tumult; bustle.

What halloing and what *stir* is this to day?
These are my mates, that make their wills their law,
Have some unhappy passenger in chase. *Shakspeare.*

Commotion; public disturbance; tumultuous disorder; seditious uproar.

Raphael, thou heard'st what *stir* on earth,
Satan from hell 'scap'd through the darksome gulf,
Hath rais'd in paradise, and how disturb'd
This night the human pair. *Milton.*

Agitation of thoughts; conflicting passion.

He did keep

The deck, with glove or hat, or handkerchief,
Still waving, as the *stirs* and fits of's mind
Could best express how slow his soul sail'd on,
How swift his ship. *Shakspeare.*

STI'RABOUT, *s.* A Yorkshire dish, formed of oatmeal boiled in water to a certain consistency, and then eaten either with a bit of cold butter put into it and salt, or with milk. It is also a common breakfast among the lower orders in the north of Ireland. *Malone.*

STI'RCHLEY, a parish of England, in Salop, near Shrewsbury.

STI'RIOUS, *adj.* [from *stiria*, Lat.] Resembling icicles.—Chrystal is found sometimes in rocks, and in some places not much unlike the *stirious* or stillicidious dependencies of ice. *Brown.*

STIRK. See **STURK**.

STIRLING, a county of Scotland, formerly making part of what was called the shire or county of Lennox, bounded on the north by the shires of Perth and Clackmannan, from which it is separated by the Forth; on the east by the frith of Forth and Linlithgowshire; on the south and west by the shires of Lanark and Dumbarton; lying between 55. 55. and 56. 17. N. latitude, and between 3. 17. and 4. 40. W. longitude from Greenwich; being from 12 to 17 miles from north to south, and 35 from east to west; consisting of about 560 square miles, or 237,200 English acres. This shire occupies the central country between the friths already mentioned; and the face of it is diversified with mountains, hills, and plains, shaded with natural woods and plantations, the former covering about 13,000, and the latter 10,000 acres. An extensive plain, 40 miles in length, stretches from the water of Avon towards the north-west, terminated by the mountain of Benlomond, and intersected by the Forth, winding with placid dignity, and forming the beautiful links for which it is so remarkable. In this track, which includes the carses or valleys of Stirling and Falkirk, is the greatest quantity of fine land to be found in the kingdom, producing the most luxuriant crops. It is most elevated in proportion to its distance from either frith; so that in the parishes of Kilsyth, Campsie, and Fintry, the waters descend both towards the east and west. There are several considerable ridges of hills. Those of Lennox, Kirkintulloch, and Dumbartonshire, extend from the neighbourhood of Dumbarton north-east, through the centre of the shire, to the vicinity of Stirling. Northward of that ridge lies the fertile valley of the Forth. The central and southern districts are partly mountainous, and partly level and fertile. An extensive moor stretches from Sauchie in the parish of St. Ninian's, westward to the parish of Balfron, a distance of 16 miles, and from one to four in breadth. Another extends from Denny on the east about 30 miles, to the neighbourhood of Dumbarton on the west. In the north-west district, which includes Benlomond, there is a bleak and uncultivated track, 10 miles in length, and 3 in breadth. The southern district, consisting of peat mosses and uncultivated moors, occupies the space of 8 by 2½ miles, viz., from Muiravonside to Cumbernauld. The whole of these mountains and moors may consist of 100,000 acres nearly. In former times, the greater part of this county was covered

with wood, vestiges of which are still found in many parts. The principal rivers are the Forth; the Carron; the Bannockburn, which falls into the Forth; the Enrick, which loses itself in Loch Lomond; the Blane, which falls into the Enrick; the Kelvin, which, rising in the parish of Kilsyth, flows westward through extensive valleys, in a cut formed since the year 1792, and enters the Clyde. The navigable canal which connects the frith of Forth with the Clyde, is partly here. There is a great variety of soil in this county. In the western parishes, there is a considerable proportion of clay on hard till, that renders it cold and moist. The carse land on the banks of the Forth is a high coloured clay, with a mixture of sand. This soil is evidently alluvial, and the substances which are found in it, as well as the aspect of the higher grounds by which it is bounded, indicate that at some former period it was covered by the sea. Some beds of shells, from a few inches to four yards in thickness, form a part of the subsoil. There are patches of loam in different parts of the shire. Along the Enrick, Carron, and Blane, the soil in most places is light, inclining to gravel. The high moors are of a mossy soil; and in the low carse grounds, many peat mosses are formed. The hilly tracks are fit only for pasturage. Exclusive of the mosses, about two-thirds of the shire are enclosed, and considerably improved. There are few districts in Scotland that abound more in minerals of various kinds, than this county; and the abundance of coal in particular has given rise to many important branches of manufacture. The northern boundary of that great belt of coal which extends from Kintyre on the west, to Fifeshire on the east, in an oblique direction, appears to run in this county along the southern base of the Lennox hills. To the north of this range of mountains, coal has not yet been discovered, though repeated trials have been made; while to the south of this line, coal abounds everywhere. There is also in the county abundance of ironstone, freestone, and limestone; and more valuable minerals have been discovered, and in part wrought, as silver, copper, cobalt, and lead. In the hills between Dumbarton and Stirling, are piles of basaltic rocks. Stirlingshire is a noted scene of the most important historical events. In the early ages, it was a subject of bloody contention between the Scots and Picts. Here, too, the Romans found the greatest difficulty in subjugating the ancient inhabitants, who, from their impenetrable fastnesses, poured down upon them like torrents from their native mountains. To stop the inroads of the Caledonians, Agricola, the Roman general, built a chain of forts between the friths of Clyde and Forth, which were afterwards connected by the wall of Antoninus. Near Bannockburn was fought the eventful battle between Robert Bruce and Edward II., which finally defeated the schemes of the English monarch, for uniting the whole island by conquest under his sovereignty. Contiguous to this, is the Torwood, famous for being the hiding place of the renowned Wallace. Near Falkirk, two famous battles were fought, one wherein Wallace and the Scots were defeated, and the other where the adherents of the Stuart family obtained a victory in 1746. The castle of Stirling has frequently sustained the longest sieges recorded in the Scotch annals. Stirlingshire contains one royal burgh, viz., Stirling, the towns of Falkirk and St. Ninians, and several large villages, of which the principal are Denny, Larbert, Bannockburn, Kippen, Kilsyth, Buchlyvie, Airth, Campsie, and Killearn. Numerous seats and plantations are interspersed throughout, and enrich the appearance of the county. Stirlingshire is divided into 22 parochial districts, which, in 1811, contained 58,171, in 1821, 65,331 inhabitants.

STIRLING, or **SRIVELING** (*the place of contention or strife*, denoting the bloody scenes of warfare which have taken place in Stirling and the neighbourhood), is an ancient town, capital of the county to which it gives name. It is irregularly built, in the midst of a plain watered by the Forth, on the sloping ridge of a rock, the precipitous end of which, towards the west, is occupied by the castle. The street on the summit of the hill is broad and spacious, but

the other streets are narrow and irregular. At the south end of the town, on the way to St. Ninian's, are many elegant villas. The town is well supplied with excellent water, which is brought in pipes from the hills of Touch, somewhat more than three miles distant.

There are two churches, called from their situations, the East and West Kirks. The former is a very fine building, erected partly by Cardinal Beaton. The latter is a structure of much older date, and in a ruder style of what is called the Gothic. No date has ever been discovered on any part of its walls; but there is little room for doubt, but that it was the chapel of the monastery of Dominicans, which was founded near to the walls of Stirling, by Alexander II., in the year 1233. This church has been lately repaired, and is now, internally, one of the most elegant old churches in Scotland. There are three hospitals, the first endowed by Robert Spittal, tailor to James IV., and built in 1530, for the support of poor tradesmen. This same person also built the bridges of Doune and Bannockburn, and executed several other works of great utility. The second was founded by John Cowan, in 1639, for 12 decayed guild-brethren. This hospital is situated to the south of the church, and has a steeple and bell, and apartments for the guildry to meet in. The revenue amounts to £3000 per annum. The third was founded by John Allan, for the maintenance and education of the children of decayed tradesmen, the revenue of which amounts to £486 15s. 9d. In 1808, Alexander Cunningham, a merchant, left £5000 as a fund for educating the children of poor freemen mechanics, and to augment the pensions to their widows. The town-house is a large building, with convenient apartments for the town courts; and there has been lately erected a new jail, upon an approved plan, and a spacious and elegant hall for the circuit and sheriff courts. In the council-chamber is kept the *jugg*, appointed by law to be the standard for liquid measures in Scotland. The grammar school, the academy for accounts and mathematics, and the English school, are large and commodious, placed in airy and agreeable situations, and taught by masters who are a credit to their profession. At the termination of John's-street and the Baker's-wynd, where the meal market formerly stood, a new and elegant building, with a spire 120 feet high, is now finished, for a reading-room and a public library. The books are well selected and arranged, and consist of several thousand volumes. This structure is finely situated, and is a great ornament to the lower part of the town. In the Castle-wynd stands Argyll's lodgings, built in 1633, by Sir William Alexander, of Menstrie, secretary to Charles I. It afterwards came into the Argyll family; and here duke John resided in 1715. It is now the military hospital. At the end of the High-street stands Marr's wark, begun in 1572, during the regency of that nobleman, but never finished.

Stirling has a considerable inland trade, and some foreign, chiefly to the Baltic. Vessels of 60 and 70 tons burden come up to the quay; but the navigation from Alloa is circuitous, and no wind can be a fair one, either for going up or down, blow from what quarter it will. So early as the year 1600, Stirling manufactured a considerable quantity of shalloons for exportation, but this trade has fluctuated greatly since. Cotton and woollen are the principal manufactures at present, particularly carpets; but it cannot be considered as a manufacturing place. Besides a branch of the bank of Scotland, there is a banking company belonging to the town.

Stirling is a place of great antiquity. Buchanan mentions it frequently in his history, so early as the 9th century, but gives no description of it. The most ancient of the town's charters is granted by king Alexander I., and is dated at Kincardine, the 18th of August, in the 12th year of his reign (i. e. A. D. 1120); but there is reason to believe that Stirling was incorporated long before, as it is not a charter of erection, but only confers some additional privileges on the burghers and freemen. About the middle of the 12th century, it became a royal residence. David I. kept his court

court in it, probably that he might be near the abbacy of Cambuskenneth, which he founded. It is probable that the town grew to its present size very soon after it became the residence of royalty; and it appears to have undergone very little change either in size or in the number of its inhabitants, the last 600 years, till very lately. It holds a fifth rank among the Scottish royal burghs, and was one of the *curia quatuor burgorum*. The municipal government consists of a provost, four bailies, a dean of guild, treasurer, and 14 other councillors, making the whole 21; 14 of whom are merchants, and 7 representatives of the incorporated trades. It unites with Dunfermline, Inverkeithing, Queensferry, and Culross, in sending a member to parliament. The revenue arising from the salmon fishery, shore dues, meal and flesh market dues, customs, &c., amounts to about 2250*l.* per annum. Besides the ordinary jurisdiction in civil causes, the magistrates have also an extensive criminal jurisdiction, equal to the power of sheriffs, within their territories. The borough of Stirling, owing to some corrupt transactions in the council, was in 1775 disfranchised by sentence of the court of session; and its charter was not restored till 1781, when the borough received a new constitution from the crown. The castle is situated at the western extremity of the rock on which the town is built, and is of great antiquity; but previous to the 9th century, there are no accounts of it. When Kenneth II. overthrew the Pictish government, he ordered this castle to be razed. It was soon, however, rebuilt; for in the succeeding reign of Donald V. the kingdom was invaded by Osbriht and Ella, two Northumbrian princes, who, having possession of the territory south of the Forth, rebuilt the castle of Stirling, and placed in it a strong garrison, to preserve their new conquests, on the frontiers of which it was situated. In the 10th century it again came into the possession of the Scots; and, during the Danish invasion in 1009, it was the place of rendezvous for the Scottish army. In the 12th century, it was one of the most important fortresses in the kingdom, and was one of the four which were delivered up to the English, as part of the ransom of William the Lion, who, in 1174, had been taken captive near Alnwick, in Northumberland. During the tyrannical usurpation of Edward I. it was several times taken and retaken by the English and Scots; in the former of whose hands it was kept for ten years, until retaken by Robert Bruce after the battle of Bannockburn. It was for a short time in the possession of the English in 1333, and lastly taken by Monk in 1651. The rebels besieged it for a short time in 1746. Though it had been some time a regal residence before the accession of the Stuart family, it does not appear to have been fitted up with great magnificence, until it became the favourite residence of James I. It was the birth-place of James II.; and in it he perpetrated the murder of his kinsman, William earl of Douglas, whom he stabbed with his own hand. The room where the deed was committed still goes by the name of Douglas's room. About 20 years ago, the skeleton of a man was found in the cleft of the rock immediately under the window of this room; it was that of a tall man, and was supposed to be that of the earl. James III. was very fond of this palace, and built within it a magnificent hall for the meetings of parliament, which is now converted into barracks. Adjoining to the parliament-house is the chapel royal, erected by James VI. in 1594, for the baptism of his son prince Henry. In this chapel is shewn a coarse antique pulpit, which is said, but with little probability, to have been the pulpit of Knox, the celebrated Scotch reformer. The chapel has undergone a similar reverse of fortune with the parliament-house, and is now converted into a store-room and armoury. The royal chapel, however, in which James himself was baptized with so much pomp by the unfortunate Mary, was a building of much greater dignity than that which has been converted into a store-room. It is a stately building, in the form of a square, with a small court in the centre. Externally it is very richly and curiously ornamented with grotesque figures, standing upon pillars or pedestals. The palace is now converted into barrack wards for the

soldiers of the garrison, and affords a house to the governor, and rooms for the inferior officers. Here is also shewn the apartments occupied by Buchanan, while preceptor to James VI. A strong battery was erected about the year 1559, during the regency of Mary of Lorraine, called the French battery. In the reign of queen Anne, the castle was enlarged and repaired; and a flanking battery, named Queen Anne's battery, with barracks bomb proof, was erected on the south side. Since that period, no alteration or repairs of any consequence have been made. This castle has once been a place of great strength, before the use of artillery; but now it could scarcely hold out a few hours. About 36 guns are mounted on the ramparts. Stirling castle is commanded by a governor, deputy-governor, fort-major, and three subalterns. It is one of the Scottish forts which, by the articles of union, are always to be kept in repair. Parliaments were frequently held here. Upon the rock; and on the south side of the castle, is a flat piece of ground, inclosed, which was the place of the tournaments; and on one side is a place where the ladies used to sit, still named the Ladies' rock. As this fortress was frequently the scene of bloody contention, it is customary to point out to every stranger 12 fields of battle within view of its walls. The prospect from the Castle hill is most delightful, as well as extensive, being greatly beautified, especially towards the east, by the windings of the Forth, the ruins of the abbey of Cambuskenneth, the Abbey craig, a rock very similar to that on which Stirling is built, and the city of Edinburgh. The rock upon which the castle is built is basaltic, being composed of jointed pillars of a pentagonal or hexagonal form. Around the castle is a pleasant walk, carried from the town, in many places cut out of the solid rock. From this walk there are several beautiful views, and it gives an excellent opportunity of examining the basaltic pillars of which the rock is composed. The parish of Stirling is confined to the burgh, and a small territory round it, on the opposite side of the Forth, and in the county of Clackmannan; 35 miles north-west of Edinburgh, and 29 north-east of Glasgow. Lat. 56. 6. N. long. 3. 59. W.

STIRONE, a small river of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, which passes by Borgo San Domino, and falls into the Taro.

STIRP, *s.* [*stirps*, Lat.] Race; family; generation. *Not used.*—Sundry nations got footing in that land, of the which there yet remain divers great families and *stirps*. *Spenser.*—Democracies are less subject to sedition than when there are *stirps* of nobles. *Bacon.*—All nations of might and fame resorted hither; of whom we have some *stirps* and little tribes with us at this day. *Bacon.*

STIRRAGE, *s.* Motion; act of stirring.—They cannot sleep soundly, but the crowing of the cock, the noise of little birds,—every small *stirrage* waketh them. *Granger.*

STIRRER, *s.* One who is in motion; one who puts in motion.

But ever to no ends:

What, did this *stirrer* but die late?

How well at twenty had he fall'n or stood,

For three of his fourscore he did no good. *B. Jonson.*

A riser in the morning.—Come on; give me your hand, sir; an early *stirrer*. *Shakspeare.*—An inciter; an instigator.

STIRRER up. An inciter; an instigator.—A perpetual spring, not found elsewhere but in the Indies only, by reason of the sun's neighbourhood, the life and *stirrer up* of nature in a perpetual activity. *Raleigh.*

STIRRING, *s.* [*stirring*, Sax.] The act of moving.—The great judge of all knows every different degree of human improvement, from these weak *stirrings* and tendencies of the will, which have not yet formed themselves into regular purposes, to the last entire consummation of a good habit. *Addison.*

STIRRUP, *s.* [*stirrup*, *stirap*, from *stigan*, Sax.,

to climb, and pap, a cord.] An iron hoop suspended by a strap, in which the horseman sets his foot when he mounts or rides.

My friend, judge not me,
Thou see'st I judge not thee.
Between the *stirrup* and the ground,
Mercy I ask'd, mercy I found.

Camden.

STIRTON, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 1 mile from Skipton.

STISTED, a parish of England, in Essex; 3 miles east-north-east of Braintree. Population 574.

To STITCH, *v. a.* [*sticke*, Danish; *sticken*, Dutch.] To sew; to work with a needle on any thing.—To join; to unite, generally with some degree of clumsiness or inaccuracy.—Having *stitched* together these animadversions touching architecture and their ornaments. *Wotton.*

To STITCH *up*. To mend what was rent.—It is in your hand as well to *stitch* up his life again, as it was before to rent it. *Sidney.*—I with a needle and thread *stitch'd up* the artery and the wound. *Wiscman.*

To STITCH, *v. n.* To practice needlework.

STITCH, *s.* A pass of the needle and thread through any thing.—[from *stician*, Sax.] A sharp lancinating pain.—If you desire the spleen, and will laugh yourself into *stitches*, follow me; youder gull Malvolio is turned heathen, a very renegado. *Shakspeare.*—A link of yarn in knitting.—There fell twenty *stitches* in his stocking. *Mot-teux.*—In Chapman it seems to mean furrows or ridges.

Many men at plow he made, and drave earth here and there,
And turn'd up *stitches* orderly.

Chapman.

In the following line allusion is made to a knit stock.

A *stitch*-fall'n cheek, that hangs below the jaw,
Such wrinkles as a skilful hand would draw,
For an old grandam ape.

Dryden.

STITCHEL AND HUME, a united parish of Scotland, in the counties of Roxburgh and Berwick, of an irregular figure, five or six miles long, and between three and four broad. Population 930.

STITCHERY, *s.* Needlework. In contempt.—Come lay aside your *stitchery*; play the idle housewife with me this afternoon. *Shakspeare.*

STITCHWORT, *s.* Camomile. *Ainsworth.* See AN-THEMIS.

STITH, *adj.* [ἴτιθ, Saxon.] Strong; stiff: a *stithe* cheese, i. e. *strong* cheese. North. *Ray.*

STITH, *s.* [from the Sax. ἴτιθ, *strong*.] An anvil.

The smith

That forgeth sharpe swerdes on his *stith*.

Chaucer.

STITHIAN'S, ST., a parish of England, in Cornwall; 4 miles north west of Penryn. Population 1394.

STITHY, *s.* [*stedi*, Icelandic; ἴτιθ, *hard*, Sax.] A smith's shop; and sometimes merely an anvil, as in parts of the north of England.

My imaginations are as foul
As vulcan's *stithy*.

Shakspeare.

To STITHY, *v. a.* To form on the anvil.—The forge that *stithed* Mars his helm. *Shakspeare.*

STITTENHAM, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7½ miles west-south-west of New Malton.

To STIVE, *v. a.* [supposed of the same original with *stew*.]—To stuff up close.—You would admire, if you saw them *stive* it in their ships. *Sandys.*—To make hot or sultry.—His chamber was commonly *stived* with friends or suitors of one kind or other. *Wotton.*

STIVER, *s.* [Dutch.] A Dutch coin about the value of a halfpenny.

STIVICHALL, a parish of England, in Warwickshire, 1½ mile south-by-west of Coventry.

STIXWOULD, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6½ miles west-south-west of Horncastle.

STOÆ [στοαι, Gr.], in Antiquity, the porticoes at Athens.

These were full of exedræ, [εἰσεδραῖ, Gr.], and side buildings, furnished with seats fit for study or discourse.

STOAKHAM, a hamlet of England, in the parish of East Drayton, near Tuxford.

STOAT, *s.* A small stinking animal, of the weasel kind.

Ne armed knight ydrad in war
With lion fierce will I compare:
Ne judge unjust with furred fox
Harming in secret guise the flocks:
Ne priest unworth of Goddes coat
To swine ydrunk, or filthy *stoat*.

Prior.

STOBÆUS (Joannes), a Greek writer, supposed to have flourished in the beginning of the fifth century, about A.D., 405, was the author of several works, none of which have come entire to modern times, except the fragments of a collection of extracts from ancient poets and philosophers. These have been published at various times, under the titles of "Eclogæ," "Sententiæ," and "Sermones." The "Sententiæ" were published by Gesner with a Latin version, Tigur. 1659, fol.; and Grotius gave an edition of "Dicta Poetarum apud Stobæum," Gr. and Lat., Paris, 1623, 4to. The latest edition of Stobæus is that entitled "Sermones," Lips. 1797. The writer seems to have been a mere compiler. Fabricius thinks that he was not a Christian, since his extracts are exclusively from heathen authors. *Fab. Bibl. Græc.*

STOBO, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Peebles; six miles long, and from three to four broad. Population 422.

STOCAH, *s.* [Irish; *stochk*, Erse.] An attendant; a wallet-boy. *Not in use.*—He holdeth himself a gentleman, and scorneth to work;—which he saith is the life of a peasant: but thenceforth becometh an horseboy, or a *stocah* to some kern, inuring himself to his sword, and the gentlemanly trade of stealing. *Spenser.*

STOCCA'DE, *s.* [*stockade*, Teut. (vulgo *stoccada*), a dagger. Kilian.] An enclosure or fence made with pointed stakes.

Extend a rail of elm securely arm'd,
With spiculated paling, in such sort
As round some citadel, the engineer
Directs his sharp *stoccad*.

Mason.

STOCCA'DO, *s.* [*estocade*, Fr., a thrust. See STOC-CADE. From the Teut. *stock*, a sword, a dagger; *stocco*, Ital.] A thrust with a rapier.—You stand on distance, your passes, *stoccados*, and I know not what. *Shakspeare.*

STOCHSTADT, a small town in the west of Germany, in the Bavarian states, on the Maine; 3 miles west of Aschaffenburg, and 15 south-east of Frankfort-on-the-Maine. Population 1100.

STOCK, *s.* [*stockr*, *stocks*, Su. Goth. *truncus*, *trabs*; *roc*, Saxon; *stock*, Dutch; *estoc*, Fr.] The trunk; the body of a plant.

That furious beast

His precious hour, sought of his enemies,
Strikes in the *stock*, ne thence can be releas'd.

Spenser.

The trunk into which a graft is inserted.

As fruits, ungrateful to the planter's care,
On savage *stocks* inserted, learn to bear;
The surest virtues thus from passions shoot,
Wild nature's vigour working at the root.

Pope.

A log; a post.—Men, serving either calamity or tyranny, did ascribe unto stones and *stocks* the incommunicable Name. *Wisd.*—A man proverbially stupid.

While we admire

This virtue and this moral discipline,
Let's be no *stocks*, nor no *stocks*.

Shakspeare.

The handle of any thing.—A support of a ship while it is building.

Fresh supplies of ships,

And such as fitted since the fight had been,
Or new from *stocks* were fall'n into the road.

Dryden.

[*Stock*,

[*Stock*, Teut. *stocco*, a rapier, Italian.] A thrust; a stoc-
cado.—To see thee here, to see thee there; to see thee pass
thy puncto, thy *stock*, thy reverse. *Shakspeare*.—Some-
thing made of linen; a cravat; a close neckcloth. Anciently
a cover for the leg, now *stocking*.—His lackey with a linen
stock on one leg, and a kersey boot-hose on the other.
Shakspeare.—A race; a lineage; a family.

Say what *stock* he springs of.—

—The noble house of Marcus.

Shakspeare.

Thou has seen one world begin, and end,
And man, as from a second *stock* proceed.

Milton.

The principal; capital store: fund already provided. The
word is rarely found in the plural.—We cast our eyes upon
all sorts of good that is to be done: The poor in extremity
must be holpen; orphans and aged must be provided for;
our poor friends that are behind hand; prisoners, and dis-
tressed householders, young tradesmen that want *stocks*,
must be thought on. *Dr. White*.

Some honour of your own acquire;

Add to that *stock*, which justly we bestow,

Of those blest shades to whom you all things owe. *Dryden*.

Yet was she not profuse; but fear'd to waste,
And wisely manag'd that the *stock* might last;
That all might be supply'd, and she not grieve,
When crouds appear'd, she had not to relieve;
Which to prevent, she still increas'd her store;
Laid up, and spar'd, that she might give the more. *Dryden*.

Quantity; store; body.—He proposes to himself no small
stock of fame in future ages, in being the first who has un-
dertaken this design. *Arbutnot*.—Cattle in general. North.
Pegge.—A fund established by the government, of which
the value rises and falls by artifice or chance. *Dr. Johnson*.
—The word, in this sense, is also old French: "*Stoques*,
a borrowing or taking up money upon interest; whence
faire stoques, so to borrow." *Colgrave*.

Statesman and patriot ply alike the *stocks*,
Peers and butler share alike the box.

Pope.

Prison for the legs: commonly also without singular. See
STOCKS.

To *STOCK*, *v. a.* To store; to fill sufficiently.

I, who before with shepherds in the groves,
Sung to my oaten pipe their rural loves,
Manur'd the glebe, and *stock'd* the fruitful plain. *Dryden*.

To lay up in store; as, he *stocks* what he cannot use.—
To put in the *stocks*. *Dr. Johnson*.—To stock means,
anciently, to confine. [*stucka*, in cippo vel robore tenere
aut custodire. Leges ant. Goth. *Screnius*. So *stecken*,
Teut. to confine in the stocks.] See also *STOCKS*.

Call not your *stocks* for me; I serve the king.
On whose employment I was sent to you:
You shall do small respect, shew too bold malice
Against the grace and person of my master,
Stocking his messenger. *Shakspeare*.

To extirpate. Sometimes with *up*.

The time shall quickly come, thy groves and pleasant springs,
Where to the mirthful merle the warbling mavis sings,
The painful labourer's hand shall *stock*, the roots to burn.
Drayton.

The wild boar not only spoils her branches, but *stocks up*
her roots. *Dec. of Chr. Piety*.

STOCK, a parish in Essex; 3 miles north-north-east of
Billericay. Population 532.

STOCK, or *STOKE*, a parish in Worcestershire; 7 miles
east-south-east of Droitwich.

STOOKACH, a small town of Germany, in Baden, on a
small river of the same name; 15 miles north-west of Con-
stance, and 19 north-east of Schaffhausen. The French under
Jourdan, were defeated here by the Austrians under
the archduke Charles, on 25th March, 1799.

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STOCKAU, a small town of the Bavarian states, in the
principality of Neuburgh, on the small river Paar; 5 miles
east-south-east of Bayreuth.

STOCKBRIDGE, a market town of England, in the
county of Hants, situated on the road from Winchester to
Salisbury, and on the eastern side of the river Test. It con-
sists chiefly of a range of houses scattered along each side of
the highway. The inhabitants possess little trade, and de-
pend chiefly on the resort of travellers, the town being a con-
siderable thoroughfare. A new bridge was lately erected
here over the Test. About two miles to the westward, on
Houghton-down, is a good race course. Stockbridge is a
borough by prescription, and its government is vested in a
bailiff, who is the returning officer; a constable, and a serjeant
at mace. It sends two members to parliament, a privilege
first possessed in the beginning of the reign of Elizabeth.
The right of election is in the inhabitants paying church and
poor rates. The number of voters is about 57. Both mem-
bers and voters have been frequently cited before the House
of Commons for bribery and corruption. Market on Thurs-
day; 15 miles east of Salisbury, and 66 west-south-west of
London.

STOCKBRIDGE, a township of England, in Worcester-
shire; 2 miles from Perith.

STOCKBRIDGE, a small village of England, West
Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles north-by-west of Don-
caster.

STOCKBRIDGE, a post township of the United States,
in Windsor county, Vermont; 32 miles north-west of Wind-
sor. Population 700.

STOCKBRIDGE, a post township of the United States,
in Berkshire county, Massachusetts; 130 miles west of
Boston. Population 1372. It is an excellent agricultural
town, and has a handsome village, and contains a quarry of
marble.

STOCKBRIDGE, WEST, a post township of the United
States, in Berkshire county, Massachusetts; 135 miles west
of Boston. Population 1049. Here are very valuable
quarries of white and blue marble, and an iron mine. The
town is watered by William's river and its branches, which
furnish seats for mills and iron works.

STOCKBRIDGE HILL, in Hampshire, England, 620 feet
in height.

STOCKBROKER, s. One who deals in stock, or the
public funds.

STOCKBURY, a parish in Kent; 5 miles west-by-south
of Milton.

STOCKDOVE, s. Ringdove.

Stockdoves and turtles tell their am'rous pain,
And, from the lofty elms, of love complain. *Dryden*.

STOCKELSDORP, a village of Denmark, in Holstein;
2 miles from Lubeck. It has manufactures of stone-ware,
carpets, and cards.

STOCKEN, or *STOCKHEIM*, a small inland town of the
Netherlands, in the province of Limburg, on the Maese, with
1000 inhabitants; 12 miles north of Maastricht.

STOCKENITZ, or *STEKENISSE*, a small river in the south
of the Danish dominions, in the duchy of Lauenburg. It
has its source from a lake near the small town of Mollen, and
flows into the Elbe. A canal dug from this lake to the river
Trave, conveys boats from Boitzenberg to Lubeck.

STOCKERAU, a small town of Lower Austria, on the
Danube; 13 miles north-north-west of Vienna. It contains
including its parish, 3600 inhabitants. It has extensive corn
markets; also some cotton manufactures.

STOCKERSTONE, a parish of England, in Leicesters-
hire; 10 miles north-east of Market Harborough.

STOCKFISH, s. [*stockvisch*, Dutch.] Dried cod,
so called from its hardness.

He's to be made more tractable, I doubt not:—

Yes, if they taw him as they do whit-leather

Upon an iron, or beat him soft like *stock-fish*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

STOCKGALAND, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 6 miles from Chard.

STOCKG'LLYFLOWER, *s.* A plant. See **LEUCO-IUM**.

STOCKHAM, a township of England, in Cheshire; 3 miles north-east of Frodsham.

STOCKHEIM. See **STOCKEN**.

STOCKHEIM, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of the Lower Maine, near Melrichstadt, with 1200 inhabitants.

STOCKHOLM, a large city, the capital of Sweden, is situated at the junction of the lake Macler with an inlet of the Baltic. The form of the town is an irregular oblong, extending from north to south, while the waters cross it in two channels from east to west. The situation is extremely picturesque, as well from the mixture of land and water, as from the unevenness of the ground, which rises at one place into gentle eminences, and at another is covered with abrupt rocks of granite. Nothing can surpass the view from the buildings on the higher grounds; churches, spires, public edifices, are all in prospect, and intermingled with the vessels at anchor, or sailing along the capacious channels, while the view is terminated by mountains. The lake is finely diversified with islands, some bare and craggy, others adorned with trees, gardens, and villas. Stockholm is generally described as standing on seven islands, but it would be more correct to limit the number to three, *viz.*, one large island to the southward called Södermalm, a small one in the centre, another somewhat larger to the north-west, and a track on the mainland to the north, called Normalm. The smaller islands, or rather islets, contain only forts or buildings for naval purposes. The central island constituted the original city, and is still the most busy part of the town, its quays being bordered by a stately range of buildings, the residence, of the principal merchants. It contains the palace and other public buildings; but its houses being high, and its streets narrow, its appearance is somewhat gloomy, and a stranger experiences a pleasant change on crossing the great bridge to the northward, taking in his view the shipping to the right and left, and entering soon after on the long streets of the Normalm. Of these the principal is Queen-street, extending in a straight line more than a mile from the observatory to the side of the lake. In this part of the town are the prince's palace, the opera house, and, in the centre of a square, a bronze equestrian statue of Gustavus Adolphus. The streets are at right angles to each other, but several of them are narrow and indifferently paved; a remark applicable also to the Södermalm, or southern division of the city, which contains but few public buildings, but has, on an eminence called the Mount of Moses, a view displaying an assemblage of rocks, houses, plantations, ships, and water, in all the variety of romantic scenery.

The number of bridges, great and small, in this capital, is twelve. The houses of Stockholm are built in the central part of the town, either of stone or of brick, covered with plaster. Their foundations are on piles; their height seldom less than four or five stories; but in the suburbs they are of only one or two stories, and a number of them are of wood.

Public Edifices.—Of these, the principal is the royal palace, a large quadrangular structure, with a square or court in the middle. The situation is elevated, the style of the architecture grand but simple; so that it is accounted second to no palace in Europe, with the exception of that of Versailles. The lower part of the walls is of polished granite, and though the upper part be of brick, a covering of Stucco gives it the appearance of stone; the roof, like that of a number of public buildings in Sweden, is of copper. The interior is elegantly ornamented. In one of the halls are preserved certain relics of antiquity, brought from Italy by Gustavus III. (father of the king deposed in 1809), comprising a number of statues; among others the famous Eudymion, discovered in the Villa Adriana. At a short distance from the palace, on the quays, stands a fine bronze statue of Gustavus III. raised on a pedestal of polished porphyry. The palace, or house of assembling for the nobility

during the sitting of the diet, is an elegant edifice, ornamented on the outside with marble statues and columns, in the inside with paintings and sculptures. The arsenal, situated in a pleasant promenade called the king's garden, contains a number of trophies of the brilliant days of the Swedish monarchy, and other objects, interesting from their connection with the history of the country. The bank, built at the expense of the city, the mint, and the exchange, are all entitled to the notice of a stranger. After this come the hotel-de-ville, the royal stables, the great depôt or warehouse for iron, the hospitals and philanthropic institutions. The churches are substantial, and, in some cases, elegant buildings; but it would be difficult to point out any one of them particularly remarkable for size, architecture, or decorations. Their spires are in general lofty.

Literary Associations.—The literary societies of Stockholm are numerous and respectable. The academy of sciences was founded in 1739, by a small association which counted Linnæus among its members. At present it comprises 100 native and 60 foreign members. The Swedish academy, founded by Gustavus III. in 1786, is on a more limited scale, comprising only 18 members, and confining its labours to the improvement of the Swedish language, and to fixing, by the composition of a grammar and dictionary, on the plan of the academy of France, the standard of vernacular composition. Next comes the academy of fine arts, history and antiquities; a military academy, a patriotic and an agricultural society, an academy for painting and sculpture, and finally, an academy of music. Here is also a medical college, exercising a superintendance over the medical establishments of the kingdom at large. Of collections, the most interesting are the royal library (about 40,000 volumes), the cabinet of minerals, the zoological cabinet. This city contains an unusual number of private collections.

Trade.—Stockholm is the mercantile emporium of the central part of Sweden—the place to which its products are brought for export, and where the greater part of the imports from abroad are deposited. Few harbours have greater depth or capacity, for a thousand sail of shipping may lie here in safety, and the largest of them may come close to the quays. The only drawback on the navigation arises from the number of small islands and detached rocks at the mouth of the inlet from the Baltic, and the delay occasionally experienced in coming up a winding channel from the sea, a distance of more than twenty miles, and which in one part is contracted into a narrow strait bordered by high rocks. To lessen the hazard of loss from casualties on the adjoining coast, or in the arms of the sea, there is at Stockholm a singular institution called the "Company of Divers," who are bound to give their aid at shipwrecks, and are entitled in return to a proportion of the goods saved. The number of vessels that enter the harbour annually is averaged at one thousand. The chief exports are the ponderous and bulky commodities of the north, *viz.*, iron, steel, copper, pitch, tar, and timber; the imports, colonial produce, wine, fruit, salt, and, in a limited degree, British manufactures. The extent of inland trade becomes considerable even in this thinly peopled country, by the length of the lake, which extends sixty miles into the interior, with a much farther prolongation by the canals of Arboga and Stroemsholm. Iron and steel articles are the chief exports. The timber is not so large as that in the southern parts of the Baltic.

The manufactures of Stockholm, without being on a large scale, are diversified, comprising iron foundries, glass works, sugar refineries; also leather, cotton, hats, stockings, silk, watches, clocks, mathematical instruments, articles of gold and silver. Plates are likewise made in this city, the only place of extensive manufacture in the kingdom, and computed to carry on two-thirds of the foreign trade of Sweden. Of late years the trade of the capital, as of the kingdom at large, has been greatly cramped by restrictions imposed partly in England, to favour the import of timber from Canada, partly in Sweden, on the absurd calculation of promoting home industry, by prohibiting foreign manufactures.

tures. Nothing would conduce so much to the extension of trade as the abrogation of these prohibitions, and an equally ill judged discouragement on the export of timber in foreign vessels.

Stockholm appears to have been founded in the 13th century, and to have owed its gradual increase to the commercial advantages of its situation, the court having continued at Upsal until the 17th century. Since then, Stockholm has been, like London, at once the seat of government and the centre of commerce; like London also it possesses the advantage of water communication on a great scale, without being exposed to an attack by sea, or incurring alarms similar to those so severely experienced in the present age, by its southern rival Copenhagen. The population of the whole city and suburbs together, approaches to 80,000; 320 miles north-east of Copenhagen, 420 west of St. Petersburg, and 850 north-east of London. Lat. 59. 20. 31. N. long. of the observatory 18. 3. 30. E.

STOCKHOLM, an extensive province of Sweden, which comprises the eastern parts of Upland and Sudermania, or the districts of Roslagen and Sodertern, having an area of 2736 square miles, with 100,000 inhabitants. The city of Stockholm, with a small territory surrounding it, forms, however, a separate government, and has its own magistrates.

STOCKHOLM, a post township of the United States, in Lawrence county, New York; 30 miles east of Ogdensburg. Population 307.

STOCKHOLM, a post township of the United States, in Morris county, New Jersey.

STOCKHORN, a mountain of Switzerland, in the canton of Berne, among the Alps, 7200 feet in perpendicular height.

STO'CKING, *s.* [The original word seem to be *stock*, whence *stocks*, a prison for the legs. *Stock*, in the old language, made the plural *stocken*, which was used for a pair of *stocks* or covers for the legs. *Stocken* was in time taken for a singular, and pronounced *stocking*. The like corruption has happened to *chick*, *chicken*, *chickens*. *Johnson*.] The covering of the leg.—In his first approach before my lady he will come to her in yellow *stockings*, and 'tis a colour she abhors. *Shakspeare*.

To STO'CKING, *v. a.* To dress in stockings. *Stocking'd* with loads of fat town-dirt, he goes. *Dryden*.

STO'CKJOBBER, *s.* One who gets money by buying and selling shares in the funds.

The *stockjobber* thus from 'Change-alley goes down,
And tips you the freeman a wink;
Let me have but your vote to serve for the town,
And here is a guinea to drink.

Swift.

STO'CKJOBBERING, *s.* The act of buying and selling stock in the public funds for the turn of the scale, or on speculation.—A system, that ought to be plainest, and fairest imaginable, will become a dark, intricate, and wicked mystery of *stockjobbing*. *Bolingbroke*.

STO'CKISH, *adj.* Hard; blockish.

The poet

Did feign that Orpheus drew trees, stones and floods;
Since nought so *stockish*, hard, and full of rage,
But music for the time doth change his nature. *Shakspeare*.

STOCKLAND, a parish in Dorsetshire; 6 miles north-east of Honiton.

STOCKLAND, a hamlet in Somersetshire; 6½ miles north-west of Bridgewater.

STOCKLEWATH, a township in Cumberland; 8 miles south-by-west of Carlisle.

STOCKLEY, a hamlet in the county of Durham; 4½ miles south-west of Durham.

STOCKLEY, ENGLISH, a parish in Devonshire; 4½ miles north-by-east of Crediton.

STOCKLEY, POMERAY, another parish in the above county; 1 mile distant from the foregoing.

STOCKLINCH, MAGDALEN, a parish in Somersetshire; 2½ miles north-east of Ilminster.

STOCKLINCH, OTTERSEY, another parish in Somersetshire; 1 mile distant from the foregoing.

STO'CKLOCK, *s.* Lock fixed in wood.—There are locks for several purposes; as street-door-locks, called *stocklocks*; chamber-door-locks, called spring-locks, and cupboard-locks. *Moxon*.

STOCKPORT, a large market town and borough of England, in the county of Chester, situated on the river Mersey. It is, strictly speaking, partly in Cheshire, and partly also in Lancashire; the portion in the latter county being called Heaton Norris, and united to the Cheshire part by a bridge over the river. The ground on which the town is built is very irregular. The central part stands on the top of a hill, which has a very steep descent towards the Mersey on the north, but is of easy access on the other sides. The parish church and the market-place are situated on the summit of the hill, which affords a level of considerable extent. Towards the north the hill becomes perpendicular for a height equal to that of the houses, a row of which encircles the base. The appearance of these houses is very singular, and some of them have apartments hollowed out of the rock. An upper row of houses on the top of the rock completely encircles the market-place; and from this central part, the town branches off in different directions, extending, by the recent increase of buildings, into the country on all sides. The streets are very irregular, and some of them so steep that loaded carts can with difficulty be driven down them. The principal public buildings in the town are the places of religious worship. Of these, the parish church of St. Mary is the most ancient. The date of this building, and of the founder, are both unknown; but the style of some parts of the architecture appears to be of the 14th century. It is a spacious structure, consisting of a nave, chancel, and side aisles. But the stone of it is so worn away, that an additional row of masonry has been carried up to support the steeple. The town contains a Calvinist chapel, various meeting-houses for Presbyterians, Methodists, Quakers, and other dissenters; and also a Roman Catholic chapel. The chief public institutions in Stockport are, a free school, founded in 1437 by Sir Edmund Shaw; an alms-house, endowed in 1683 by Edward Warren, Esq.; a dispensary, built in 1797 on a very large scale; and several Sunday schools, instituted in 1714, one of which, conducted chiefly by Methodists, is on so extensive a plan, that 3000 children, are educated in it gratuitously. A large school was erected by subscription in 1805. The population of Stockport and of the neighbourhood is chiefly employed in the various branches of the cotton trade; and it is on the flourishing state of this manufacture, which has been carried on here to a great extent, that the importance of the town chiefly depends. This trade naturally arose from the silk manufacture, which was early established here on a plan procured from Italy. On the decline of this business, the machinery was applied to cotton spinning. In 1810, according to a statement of Messrs. Lysons, there were then in the town 25 spacious factories for cotton goods, one silk mill, and several establishments for the making of muslin. Since that time, the manufacturing establishments of the town have greatly increased, and many of the mills are driven by steam engines. Besides the cotton manufacture, the making of hats forms a considerable branch of employment in Stockport. The trade of the town in general has been greatly promoted by the canal which has been formed to Manchester, and which, by joining with the Duke of Bridgewater's canal at the latter place, communicates with, and forms a branch of, the extensive system of canal navigation in this part of the kingdom. The police of Stockport is managed by two resident magistrates, two constables, four churchwardens, and three overseers of the poor. The parish contains 14 townships, viz., Stockport, Bramhall, Bredbury, Binnington, Didsley, Duckinfield, Etmells, or Stockport Etmells, Hyde, Marple, Norbury, Offerton, Romiley, Torkinton, and Wernith. These are all populous, and appear chiefly to have been parts of baronies and manors; and in some of them there yet remain armorial

or architectural relics of their antiquity. Stockport was a barony under the ancient earls of Chester; but the time when that honour was conferred on it is still a matter of doubt, as it has been of much argument. In the time of Edward I. Robert de Stokeport, earl of Chester, made Stockport a free borough. In 1260, he also obtained a grant of a market and an annual fair. Soon after the Norman conquest, the manor of Stockport belonged to the De la Spencers. It is now the property of Lord Viscount Bulkeley. In the year 1173, the castle of Stockport was held by Geoffrey de Costentine against king Henry II. It afterwards belonged to the Stockports, and subsequently to the earls of Warren; but the whole has long since been demolished. During the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. Stockport was considered an important post, and was garrisoned by the parliamentary army. In May 1644, prince Rupert appeared before it with his army; the garrison, to the amount of 3000, drew out to oppose him, but were repulsed, and the town taken. In 1745, the bridge here was blown up, to prevent the retreat of the rebels after their advance to Derby. Market on Friday. Great quantities of corn, oatmeal, and cheese, are sold at it, for which, especially the latter, it is regarded the best market in the county. Here are four annual fairs, chiefly for cattle; 7 miles south-east of Manchester, and 176 north-north-west of London. Lat. 53. 25. N. long. 2. 12. W.

STOCKPORT, a township of the United States, in Wayne county, Pennsylvania, on the Delaware. There is a portage from this place to Harmony, on the Susquehannah.

STOCKS, *s.* [Commonly without singular.] Prison for the legs. *Dr. Johnson.*—*Stock* is our old word for a fetter; afterwards transferred to the wooden instrument of confinement for the legs. *Todd.*

Fetch forth the *stocks* :

As I have life and honour, there shall he sit 'till noon.

Shakspeare.

Wooden work upon which ships are built; public funds. **STOCKSTADT**, a small town of Germany, in the Bavarian States, on the Maine, with 1100 inhabitants; 4 miles west of Aschaffenburg.

STOCKSTILL, *adj.* Motionless as logs.—Our preachers stand *stockstill* in the pulpit, and will not so much as move a finger to set off the best sermon. *Addison.*

STOCKTON, or **STOCKTON-ON-TEES**, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Durham, situated on the north bank of the Tees, about ten miles from its mouth, where the river expands into a wide estuary, and joins the German Ocean. The town stands on a moderate ascent from the river. It is neat, clean, and airy, and on the whole perhaps the handsomest town in the north of England. The streets are well paved, flagged, and lighted; the houses are in general built with brick, and covered with tiles. The principal street extends for about half a mile in a direction nearly north and south, and is remarkable for its width, which, in the centre, at the market-place, is upwards of sixty yards, and continues nearly as broad throughout, a circumstance which renders the entrance from the north or south peculiarly striking. Several smaller streets branch off in different directions; and at the north-east side is a spacious square, which contains some good buildings. Near the middle of the principal street stands the town-hall, a large square building, with a lofty cupola and spire. Near this is a handsome column of the Doric order, where the market is held. Stockton was constituted a distinct parish in the year 1711, being prior to that time a chapelry to Norton, a pleasant village about two miles to the north. During the episcopacy of Bishop Poore, who died in 1234, a chapel of ease was erected here, which was taken down, and a new church opened in 1712. This is a handsome brick building, with the doors and windows cased with stone; its length, including the tower and chancel, is 150 feet. The tower is at the west end, and is 80 feet high. It contains a fine organ, and the whole interior view is neat and uniform. In the vestry

is a collection of books in divinity, which is increased every year by a small subscription; and circulated in the parish. Besides the church, the town contains also meeting-houses for Presbyterians, Quakers, Methodists and Roman Catholics. The custom-house is a plain but commodious building near the water side, and the theatre also is a neat building, but in a very inconvenient situation. The bridge over the Tees is an elegant structure of five elliptical arches; the centre arch is 72 feet wide, and 23 feet above the river. The foundation of this building was laid in 1764, and the whole was completed in 1771, at an expense of 8000*l.* In 1820, the debt upon the bridge was wholly discharged, and it was opened to passengers toll-free. The general appearance of the town and its approaches has been much improved lately. Waste pieces of ground have been inclosed, fenced in, and planted with shrubberies, forest trees, &c.; and an agreeable promenade has been formed from the town to the bridge. Stockton contains a charity school for 20 boys and 20 girls; to this a national school, consisting of between 300 and 400 children, has been annexed, and a large and commodious room, built by a legacy of 1000*l.* left for that purpose by a native of the place; a school of industry for girls, a grammar-school, two Sunday schools, a dispensary, and almshouses for 13 poor families belonging to the parish. These almshouses have been rebuilt upon a large and elegant Gothic plan, in consequence of a legacy of 3000*l.*, bequeathed for that purpose. The same building contains a committee-room, where the business for the poor is transacted, as well as the concerns of a bank for savings. Stockton is well situated for trade, on account of its vicinity to the sea and to the river. Below the town, the river flows in a very circuitous course, and as it approaches the German Ocean, expands into a large bay, upwards of three miles wide, within which many vessels that are not concerned in the trade of the river, seek shelter in tempestuous weather. In the year 1810, (in pursuance of an act of parliament obtained for that purpose), a navigable cut or canal was made across an isthmus or neck of land, about half a mile below the town, by which means this bend or winding in the river of difficult and dangerous navigation, extending upwards of two miles and a half in length, was shortened to less than one-twelfth part of that distance. This undertaking has proved of great advantage to the shipping-interest of the port, in facilitating the loading and delivery of goods, and has also amply paid the share-holders or proprietors. The commerce of the town began to revive soon after the restoration, and the principal officers of the customs were removed hither from Hartlepool in 1680, and lawful or free quays were set up under a commission from the exchequer in 1683. In 1795, the number of vessels belonging to the port were 47, carrying 5733 tons. At present the trade is of very considerable extent. Large imports are made from the Baltic, Hamburgh, Norway, and Holland, of hemp, flax, iron, timber, linen, yarn, sheetings, hides, bark, smalts, seeds, geneva, &c. The exports are chiefly of lead (in pigs), hams, butter, pork, cheese, leather, grain, flour, sail-cloth, huckabacks, plain linens, tammies, and various other articles, chiefly to the London and northern markets. The manufactures of Stockton consist of two manufactories of sail-cloth, and a considerable one of damask, diaper, and huckaback linens, two breweries, two rope-walks, a large dry dock, two ship-yards, where large vessels are built for the East and West India trades, and others for the coasting and river trades; also two iron foundries, chiefly for mill-work, and a manufactory of patent agricultural machines. Stockton consists of two parts, one called the Borough, where all the land is freehold, and the other the Town, where it is copy or leasehold, held under the vicar and vestrymen, and not within the Borough jurisdiction: for this reason there are two constaberies, with peculiar officers, though both form one parish. The civil government is vested in a mayor, aldermen, and recorder, besides inferior officers. The mayor is elected by a majority of the burgesses, though it is requisite that he should first have been an alderman. Stockton is a borough by prescription, its origin is uncertain, but

its antiquity may be inferred, from its giving name to one of the county wards. Stockton castle, on the south side of the town, was at one time inhabited by the Bishops of Durham, who were appointed to govern the whole province committed to their care. This fortress was on the northern bank of the river Tees, and commanded an extensive prospect of the Cleveland hills and the intervening country. In the time of Charles I., it was garrisoned in behalf of the king, but afterwards fell into the power of the parliamentarians, who ordered it to be destroyed, and not a stone of the former edifice now remains. The only vestiges are the moat, which defended the castle on three sides, and a barn, which appears to have stood within the area of the works. In the year 1327, the castle, and probably the town of Stockton, was nearly destroyed by the Scots. About the beginning of the last century, Stockton appears to have risen into celebrity, and its outward appearance to be considerably improved. The shock of an earthquake was felt here in 1780. Near the town, on the Tees, is a considerable salmon fishery; and at the mouth of the river is a fishery for cockles. Market on Wednesday and Saturday, and monthly cattle-fairs; 21 miles south-east of Durham, and 244 north of London. Lat. 54. 34 N. long. 1. 16. W.

STOCKTON, a parish in Salop; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-east of Bridgenorth.

STOCKTON, a parish in Warwickshire; 2 miles north-east of Southam.

STOCKTON, a parish in Wiltshire; 6 miles north-east of Hindon.

STOCKTON, a parish in Worcestershire; 8 miles south-west of Bewdley.

STOCKTON, a parish in the North Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-east of York.

STOCKTON, a parish in Norfolk; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west of Beccles.

STOCKWELL, a hamlet in Surrey; 2 miles from Westminster bridge, containing many neat villas, and a chapel of ease.

STOCKWITH, EAST, a hamlet in Lincolnshire; 3 miles north-north-west of Gainsborough, on the river Trent. Population 203.

STOCKWITH, WEST, a hamlet in Nottinghamshire, a mile distant from the foregoing, on the opposite side of the Trent. Population 569.

STOCKWOOD, a parish in Dorsetshire; 8 miles south-west of Sherborne.

STOCKY, *adj.* Stout: a provincial word.—They had no titles of honour among them, but such as denoted some bodily strength or perfection; as, such an one the tall, such an one the *stocky*, such an one the gruff. Addison.

STOCZEL, a small town in the interior of Poland, on the road from Warsaw to Lublin.

STODDART, a township of the United States, in Cheshire county, New Hampshire; 44 miles west-south-west of Concord. Population 1132.

STODDAY, a township in Lancashire; 2 miles south-south-west of Lancashire.

STODDERTSVILLE, a post village of the United States in Luzerne county, Pennsylvania.

STODDESSEN, a parish in Salop; 8 miles from Bridgenorth.

STODHART BAY, near the north-west point of the island of Jamaica, is to the east of Sandy bay, and between it and Lucea harbour.

STODMARSH, a parish in Kent; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-north-east of Canterbury.

STODY, a parish in Norfolk; 3 miles south-west-by-south of Holt.

STOEBE. [*Στοιβή* of Dioscorides. Stoebe of Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia segregata, natural order of nucamentaceæ corymbiferae (Juss.)—Generic Character. Calyx: common roundish, imbricate: scales awl-shaped, covering the universal receptacle on every side. Perianth partial, one-flowered, five-

leaved, solitary within each scale of the common calyx, consisting of linear, acute, equal erect leaflets. Corolla proper, one petalled, funnel-form: border five-cleft, patulous. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, short. Anther cylindrical, five-toothed. Pistil: germ oblong. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma acute, bifid. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, oblong. Down feathered, long. Receptacle proper, naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx one-flowered. Corolla tubular, hermaphrodite. Receptacle naked. Down feathered.

1. Stoebe *Æthiopica*.—This, like all the rest, is a shrubby plant. The stem rises two or three feet high, sending out slender branches from the sides. Leaves short, linear, for the most part hooked, of a grayish colour, and placed irregularly round the branches. The flowers are produced in single heads at the end of the branches, and are of a pale yellow colour. The florets are single, and peep out between the scales of the calyx. It flowers in August, but seldom produces good seeds in England.

2. Stoebe *ericoides*.—Corollas two-flowered, difform. This is a distorted little shrub, like heath. Leaves clustered, linear, sharp. Flowers terminating, sessile.

3. Stoebe *prostrata*.—Leaves resupine, tomentose on one side; stems prostrate.

4. Stoebe *gnaphaloides*.—Leaves imbricate, pressed close. Stems shrubby, proliferous, rod-like, a foot and a half high; with filiform branches. Flowers sessile, in bundles.

5. Stoebe *gomphrenoides*.—Leaves lanceolate, imbricate, pressed close; head terminating, sessile. This resembles the preceding very much.

6. Stoebe *scabra*.—Leaves twisted, pressed close, linear, rugged, with tubercles on the outside, tomentose within; flowers in racemes.

7. Stoebe *reflexa*.—Procumbent; leaves linear; spikes ovate; branches ascending.

8. Stoebe *rhinocerotis*.—Leaves three sided, pressed close; branchlets tomentose, drooping; racemes proliferous.

9. Stoebe *disticha*.—Leaves in bundles, recurved; spikes bifarious.—All the species are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—These shrubby plants may be propagated by cuttings or slips, planted in July, upon a bed of soft loam, and covered close down with a bell or hand-glass, shading them from the sun till they have taken root; then gradually inure them to the open air, and afterwards take them up, and plant them in pots, placing them in the shade till they have taken new root: then place them in a sheltered situation with other tender exotic plants, and in autumn remove them into the dry stove.

STOGUMBER, or STOKE GOMER, a parish in Somersetshire; 6 miles north-by-east of Wiveliscombe.

STOJANOW, a small town of Austrian Galicia, in the circle of Zolkiew.

STOIC, *s.* [*Στωικός*, Gr., from *στοα*, a porch.] A disciple of the heathen philosopher Zeno, who taught under a piazza or portico in the city of Athens; and maintained, that a wise man ought to be free from all passions, to be unmoved either by joy or grief, and to esteem all things governed by unavoidable necessity.

The *Stoic* last in philosophic pride,
By him called virtue; and his virtuous man. Milton.

The world, according to the Stoics, including the whole of nature, God, and matter, subsisted from eternity, and will for ever subsist; but the present regular frame of nature had a beginning, and will have an end. The parts tend towards a dissolution, but the whole remains immutably the same. The world is liable to destruction from the prevalence of moisture, or of dryness; the former producing an universal inundation, the latter an universal conflagration. These succeed each other in nature as regularly as winter and summer. When the universal inundation takes place, the whole surface of the earth is covered with water, and all animal life is destroyed; after which, nature is renewed, and subsists as before, till the element of fire, becoming prevalent

in its turn, dries up all the moisture, converts every substance into its own nature, and at last, by an universal conflagration, reduces the world to its pristine state. At this period, all material forms are lost in one chaotic mass: all animated nature is re-united to the Deity, and nature again exists in its original form, as one whole, consisting of God and matter. From this chaotic state, however, it again emerges, by the energy of the efficient principle, and gods and men, and all the forms of regulated nature, are renewed, to be dissolved and renewed in endless succession.

As a necessary consequence of the doctrine of the conflagration, and subsequent restoration of all things, the Stoics maintained, that the human race will return to life. Hence it appears in what sense we are to understand the Stoic doctrine of resurrection, upon which Seneca has written with so much elegance; and what meaning we are to annex to his words, when he says, "Death, of which we are so much afraid, and which we are so desirous to avoid, is only the interruption, not the destruction, of our existence; the day will come which will restore us to life." This tenet is not to be confounded with the Christian doctrine of the resurrection of the body; for, according to the Stoics, men return to life, not by the voluntary appointment of a wise and merciful God, but by the law of fate, and are not renewed for the enjoyment of a better and happier condition, but drawn back into their former state of imperfection and misery.

Concerning the duration of the soul of man, the Stoics entertained very different opinions. Cleanthes thought that all souls would remain till the final conflagration. Chrysippus was of opinion, that this would only be the lot of the wise and good; and Seneca seems to have entertained the same notion.

The soul, conceived by the Stoics to have been material, was represented by them as consisting of eight distinct parts, viz., the five senses, the productive faculty, the power of speech, and the ruling part, *το ηγεμονικον*, or reason.

STOICAL, or **STO'IC**, *adj.* [*stoique*, Fr.] Of or belonging to Stoics; cold; stiff; austere; affecting to hold all things indifferent.

O foolishness of men! that lend their ears
To those budge doctors of the *Stoick* fur,
And fetch their precepts from the Cynick tub,
Praising the lean and sallow abstinence!

Milton.

STOICALLY, *adv.* After the manner of the Stoics; austere; with pretended indifference to all things. *Minshcu.*—Be not *stoically* mistaken in the equality of sins. *Brown.*

STOICALNESS, *s.* The state of being stoical; the temper of a Stoic. *Scott.*

STOICISM, *s.* [*stoicisme*, Fr.] The opinions and maxims of the Stoics.—To pretend to virtue and holiness without reference to God and a life to come, is but to fall into a more dull and flat kind of *Stoicism*. *More.*—*Stoicism*, which was the pedantry of virtue, ascribes all good qualifications of what kind soever to the virtuous man. *Addison.*

STOKE, or **STOAK**. *Stoke*, in composition, comes from the Sax. *roc*, *locus*, place: hence the names of many of our towns, &c., as, Basingstoke. See *Lye* in *V. 6toc*.

STOKE. 1. A township in Cheshire; 5 miles north-by-east of Cheshire.—2. A hamlet in Derbyshire; 2 miles north-east of Stony Middleton.—3. A parish in Kent; 6 miles north-east of Rochester.—4. A township in Leicestershire; 2 miles from Hinkly.—5. A parish in Warwickshire; 1½ mile east of Coventry.—6. A parish in Norfolk with a ferry over the river Stoke, which is navigable to it from the Ouse; 6 miles north-east of Rochester.—7. A parish in Suffolk; 2 miles south-west-by-west of Clare.—8. Another parish in the above county. It has a church situated on a hill, the tower of which is 120 feet high, and the steeple serves as a landmark to ships passing the mouth of the Orwell, at the distance of 15 miles; 4 miles west-south-west of Ipswich and 59 north-east of London.—9. A parish of England, in

Surrey in the vicinity of Guildford.—10. A parish in Sussex; 2 miles from Arundel.—11. Another parish in the above county, on the opposite side of the Avon, commonly called North Stoke.—12. Another village in the same county; 3 miles from Chichester.

STOKE, **ABBOT'S** or **ABBAS**. 1. A parish in Dorsetshire; 2½ miles west-by-south of Beaminster.—2. **STOKE**, *Albany*, a parish in Northamptonshire; 4½ miles south-west-by-west of Rockingham.—3. **STOKE**, *Ash*, A parish in Suffolk; 3½ miles south-west of Eye.—4. **STOKE**, *Bardolph*, A township in Nottinghamshire; 5 miles east-north-east of Nottingham.—5. **STOKE**, *Bishop's*, A parish in South-amptonshire; 5½ miles west-north-west of Bishop's Waltham.—6. **STOKE**, *Bliss*, A parish in Herefordshire; 6½ miles north of Bromyard.—7. **STOKE**, *Bruern*, A hamlet in Northamptonshire; 3½ miles east-north-east of Towcester.—8. **STOKE**, *Canon's*, A parish in Devonshire; 4½ miles north-north-east of Exeter.—9. **STOKE**, *Charity*, A parish in Southamptonshire; 6 miles south-by-east of Whitchurch.—10. **STOKE**, *Clymeland*, A parish in Cornwall; 4 miles north of Callington.—11. **STOKE**, *Courcy*, A parish in Somersetshire; 7½ miles north-west-by-west of Bridgewater.—12. **STOKE**, *D'Abernon*, A parish in Surrey; 2 miles south-east-by-east of Cobham.—13. **STOKE**, *Damerell*, A parish in Devonshire, lying near Plymouth.—14. **STOKE**, *Doilly*, A parish in Northamptonshire; 1½ mile south-west of Oundle.—15. **STOKE**, *Dry*, A parish in Rutlandshire; 3½ miles south-west-by-south of Uppingham.—16. **STOKE**, *East*, A parish in Dorsetshire; 4 miles west-south-west of Wareham.—Also a parish in Nottinghamshire; 3½ miles south-west of Newark.—17. **STOKE**, *Edith*, A parish in Herefordshire; 7½ miles west-north-west of Ledbury.—18. **STOKE**, *Ferry*, a town and parish in Norfolk, standing on the river Wissey; 38 miles west-by-south of Norwich.—19. **STOKE**, *Fleming*, a parish in Devonshire, on the coast of the English channel; 2 miles south-south-west of Dartmouth. Population 620.—20. **STOKE**, *Gabriel*, a parish in Devonshire; 4 miles south-east-by-south of Totness. Population 572.—21. **STOKE**, *Gaylard*, a parish in Dorsetshire; 7½ miles east-south-east of Sherborne.—22. **STOKE**, *Gifford*, a parish in Gloucestershire; 5 miles north-north-east of Bristol.—23. **STOKE**, *Golding*, a hamlet in Leicestershire; 2½ miles north-west of Hinckley.—24. **STOKE**, *Goldington*, a parish in Buckinghamshire; 4 miles west-south-west of Olney.—25. **STOKE**, *St. Gregory*, a parish in Somersetshire; 5 miles west-by-north of Langport.—26. **STOKE-UNDER-HANDEN**, a parish in Somersetshire; 5½ miles west-by-north of Yeovil.—27. **STOKE**, *Hanmond*, a parish in Buckinghamshire; 3 miles south of Fenny Stratford.—28. **STOKE**, *Holycross*, or *Crucis*, a parish in Norfolk; 5 miles from Norwich.—29. **STOKE-IN-TEIGNHEAD**, a parish in Devonshire, on the shore of Babbicomb bay; 3 miles from Newton Abbas.—30. **STOKE**, *Lacy*, a parish in Herefordshire; 3 miles south-west of Bromyard.—31. **STOKE**, *Lane*, a parish in Somersetshire; 3½ miles north-east of Shepton Mallet.—32. **STOKE**, *Lyné*, a parish in Oxfordshire; 2½ miles north-by-west of Bicester.—33. **STOKE**, *Mandeville*, a parish in Buckinghamshire; 2½ miles north-west-by-west of Wendover.—34. **STOKE**, *St. Mary*, a parish in Somersetshire; 2½ miles south-east-by-east of Taunton.—Also a parish in Suffolk, in the vicinity of Ipswich.—35. **STOKE**, *St. Milborough*, a township in Salop; 7 miles north-east of Ludlow. Population 526.—36. **STOKE**, *Newington*. See **NEWINGTON STOKE**.—37. **STOKE**, *North*, a hamlet in Lincolnshire; 2½ miles north-west-by-north of Colsterworth.—Also a parish in Oxfordshire; 12 miles west-north-west of Henley-upon-Thames. Also a parish in Somersetshire; 4 miles north-west of Bath.—38. **STOKE**, *Orchard*, a hamlet in Gloucestershire; 3½ miles south-east of Tewkesbury.—39. **STOKE**, *Peró*, a parish in Somersetshire; 6 miles west-south-west of Minehead.—40. **STOKE**, *Poges*, a parish in Buckinghamshire; 2 miles north-north-east of Slough. The church yard of this parish was made the scene of Gray's beautiful elegy; and here the remains of the poet lie interred, without any memorial.

rial. A little to the north of it is Stoke-house, the great hall of which is adorned with many fine ancient busts of the Roman emperors, brought from Rome. From the hall there is an entrance into a fine park, with seven great avenues cut in the shape of a star, from each of which there is a delightful prospect.—41. **STOKE, Prior**, a township in Herefordshire; 3 miles south-east of Leominster.—Also a parish in Worcestershire; 1½ mile south of Broomsgrove.—42. **STOKE RIVERS**, a parish in Devonshire; 5½ miles east-by-north of Barnstaple.—43. **STOKE Rodney**, or *Stoke Giffard*, a parish in Somersetshire; 5 miles north-west-by-west of Wells.—44. **STOKE, Say**, a parish in Salop; 6½ miles north-west of Ludlow.—45. **STOKE, South**, or *Stoke Rochford*, a township in Lincolnshire; 2 miles north-west-by-north of Colsterworth.—46. **STOKE, South**, a parish in Somersetshire; 2½ miles south of Bath.—47. **STOKE TALMAGE**, a parish in Oxfordshire; 2 miles south-south-west of Tetsworth.—48. **STOKE-UPON-TERN**, a parish in Salop; 6 miles south-west-by-south of Drayton-in-Hales.—49. **STOKE-UPON-TRENT**, a parish in Staffordshire; 1½ mile east of Newcastle-under-Lyne. Population 22,475.—50. **STOKE, Trister**, a parish in Somersetshire; 2 miles east of Wincanton.—51. **STOKE, Wake**, a parish in Dorsetshire; 10 miles west of Blandford Forum.—52. **STOKE, West**, a parish in Sussex; 4 miles north-west of Chichester.

STOKE, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham, on the east side of the St. Francis.

STOKE BOTTOM, a hamlet in the parish of Stoke Lane, Somersetshire.

STOKEFORD, a hamlet in Dorsetshire, near Binnegar.

STOKEHAM, a parish in Nottinghamshire; 5 miles north-east-by-north of Tuxford.

STOKENBURY, a hamlet in the parish of East Peckham, Kent.

STOKEN CHURCH, a parish in Oxfordshire; 6½ miles south-east-by-east of Tetsworth. Population 888.

STOKENHAM, a parish in Devonshire; 5 miles east-by-south of Kingsbridge. Population 1273.

STOKER, s. One who looks after the fire in a brew-house: a technical word.

As the plague of happy life,
I run away from party-strife:
A prince's cause, a church's claim,
I've known to raise a mighty flame,
And priest, as *stoker*, very free
To throw in peace and charity.

Green.

STOKES, a county of the United States, in the north-west part of North Carolina. Population 11,645, including 1746 slaves. The chief towns are Germantown and Salem.

STOKES, a township of the United States, in Montgomery county, North Carolina, near the Yadkin.

STOKES, a township of the United States, in Madison county, Ohio. Population 267.

STOKESBY, a parish in Norfolk; 2½ miles east-by-south of Acle.

STOKESIA [so named by Mons. L'Heritier, in honour of Jonathan Stokes, M.D., who very ably assisted Dr. Withering, in his botanical arrangement of British plants], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis.—Generic Character. Calyx, common leafy, subimbricate. Corolla, floscular, two-formed: corollets hermaphrodite, regular in the disk; in the outer circumference irregular, constituting a ray. Stamina: filaments five in each. Anthers cylindrical. Pistil: germ (in the regular florets) four-cornered: (in the irregular) three-cornered. Style filiform. Stigma two-parted, awl-shaped. Pericarp none. Seed down, filamentose, deciduous, equal to the corollet, four in the regular, three in the irregular florets. Receptacle naked.—*Essential Character.* Corollets in the ray funnel-form, longer, irregular. Down four-bristled. Receptacle naked.

Stokesia cyanea, or blue-flowered Stokesia.—This plant has a corolla resembling that of the common blue-bottle

(*Centaurea Cyanus*), with almost the calyx of *Carthamus* to which genus it was allied.—Native of South Carolina.

STOKESLEY, a market town and parish of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire. It is situated on a branch of the river Leven, and consists chiefly of one broad street. Excepting the shambles and tolbooth, the buildings are mostly modern. A church is mentioned here in the Domesday Survey, but there is no evidence of the original foundation of St. Peter's. About 1363, a chantry was founded within this building by William de Stokesley, for the repose of the sons of John de Middleton and his wife. The ancient church is still remaining, but a modern one has been built at the eastern extremity of the town. The rectory house was rebuilt in 1792, and is an agreeable residence. Adjoining the churchyard on the north, stands the manor-house, a square building of stone, with gardens and a shrubbery in front. The petty sessions are held here for the western division of Langborough. The parish of Stokesley is of considerable extent, and incloses an area of about seven-square miles. Within it are comprised the townships of Stokesley, Bushby, and Easby, with the hamlet of Tamerton, and a part of Newby. The environs of the town are fertile, and the lands chiefly laid out in pasture. The lordship of Stokesley was granted at an early period to the family of Baliol, and was possessed by Guy de Baliol, who came into England with William the Conqueror. In 1811, Stokesley contained 388 houses, and 1439 inhabitants. Market on Saturday; 43 miles from York, and 242 north-west of London.

STOLBERG, a small county of Prussian Saxony, adjoining the counties of Schwartzburg and Mansfield. Its superficial extent is only 86 square miles; its population 10,500. The north-west side, which lies partly in the Harz, is hilly, and contains mines of silver and other metals; but the south-east, particularly the part called the Golden Meadow, is among the most fertile and beautiful districts of Germany.

STOLBERG, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, in the government of Aix-la-Chapelle, situated in a valley about 3 miles south-south-west of Eschweiler, with only 2000 inhabitants. It contains extensive manufactures, established originally by French Protestant refugees. The neighbourhood has good coal mines; and the brass, copper, and hardware, of different kinds, made in this place and its vicinity, give employment to 800 or 900 workmen. Here are also some woollen manufactures.

STOLBERG AM HARZ, a small town of Prussian Saxony, and the residence of the counts of Stolberg-Stolberg. In the neighbourhood are mines of copper and iron. Population 1900; 42 miles west of Halle, and 16 south-south-west of Quedlinburg. Lat. 51. 35. 0. N. long. 10. 56. 53. E.

STOLBOVA, a small town in the west of European Russia, government of Novgorod. A treaty was concluded here between Russia and Sweden in 1617.

STOLE, s. [*stola*, Lat.; *πτολ*, Sax.; *stole*, old French.] A long vest.

The solemn feast of Ceres now was near,
When long white linen *stoles* the matrons wear. *Dryden.*

STOLE. The preterite of *steal*.—A factor *stole* a gem away. *Pope.*

STOLE, or **STOLA**, [from the Gr. *στολη*, signifying a long robe, or *vestment*,] a sacerdotal ornament, worn by the Romish parish-priests over their surplice, as a mark of superiority in their respective churches.

STOLE, GROOM OF THE, the eldest lord of his majesty's bed-chamber, whose office and honour is to present and put on his majesty's first garment or shirt every morning; and to order the things in the chamber.

STO'LED, adj. Wearing a stole or long robe.

After them flew the prophets, brightly *stol'd*
In shining lawn.

G. Fletcher.

In vain with timbrell'd anthems dark

The sable-*stoled* sorcerers bear his worshipt ark.

Milton.

STOLEN.

STOLEN. Participle passive of *steal*.—*Stolen* waters are sweet, and bread eaten in secret is pleasant. *Prov.*

STOLID, *adj.* [*stolidus*, Lat.] Stupid; foolish. *Cockeram.*

STOLIDITY, *s.* [*stolidus*, Lat.; *stolidité*, Fr.] Stupidity; want of sense.—To the end his prince might never, by opening his eyes, come to the knowledge of his own *stolidity*. *Trans. of Boccalini*.—These are the fools in the text, indocile untractable fools, whose *stolidity* can baffle all arguments. *Bentley.*

STOLLBERG IM GEBIRGE (i. e. among the mountains), a small town of Saxony; 9 miles south-west of Chemnitz, and 49 south-west of Dresden. It has 1800 inhabitants, with manufactures, on a small scale, of woollens, linens, and stockings.

STOLLHOFEN, a village of Germany, in Baden, near the Rhine; 16 miles north-north-east of Strasburg. In 1703 lines were thrown up here, extending eastward to the Black Forest, and along the Rhine, towards Philipsburg: these the French attacked, but were defeated with heavy loss.

STOLPE, a walled town of Prussia, in Pomerania, on the river Stolpe. It contains 4500 inhabitants, with three Protestant churches, a convent, and a cadet school. It has some trade in linen and wood, and some petty manufactures of broad cloth, woollen stuffs, and amber, which is made into trinkets, and sent chiefly to the Levant. Its harbour is at the small town of Stolpemunde, at the mouth of the river; 110 miles north-east of Stargard, and 64 west of Dantzic. Lat. 54. 27. 59. N. long. 16. 55. 15. E.

STOLPE, a small town of Prussia, in Pomerania, on the Peene; 5 miles west of Anclam.

STOLPE, a small town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, government of Potsdam; 45 miles north-east of Berlin.

STOLPEN, a small town of Germany, in Saxony; 13 miles east of Dresden. Population 1000. It has a citadel situated on a rock of magnificent basalt.

STOLWYK, a large village of the Netherlands, in Holland, with a population of 1100; 14 miles north-east of Rotterdam, and 4 south-east of Gouda.

STOLZ, a large village of Prussian Silesia, near Frankenstein, with 1000 inhabitants.

STOLZENAU, a small town of the north of Germany, in Hanover, on the Weser; 8 miles north of Nienburg. Population 1200.

STOLZENBERG, a town of West Prussia, adjoining to Dantzic. It was formerly a suburb of that city; but in 1772, this and the adjacent suburbs of Old Scotland, Schidlitz, and St. Albert, were united and formed into a separate town, with its own magistrates and municipal rights. The population of the whole is about 8000; they have a council-house, a Lutheran and a Franciscan convent, and a Catholic gymnasium. The principal manufactures are woollens, gloves, watches, buttons, and tanneries. See DANTZIC.

STOLZENBURG, or SZELINDEK, a large village of Transylvania, in the district called the province of the Saxons, situated in a deep valley to the north of Hermannstadt.

STO'MACH, *s.* [*estomach*, Fr.; *stomachus*, Lat.] The ventricle in which food is digested.

If you're sick at sea,
Or *stomach* qualm'd at land, a dram of this
Will drive away distemper. *Shakspeare.*

This filthy simile, this beastly line,
Quite turns my *stomach*. *Pope.*

Appetite; desire of food.

Tell me, what is't that takes from thee
Thy *stomach*, pleasure, and thy golden sleep? *Shakspeare.*

Inclination; liking.
He which hath no *stomach* to this fight,
Let him depart. *Shakspeare.*

[*Stomachus*, Lat.] Anger; violence of temper.

Is't near dinner time?—I would it were
That you might kill your *stomach* on your meat,
And not upon your maid. *Shakspeare.*

Sullenness; resentment; stubbornness.
That nobles should such *stomachs* bear!
I myself fight not once in forty year. *Shakspeare.*

Pride; haughtiness.
He was a man
Of an unbounded *stomach*, ever ranking
Himself with princes. *Shakspeare.*

To STO'MACH, *v. a.* [*stomachor*, Lat.] To resent;
to remember with anger and malignity.

Believe not all; or, if you must believe,
Stomach not all. *Shakspeare.*

To STO'MACH, *v. n.* To be angry.—Let a man,
though never so justly, oppose himself unto those that are
disordered in their ways, and what one amongst them commonly
doth not *stomach* at such contradiction, storm at reproof,
and hate such as would reform them? *Hooker.*

STO'MACHAL, *adj.* [*stomacal*, Fr.] Cordial; helping
the stomach. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

STO'MACHED, *adj.* Filled with passions of resentment.

High *stomach'd* are they both, and full of ire;
In rage deaf as the sea, hasty as fire. *Shakspeare.*

STO'MACHER, *s.* An ornamental covering worn by
women on the breast.

Golden quoifs and *stomachers*,
For my lads to give their dears. *Shakspeare.*

STO'MACHFUL, *adj.* [*stomachosus*, Lat.] Sullen;
stubborn; perverse.—Obstinate or *stomachful* crying should
not be permitted, because it is another way of encouraging
those passions which 'tis our business to subdue. *Locke.*

STO'MACHFULNESS, *s.* Stubbornness; sullenness;
obstinacy.—Pride, *stomachfulness*, headiness,—avail but
little. *Granger.*

STOMA'CHICAL, or STOMA'CHIC, *adj.* [*stomachique*,
Fr.] Relating to the stomach; pertaining to the stomach.
—By a cartarrh the *stomachical* ferment is vitiated. *Floyer.*

STOMA'CHIC, *s.* A medicine for the stomach.

STO'MACHING, *s.* Resentment.—This is no time for
private *stomaching*. *Shakspeare.*

STO'MACHLESS, *adj.* Being without appetite.—Thy
sleep broken, thy meals *stomachless*. *Bp. Hall.*

STO'MACHOUS, *adj.* [*stomachosus*, Lat.] Stout; angry;
sullen; obstinate. *Obsolete.*

That stranger knight in presence came,
And goodly salved them; but nought again
Him answered, as courtesy became;
But with stern looks, and *stomachous* disdain,
Gave signs of grudge and discontentment vain. *Spenser.*

STOMATIA, in Natural History, the name of a genus of
shell-fish, frequently confounded with the ear-shell.

The shell of the stomatia is formed of one piece, has no
perforations in any part of its surface, and is of a depressed
flat figure; and its mouth is the most patent of all the univalve
shells, the limpet only excepted. It has a short spiral
turn running into the mouth at the head.

There are several species of this genus.
STOMOXYS, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the
order Diptera. The Generic Character is: Sucker with a
single-valved sheath, enclosing bristles in their proper sheaths;
two feelers which are short and setaceous, with five articulations;
the antennæ are setaceous. There are sixteen species,
in two divisions.

I. Sheath convolute and geniculate at the base, with two
bristles.

1. *Stomoxys morio*.—Black; fore part of the thorax hairy,
ferruginous; wings black, with white spots.—This is found
in Brazil.

2. *Stomoxys grisea*.—The antennæ of this species are feathered

thered; hairy, grey, with testaceous thighs. The proboscis is black, a little testaceous at the base; the head is white, with a testaceous line on the front; the wings are whitish; the legs black, with rufous thighs.—It is found in Germany.

3. *Stomoxys siberita*.—Antennæ feathered; hairy, grey; sides of the abdomen pale diaphanous. Orbits snowy; legs black. with pale thighs.—It inhabits Germany.

4. *Stomoxys calcitrans*.—Antennæ slightly feathered; grey, with black legs. This very much resembles the common fly, and is the insect which buzzes about the legs of cattle, making them continually stamp with the feet, and which stings our legs in autumn.

5. *Stomoxys tessellata*.—Hairy, cinereous; abdomen grey, tessellate with brown.—It inhabits Kiel, and is larger than the *Stomoxys irritans*, next to be described.

6. *Stomoxys irritans*.—Cinereous, slightly hairy; abdomen spotted with black.—This is found in many parts of Europe, as well as in our own country, and is extremely troublesome on the backs of cattle.

7. *Stomoxys muscaria*.—Antennæ slightly feathered; hairy, black; abdomen paler, with deep black bands. The segments of the abdomen are black at the base; the wings are white.—This is found in Denmark.

8. *Stomoxys dorsalis*.—Black; abdomen snowy on the back, with three pair of black dots.—It inhabits France, and is small.

9. *Stomoxys longipes*.—Orbits white; thorax grey; abdomen grey-brown; legs ferruginous, black at the ends.

II. Sheath covering the mouth, with five bristles.

10. *Stomoxys rostrata*.—Thorax with obscure lines; proboscis, abdomen, and legs, testaceous. It resembles the common fly, and is very troublesome to cattle.

11. *Stomoxys lineata*.—Thorax black, with four white lines; abdomen black, with three lateral yellow spots, and tail. The proboscis is yellow, the tip emarginate and black.—It is found in Germany.

12. *Stomoxys musciformis*.—Thorax brown, with four whitish lines; abdomen black, with three pair of white lunules. The antennæ are black, with a broad compressed ferruginous club; the mouth is hairy; the head is brown; the tail is blueish; legs yellow, spotted with black.—This is also found in Germany.

STOMPWYK, a large village of Holland, near Gouda, with 1900 inhabitants.

STONAGE, a hamlet in the parish of Tickenham, Somersetshire.

STONAR, a parish in Kent, near Sandwich, in the neighbourhood of which are some valuable salt-works.

STOND, *s.* Post; station. *Obsolete.*

On the other side, the assieged castle's ward
Their steadfast *stonds* did mightily maintain. *Spenser.*

Stop; indisposition to proceed.—There be not *stonds* nor restiveness in a man's nature; but the wheels of his mind keep way with the wheels of his fortune. *Bacons.*

STONDON, MASSEY or MARCI, a parish in Essex; 2 miles south-east of Chipping Ongar.

STONDON, NETHER, a hamlet in Bedfordshire; 4½ miles north-by-east of Silsoe.

STONDON, UPPER, a parish in the above county; 4½ miles east of Silsoe.

STONE, *s.* [*stains*, Gothic; *ſtan*, Sax.; *steen*, Dutch.] Stones are bodies insipid, hard, not ductile or malleable, nor soluble in water. *Woodward.*—*Stones* are, the softer and the harder. Of the softer *stones* are, 1. The foliaceous or flaky, as talc. 2. The fibrose, as the asbestos. 3. The granulated, as the gypsum. Of the harder *stones* are, 1. The opaque stones, as limestone. 2. The semi-pellucid, as agate. 3. The pellucid, as crystal and the gems. *Hill.*

Relentless time, destroying power,
Whom *stone* and brass obey. *Parnel.*

Piece of stone cut for building.
Should I go to church, and see the holy edifice of *stone*,
And not bethink me strait of dang'rous rocks! *Shakspeare.*

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Gem; precious stone.

I thought I saw
Wedges of gold, great anchors, heaps of pearl,
Inestimable *stones*, unvalu'd jewels. *Shakspeare*

Any thing made of stone.

Lend me a looking-glass;
If that her breath will mist or stain the *stone*,
Why then she lives. *Shakspeare.*

Calculous concretion in the kidneys or bladder; the disease arising from a calculus.—A specific remedy for preventing of the *stone* I take to be the constant use of alehoof-ale. *Temple.*—The case which in some fruits contains the seed, and is itself contained in the fruit.—To make fruits without core or *stone* is a curiosity. *Bacon.*—Testicle.—A weight containing fourteen pounds. A *stone* of meat is eight pounds.—Does Wood think that we will sell him a *stone* of wool for his counters? *Swift.*—A funeral monument.

Should some relenting eye
Glance on the *stone* where our cold reliques lie. *Pope.*

It is taken for a state of torpidness and insensibility.—I have not yet forgot myself to *stone*. *Pope.*

STONE is used by way of exaggeration.

What need you be so boist'rous rough?
I will no struggle, I will stand *stone* still. *Shakspeare.*

To leave no STONE unturned. To do every thing that can be done for the production or promotion of any effect.

He crimes invented, left unturn'd no *stone*
To make my guilt appear, and hide his own. *Dryden.*

STONE, *adj.* Made of stone.

Present her at the leet,
Because she bought *stone* jugs, and no sealed quarts. *Shakspeare.*

To STONE, *v. a.* [*ſtænan*, Sax.] To pelt or beat or kill with stones.—Crucifixion was a punishment unknown to the Jewish laws, among whom the *stoning* to death was the punishment for blasphemy. *Stephens.*—To harden.

Oh perjur'd woman! thou do'st *stone* my heart;
And mak'st me call what I intend to do,
A murder, which I thought a sacrifice. *Shakspeare.*

To remove stones.—As the stones were laid together in the wall for defence; so they were gathered off from the soil, to avoid offence. But to what purpose is the fruitfulness; fencing, *stoning*, if the ground yield a plentiful crop of briars, thistles, weeds? *Bp. Hall.*

STONE (Edmund), a famous Scotch mathematician, was the son of the Duke of Argyle's gardener, and probably born in the shire of Argyle, about the beginning of the last or end of the preceding century. He was eight years old when he began to read, but afterwards he made very rapid progress by his own almost unrivalled efforts. Before he attained the age of eighteen years, he had acquired a knowledge of the most sublime geometry and analysis without a master. When he was asked by the Duke of Argyle, how he had gained this knowledge, he replied, "I first learned to read; and the masons being at work on your house, I saw that the architect used a rule and compasses, and that he made calculations. Upon inquiry into the use of these things, I was informed there was a science named arithmetic; I purchased a book of arithmetic, and I learned it. I was told there was another science called geometry, and I learned that also. Finding that there were good books on these two sciences in Latin, I bought a dictionary, and learned Latin. I also understood there were good books of the same kind in French, and I learned French. This, my lord, is what I have done; and it seems to me, that we may learn every thing when we know the twenty-four letters of the alphabet." The Duke, pleased with this simple answer, drew Stone out of obscurity, and provided for him an employment which allowed of his favourite pursuits

pursuits. He soon discovered that Stone possessed the same genius for architecture, and all the sciences that depend upon calculations and proportions. The works of Stone, partly original and partly translations, are as follow: viz. "A New Mathematical Dictionary," first printed in 1726, 8vo.; "A Treatise on Fluxions," 1730, 8vo.; the direct method being translated from the Marquis de l'Hospital's "Analyse des Infiniments Petites," and the inverse method supplied by Stone himself; "The Elements of Euclid," 1731, 2 vols. 8vo., with an account of the life and writings of Euclid; besides some smaller works. Stone was a Fellow of the Royal Society; and communicated to it an account of two species of lines of the third order, not mentioned by Sir I. Newton or Mr. Stirling, which was printed in the 41st volume of the Phil. Trans. *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

STONE (Henry), known by the name of *Old Stone*, to distinguish him from his younger brother John, was the son of N. Stone, a statuary. He is principally known as the copyist of many portraits by Vandyck; and they are exceedingly close in their resemblance to the originals. He passed several years in Holland, France, and Italy; but died in London in 1653.

STONE, a market town in the county of Stafford. It is situated on the northern bank of the Trent, and has considerably increased in extent and population since the establishment of the canal navigation between the Trent and the Mersey, which has opened a regular and cheap communication with many of the great manufacturing and commercial towns of Lancashire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, and more distant counties. It consists mostly of one long street, which is a pretty good one, and contains a newly formed market place. In the town is a free school or charity school. The church is a new erection, not unhandsome in its architecture, but disfigured by the small height of its tower. Stone is remarkable for the religious foundations which it anciently contained. Wulfere, king of Mercia, having murdered his two sons, and afterwards become a convert to Christianity, founded a monastery here in 670, in expiation of his crimes, which became a college of regular canons of the order of St. Augustine. His queen, Ermenudo, also established a nunnery here; but both these houses were injured, and the societies dispersed by the Danes. After the Norman conquest, the college and nunnery appear to have been again filled with monks and nuns, at least the establishment at Stone became a cell to the more eminent house at Kenelworth. About the year 1260, Robert de Stafford rendered the former independent of the latter. A considerable manufactory of shoes is carried on here; and a very useful and improving manufactory of Rangeley and Diggles, late Rangeley and Dixon's patent roller pump, employs a considerable number of hands. In 1811, the parish of Stone contained 463 houses, and 2314 inhabitants. In 1821, it contained 500 or 600 houses, and little less than 3000 inhabitants, but the parish is very extensive, and in some parts populous. Market on Tuesday, and three annual fairs; 7 miles north of Stafford, and 141 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 54. N. long. 2. 8. W.

STONE, a parish in Buckinghamshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Aylesbury. Population 592.

STONE, a hamlet in the parish of Berkeley, Gloucestershire.—Also a hamlet in the parish of Wimborne Minster, Dorsetshire.

STONE, a parish of England, in Kent; 2 miles east by-north of Dartford.—Another parish in the above county; 1 mile south-west of Feversham.—Another parish in the same county; 5½ miles south-east of Tenterden.

STONE, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 2 miles south-east-by-east of Kidderminster.

STONE ARABIA, a village of the United States, in Palatine, New York, on the north side of the Mohawk; 52 miles west-north-west of Albany.

STONEASTON, a township of England, in Somersetshire, near the coal-pits between Mendip and Midsummer-Norton; 6½ miles north of Shepton-Mallet. Population 364.

STONE BAY, a small bay on the coast of Kent, between Ramsgate, and the north Foreland.

STONEBECK, NETHER, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; about 14 miles west-by-south of Rippon. Population 451.

STONEBECK, UPPER, a township in the above county; 1 mile distant from the foregoing.

STONEBOW, *s.* A crossbow, which shoots stones.—Hailstones full of wrath shall be cast as out of a *stone-bow*. *Wisd.*—O for a *stone-bow* to hit him in the eye! *Shakespeare*.

STONEBREAK, *s.* An herb.

STONE-BRIDGE CREEK, a small stream of the United States, in Washington county, New York, so called from a natural stone bridge under which it runs. The stream has its rise in Essex county. It enters the township of Chester a little above the bridge, and immediately falls over a rocky precipice, into a large natural basin; whence turning easterly, it enters its subterranean passage in two branches. The northern branch enters its passage under an arch of massy granite forty feet high, and about eighty feet broad at the base, gradually diminishing in capacity as you descend. A person may follow the stream with ease, 156 feet from the entrance, where it becomes so contracted as to check any farther progress. At the distance of 247 feet from the entrance, the waters disembogue in one stream, having united in the subterranean passage; and here is a precipice of rock, 54 feet high, which terminates the bridge. The arch through which the water discharges, is about ten feet wide and five high. This stream enters Scroon river, about three-fourths of a mile below the outlet of Scroon lake, and the stone bridge is about 3 miles north-west from the mouth of the creek.

STONECHATTER, *s.* [*rubetra*, Lat.] A bird.

STONECRAISE, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 2 miles south-east-by-south of Wigton.

STONECRAY, *s.* A distemper in hawks.

STONE CREEK, a river of the United States, in Mississippi, which runs into the Mississippi. Lat. 32. 8. N. long. 91. 13. W.

STONECROP, *s.* [*tron cpop*, Sax.] A sort of herb.—*Stonecrop* tree is a beautiful tree, but not common. *Mortimer*.

STONECROUCH, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Goudhurst, Kent.

STONECUTTER, *s.* One whose trade is to hew stones.—My prosecutor provided me a monument at the *stone-cutter's*, and would have erected it in the parish church. *Swift*.

STONEDELPHI, a township of England, in the parish of Tamworth, Warwickshire.

STONEFERN, *s.* A plant.

STONE-FERRY, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, so named from a ferry over the river Hull; 1½ mile north-by-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

STONEFLY, *s.* An insect.

STONE FORT, a post village of the United States, in Franklin county, Tennessee.

STONEFRUIT, *s.* Fruit of which the seed is covered with a hard shell developed in the pulp.—We gathered ripe apricocks and ripe plums upon one tree, from which we expect some other sorts of *stonefruit*. *Boyle*.

STONEGRAVE, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-east of Helmesley.

STONEHAM, EARLS, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 9 miles from Ipswich. Population 620.

STONEHAM, LITTLE, a parish in the same county, adjoining the foregoing.

STONEHAM, NORTH, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire, in the church of which is a beautiful monument to the memory of Lord Hawke. It is situated on the river Itchen; 4½ miles north-north-east of Southampton. Population 662.

STONEHAM, SOUTH, another parish in the above county also on the banks of the Itchen; about 1½ mile distant from the foregoing.

STONEHAM,

STONEHAM, a township of Lower Canada, on the north side of the St. Lawrence in the county of Quebec.

STONEHAVEN, or STONEHIVE, a sea-port town of Scotland, in Kincardineshire, situated on the coast where the Cowie and Carron unite their waters as they flow into the sea. It is composed of an old and new town, the former lying on the south bank of the Carron, adjacent to the harbour; the other on a peninsula formed by the Carron and Cowie. This last is laid out upon a regular plan, having broad streets, and a square in the centre. The old town consists of two considerable streets of houses, built on fens granted by the earls marischal, within whose estate it was situated. The harbour is a natural basin, sheltered on the south-east by a high rock which runs out into the sea, and on the north-east by a quay, very convenient for the unloading of goods; but it is neither very capacious nor safe, the entrance being obstructed by sunken rocks, although it is capable of considerable improvements. Notwithstanding its fine situation for carrying on manufactures, very little business was formerly transacted at Stonehaven. It derived its principal support from the sheriff-court of the county, which has its seat here. The place has on the whole a cheerful and elegant appearance, and abounds with genteel and wealthy people. Stonehaven is a burgh of barony, of which the jurisdiction is by the charter vested in magistrates chosen by the superior and feuars; 15 miles south-by-west of Aberdeen, and 22 north-by-east of Montrose.

STONEHAWK, *s.* A kind of hawk. *Ainsworth.*
See FALCO.

STONEHEARTED, or STONYHEARTED, *adj.* Hard-hearted; cruel; pitiless.—The *stony-hearted* villains know it well enough. *Shakspeare.*

STONEHENGE, the name of a very remarkable ancient monument in England, in the county of Wilts, situated in the middle of Salisbury Plain. It consists of a great collection of stones of immense size, which, from their being some erect, some inclined, and most of them quite down upon the ground, seem to have formed, at one time, an entire building. Their appearance at present is that of a perfect ruin, a confused heap of standing and fallen stones; but by comparing attentively their relative situations, the shape and dimensions of the original structure can still be traced; and the most probable opinion is, that it must have been some Druidical temple, but of so vast a size, and the stones themselves forming such enormous masses, that it is justly regarded as one of the wonders of antiquity. Many of the stones also have been squared and hewn by art. On the top of the outer circle a continued row of squared stones has been attached to the uprights by mortices and tenons, and various other circumstances contribute to give this monument a peculiar character, quite distinct from the temples of upright stones found in various parts of England, Wales, Scotland, Ireland, Denmark, &c. It presents, therefore, an object of great interest to the antiquary, and has accordingly been examined with due attention and assiduity. Many treatises have been written on the subject, and the origin and history of this extraordinary antique has excited more speculation and discussion than those of any other ruin of the kind in the kingdom. At a distance, this monument appears only a small trifling object, its bulk and character being lost in the vastness of the open space around it. Even on a nearer approach, it often fails to astonish or satisfy the stranger, filled perhaps with exaggerated prepossessions; and in fact it is more as a subject of historical and antiquarian interest, than as a spectacle that is calculated to make an impression on the observer. The whole building appears to have consisted of two circular and two elliptical rows of upright stones, with horizontal stones lying on the outer circle, in a continued order all around, and five imposts or horizontal stones on ten uprights of the third row. The whole is surrounded by a ditch and vallum of earth, connected with which are three other stones. The vallum does not exceed fifteen feet in height, and is interior to the ditch. The entrance through

this line of circumvallation is on the north east, and is marked by a bank and ditch called the Avenue, which leads directly from it, and separates into two branches at the distance of a few hundred yards. Approaching Stonehenge by this Avenue, the attention is first attracted by an immense rude stone called the Friar's Heel, which is now in a leaning position, and measures about 16 feet in height. Just within the vallum is another stone lying on the ground. It is 21 feet 2 inches in length, of which 3 feet 6 inches appear to have been formerly under ground when it stood upright. It is exactly 100 feet distant from the former, and as much from the outside of the uttermost circle of the monument. The circumference of this circle is about 300 feet. It was composed originally of 30 upright stones, of which 17 are still standing; but there are now no more than 6 imposts. Each impost has two mortices in it, to correspond with two tenons on the tops of the vertical stones. The imposts were connected together, so as to form a continued series of architraves. The uprights in this circle differ from each other in their forms and sizes, but their general height is from 13 to 15 feet, and their circumference nearly 18 feet. At the distance of 8 feet 3 inches from this outer circle is an interior row, which it appears consisted, in its original state, of 40 upright stones. These are much smaller, and more irregular in their shapes, than those of the outermost one, and also differ from them in species. The number standing is only 8, but there are remains of 12 others lying on the ground. Within these two outer circles are arranged the two elliptical rows of stones, the outermost of which constitutes the grandest portion of Stonehenge. This is not a perfect ellipsis, but rather two-thirds of that figure, being open at one end. It was formed of five distinct pairs of trilithons, or two large upright stones, with a third laid over them as an impost. The largest trilithon was placed in the centre, opposite to the entrance, and measured, when standing, exclusive of the impost, 21 feet 6 inches in height; that next it on each side was about 17 feet 2 inches, but the extremes were not more than 16 feet 3 inches. A progressive rise thus appears to take place in the height of the trilithons of this ellipsis from east to west, and a degree of regularity pervading its structure, above what appears in the other parts of the monument. The stones are also more regular in their shapes, and carefully formed, than those in the outer circle. The interior oval consisted of 19 uprights, without imposts. These stones are taller and better shaped than those in the corresponding circle, and incline to a pyramidal form. The Altar Stone, as it is usually called, occupies the interior of this oval, and may be regarded as the centre or keystone of the whole temple. It measures 15 feet in length, and is almost covered by the two fallen stones of the great trilithon. The other stones belonging to the monument are situated close to the vallum, and within it one on the south-east side, and the other on the north-west side. The total number of stones of which Stonehenge, in its complete state, was composed, appears to have been 109, of which the outer circle contained 30, the second or inner circle 40, the first ellipsis 15, and the second ellipsis 19. The remaining 5 are the altar stone, the three stones adjoining the agger, and the large stone in the Avenue. The stones in the outer circle and outer ellipsis, with the stone in the Avenue, and those adjoining the vallum, are all of a pure fine grained compact sandstone. The second circle and the small oval consist of a fine grained grinstein, interspersed with black hornblende, feldspar, quartz, &c. The slab or altar stone is different from all these, being of a very fine grained calcareous sandstone, which strikes fire with steel. The area of Stonehenge has, as may readily be supposed, excited the attention of the curious in a high degree, and has been examined with care by different antiquaries, but no discoveries of importance have been made within it. The surrounding plain, however, is covered with a profusion of barrows, unparalleled in any spot of similar extent in England, and probably in the world. Many of these were filled with burnt bones and entire skeletons, and with various relics of British art. Plans and descriptions of Stonehenge have been published by Inigo Jones, at the
desire

desire of James I.; also by Smith, Stukely, and Wood, the two latter of which, it is thought, are the most accurate. Various opinions also, and conjectures and hypotheses, have been formed as to the origin or object of this singular monument; but nothing very decisive seems to have been ascertained. The building seems very probably to have been intended for a Druidical temple; but neither its founders, the date of its erection, the process by which such enormous masses were raised into their respective situations, are known.

STONE HILL, in Herefordshire, England, 1417 feet above the level of the sea.

STONEHORSE, *s.* A horse not castrated.—Where there is most arable land, *stonehorses* or geldings are more necessary. *Mortimer.*

STONEHOUSE, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, 5 miles long, and on an average 2 broad.

STONEHOUSE, a market town of England, in the county of Devon. It is situated between the towns of Plymouth and Devonport, about one mile from either; and, from the rapid increase of buildings within these few years, has all the appearance of being very soon united to Plymouth itself, a street and road having been begun for the purpose, through a marsh which lies in the way. Here are excellent barracks for the royal marine corps, and one for 1000 regulars or militia. Here is also the royal naval hospital, for men who are sent from all ships coming into Plymouth harbour. The town contains two Episcopal chapels, and two chapels for dissenters. A public school has been erected for poor children, on Dr. Bell's system, and capable of educating 150 boys and girls. Stonehouse is subject to the magistrates of Devonport, on whom all civil decisions are dependent; but owing to its rapid increase, it is thought the town will soon acquire a jurisdiction of its own. In 1811, Stonehouse contained 5174 inhabitants; and at present the population is about 7000 or 8000. Market on Tuesday and Saturday, and two annual fairs; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-west-by-west of Plymouth, and 217 west-by-south of London.

STONEHOUSE, a parish of England, in Gloucester, with two charity schools, and annual fairs in May and December.

STONEHOUSE, WEST, a township of England, in Cornwall, near the passage at Crimble Ferry; 1 mile west of Devonport.

STONE INDIANS, a tribe of Indians who inhabit the south of Fire Fort, or Assiniboin river, in North America. Their number was estimated by Mackenzie at 450, but this is much diminished.

STONELY, or **STONELEIGH**, a town and parish of England, in Warwickshire, on the north bank of the river Sow, near its confluence with the Avon. Market on Thursday; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-west of Coventry, and 88 north-north-west of London.

STONE MOUNTAINS, mountains of America, in the west part of Virginia. Lat. 36. 40. N. long. 81. 40. W.

STONEPIT, *s.* A quarry; a pit where stones are dug.—There's one found in a *stonepit*. *Woodward.*

STONEPITCH, *s.* Hard inspissated pitch.—The Egyptian mummies are reported to be as hard as *stone-pitch*. *Bacon.*

STONEPLOVER, *s.* A bird. *Ainsworth.*

STONER, *s.* One who strikes, beats, or kills with stones.—It was the character of Jerusalem to be the killer of the prophets, and the *stoner* of them who were sent unto her. *Barrow.*

STONE RIVER, a river of North America, which runs into Lake Athapescow.

STONE'S RIVER, a river of the United States, in Tennessee, which runs north-west into the Cumberland; 6 miles above Nashville.

STONESBOROUGH, a post village of the United States, in Green county, Kentucky.

STONESBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 6 miles north-east of Melton Mowbray.

STONESTCAST, or **STONESTHROW**, *s.* Distance to which a stone may be thrown.—A madder thing to see them ride though not half a *stonescast*. *Sir T. Herbert.*

STONESFIELD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 4 miles west of Woodstock.

STONEMICKLE, *s.* A bird. This is perhaps the bird called *stonesmich*, a kind of Stone-chatter.

STONESQUARER, *s.* One who shapes stones into squares.—Hiram's builders did hew them, and the *stonesquarers*. *1 Kings.*

STONEWALL CREEK, a river of North America, which runs into the Missouri, just above the natural stone walls; 95 miles below the Great Falls.

STONWORK, *s.* Building of stone.—They make two walls with flat stones, and fill the space with earth, and so they continue the *stonework*. *Mortimer.*

STONEY, a small river of North America, which falls into the Ohio.

STONHAM, ASPALL, a parish of England, in Suffolk; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east-by-east of Needham.

STONINESS, *s.* The quality of having many stones.—Small gravel or *stoniness* is found therein. *Mortimer.*—Hardness of mind.—He hath some *stonygness* at the bottom. *Hammond.*

STONINGTON, a sea-port, borough, and post township of the United States, in New London county, Connecticut. Population of the borough, 804; of the township, 3043. The harbour sets up from the sound opposite Fisher's island. It borders on Rhode Island, and is a place of some trade. This town was bombarded by the British, without effect, on 8th August 1814.

STONINGTON, NORTH, a post township of the United States, in New London county, Connecticut; 9 miles north of Stonington.

STONO INLET, a river or channel of South Carolina, which separates the islands of James and John, and runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 38. 41. N. long. 80. 3. W.

STONY, *adj.* [*ῥανγ, ῥαεργ, Sax.*] Made of stone. With love's light wings did I o'erperch these walls; For *stony* limits cannot hold love out. *Shakspeare.*

Abounding with stones.

From the *stony* Mænalus
Bring your flocks, and live with us.

Milton.

Petrific.

Now let the *stony* dart of senseless cold
Pierce to my heart, and pass through every side. *Spenser.*

Hard; inflexible; unrelenting.

Thou art come to answer
A *stony* adversary, an inhuman wretch
Uncapable of pity.

Shakspeare.

STONY BROOK, a post village of the United States, in Broohaven county, New York.

STONY CREEK, a township of the United States, in Somerset county, Pennsylvania.

STONY HEAD, a point on the north shore of Van Diemen's Land. Long. 147. 10. E.

STONYHURST, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Whalley, Lancashire.

STONY ISLAND. 1. An island near the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 53. 4. N. long. 55. 30. W.—2. A small island in the Spanish Main. Lat. 14. 20. N. long. 82. 45. W.—3. An island in the east end of Lake Ontario, south-west of Sackett's harbour.

STONYKIRK, or **STEPHENKIRK**, a parish of Scotland, in Wigtonshire, lying in the west part of the bay of Luce.

STONY MIDDLETON, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 3 miles west-by-north of Bicester.

STONY POINT, a post village of the United States, in Albemarle county, Virginia.—2. A post village of the United States, in Abbeville district, South Carolina.—3. **STONY POINT**, a post on the right bank of the River Hud-

on, in the state of New York. In 1779 it was taken by the British, but recovered soon after by the Americans; and the whole garrison, consisting of 600 men, with their commanding officer, lieutenant-colonel Johnson, made prisoners of war. Opposite Verplank's Point.

STONY STRATFORD. See STRATFORD.

STOOD. The preterite of *To stand*. [*ƿoð*, Sax.]

Adam, at the news,
Heart-struck with chilling gripe of sorrow *stood*. *Milton*.

STOODELEY, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles from Tiverton.

STOOK, *s*. [*Serenius* adduces the West. Goth. *stukc*, signifying the same thing; and refers also to the Su. Goth. *stacka*, to collect grain or hay into a stack or mow.] A shock of corn containing twelve sheaves.

To STOOK, *v. a.* To set up the sheaves in stooks.

STOOL, *s*. [*stols*, Goth.; *ƿoel*, Sax.; *stoel*, Dutch; *stoll*, Germ.; from *stellen*, to place, to set.] A seat without a back, so distinguished from a chair.

Thou fearful fool,
Why takest not of the same fruit of gold?
Ne sittest down on that same silver stool,
To rest thy weary person in the shadow cold? *Spenser*.

Evacuation by purgative medicines.—The peristaltic motion, or repeated changes of contraction and dilatation, is not in the lower guts, else one would have a continual needing of going to stool. *Arbuthnot*.

STOOL of Repentance, or *catty stool*, in the kirks of Scotland, is somewhat analogous to the pillory. It is elevated above the congregation. In some places there may be a seat in it; but it is generally without, and the person stands therein who has been guilty of fornication, for three Sundays, in the forenoon; and after sermon is called upon by name and surname, the beadle or kirk-officer bringing the offender, if refractory, forwards to his post; and then the preacher proceeds to admonition. Here too are set to public view adulterers; only these are habited in a coarse canvas, analogous to a hairy or monastic vest, with a hood to it, which they call the sack or sackcloth, and that every Sunday throughout a year, or longer.

STOOLBALL, *s*. A play where balls are driven from stool to stool.

While Betty dances on the green,
And Susan is at stoolball seen. *Prior*.

To STOOM, *v. a.* To put bags of herbs, or other ingredients, into wine.

To STOOP, *v. n.* [*ƿrupian*, Sax.; *stuyppen*, Dutch.] To bend down; to bend forward.—Like unto the boughs of this tree he bended forward and *stooped* toward the earth. *Raleigh*.—To lean forward standing or walking.

He, *stooping*, open'd my left side, and took
From thence a rib. *Milton*.

To yield; to bend; to submit.

Mighty in her ships stood Carthage long,
And swept the riches of the world from far;
Yet *stoop'd* to Rome, less wealthy, but more strong. *Dryden*.

To descend from rank or dignity.—He that condescended so far, and *stooped* so low, to invite and to bring us to Heaven, will not refuse us a gracious reception there. *Boyle*.—To yield; to be inferior.

These are arts, my Prince,
In which your Zama does not *stoop* to Rome. *Addison*.

To sink from resolution or superiority, to condescend.—They, whose authority is required unto the satisfying of your demand, do think it both dangerous to admit such concurrence of divided minds, and unmeet that their laws, which, being once solemnly established, are to exact obedience of all men and to constrain thereunto, should so far *stoop* as to hold themselves in suspense from taking any effect upon

you, till some disputer can persuade you to be obedient. *Hooker*.—To come down on prey as a falcon. *Stooping* is when a hawke, being upon her wings at the height of her pitch, bendeth violently downe to strike the fowle, or any other prey. *Latham*.—When they *stoop*, they *stoop* with the like wing. *Shakspeare*.—To alight from the wing.

Satan ready now
To *stoop* with wearied wings and willing feet,
On the bare outside of this world. *Milton*.

To sink to a lower place.

Cowering low
With blandishment, each bird *stoop'd* on his wing. *Milton*.

To STOOP, *v. a.* To submit.

Sole cause that *stoops*
Their grandeur to man's eye. *Young*.

STOOP, *s*. Act of stooping; inclination downward. Descent from dignity or superiority.

Can any loyal subject see
With patience such a *stoop* from sovereignty?
An ocean pour'd upon a narrow brook? *Dryden*.

Fall of a bird upon his prey.
Now will I wander through the air,
Mount, make a *stoop* at every fair. *Waller*.

[*ƿtoppa*, Sax, *stoope*, Dutch.] A vessel of liquor.—Come, lieutenant, I have a *stoop* of wine; and here without are a brace of gallants, that would fain have a measure to the health of Othello. *Shakspeare*.—A post fastened in the earth: a northern word. [*stupa*, Lat.] Ray, and Grose. Written also *stoup* or *stowp*.

It might be known hard by an ancient *stoop*,
Where grew an oak in elder days. *Tancred and Gismunda*.

STO'OPER, *s*. One who stoops. *Sherwood*.

STO'OPINGLY, *adv*. With inclination downwards.—Nani was noted to tread softly, to walk *stoopingly*, and raise himself from benches with laborious gesture. *Wotton*.

STOOS, or Stosz, a mining town in the north of Hungary, in the county of Zyps, inhabited by descendants of Germans; 19 miles west of Caschau Lat 48. 42. N. long. 20. 49. 50. E.

To STOP, *v. a.* [*estouper*, Fr., *stopparc*, Ital., *stoppen*, Dutch.] To hinder from progressive motion.

From the oracle
They will bring all; whose spiritual counsel had
Shall *stop* or spur me. *Shakspeare*.

To hinder from successive operation.

Can any dresses find a way
To *stop* the approaches of decay,
And mend a ruin'd face? *Dorset*.

To hinder from any change of state, whether to better or worse. To hinder from action or practice.

Friend, 'tis the duke's pleasure,
Whose disposition, all the world well knows,
Will not be rubb'd nor *stopp'd*. *Shakspeare*.

To put an end to the notion or action of any thing; to intercept.

Almon falls, pierc'd with an arrow from the distant war:
Fix'd in his throat the flying weapon stood,
And *stopp'd* his breath, and drank his vital blood. *Dryden*.

To repress; to suspend.—Every bold sinner, when about to engage in the commission of any known sin, should arrest his confidence, and *stop* the execution of his purpose with this question: Do I believe that God has denounced death to such a practice, or do I not? *South*.—To suppress.—He, on occasion of *stopping* my play, did me a good office at court, by representing it as long ago designed. *Dryden*. To regulate musical strings with the fingers.—In instruments of strings, if you *stop* a string high, whereby it hath less scope to tremble, the sound is more treble, but yet more dead.

dead. *Bacon*.—To close any aperture.—Smite every fenced city, *stop* all wells of water, and marland with stones.—To obstruct; to encumber.—Mountains of ice that *stop* the imagin'd way. *Milton*.—To garnish with proper punctuation.

To *STOP*, *v. a.* To cease to forward.

Some strange commotion
Is in his brain: he bites his lip, and starts;
Stops on a sudden, looks upon the ground,
Then lays his finger on his temple; strait
Springs out into fast gait, then *stops* again. *Shakspeare*.
If the rude throng pour on with furious pace,
And hope to break thee from a friend's embrace,
Stop short, nor struggle through. *Gay*.

To cease from any course of action.—Encroachments are made by degrees from one step to another; and the best time to *stop* is at the beginning. *Lesley*.

STOP, *s.* Cessation of progressive motion.

Thought's the slave of time, and life time's fool;
And time, that takes survey of all the world,
Must have a *stop*. *Shakspeare*.

A lion, ranging for his prey, made a *stop* on a sudden at a hideous yelling noise, which startled him. *L'Estrange*.
—Hindrance of progress; obstruction: act of stopping.

My praise the Fabii claim,
And thou great hero, greatest of thy name,
Ordain'd in war to save the sinking state,
And, by delays, to put a *stop* to fate. *Dryden*.

Repression; hindrance of operation:—'Tis a great step towards the mastery of our desires to give this *stop* to them, and shut them up in silence. *Locke*.—Cessation of action.

Look you to the guard to-night:
Let's teach ourselves that honourable *stop*,
Not to outsport discretion. *Shakspeare*.

Interruption.

Thou art full of love and honesty,
And weight'st thy words before thou giv'st them breath;
Therefore these *stops* of thine fright me the more. *Shakspeare*.

Prohibition of sale.—If they should open a war, they foresee the consumption France must fall into by the *stop* of their wine and salts, wholly taken off by our two nations. *Temple*.—That which obstructs; obstacle; impediment.

The proud Duessa, full of wrathful spirit
And fierce disdain to be affronted so,
Inforc'd her purple beast with all her might,
That *stop* out of the way to overthrow. *Spenser*.

Instrument by which the sounds of wind music are regulated.—You would play upon me, you would seem to know my *stops*; you would pluck out the heart of my mystery. *Shakspeare*.

Blest are those,
Whose blood and judgement are so well commingled,
That they are not a pipe for fortune's finger,
To sound what *stop* she please. *Shakspeare*.

Regulation of musical chords by the fingers.—The further a string is strained, the less superstraining goeth to a note; for it requireth good winding of a string before it will make any note at all: and in the *stops* of lutes, the higher they go, the less distance is between the frets. *Bacon*.—The act of applying the *stops* in music.

The organ-sound a time survives the *stop*,
Before it doth the dying note give up. *Daniel*.

A point in writing, by which sentences are distinguished.
Even the iron-pointed pen,
That notes the tragic dooms of men,
Wet with tears still'd from the eyes
Of the flinty destinies,
Would have learn'd a softer style,
And have been asham'd to spoil

His life's sweet story by the haste
Of a cruel *stop* ill-plac'd.

Crashaw.

STOPCOCK, *s.* A pipe made to let out liquor, stopped by a turning cock.—No man could spit from him without it, but would drivel like some paralytic or fool; the tongue being as a *stopcock* to the air, till upon its removal the spittle is driven away. *Grew*.

STOPGAP, *s.* Something or some person substituted; a temporary expedient.

STOPHAM, a parish of England, in Sussex; 4 miles south-east-by-east of Petworth.

STOPPLESS, *adj.* Not to be stopped; irresistible.

Making a civil and staid senate rude,
And *stopless* as a running multitude. *Davenant*.

STOPNICA, a small town in the west of Poland; 50 miles north-west of Cracow, with 900 inhabitants.

STOPPAGE, *s.* The act of stopping; the state of being stopped.—The effects are a *stoppage* of circulation by too great a weight upon the heart, and suffocation. *Arbutnot*.—The *stoppage* of a cough, or spitting, increases phlegm in the stomach. *Floyer*.

STOPPER, *s.* One who closes any aperture.—The ancients of Gebal, and the wise men thereof, were in thee thy calkers, [in the margin, *stoppers* of chinks.] *Ezek*.—A stopple. See *STOPPLE*.

STOPPESLEY, a hamlet of England, in Bedfordshire; 2 miles north-north-east of Luton.

STOPPLE, or *STOPPER*, *s.* That by which any hole or the mouth of any vessel is filled up.—Bottles swunged, or carried in a wheel-barrow upon rough ground, fill not full, but leave some air; for if the liquor come close to the *stopple*, it cannot flower. *Bacon*.

STOR, a river of Denmark, in Holstein, which falls into the Elbe below Gluckstadt, after a course of 45 miles.

STORAX, *OFFICINAL*, is the resinous drug, obtained in perfection only from those trees that grow in Asiatic Turkey, and which issues in a fluid state from incisions made in the bark of the trunk, or branches, of the storax-tree. And our Pharmacopeias formerly directed the "pilulæ styrace," or Storax Pills; but this odoriferous drug has now no place in any of the official compounds; and is totally disregarded by modern practitioners. Woodville's Med. Bot.

STORAX, *LIQUID*, is a resinous juice, obtained from a large tree, with leaves like those of the maple, called by Linnæus *LIQUIDAMBAR STYRACIFLUA*, a native of Virginia and Mexico: it is at present wholly in disuse.

STORCHNEST, or *OSIECZNA*, a small town of Prussian Poland; 16 miles east north-east of Fraustadt, and 37 south-south-west of Posen.

STORCK (Anthony), a medical professor of considerable note at Vienna, succeeded the celebrated Van Swieten in the office of president and director of the faculty of medicine in the university of that metropolis, and was also honoured with the appointment of principal consulting physician to the empress Maria Theresa. He distinguished himself chiefly by a long and assiduous course of experiments relative to the operation of various narcotic vegetables, and to the best mode of preparing and administering them. The vegetables of which he has treated in various tracts, are the hemlock, henbane, stramonium, aconite, meadow-saffron, and pulsatilla nigricans: and although he was disposed to over-rate the efficacy of some of these substances, and has ascribed to them virtues which subsequent experience has not always confirmed, he had the merit of calling the attention of the medical world to a class of active remedies, which, under proper management, are productive of much benefit, and constitute a valuable addition to the *Materia Medica*. Between the years 1760 and 1771, his various tracts upon these subjects were printed at Vienna, and they have subsequently undergone several editions and translations in other countries. He was also author of a collection of cases which occurred under his observation in the hospital at Vienna, entitled "Annus Medicus, quo sistuntur Observationes circa Morbos

Morbos acutos et chronicos," 1759; of which he published an "Annus Secundus" in 1761. This work was afterwards continued by his successor, Dr. Colin. In 1775, he published a volume, entitled "Instituta Facultatis Medicæ Vin-dobonensis." *Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Méd.*

STORE, *s.* [*stór*, in old Swedish and Runick, is *much*, and is prefixed to other words to intend their signification; *stór*, Danish; *stoor*, Icelandic, is *great*. The Teutonic dialects nearer to English seem not to have retained this word.] Large number; large quantity; plenty.

None yet, but *store* hereafter from the earth
Up hither like aërial vapours flew,
Of all things transitory and vain, when sin
With vanity had fill'd the works of men.

A stock accumulated; a supply hoarded.

Divine Cecilia came,

Inventress of the vocal frame:

The sweet enthusiast from her sacred *store*
Enlarg'd the former narrow bounds,
And added length to solemn sounds.

Milton.

Dryden.

The state of being accumulated; hoard.—Is not this laid up in *store* with me, and sealed up among my treasures? *Deut.*—Storehouse; magazine.

Sulphurous and nitrous foam,
Concocted and adusted, they reduc'd
To blackest grain, and into *store* convey'd.

Milton.

STORE, *adj.* Hoarded; laid up; accumulated.—What floods of treasure have flowed into Europe by that action, so that the cause of Christendom is raised since twenty times told: of this treasure the gold was accumulate and *store* treasure; but the silver is still growing. *Bacon.*

To STORE, *v. a.* To furnish; to replenish.

Wise Plato said the world with men was *stor'd*,
That succour each to other might afford.

Denham.

To stock against a future time.

To *store* the vessel let the car be mine,
With water from the rocks and rosy wine,
And life-sustaining bread.

Pope.

To lay up; to hoard.—Let the main part of the corn be a common stock, laid in and *stored* up, and then delivered out in proportion. *Bacon.*

STOREA, among the Romans, a kind of basket made of ropes or rushes, for gathering flowers or garden-fruits.

STOREA was likewise a kind of defence, made of large cables fashioned into a sort of netting; which was so strong, that no weapon, though thrown out of an engine, could penetrate it.

STOREHOUSE, *s.* Magazine: treasury; place in which things are hoarded and reposit against a time of use.—Suffer us to famish, and their *storehouses* cramm'd with grain! *Shakspeare.*—A great mass reposit.

They greatly joyed merry tales to feign,
Of which a *storehouse* did with her remain.

Spenser.

STO'RER, *s.* One who lays up.

A wench of a *storer*, or

Your sutler's wife.

B. Jonson.

STORETON, GREAT and LITTLE, two hamlets of England, in Cheshire; lying between the rivers Dee and Mersey; 12 miles from Chester.

STORGE, *Στοργή*, a Greek term, frequently used by naturalists to signify that parental instinct, or natural affection, which animals bear toward their young.

STO'RIAL, *adj.* Historical. *Obsolete.*—Of *storial* thing that toucheth gentillesse. *Chaucer.*

STO'RIED, *adj.* Furnished with stories; adorned with historical pictures.

Some greedy minion or imperious wife,
The trophy'd arches, *storied* halls invade.

Pope.

STO'RIER, *s.* An historian; a relater of stories *Obsolete.*—The *storie*—made of thre moost famese and credible *storiens* in Greek lond. *Bp. Peacock.*

STORK, *s.* [*ἵτορε*, Sax.; *ciconia*, Lat.] A bird of passage famous for the regularity of its departure.—Its beak and legs are long and red; it feeds upon serpents, frogs, and insects: its plumage would be quite white, were not the extremity of its wings, and also some part of its head and thighs, black: it sits for thirty days, and lays but four eggs: they go away in the middle of August, and return in spring. *Calmet.*

Who bid the *stork*, Columbus like, explore
Heavens not his own, and worlds unknown before?

Who calls the council, states the certain day,

Who forms the phalanx, and who points the way. *Pope.*

STORKOW, a small town of the Prussian States, in the province of Brandenburg; 31 miles east-south-east of Berlin, and 15 west-north-west of Beeskow.

STO'RKSBILL, *s.* [*gcranium*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

STORM, *s.* [*ystorm*, Welsh; *ἵτορμ*, Saxon; *storm*, Dutch; *stormo*, Italian. Dr. Johnson.—The past participle of the Sax. *ἵτρυμian*, to agitate. Mr. H. Tooke.]—A tempest; a commotion of the elements.

We hear this fearful tempest sing,
Yet seek no shelter to avoid the *storm*.

Shakspeare.

Assault in a fortified place.

How by *storm* the walls were won,

Or how the victor sack'd and burnt the town.

Dryden.

Commotion; sedition; tumult; clamour; bustle.

Whilst I in Ireland nourish a mighty band;

I will stir up in England some black *storm*.

Shakspeare.

Affliction; calamity; distress.—A brave man struggling in the *storms* of fate. *Pope.*—Violence; vehemence; tumultuous force.—As oft as we are delivered from those either imminent or present calamities, against the *storm* and tempest whereof we all instantly craved favour from above, let it be a question what we should render unto God for his blessings, universally, sensibly, and extraordinarily bestowed. *Hooker.*

To STORM, *v. a.* [Sax. *ἵτρυμian*, both active and neuter.] To attack by open force.

There the brazen tower was *storm'd* of old,

When Jove descended in almighty gold.

Pope.

To STORM, *v. n.* To raise tempests.

So now he *storms* with many a sturdy stoure,

So now his blustering blast each coast doth scoure. *Spenser.*

To rage; to fume; to be loudly angry.

Hoarse, and all in rage,

As mock'd they *storm*.

Milton.

STORM, CAPE, in the straits of Northumberland, in North America, it is the northern limit of the mouth of Bay Verte, and forms the south-east corner of the province of New Brunswick.

STORMARN, the old name of a small district of Denmark, in the south of Holstein, comprising the track lying round Hamburg, between the rivers Stor, Elbe, Trave and Bille.

STO'RMBEAT, *adj.* Injured by storm.

O turn thy rudder hitherward awhile;

Here may thy *storm-beat* vessel safely ryde.

Spenser.

STO'RMINNESS, *s.* State or quality of being stormy.

STORMONT, a district of Scotland, in Perthshire, lying on the north-east bank of the Tay, and extending from Blairgowrie to Dunkeld. There is a small lake in this district, in which is an island, and a building said to have been a place for depositing the royal stores, whence is said to be derived the name Stormount.

STORMONT, a county of Upper Canada.

STORMORE, a hamlet of England, in the parish of West-ill, Leicestershire.

STO'RMY, *adj.* [Sax. *ἵτορμiz*.] Tempestuous.

Bellowing

Bellowing clouds burst with a *stormy* sound,
And with an armed winter strew the ground.

Addison.

Violent; passionate.

STORNODORF, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, province of Upper Hesse.

STORNOWAY, a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, in the island of Lewis, of great extent. It is of the figure of an irregular triangle, two of the sides of which are about ten miles, and the other about seven miles long.

STORNOWAY, a town in the above parish, situated at the head of Loch Stornoway, upon a point or ness jutting into it, which, from a small origin, has of late, by the exertions of Lord Seaforth, arrived at considerable size and extent. The harbour of Stornoway is excellent and well frequented, and the principal source of employment is the prosecution of the white and herring fisheries. There were 44 vessels belonging to it in 1808, the tonnage of which amounted to 1612 tons, navigated by 156 men; also 104 boats, navigated by 562 men, who are occasionally employed in the fishery, although the whole does not belong to the place. In five years, ending July 1808, there were exported from Stornoway 17,430 barrels of herrings; 719 tons of cod and ling; and oil, as is supposed, to the amount of 10,000*l*. It is a part of the custom-house, and has a post-office, and a regular packet.

STORO, a small town of the Austrian states, in the Tyrol, on the Sarca, to the south-west of Trent.

STORRINGTON, a town and parish of England, in Sussex, with a market on Wednesday, and two annual fairs, in May and November; 7 miles north-east of Arundel.

STORRITHS, a township of England, in the parish of of Skipton, West Riding of Yorkshire.

STORRS, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 9 miles west-by-north of Kendal.

STORSIO, a large lake in the north of Sweden, province of Jamtland. It contains several islands, on two of which are villages; and it communicates with the gulf of Bothnia, through the medium of several other lakes and rivers. Lat. 63. 10. N. long. 14. 10. E.

STORTH, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 8½ miles west of Kirkby Lonsdale.

STORTHWOOD, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles south-west-by-west of Pocklington.

STORY, *s.* [στῶρι, Saxon; *storie*, Dutch; *storia*, Italian; ἱστορία, Gr.]—History; account of things past.

Thee I have heard relating what was done

Ere my remembrance: now hear me relate

My *story*, which perhaps thou hast not heard.

Milton.

Small tale; petty narrative; account of a single incident.—In the road between Bern and Soleurre, a monument erected by the republic of Bern tells us the *story* of an Englishman not to be met with in any of our own writers. *Addison*.—An idle or trifling tale; a petty-fiction.

These flaws and starts would well become

A woman's *story* at a winter's fire,

Authoriz'd by her grandame.

Shakspeare.

STORY, *s.* [εἶπος, *place*. Skinner, and Dr. Johnson.—It is from *stage*; *stagery*, *stayery*, (the *a* broad) *stacry*, or *story*, i. e. a set of *stairs*. Mr. H. Tooke. See *STAGE*.] A floor; a flight of rooms.

Sonnets or elegies to Chlois,

Might raise a house about two *stories*;

A lyric ode would slate; a catch

Would tile; an epigram would thatch.

Swift.

To *STORY*, *v. a.* To tell in history; to relate.—How worthy he is, I will leave to appear hereafter, rather than *story* him in his own hearing. *Shakspeare*.—To range one under another.—Because all the parts of an undisturbed fluid are of equal gravity, or gradually placed or *storied*, according to the difference of it; any concretion that can be supposed to be naturally and mechanically made in such a fluid, must have a like structure of its several parts; that is, either be all over of a similar gravity, or have the more ponderous parts nearer to its basis. *Bentley*.

STORYTELLER, *s.* One who relates tales in conversation; an historian, in contempt.

In such a satire, all would seek a share,

And every fool will fancy he is there;

Old *storytellers* too must pine and die,

To see their antiquated wit laid by;

Like her who miss'd her name in a lampoon,

And griev'd to find herself decay'd so soon.

Dryden.

STORZHEIM, a small town in the east of France, department of the Lower Rhine. Population 1300.

STOT, *s.* [στος-ἵππος, Sax., "*stot*-horse, *caballus*." Prompt. Parv. πῶσσε, Sax. *equus vilis*.] A horse.

This reve sate upon a right good *stot*,

That was all pomelee gray, and hight Scot.

Chaucer.

A young bullock or steer. *stul*, Swed. *juvencus*, [Ihre.] This is common in the north of England.

STOTE, *s.* A kind of weasel. See *STOAT*.

STOTFIELD HEAD, a cape of Scotland, on the coast of Murray. Lat. 57. 42. N. long. 3. 10. W.

STOTFOLD, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 6 miles south-south-east of Biggleswade.

STOTINGWAY, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Upway, Dorsetshire.

STOVE, *s.* [*stoo*, Icelandic, a fire-place; πτοφα, Sax.; *estave*, French; *stove*, Dutch.]—A hot-house; a place artificially made warm.—Fishermen who make holes in the ice, to dip up such fish with their nets as resort thither for breathing, light on swallows congealed in clods of a slimy substance, and carrying them home to their *stoves*, the warmth recovereth them to life and flight. *Carew*.—A place in which fire is made, and by which heat is communicated.—If the season prove exceeding piercing, in your great house kindle some charcoals; and when they have done smoking, put them into a hole sunk a little into the floor, about the middle of it. This is the safest *stove*. *Evelyn*.

Stoves should, in propriety, be distinguished from fire-places, from the fire being inclosed within the stove, and giving out its heat through the substance of the materials of which the stove is composed, to the air in the apartment; and in many stoves there are ingenious contrivances, to make a great quantity of air pass in contact with the heated surface of the stove, and be thus heated before passing off into the apartment. Fire-places, on the contrary, have the fire as open and as much exposed as possible, consistently with the carrying off of the smoke, in order that it may throw out radiant heat into the apartment. See the articles *FIRE-PLACE*, and *GRATE* in this work.

The ancients are supposed to have used stoves, in which the fire was not seen; but on enquiring into the progress of the art of warming apartments economically, few traces remain of the manner in which the ancients warmed their habitations. It is imagined they lighted the fire in a large tube in the middle of a room, of which the roof was open, and that the other apartments were warmed by portable braziers. In Seneca's time, they began to construct tubes in the walls, to convey the heat into the upper apartments; the fire-places being still placed below. It appears, however, that this was the origin of flues for smoke and even of stoves; the situation and proportions of which have successively undergone an infinity of changes, according to the localities, the wants of the inhabitants, or the style of the decorations.

The ancients had the custom of heating apartments by fires placed under arches or vaults; but this was confined to palaces, and other edifices, where magnificence was augmented by prodigality; and the vestiges that have been discovered among ancient ruins, sufficiently point out this as their destination. In digging, some years ago, for foundations in the city of Antun, one of these ovens was discovered under a mosaic pavement, with chimnies at each extremity.

The northern Chinese have a method of warming their ground-floor, which resembles the ancient plan just mentioned. The floors are made of tiles a foot square, and two inches thick; their corners being supported by bricks set

on end, that are a foot long, and four inches square: the tiles, too, join into each other, by ridges and hollows along their sides. This forms a hollow under the whole floor, which on one side of the house has an opening into the air, where a fire is made; and it has a funnel rising from the other side to carry off the smoke. The fuel is a sulphurous pit-coal, the smell of which in the room is thus avoided, while the floor, and of course the room, are well warmed.

Francis Keslar, of Frankfort, whose work, entitled "Epargne-bois," &c. (the Wood-saver, &c.), appeared, in French, in 1619, is the oldest writer who deserves to be quoted, as having proposed any useful ideas on the subject of stoves. He formed eight chambers, one above another, through which the smoke was to pass before it entered the chimney. He also brought air directly from without into the ash-pan, to feed the fire; and there was another aperture to draw air from the apartment for the same purpose.

M. Dalesme, in 1686, suggested the first idea of a stove without smoke, which he called *furnus acapnos*. Here the smoke is forced to descend into the fire-place, where it is consumed.

This machine consisted of a tube of iron-plate, such as is used for the flue of a German stove. This tube was bent at right angles, and the part which was horizontal was about two feet in length, and joined to the rest of the tube, which ascended vertically. At the opposite end of the horizontal tube the furnace was made: it consisted of a cylindrical tube of plate-iron erected upon the horizontal tube near the end, and provided with a grating, upon which the fuel was placed; and the grate prevented the fuel falling down into the horizontal tube. To light this stove, some clear burning charcoal was put into the large short tube or furnace, and supported on the grate. As soon as the tubes grew warm, the air within them would ascend in the perpendicular tube or chimney, and go out at the top of it; fresh air must enter into the horizontal tube through the furnace. In this course it must descend through the burning fuel, and becoming heated by the burning coals, through which it has passed, would rise more forcibly in the longer tube, in proportion to its degree of heat, or rarefaction, and the length of that tube. Such a machine is a kind of inverted siphon; and as the greater weight of water in the longer leg of the common siphon, in descending, is accompanied by an ascent of the same fluid in the shorter; so in this inverted siphon, the greater quantity of levity of air in the longer leg, in rising, is accompanied by the descent of air in the shorter. The things to be burned being laid on the hot coals contained in the furnace, the smoke must descend through those coals, and be converted into flame, which, after destroying the offensive smell, comes out at the end of the longer tube, as mere heated transparent gas or vapour.

Whoever would repeat this experiment with success, must take care that the part of the short tube is quite full of burning coals, so that no part of the smoke may descend and pass by them, without going through them, and being converted into flame; and that the longer tube is so heated, that the current of ascending hot air will be established in it, before the things to be burnt are laid on the coals; otherwise there will be disappointment.

It does not appear that this idea was followed up either in England or France, but there is a German book, entitled "Vulcanus Famulans," by Joh. George Leutmann, printed at Wirtemberg in 1723, which describes, among a great variety of other stoves for warming of rooms one which seems to have been formed on the same principle. The construction is as nearly as possible the same as M. Dalesme's, except in the proportion of the parts; Leutmann's furnace being made in the form of a basin or vase, having the grate in the bottom of it.

Gauger, author of "La Méchanique du Feu," &c., printed at Paris in 1709, was the person to whom we are indebted for the first and most complete system of experiments on the circulation of heat, by means of air-holes affording warm air; as also the manner of making one fire warm several

rooms, and to send off the heat in elliptic curves. We there find a description of a chimney, with the back, the hearth, and the jambs, of hollow iron, to heat the air that is to enter the room. But it does not appear that this work produced much effect at the time.

The inhabitants of the northern parts of Europe have long been accustomed to the use of stoves in which the fire is shut up, and gives out its heat to a draught or current of air, which is made to pass through proper openings in the stove, and when sufficiently warmed, enters into the apartment. The smoke arising from the fuel is made to pass through a circuitous passage of flues, by which means the greatest part of the heat is absorbed. Stoves on this principle are known in England, but are very seldom used, except for warming of halls, staircases, and passages, in grand houses, as the English are not contented to feel the air warm, unless they see the fire. In Russia, Sweden, and other northern countries, they are indispensably necessary, as without them, it would be impossible to keep the rooms tolerably warm. A common fire-place has too large an opening, and if care be not taken to supply it continually with wood, &c., the heat it produces is hardly sensible, because this follows the current of the air, and is carried off by the smoke. These stoves, on the contrary, retain the heat a much longer time; and as their external parts, and also their flues, are very thin, they communicate their heat very readily, so that with a small quantity of wood, they warm an apartment much more than the fire of a common fire-place would do with six times the quantity.

It has been objected to the use of stoves that the heat produced from them is unwholesome, because they deprive the air of its moisture; and that the air, by being made too dry, loses its elasticity, in consequence of which, respiration becomes difficult and laborious. These objections would appear of great weight, if we had not the example of the Russians, the Swedes, the Danes, the Germans, and in short of all the inhabitants of the north of Europe, to shew that those who are habituated to such stoves, do not find them unwholesome. If others should be sensible of inconveniences from the dryness of the air in the apartment, it may be easily removed by the very simple expedient of placing upon the stove a vessel of glass or earthen-ware, which has a large surface, and is very shallow: this being filled with water, will insensibly evaporate, and restore to the air that moisture of which the heat of the stove has deprived it: the air will then recover its elasticity. If orange-trees are exposed to the heat of such a stove, and the fire is not properly regulated, the plants grow yellow and lose their leaves, especially if the air is not changed, which in winter is not very conveniently done; but if a vessel of water be placed upon the stove, the evaporation of the water will preserve the trees.

In a memoir published by M. Guyton, in the *Annales de Chimie*, the following principles are laid down, as very useful in making all kinds of stoves for warming apartments.

1. Heat is produced only in proportion to the volume of air consumed by the fuel.

2. The quantity of heat produced is greatest, (the quantity and quality of the fuel being the same), when the combustion is complete.

3. The combustion is the more complete, in proportion as the fuliginous part is longer retained in channels where it may undergo a second combustion.

4. The only useful heat is that sent out into, and retained in the space intended to be heated. The temperature of that space will be higher in proportion, as the current which must be renewed from without to support the combustion, is less enabled to take up in its passage the heat produced.

Hence the following inferences evidently arise:

1. The fire-place ought to be insulated from all bodies that are rapid conductors of heat. All the heat that goes out of the apartment is absolutely lost, unless intentionally directed into another apartment.

2. Heat being produced only by combustion, and combustion being sustained only by a current of air, the current should be brought in by channels, where the needful rapidity may be preserved without being too distant from the space to be warmed, so that the heat it there deposits, may be gradually accumulated in the whole of the insulated furnace, in order afterwards to flow out of it slowly, according to the laws of the equilibrium of that fluid.

3. The wood being so far consumed as to give no more smoke, it is advantageous to close the mouth of these channels, in order to retain there the heat that would otherwise be carried off through the upper flue, by the continuance of a current of fresh air, necessarily of a low temperature.

4. Lastly; it follows from these maxims, that all things being equal, a higher temperature will be obtained, and supported during a much longer time, by forming, in the internal parts of the stove, or under the hearth of a chimney, and in their vicinity, tubes in which the air that comes from without may be warmed before it enters the apartment, to serve the purpose of combustion, or replace that which has been consumed.

To **STOVE**, *v. a.* To keep warm in a house artificially heated.—For December, January, and the latter part of November, take such things as are green all winter; orange-trees, lemon-trees, and myrtles, if they be *stoved*; and sweet marjoram warm set. *Bacon.*

STOVEN, a village of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles north-east-by-east of Halesworth.

STOVER, *s.* [*estover*, Fr., from the Lat. *fovere*, to foster. Minsheu.] Fodder for cattle; coarse hay, or straw; and sometimes straw for thatch.

The turfy mountains, where live nibbling sheep
And flat meads thatch'd with *stover* them to keep. *Shakspeare.*

STOUGHTON, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles east-south-east of Leicester.

STOUGHTON, a parish of England, in Sussex; 6 miles north-west of Chichester. Population 489.

STOUGHTON, GREAT, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 3 miles south-east of Kimbolton.

STOUGHTON, LITTLE, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

STOUGHTON, a post township of the United States, in Norfolk county, Massachusetts; 15 miles south of Boston.

STOULTON, a hamlet of England, in Worcestershire; 4½ miles north-west of Pershore.

To **STOUND**, *v. n.* [*stunde*, grieved, Icelandic, from *styn*, to grieve.] To be in pain or sorrow. Dr. Johnson states it to be out of use. "It *stounds*," i. e. it aches, it smart, is used in the north of England.

STOUND, part. For *stunned*.—So was he *stound* with stroke of her huge tail. *Spenser.*

STOUND, s. Sorrow; grief; mishap. *Out of use.* The Scots retain it.—Begin and end the bitter baleful *stound*. *Spenser.*—A shooting pain.

Keep your corpse from the carefull *stounds*
That in my carrion carcase abounds. *Spenser.*

A noise.

With that he roar'd aloud, as he were wound,
That all the palace quaked at the *stound*. *Spenser.*

Astonishment; amazement.

Thus we stood as in a *stound*,
And wet with tears, like dew, the ground. *Gay.*

[*stund*, Sax.] Hour; time; season; a small space of time. *This is still a provincial word.*

Till that *stound* could never wight him harme
By subtilty, nor slight, nor might, nor mighty charme. *Spenser.*

STOUR, s. [*stur*, Runick, a battle; *stœpan*, Sax. to *disturb*.] Assault; incursion; tumult. *Obsolete.*

And he that harrow'd hell with heavy *stour*,
The faulty souls from thence brought to his heavenly bow'r. *Spenser.*

STOUR, s. [*stur*, Saxon, from the Welsh *dwr*, water, "Sunt in nostrâ Britannia plurima flumina appellata *es dūr*, sive *Sturæ*, Anglorumsermone *stour*." *Barter.*] A river: whence the prefix *stour* to many of our places: *Stourton*, *Stourminster*, *Stourbridge*, *Sturrcy*, &c.

STOUR, EAST, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 4 miles west of Shaftesbury.

STOUR, WEST, another parish in the same county, separated from the foregoing by the river Stour, over which there is a bridge.

STOUR, a river of England, which rises in the county of Somerset, from three sources, the first near Wincanton, the second near Pen, and the third near More Park. The second and third of these streams unite, soon after their entering Dorsetshire, in Gillingham Forest, where the Stour becomes a considerable river, and directs its course nearly towards the south, where it is joined by the stream from Wincaunton, near Fifehead. About two miles and a half below this junction, it receives the waters of the Lyddon; and about half a mile farther, it is joined by the Dulish, flowing with a full stream to Sturminster Newton. Here it advances to the south-east, washing the town of Blandford, and receiving at Wimbourne Minster, the waters of the Allen. About four miles below its junction with the Allen it leaves Dorsetshire, and falls into the English channel at Christ Church, in Hampshire.—2. A river which rises in Shropshire, and running through Staffordshire and Worcestershire, falls into the Severn at Stourport, above Hartlebury castle. Its course is about 20 miles, and in that space it has on it upwards of 30 slitting mills, forges, corn mills, &c.—3. A river in Dorsetshire, which runs into the Avon near Canford Lawn.—4. A river which rises in Essex, and running through Hertfordshire, falls into the Lea at Hawsham.—5. A river which rises in Oxfordshire, and running through Warwickshire, falls into the Avon below Stratford.—6. *Stour*, or *Stoure*, *Greater* and *Lesser*, are two rivers of England, in the county of Kent. The Greater Stour rises from two principal branches, the first at Well-street, near Lenham, and the other among the hills between Liminge and Postling. These streams, with the addition of several rivulets, unite near Ashford, where turning to the north-east, they flow in one channel by Spring-grove to Wye. Thence proceeding through a beautiful country, this river passes several villages in its way to Canterbury, through which it flows in a divided stream, and again unites a little below the city, having formed three small islands in its progress. It then takes a north-easterly direction to the isle of Thanet. Here it anciently joined the Wantsume, a river at one time of considerable magnitude, but the channel of which became in time choaked up by the tides, and the name is now lost in that of the Stour. The Stour, after directing a branch north-westward from Sarre flows to the east, and being joined by the Lesser Stour, continues its course between the isle of Thanet and the mainland; and making an immense sweep southwards to Sandwich, it then returns towards the north, and falls into the Sandwich, and thence winding to the north, it falls into the British channel at Pepperness. That branch which proceeds northwards from Sarre, is called the Nethergong; and being joined by a stream from Cheslet, flows into the sea at Newhaven. The Lesser Stour rises near Liminge, and flows northwards in a north-easterly direction by Barham Downs, and passing various pleasant villages, in nearly a parallel line with the Greater Stour, falls into that river about a mile beyond Stourmouth. The Stour is famous for trout.—7. A river of England, which rises on the borders of Cambridgeshire; near Haverhill, and forms the entire boundary between the counties of Suffolk and Essex. It passes by Clare, Sudbury, and Nayland, and after being joined by the Bret and other smaller streams, receives the tide at Manningtree. Here, increasing considerably in breadth, it presents a beautiful object at high water, the effect of which, however, is considerably diminished by its muddy channel and contracted stream during ebb. It joins the Orwell from Ipswich, and their united streams form the noble harbour of Harwich, whence they

they discharge themselves into the German Ocean, between that town and Land-Guard Fort.

STOURBRIDGE, a market town of England, in the county of Worcester, situated on the river Stour, and deriving its name from the bridge here over that river. The town stands on a gentle declivity, and its general appearance is handsome, though the streets are irregularly laid out. The principal street is of considerable length, and contains some good houses. Being for a considerable period a hamlet belonging to Swinford, it had, until the time of Henry VIII., a chapel dependent on the church of that place; but having now become a large and populous town, it has been made parochial, and independent of the mother church; and a chapel was erected of brick in 1742, which is a neat good building. The town also contains several chapels for dissenters, viz., the Quakers, founded in 1680; the Presbyterians in 1698, but now occupied by the Independents; the present Presbyterians, erected in 1788, and reckoned an elegant building; and the Methodists in 1805. A theatre was erected here in 1790. A free-school was founded by Edward VI. The present one is handsomely endowed, and under the inspection of eight governors. Stourbridge is noted for its manufactures, which are various and considerable, in glass, iron, cloth, and bricks. The principal, however, is that of glass. Numerous iron-works, on a large scale, are interspersed through great part of the neighbourhood; and many of the more minute branches of the iron trade, as the making of nails, agricultural implements, &c. are successfully carried on here. The process of making leather from sheep-skins is practised here; and manufactures of broad and narrow cloth are of long standing. In the neighbourhood of the town there are mines which produce coal, iron-stone, and clay, the last of which, for its excellence and use in the manufacture of glass, is said to be unequalled in the world. This clay is found about 150 feet below the surface of the ground, under three strata of coal, in the space of about 200 acres, 48 of which contain it of superior quality to the rest: 4000 tons of it are raised annually. Clay of inferior quality is also found, suited to many important purposes. The trade and prosperity of Stourbridge has been greatly promoted by the various lines of inland navigation which have been formed in this part of the country, and with which it communicates. Market on Friday, and various annual fairs; 22 miles north of Worcester, and 124 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 26. N. long. 2. 8. W.

STOURBRIDGE, or **STURBRIDGE**, the name of a field near Cambridge, in England, on the banks of the Stour, noted for its fair, kept annually on the 18th September, continuing a fortnight under the jurisdiction of the University of Cambridge. The fair is well attended, and supplied with every article of manufacture and provision, as well as all kinds of cattle.

STOURHOLM, one of the smaller Shetland Isles, lying on the north side of the Mainland. Lat. 60. 54. N. long. 1. 35. W.

STOURMOUTH, a parish of England, in Kent; 8 miles east-north-east of Canterbury.

STOUR PAINE, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 3 miles north-west-by-north of Blandford Forum.

STOURPORT, a market-town of England, in the county of Worcester, situated on the banks of the river Stour, near its junction with the Severn. It is a place of very recent origin, and in fact owes its existence, as well as its increasing trade and prosperity, to the formation of the Trent and Severn, or the Staffordshire and Worcestershire canal, which entering the latter country at Wolverley, and following the course of the Stour for about nine miles, terminates in a basin at Stourport, where it joins the Severn. The basin was begun in 1768, and finished in 1771. Previous to this there was no appearance of a town here, and the soil presented nothing but a barren heath. It is now, however, a scene of the greatest activity and business, being the general depôt of communication between the central and western parts of the kingdom, and forming a kind of maritime town in the heart

of the country. The numerous barges and trows that come loaded both up and down the Severn, meet here the various carriers on the canals from the north and east, and a mutual exchange of their goods takes place. Additional basins have been formed for the accommodation of this trade, and these admit barges and trows from Worcester, Gloucester, and Bristol, which unlade into numerous warehouses built on the margins of the basins. Smaller vessels arrive from Colebrook, Shrewsbury, Welsh Pool, and their goods, with others from Kidderminster, Stourbridge, Wolverhampton, Dudley, and Birmingham, are forwarded to the Staffordshire potteries, to Liverpool, Manchester, Chester, and Derby, where they are distributed over all parts of the eastern coast. A very extensive trade is here carried on in coals from the Staffordshire and Worcestershire collieries. Stourport takes the lead of every other place in this part of the kingdom, as a market for hops, and apples in their season, &c.; and it is also of considerable importance as a corn-market. The town is handsome, and has an air even of elegance. The houses are neat and commodious, and mostly on a good scale. The streets are comfortable, full of shops, and thronged with people. Here is a handsome chapel of ease, but no other public building of consequence. The bridge here over the Severn is an object of curiosity, as well of utility, and of beauty. It consists of a single arch of iron 150 feet span, and about 50 above the surface of the water. It was erected in place of a stone-bridge, which was swept away by a great flood. In 1811, Stourport contained 464 houses, and 2352 inhabitants. At present the population is estimated at 3000. Market on Wednesday and Saturday; 11 miles north of Worcester, and 124 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 25. N. long. 2. 7. W.

STOUR PROVOST, or **STOWRE PATRELLIS**, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-by-south of Shaftsbury. Population 662.

STOURTON, or **STOUR HEAD**, a village of England, in Wiltshire, near the source of the river Stour. Here is Alfred's tower, a beautiful triangular building, 155 feet high, from the top of which there is one of the most striking and beautiful prospects in England. This tower is built on the spot where King Alfred erected his standard in the year 870, when he collected together his scattered friends, and defeated the Danes. Population 635; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-north-west of Mere.

STOURTON CANDAL, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 3 miles from Stalbridge. Population 304.

STOURTON, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire; 4 miles south-east of Shipston-upon-Stour.

STOUSE HEAD, a cape on the east coast of the island of South Ronaldshay. Lat. 58. 40. N. long. 2. 47. W.

STOUT, *adj.* [*stout*, Dutch; *stolz*, proud, German; *stautan*, Gothic, is to strike.] Strong; lusty; valiant.

When I was young,
I do remember how my father said,
A *stouter* champion never handled sword. *Shakspeare.*

Brave; bold; intrepid.—He lost the character of a bold, *stout*, and magnanimous man, which he had been long reputed to be. *Clarendon.*—Obstinate; pertinacious; resolute; proud.

The lords all stand,
To clear their cause most resolutely *stout.* *Daniel.*

There virtue and *stout* honour pass'd the guard,
Those only friends that could not be debarr'd. *Bathurst.*

Strong; firm.
The *stoutest* vessel to the storm gave way,
And suck'd through loosen'd planks the rushing sea. *Dryden.*

STOUT, *s.* A cant name for strong beer.
Should but his muse descending drop
A slice of bread and mutton-chop.
Or kindly, when his credit's out,
Surprise him with a pint of *stout*;
Exalted in his mighty mind,
He flies and leaves the stars behind. *Swift.*

STOUTING,

STOUTING, a parish of England, in Kent; 7 miles from Ashford.

STOUTLY, *adv.* Lustily; boldly; obstinately.

The general and his wife are talking of it,
And she speaks for you *stoutly*.

Shakspeare.

STOUTNESS, *s.* Strength; valour. Boldness; fortitude.—His bashfulness in youth was the very true sign of his virtue and *stoutness* after. *Ascham*.—Obstinacy; stubbornness.

Come all to ruin, let

Thy mother rather feel thy pride, than fear,
Thy dangerous *stoutness*: for I mock at death
With as stout heart as thou.

Shakspeare.

To STOW, *v. a.* [ἵστω, *Sax.*; *stoe*, old Frisick, a place; *stowen*, Dutch, to lay up.] To lay up; to reposit in order; to lay in the proper place.—Foul thief! where hast thou *stow'd* my daughter. *Shakspeare*.

STOW, or STOE. Whether singly or jointly, are the same with the Saxon ἵστω, a place.

STOW (John), an industrious antiquarian and historian, was the son of a merchant tailor in London, and born about the year 1525. About the year 1560 he formed the design of composing annals of the English history, and to this object he sacrificed his trade and domestic concerns; travelling on foot to several cathedrals and other public establishments, in order to examine records, charters, and ancient documents. He also purchased, as far as he was able, old books, manuscripts, parchments, &c., of which he made a large collection. But wanting patrons, and pressed by necessity, he was obliged to intermit his favourite pursuits, and to renew his application to business with a property that had been much lessened. Benefactions, however, from Dr. Parker, archbishop of Canterbury, enabled him to prosecute his studies; but being suspected of an attachment to popery, an information against him was laid before the council, in 1568, as a dangerous person, and as having possession of many pernicious books of superstition. His study was searched by order of Dr. Grindal, bishop of London, and many popish books were found in it; which discovery fixed upon his character the reproach of a suspected person; and two years after, an unnatural brother, who having defrauded him of his goods, was desirous of taking away his life, preferred against him above 140 articles before the ecclesiastical commission. But the infamous character of the witnesses who were engaged to prove the charges, caused him to be acquitted. His first work, undertaken at the request of the powerful favourite, Robert Dudley, earl of Leicester, had been already published: and as it had been dedicated to the said nobleman, his countenance was of service to him in his present circumstances. This was "A Summarie of English Chroniques," first printed in 1565, and several times reprinted. This book contained an account of the reign of every English king from the era of the fabulous Brute, down to his own time, with a list of all the principal magistrates of London from the Conquest. It was afterwards continued by Edmond Howes, who printed several editions, so that the work must have been popular. In 1575 he lost his best patron, archbishop Parker; but his mind was so ardently engaged in his antiquarian studies, that he prosecuted them with unintermitting diligence and zeal, amidst all the inconveniences and distresses of penury. In 1585 he presented a petition to the lord mayor and court of aldermen, stating that for 25 years he had been employed in compiling and publishing divers summaries, recording the memorable acts of famous citizens, and that he contemplated the publication of a larger summary, and soliciting encouragement and assistance: and four years after he presented another petition, requesting a pension, or some other benefaction; but it does not appear whether or not he succeeded in his solicitations.

To the improvement of the second edition of the Chroniques published by Hollingshed in 1587, Stow largely contributed; and he also supplied corrections and notes for two editions of Chaucer. His "Survey of London, &c." on

which he had been long employed, appeared in 1598, and a second edition was presented to the public before his death. It was several times reprinted, with successive improvements, and has been the basis of all the subsequent histories of the metropolis. For his large Chronicle or History of England he had been for 40 years collecting materials; but he only lived to print an abstract of it in 1600, entitled "Flores Historiarum, or Annals of England," 4to., dedicated to archbishop Whitgift. Edmond Howes published from his papers a folio volume, entitled "Stow's Chronicle;" but this does not seem to contain that "far larger work," mentioned by Stow, and which he left in his study fairly written out for the press. It is said to have come into the possession of Sir Symonds Dewes, but is not found among his MSS. in the British Museum. Stow having spent his patrimony, and acquired no certain income, sunk into wretched penury in his old age, and was under a necessity of applying for public charity: and James I., "by one of the meanest acts of his very mean reign," granted a licence, authorizing him, then in his 78th year, "to repair to churches, or other places, to receive the gratuities and charitable benevolence of well-disposed people." Of the amount of this bounty, we may from some conjecture from the collection in the parish of St. Mary Woolnoth, which reached the sum of 7*s.* 6*d.*! The city of London was not more liberal than the sovereign of the country; and it must reflect no small degree of reproach upon it, that it could not extend its liberality towards its own historian. Stow, oppressed by poverty and painful diseases, obtained a release in the year 1605, at the age of 80 years. His aspect is said to have been cheerful, and his behaviour mild and courteous.

"In his writings," says one of his biographers, "he displayed a sincere love of truth, and great diligence in investigating it, with the moral feelings of a worthy man. His brother antiquarians speak of him with respect; and if he ranks, in point of style and matter, with the inferior class of his historians, he may claim the praise of humble utility." *Gen. Biog.*

STOW, 1. A parish of Scotland, in the southern part of Mid-Lothian, and comprehending a small part of Selkirkshire; it extends 15 miles in length, and is on an average 5 miles in breadth.—2. A village in the above parish, situated on the east bank of Gala water.—3. A parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 5 miles from Cambridge.—4. A parish in Huntingdonshire, 2½ miles north-by-east of Kimbolton.—5. A parish in Lincolnshire, supposed to be the ancient *Sidnacester*. The church, which is an ancient and very large fabric, was founded by one of the Bishops of Dorchester, and rebuilt by the first Bishop of Lincoln. In the park are to be traced the foundation of its abbey, which was afterwards the bishop's palace; 8 miles south-east of Gainsborough.—6. The remains of another parish in Lincolnshire, near Market Deeping, now united with Bardholm.—7. A hamlet in Oxfordshire; 4 miles north-east of Oxford.—8. A parish in Salop, near Bishop's Castle.—9. A post township of the United States, in Middlesex county, Massachusetts; 30 miles west of Boston.—10. A post township of the United States, in Portage county, Ohio.

STOW, BARDOLPH, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles north-north-east of Market Downham. Population 677.

STOW, BYDON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles south-east-by-south of Watton.

STOW CREEK, a river of the United States, in New Jersey, which runs into the Delaware. Lat. 39. 38. N. long. 75. 26. W.

STOW, LANGTOFT, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 8 miles east-south-east of Bury St. Edmund's.

STOW, MARKET, a market town of England, in the county of Suffolk, situated on the river Orwell, almost in the centre of the county. It is a thriving town, and contains many good and even handsome houses, especially about the market-place. The church is a large and beautiful building, with a square tower, surmounted by a steeple 120 feet high, which is of wood, yet has a light and elegant appearance.

pearance. On an eminence about a mile from the town, stands the house of industry for the hundred of Stow. It is a very respectable building, and has rather indeed the appearance of a gentleman's seat than a receptacle for paupers. Its erection cost 1200*l.*; and it was opened in 1781. A manufacture of sacking, ropes, twine, and hempen, is carried on in Stow. This has succeeded to the manufacture of stuffs, and bombasines, which was formerly carried on. Being well situated for the barley trade, the market of the town is much frequented by the farmers, for a considerable distance round; and hence much business is done in the malting, in which trade there are from 15 to 20 houses. One great source of the prosperity of Stow Market is the navigable canal from this place to Ipswich, which was opened in 1793. It is 16 miles in length, and has 15 locks, each 60 feet long and 14 wide, three built with timber, and 12 with brick and stone. From the basin there is an agreeable walk about a mile in length, along the towing path, winding chiefly through hop plantations, of which there are 150 acres in this neighbourhood. Market on Thursday, and two annual fairs; 12½ miles north-north-west of Ipswich, and 75 north-north-east of London. Lat. 52. 11. N. long. 9. 59. E.

STOW, MARY'S, or STOW MARSH, a parish of England, in Essex; 5½ miles south-south-west of Maldon.

STOW-NINE-CHURCHES, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 5½ miles south-east of Daventry.

STOW, UPLAND, a parish of England, in Suffolk, adjacent to Market-Stow. Population 720.

STOW, WEST, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles north-north-west of Bury St. Edmund's.

STOW-ON-THE-WOLD, a market town of England, in the county of Gloucester, situated on the summit of a high hill, the base of which is about 3 miles in diameter. The situation is airy, and the air, though cold, is very healthy. The houses are mostly low, and built with stone: they have generally a very ancient appearance. The church is a strong and well-built edifice, apparently the work of different periods during the 14th and 15th centuries. It consists of a nave, aisles, and chancel, with an embattled tower on the south side, 81 feet in height, which, from its lofty situation, constitutes a principal object through a circumference of many miles. The arches are pointed, and supported by clustered pillars, some of which have zig-zag capitals. At the east end is a rich window of quatrefoils, and at the west end a window of ovals, with two trefoils in each. The principal charitable institutions in the town are an almshouse for nine poor persons, and a free-school. These are situated on the south side of the churchyard. The former was founded under the will of William Chestre, dated so early as the 16th Edward IV. Ailmere, Earl of Cornwall and Devon, the reputed founder of the original church here, is said also to have founded an hospital in the 10th century. The principal manufacture in Stow is that of shoes. The parish is governed by two bailiffs appointed annually. It is about 12 miles in circumference. The charter for the market was granted in the fourth of Edward III. to the abbey of Evesham, by which establishment some part of the manor was held in the time of Edward the Confessor; and within a century it had obtained possession of the remainder. Market on Thursday. The fairs, on 12th May and 24th October, have long been famous for hops, cheese, and sheep; 11 miles south-south-east of Camden, 25 north-east of Gloucester, and 77 west-by-north of London.

STOW'AGE, *s.* Room for laying up.—What were all the fasts and humiliations of the late reformers, but the forbearing of dinners? that is, the enlarging the *stowage*, and the redoubling the appetite for a large supper! *South.*—In every vessel is *stowage* for immense treasures, when the cargo is pure bullion, or merchandize of as great a value. *Addison.*—The state of being laid up.

'Tis plate of rare device, and jewels
Of rich and exquisite form, their value's great;
And I am something curious, being strange,
To have them in safe *stowage*.

Shakspeare.

The things stowed.

We ha' ne'er better luck,
When we ha' such *stowage* as these trinkets with us.

Beaum. and Fl.

Money paid for stowing of goods.

STOWBOROUGH, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire, situated on the river Frome, and forming a kind of suburb to Wareham.

STOWE, a parish of England, in the county of Buckingham, noted for containing the magnificent seat, gardens, and pleasure grounds of the Marquis of Buckingham, which forms the chief ornament of the county. This noble demesne is situated 2 miles north-west of Buckingham, and, when beheld at a distance, appears like a vast grove interspersed with columns, obelisks, and towers, which apparently emerge from a luxuriant mass of foliage. In approaching the house, the first architectural object that attracts attention is a Corinthian arch or gateway, 60 feet high by 60 wide, which forms the principal approach, and where a grand display is presented of the mansion, groves, temples, obelisks, lake, &c. At a short distance from the arch is one of the entrances to the gardens, which comprise about 400 acres of highly decorated grounds. These gardens obtained their celebrity from the alterations effected by Lord Cobham, under whose directions, with the aid of the best artists, the groves were planted, the lawns laid out, and many of the buildings of the place erected. On the south and west sides of the gardens, the principal objects are the hermitage; the temple of Venus, designed and executed by Kent, a square building, decorated with Ionic columns; the queen's statue; the Boycott pavilions, designed by Vanbrugh; the temple of Bacchus; and in the centre of a large lawn is the rotunda, raised on ten Ionic columns, and ornamented in the centre with a statue of Bacchus. On the east side of the gardens is the entrance to the Elysian Fields, where the figures of heroes, poets, and philosophers, seem to justify the name. This part is watered by a small rivulet, which flowing from the grotto, passes through a valley ornamented with a number of fine old trees, and which includes some of the most charming views and objects in the whole demesne. The rivulet then runs into the lake, which is a considerable sheet of water, dividing itself into two branches, and retiring through beautiful valleys. A Doric arch, decorated with the statues of Apollo and the Muses, leads into the Elysian Fields. Through the arch the Palladian bridge is seen, and a castellated lodge, built on the opposite hill. On the right is the temple of Friendship, and on the left are the temples of Ancient Virtue and of British Worthies. The temple of Ancient Virtue is a circular building of the Ionic order. The dome is supported by 16 columns. Within are four statues by Sheemaker, of Lycurgus, Socrates, Homer, and Epaminondas, with appropriate inscriptions by Lord Lyttleton. The temple of Worthies is a semicircular building, erected on the banks of the upper lake, after a design by Kent. It contains busts of Pope, Sir Thomas Gresham, Inigo Jones, Milton, Shakspeare, Locke, Newton, Bacon, Alfred, &c. The grotto is situated in a romantic dell, composed of broken stones, pebbles, flints, spars, and other materials. The temple of Concord and Virtue is a large handsome building, of an oblong shape, surrounded with 28 fluted Ionic columns, and is thought to be one of the most chaste and elegant ornamental structures in the kingdom. Lord Cobham's Pillar is 115 feet high, surmounted with a statue of his lordship. Captain Grenville's monument is a lofty column, erected by Lord Cobham, in honour of his nephew, Captain Thomas Grenville. The Queen's building is a beautiful temple, designed by Kent. On the opposite side of a deep valley, is the most picturesque and curious building in the gardens, termed the Gothic temple, a triangular building, with a pentagonal tower at each corner, one of which rises to the height of 70 feet, and terminates with battlements and pinnacles; the others are surmounted with domes. The inside is richly adorned with light columns and various pointed arches, and the windows are glazed with a fine collection of old painted glass, on which

a variety of sacred subjects and armorial bearings are represented. In a woody recess near the temple are some good statues by Rysbrach, of the seven Saxon deities, who gave names to the days of the week, on each of which is a Saxon inscription. The temple of Friendship is built in the Tuscan style of architecture. The Pebble Alcove and Congreve's monument were executed from designs by Kent. Such are the principal objects in these famous gardens, where, according to Walpole, the rich landscapes occasioned by the multiplicity of temples and obelisks, occasion both surprise and pleasure, sometimes recalling Albano's landscapes to our mind, and oftener to our fancy the idolatrous and luxurious vales of Daphne and Tempe. The house is situated on an eminence rising gradually from the lake to the south front, which forms the principal entrance. It covers a large extent of ground, measuring from east to west 916 feet, of which the central 454 include the principal apartments. These range on each side of the saloon, and communicate with each other by a series of doors placed in a direct line. The south or garden front is composed of a centre, two colonades, and two pavilion wings, the same height as the centre. The side has a rusticated casement, and is adorned with a great number of Corinthian and Ionic columns and pilasters. This front was wholly designed by Lords Cobham and Camelford. The saloon is perhaps one of the finest apartments of the kind in England, presenting a combination of objects, beautiful and sumptuous. The expenses of this apartment amounted to 12,000*l.* Its shape is oval, measuring 60 feet long, 43 broad, and 56½ high. The hall was designed and painted by Kent. The state drawing-room is 50 feet by 32, and 22 high. It contains a collection of well-executed pictures, most of which are by the best old masters. The state gallery, dressing-room, bed-chamber, and closet, are all formed on a suitable scale of extent, and elegance of embellishment. The pictures in them include portraits of all the celebrated characters in English history and literature. The library contains 10,000 volumes, many of which are very rare and valuable, with a great collection of unpublished manuscripts. The manor of Stowe appears to have been purchased into the Temple family in 1560, by Peter Temple, Esq., and the original mansion erected by that gentleman. Sir Peter Temple, a distant descendant, inclosed about 200 acres of ground for a park, which he stocked with deer. Sir Richard, the next heir, rebuilt the manor-house. On his death the estate devolved to his son, who was created Baron Cobham in 1714, and Viscount Cobham in 1718, with a collateral remainder of both titles to his second sister Hester, wife of Richard Grenville, Esq., of Watton, in this county. Lord Cobham died in 1749, and was succeeded by the above lady, who was then created Countess Cobham. The title of Marquis of Buckingham was obtained in the year 1784. When in the possession of Lord Cobham, Stowe was visited by the most distinguished poets and literati of the age; and Pope, Chesterfield, Hammond, Lyttleton, Pitt, and West, were among its frequent guests.

STOWELL, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles west-south-west of North Leach.

STOWELL, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles south-south-west of Wincanton.

STOWEY.—1. A parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3 miles south-south-west of Pensford.—2. STOWEY (*Nether*), a town and parish of England, in Somersetshire, with a weekly market on Tuesday, and a fair on the 18th September. The church is a handsome building; and near it is a spring, which has the property of encrusting, with the appearance of stone, pieces of wood, &c., thrown into it. It had formerly a castle, of which no vestige now remains, except the ditch; 8 miles west-north-west of Bridgewater, and 149 west-by-south of London.—3. STOWEY (*Over*), another parish in the same county; about a mile distant from the foregoing.

STOWFORD, a parish of England, in Devonshire, between the rivers Lid and Thrushel; 10½ miles south-west-by-west of Oakhampton.

STOWGURSEY, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 7 miles from Bridgewater. Population 1208.

STOWTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3 miles from Exeter.

STOYESTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Somerset county, Pennsylvania.

STOZINGEN, LOWER and UPPER, a small town and village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 14 miles north-north-east of Ulm. The former has 1300, the latter only 400 inhabitants.

STRA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Venetian district of Padua.

STRABANE, a populous town of Ireland, in the county of Tyrone, pleasantly situated on the river Foyle. Before the union it sent two members to the Irish parliament; 40 miles north-west of Armagh, and 11 south-south-west of Londonderry. Lat. 54. 50. N. long. 7. 19. W.

STRABANE, a township of the United States, in Washington county, Pennsylvania.

STRABISM, *s.* [*strabisme*, Fr.; *strabismus*, Lat.] A squinting; act of looking askant.

STRABISMUS, [*Στραβισμος*, Gr.] Squinting.

STRABO, a celebrated geographer, was born at Amasia, a city of Pontus, but in what year we cannot ascertain. From his acquaintance with C. Gallus, prefect of Egypt, and from his having composed his geography in the fourth year of the emperor Tiberius, we may infer that he flourished in the century B. C.; and Blair assigns his death to the year 25 before the commencement of the Christian era. It appears, that he studied grammar and rhetoric at Nysa, and that he was instructed in the principles of the various sects of philosophers in several of the most celebrated schools of Asia. He owns himself a Stoic, and he followed their dogmas. Of the general course of his life, little is known; but he appears to have been a great traveller, and to have visited most of the countries which he describes. Besides his Geography, contained in seventeen books, which was written in his advanced age, and which is highly valued, he was the author of some historical works, which have been lost. His Geography, though from the time in which he lived it must be imperfect and erroneous in various particulars, is very useful for the illustration of the history and writings of the ancients; more especially as he intersperses many philosophical remarks, which indicate a cultivated mind, and many short narratives, which serve to extend our acquaintance with the history and antiquities of remote periods.

Several editions of a Latin version of Strabo appeared before the Greek text was printed. Of the Greek and Latin editions, the first that claims commendation for its erudition, was that of Is. Casaubon, fol., Genev. 1587, and Paris, 1620. That of Janson ab Almeloveen, cum notis variorum, Amst., 2 vols. fol., 1707, is much esteemed, though not very correct. An Oxford edition has also appeared, under the inspection of Mr. Falconer. *Fabr. Bibl. Græc. Gen. Biog.*

STRACHAN, formerly called STRATHAEN, a parish of Scotland, in Kincardineshire, lying on the north side of the Grampian ridge.

STRACHUR and STRALUCHAN, a united parish of Argyllshire, about 18 miles long, and from 3 to 6 broad, lying on the south side of Loch Fyne. Population 1129.

STRADA (Famiano), a celebrated Italian writer, born at Rome in 1572, who entered into the society of Jesus in 1592, and became professor of eloquence in the Roman college, where he resided till his death in 1659. His most famous work was a "History of the Wars in the Low Countries," in Latin, consisting of two decades: the first, comprising the events from the death of Charles V. to the year 1573, and published in 1632; and the second, as far as 1590, published in 1647. Strada's work was criticised with some severity, by Cardinal Bentivoglio; and it is allowed to have been more the production of a rhetorician than of an impartial and correct historian. The style, however, is animated, and the language pure, though defective in the good taste

taste of some other modern Latinists. It was attacked with virulence by Gaspar Scioppius, in his "Infamia Famiani Stradae," which injured his own reputation more than that of the historian.

The "Prolusiones Academicæ" of Strada, containing various dissertations on literary subjects, is an ingenious and elegant performance, particularly admired for its imitations of the most celebrated Latin poets. Addison pronounces this effusion to be "one of the most entertaining, as well as the most just pieces of criticism he had ever read;" and he has made it the subject of three papers in the *Guardian*. *Gen. Biog.*

STRADA, or STRADANUS, an eminent painter of a good family, was born at Bruges in the year 1536; and after studying in his own country, visited Italy for further improvement. At Florence, he was employed in some considerable works, and thence he went to Rome, where he painted at the palace of Belvidere in concert with Dan. da Volterra and Fr. Salviati. In compliance with the invitation of Don John, of Austria, he visited Naples, and accompanied his patron to Vienna, where his pencil was employed in commemorating that great officer's military exploits. He afterwards fixed his residence at Florence, where he became the head of the Florentine academy of painting; and he died in 1604. Besides history-pieces, he painted animals, huntings, and battles, in a noble style, with good drawing, and an agreeable tone of colouring. Although he may be considered as a competitor in a variety of respects with the celebrated artists of his time, he could never divest himself wholly of the Flemish taste which he had imbibed in his youth. Many of his pieces are engraved.

STRADBALLY, a small neat village of Ireland, in Queen's county, where a handsome church, a good market-house, and a charter school are erected. In the 12th century a monastery for conventual Franciscans was founded here by Lord O'More; 38½ miles south-west of Dublin.

STRADBROOKE, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5½ miles east-by-south of Ely.

To STRADDLE, *v. n.* To stand or walk with the feet removed far from each other to the right and left; to part the legs wide.

Unskilful statuaries suppose

In forming a Colossus, if they make him

Straddle enough, strut, and look big, and gape,
Their work is goodly.

Chapman.

STRADELLA, a town of the continental Sardinian states, in the Milanese, pleasantly situated on a rising ground covered with vines and fruit trees, near the small river Aversa. It has some manufactures of woollens and silk, and a population of 3900; 10 miles south-south-east of Pavia.

STRADEN, a large village of the Austrian states, in Styria, circle of Gratz, with a well-frequented annual fair.

STRADFORD, or SLANEY, a town of Ireland in the county of Wicklow, pleasantly situated on the Slaney. It has a very thriving cotton manufactory, which employs a considerable population; 26 miles south of Dublin.

STRADISHALL, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles north-north-west of Clare.

STRADSET, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles east-north-east of Market Downham.

STRAFFORD, a village of England, in Dorsetshire; 3 miles from Dorchester.

STRAFFORD, a county of the United States, in the east part of New Hampshire, bounded north by Coos county, east by Maine, south-west by Rockingham county, and west by Grafton county. Population 41,394. Chief towns, Dover, Gilmanton, Rochester, and Durham.

STRAFFORD, a township of the United States, in Orange county, Vermont; 35 miles north of Windsor. Here is an extensive copperas manufactory.

STRAFFORD, a township of the United States, in Montgomery county, New York; 15 miles north-west of Johnstown.

To STRAGGLE, *v. n.* [Of this word no etymology is

known: it is probably a frequentative of *stray*, from *straviare*, Italian, of *extra viam*, Latin.] To wander without any certain direction; to rove; to ramble.

But stay, like one that thinks to bring his friend

A mile or two, and sees the journey's end:

I *straggle* on too far.

Suckling.

To wander dispersedly.—He likewise enriched poor *straggl*ing soldiers with great quantity. *Shakspearc.*—To exuberate; to shoot too far.

Were they content to prune the lavish vine,

Of *straggl*ing branches, and improve the wine.

Prior.

Trim off the small superfluous branches on each side of the hedge that *straggle* too far out. *Mortimer.*—To be dispersed; to be apart from any main body; to stand single.—Having passed the Syrens, they came between Scylla and Charybdis, and the *straggl*ing rocks, which seemed to cast out great store of flames and smoke. *Raleigh.*

STRAGGLE, *s.* A wanderer; a rover; one who forsakes his company; one who rambles without any settled direction.

Let's whip these *stragglers* o'er the seas again,

Lash hence these over-weening rags of France,

These famish'd beggars.

Shakspeare.

Any thing that pushes beyond the rest, or stands single.

Let thy hand supply the pruning knife,

And crop luxuriant *stragglers*, nor be loth

To strip the branches of their leafy growth.

Dryden.

STRAGGLETHORPE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 12 miles west-north-west of Sleaford.

STRAID, a small village of Ireland, in the county of Antrim; 89½ miles north of Dublin.

STRAIGHT, *adj.* It is well observed by Ainsworth, that for *not* crooked we ought to write *straight*, and for narrow *strait*; but for *streight*, which is sometimes found, there is no good authority. *Dr. Johnson.*—It is from the Saxon *ƿƿrac*, *right*, *direct*; *strack*, Germ. the same; which, as Serenius and Dr. Jamieson have observed, are from the verbs signifying to stretch; as *straccka*, Su. Goth. *ƿƿeccan*, Sax. And a *straight* line, the latter adds, gives us the idea of that which is *stretched out* between two points.] Not crooked: right.

Beauty made barren the swell'd boast

Of him that best could speak; feature, laming

The shrine of Venus, or *straight*-pight Minerva.

Shakspeare.

Narrow; close. This should properly be *strait*; *estroit*, Fr. [See STRAIT.]—Queen Elizabeth used to say of her instructions to great officers, that they were like to garments, *strait* at the first putting on, but did by and by wear loose enough. *Bacon.*—Tense; tight. Of this sense it is doubtful whether it belongs to *strait*, *close*, *narrow*; or to *straight*, *not crooked*. Pull the cord *straight*, may mean, *draw it till it has no flexure*; tie it *straight* about you, may mean, *draw it into a narrower compass*. This ambiguity has perhaps confounded the orthography.

STRAIGHT, *adv.* [*strax*, Danish; *strack*, Dutch.] Immediately; directly. This sense is naturally derived from the adjective, as a *straight* line is the shortest line between two points.

If the devil come and roar for them,

I will not send them. I will after *straight*,

And tell him so.

Shakspeare.

STRAIGHT, a small river of North America, which falls into the Ohio between the Little Miami and the Scioto.

STRAIGHT CREEK, a river of America, which runs into the Ohio. Lat. 38. 38. N. long. 84. 2. W.

To STRAIGHTEN, *v. a.* To make not crooked; to make straight.—A crooked stick is not *straightened*, except it be as far bent on the clean contrary side. *Hooker.*—Of ourselves being so apt to err, the only way which we have to *straighten* our path is, by following the rule of his will,

whose

whose footsteps naturally are right. *Hooker*.—To make tense; to tighten.

STRAIGHTENER, *s.* A director; one who sets right.

STRAIGHTFORTH, *adv.* Directly; thenceforth.

She smote the ground, the which *straightforth* did yield
A fruitful olive tree. *Spenser*.

STRAIGHTLY, *adv.* In a right line; not crookedly.—Tightly; with tension.—The soul may deem herself too *straitly* girt up. *Mora*.

STRAIGHTNESS, *s.* Rectitude; the contrary to crookedness.—Some are for masts, as fir and pine, because of their length and *straightness*. *Bacon*.—Tension; tightness.

STRAIGHTWAY, *adv.* [It is very often written *straightways*, and therefore is perhaps more properly written *straightwise*.] Immediately; straight.

Like to a ship, that, having 'scap'd a tempest,
Is *straightway* claim'd and boarded with a pirate. *Shakspeare*.

To **STRAIN**, *v. a.* [*estreindre*, French.]—To squeeze through something.—Their aliment ought to be light, rice boiled in whey and *strained*. *Arbutnot*.—To purify by filtration.—Earth doth not *strain* water so finely as sand. *Bacon*.—To squeeze in an embrace.

Old Evander, with a close embrace,
Strain'd his departing friend; and tears o'erflow'd his face. *Dryden*.

To sprain; to weaken by too much violence.—The jury make no more scruple to pass against an Englishman and the queen, though it be to *strain* their oaths, than to drink milk unstrained. *Spenser*.

Prudes decay'd about may tack,
Strain their necks with looking back. *Swift*.

To put to its utmost strength.

Thus mine enemy fell,
And thus I set my foot on his neck;—even then
The princely blood flows in his cheek, he sweats,
Strains his young nerves, and puts himself in posture
That acts my words. *Shakspeare*.

To make strait or tense.

Thou, the more he varies forms, beware
To *strain* his fetters with a stricter care. *Dryden*.

To push beyond the proper extent.

See they suffer death,
But in their deaths remember they are men,
Strain not the laws to make their torture grievous. *Addison*.

To force; to constrain; to make uneasy or unnatural.

The lark sings so out of tune,
Straining harsh discords and displeasing sharps. *Shakspeare*.

To **STRAIN**, *v. n.* To make violent efforts.

To build his fortune I will *strain* a little,
For 'tis a bond in men. *Shakspeare*.

To be filtered by compression.—Cæsar thought that all sea-sands had natural springs of fresh water: but it is the sea-water; because the pit filled according to the measure of the tide, and the sea-water passing or *straining* through the sands, leaveth the saltness behind them. *Bacon*.

STRAIN, *s.* An injury by too much violence.—Credit is gained by custom, and seldom recovers a *strain*; but if broken, is never well set again. *Temple*.—[ʃtɹeɪn, Sax.] Race; generation; descent.

Thus far I can praise him; he is of a noble *strain*,
Of approv'd valour. *Shakspeare*.

Hereditary disposition.—Amongst these sweet knaves and all this courtesy! the *strain* of man's bred out into baboon and monkey. *Shakspeare*.—A style or manner of speaking.—In our liturgy are as great *strains* of true sublime eloquence, as are any where to be found in our language. *Swift*.—Song; note; sound.—Wilt thou love such a woman?

what, to make thee an instrument, and play false *strains* upon thee? *Shakspeare*.

Orpheus self may heave his head
From golden slumber on a bed
Of heap'd Elysian flowers, and hear
Such *strains* as would have won the ear
Of Pluto, to have quite set free
His half-regain'd Eurydice. *Milton*.

Rank; character.

But thou who lately of the common *strain*,
Wert one of us, if still thou do'st retain
The same ill habits, the same follies too,
Still thou art bound to vice, and still a slave. *Dryden*.

Turn; tendency; inborn disposition.—Because heretics have a *strain* of madness, he applied her with some corporal chastisements, which with respite of time might haply reduce her to good order. *Hayward*.—Manner of speech or action.—Such take too high a *strain* at the first, and are magnanimous more than tract of years can uphold, as was Scipio Africanus, of whom Livy saith, *ultima primis cedebant*. *Bacon*.

STRAINABLE, *adj.* Capable of being pushed beyond the proper extent.—A thing captious and *strainable*. *Bacon*.

STRAINER, *s.* An instrument of filtration.

These when condens'd, the airy region pours
On the dry earth, in rain or gentle showers,
Th' insinuating drops sink through the sand,
And pass the porous *strainers* of the land. *Blackmore*.

One who exerts his utmost strength.

Is he therefore to be deemed
Rude, or savage? or esteemed
But a sorry entertainer,
'Cause he is no common *strainer*
After painted nymphs for favours? *B. Jonson*.

STRAINING, *s.* The act of filtration; the substance strained.—The act of putting to the utmost stretch.—Our words flow from us in a smooth continued stream, without those *strainings* of the voice, motions of the body, and majesty of the hand, which are so much celebrated in the orators of Greece and Rome. *Atterbury*.

STRAINT, *s.* Violent tension. *Not in use*.

Sir Artegal —

Upon his iron collar griped fast,
That with the *strain* his wesand nigh he brast. *Spenser*.

STRAIT, *adj.* [*stretto*, Ital.] Narrow; close; not wide.

Witnesses, like watches, go
Just as they're set, too fast or slow;
And where in conscience they're *strait* lac'd,
'Tis ten to one that side is cast. *Hudibras*.

Close; intimate.—He, forgetting all former injuries, had received that naughty Plexirtus into a *straight* degree of favour, his goodness being as apt to be deceived, as the other's craft was to deceive. *Sidney*.—Strict; rigorous.

Proceed no *straiter* 'gainst our uncle Glo'ster,
Than from the evidence of good esteem.
He be approv'd in practice culpable. *Shakspeare*.

Difficult; distressful.—Narrow; avaricious.

I do not ask you much,
I beg cold comfort; and you are so *strait*,
And so ingrateful, you deny me that. *Shakspeare*.

It is used in opposition to crooked, but is then more properly written *straight*. [See **STRAIGHT**].—A bell or a cannon may be heard beyond a hill which intercepts the sight of the sounding body, and sounds are propagated as readily through crooked pipes as through *straight* ones. *Newton*.

STRAIT, *s.* A narrow pass, or frith.

Honour travels in a *streight* so narrow,
Where one but goes abreast.

Shakspeare.

Distress; difficulty. [*strete*, old Fr. *embaras*, difficulté. Lacombe.]

'Tis hard with me, whatever choice I make,
I must not merit you, or must forsake:
But in this *streight*, to honour I'll be true,
And leave my fortune to the gods and you.

Dryden.

To STRAIT, *v. a.* To put to difficulties.

If your lass

Interpretation should abuse, and call this
Your lack of love or bounty; you were *straited*
For a reply, at least, if you make care
Of happy holding her.

Shakspeare.

To STRAITEN, *v. a.* To make narrow.

If this be our condition, thus to dwell
In narrow circuit *straiten'd* by a foe,
Subtle or violent.

Milton.

To contract; to confine.—Feeling can give us a notion
of all ideas that enter at the eye, except colours; but it is
very much *streightened* and confined to the number, bulk,
and distance of its objects. *Addison.*

To make tight; to intend.

Stretch them at their length,
And pull their *streighten'd* cords with all your strength.

Dryden.

To deprive of necessary room.

The airy crowd
Swarm'd and were *straiten'd*.

Milton.

To distress; to perplex.—Men, by continually striving
and fighting to enlarge their bounds, and encroaching upon
one another, seem to be *straitened* for want of room.
Ray.

STRAIT'HANDED, *adj.* Parsimonious; sparing; nig-
gardly.

STRAITHANDEDNESS, *s.* Niggardliness.—They were
not more liberal than our Romish divorcers are niggardly:—
the Romish doctrine makes the *strait-handedness* so much
more injurious. *Bp. Hall.*

STRAITLACED, *adj.* Griped with stays.—Let nature
have scope to fashion the body as she thinks best; we have
few well-shaped that are *straitlaced*, or much tampered
with. *Locke.*—Stiff; constrained; without freedom.—
I was never so *strait-lac'd* to you, squire. *B. Jonson.*

STRAITLY, *adv.* Narrowly. Strictly; rigorously.—
Those laws he *straitly* requireth to be observed without
breach or blame. *Hooker.*—Closely; intimately.

STRAITNESS, *s.* Narrowness.—The *straitness* of my
conscience will not give me leave to swallow down such
camels. *King Charles.*—Strictness; rigour. If his own
life answer the *straitness* of his proceeding, it shall become
him well. *Shakspeare.*—Distress; difficulty; want; scar-
city.—The *straitness* of the conveniences of life amongst
them had never reached so far, as to the use of fire, till the
Spaniards brought it amongst them. *Locke.*

STRAITON, a parish of Scotland, in Ayrshire, about 15
miles in length from north-west to south-east, and 5 in
breadth. Population 1069.

STRAKE. The obsolete preterite of *strike*; struck.

Did'st thou not see a bleeding hind
Whose right haunch earst my stedfast arrow *strake*?

Spenser.

STRAKE, *s.* A long mark; a streak. See STREAK. A
narrow board; the strake of a cart is the iron with which
the cart wheels are bound. *Barret.*

STRAKONITZ, a small town of Bohemia, on the river
Wotawa, 60 miles south-by-west of Prague, and 18 north of
Prachatitz. Population 2000.

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STRALEN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the
government of Cleves; 6 miles south-west of Gueldres.

STRALSTEIN, ACTINOLITE. See MINERALOGY.

STRALSUND, a government of the Prussian states, in-
cluding the part of Pomerania which belonged to Sweden
until 1813, along with Rugen and other islands on the north
coast. It is almost entirely surrounded by water, the Baltic
bounding it on the north, and the Peene, the Trebel, and the
Reckenitz, three rivers partly navigable, on the other sides.
Its area is 1400 square miles; its population about 115,000;
and it is much more fertile than the rest of Pomerania. In-
stead of the lakes and light sandy soils of the governments of
Stettin and Coslin, there is here a heavy loam or black
mould, producing fine crops of corn, rye, and pulse, as well
as flax and tobacco. The pastures are not favourable for the
larger cattle; but the number of sheep, hogs, and above all,
of geese, is very considerable.

STRALSUND, a considerable town of Pomerania, long
subject to Sweden, now to Prussia. It is situated on the
strait which separates the island of Rugen from the mainland;
and being surrounded on one part by the sea, in others by
lakes and marshes, is accessible only by bridges, and was a
fortress of importance till 1807, since which it has been in
a manner dismantled. Its harbour is capacious and safe,
admitting ships of 15 feet of draught: those of greater bur-
den unload in the roads. The population exceeds 11,000,
but the aspect of the town is gloomy, the houses being low,
built of brick, and remarkable for being pointed at the top.
Of churches there are four Protestant and one Catholic. The
other public buildings are the government-house, the town-
house, the mint, the arsenal, and the governor's residence:
Of public institutions, the chief are the academy or gymna-
sium, the orphan-house, the poor-house, the lunatic hospital,
and the public library. The environs are flat and sandy,
and the water used by the inhabitants is raised by a hydrau-
lic machine. The manufactures are on a small scale, but
very diversified, comprising woollens, linen, tobacco, soap,
and glass: also breweries and distilleries. Stralsund was built
about the year 1209, became a member of the Hanseatic
league, and has long been a place of trade. Of corn, its
principal export, there is sometimes shipped between 30,000
and 40,000 quarters. The imports consist, as in the other
towns in the Baltic, chiefly of colonial produce and foreign
manufactures. Here, as at Stettin, the building of ships and
boats form a considerable branch of trade. The town has
suffered much at different times by sieges, but has always re-
covered, in consequence chiefly of its favourable situation for
trade; 90 miles north-north-west of Stettin. Lat. 54. 19.
N. long. 30. 32. E.

To STRA'MASH, *v. a.* [*stramazare*, Ital.] To beat;
to bang; to break irreparably; to destroy: a northern word,
according to Grose, who, however, notices no etymon.
Dr. Jamieson mentions the substantive *stramash* as a Scottish
word, and refers to the Fr. *estramacon*, a blow.

STRAMBERG, a small town of the Austrian states, in
Moravia; 35 miles east of Olmutz, and 5 south-south-west
of Freyberg. Population 1600.

STRAMBINO, a town of the Sardinian states, in the
Piedmontese province of Ivrea, on the Chiusella, with 3400
inhabitants.

STRAMINEOUS, *adj.* [*stramineus*, Lat.] Strawy;
consisting of straw.—Upon a sudden approach of the warned
electric, the *stramineous* bodies will, at first, a little
recede. *Dr. Robinson.*—Light; chaffy; like straw.—
Other discourse, dry, barren, *stramineous*, dull, and heavy.
Burton.

STRAMONIUM. See DATURA STRAMONIUM.

STRAMSHALL, or STRENSHALL, a township of England,
in Staffordshire, situated on a rivulet; 1½ mile north-north-
west of Uttoxeter.

STRAMULIPP, a district of modern Greece, comprising
the ancient Bœotia. See TURKEY.

STRAND, *s.* [strand, Saxon; *strande*, Dutch; *strënd*,
Icelandic.] The verge of the sea or of any water.

I saw sweet beauty in her face;
Such as the daughter of Agenor had,
That made great Jove to humble him to her hand,
When with his knees he kiss'd the Cretan *strand*.

Shakspeare.

Some wretch'd lines from this neglected hand,
May find my hero on the foreign *strand*,
Warm'd with new fires.

Prior.

A twist of a rope. (Derivation unknown.)

To STRAND, v. a. To drive or force upon the shallows.
Tarchon's alone was lost, and *stranded* stood,
Stuck on a bank, and beaten by the flood.

Dryden.

Some from the *stranded* vessel force their way,
Fearful of fate they meet it in the sea;
Some who escape the fury of the wave,
Sicken on earth, and sink into a grave.

Prior.

STRAND, NORTH, a strait of the North sea, between the island of Benbecula and North Uist.

STRAND, SOUTH, a strait of the sea, between the island of Benbecula and South Uist.

STRANG, adj. [ʃʁɑ̃ʒ, Sax.] Strong: our northern word.

STRANGE, adj. [*estrange*, Fr. *extranens*, Lat.] Foreign; of another country.—The natural subjects of the state should bear a sufficient proportion to the *strange* subjects that they govern. *Bacon*.—Not domestic.

As the man loves least at home to be,
That hath a slutish house, haunted with sprites;
So she, impatient her own faults to see,
Turns from herself, and in *strange* things delights.

Davies.

Wonderful; causing wonder.

Strange to relate, from young Iulus' head
A lambent flame arose, which gently spread
Around his brows, and on his temples fed.

Dryden.

Odd; irregular; not according to the common way.

Desire my man's abode, where I did leave him:
He's *strange* and peevish.

Shakspeare.

Unknown; new.—Here is the hand and seal of the duke: you know the character, I doubt not; and the signet is not *strange* to you. *Shakspeare*.—Remote.

She makes it *strange*, but she would be best pleas'd
To be so anger'd with another letter.

Shakspeare.

Uncommonly good or bad.—This made David to admire the law of God at that *strange* rate, and to advance the knowledge of it above all other knowledge. *Tillotson*.—Unacquainted.—They were now, like sand without lime, ill bound together, at a gaze, looking *strange* one upon another, not knowing who was faithful. *Bacon*.

STRANGE, interj. An expression of wonder.—*Strange!* that fatherly authority should be the only original of government, and yet all mankind not know it. *Locke*.

To STRANGE, v. n. To be estranged.

My wits chaungen,
And all lusts for me *straungen*.

Gower.

To wonder; to be astonished.—Were all the assertions of Aristotle such as theology pronounceth impieties, which we *strange* not at from one, of whom a father saith, *Nec Deum coluit, nec curavit*. *Glanville*.

To STRANGE, v. a. [*estranger*, old Fr.] To alienate; to *strange*.—*Stranging* them from their God. *Woodroephe*.

STRANGE (Sir Robert), an eminent English engraver, was born in one of the Orkney Islands, in 1721, and placed at a proper age with a painter in Edinburgh. When the Pretender landed in Scotland, he entered into the rebel army, and after the battle of Culloden, he concealed himself for some time in the Highlands. Returning to Edinburgh, he passed over to France, and settled at Rouen, where he acquired reputation by the productions of his pencil. At Paris, whither he next removed, he placed himself under the instruc-

tion of Le Bas, who excelled in engraving with what is called among artists the "dry needle." In 1751 he settled in London, and acquired the reputation of being the father of historical engraving in this country. He visited Italy in 1760, and by his admirable drawings of the capital pictures in that city, recommended himself to such a degree, that he was admitted a member of all the principal Italian academies. His early political errors having been forgotten, he was patronized at the English court, and in 1787 received the honour of knighthood. After a course of the most indefatigable labour in the practice of his art, he died in 1792. Besides a number of other works, he left fifty capital plates from pictures of the most celebrated masters of the Italian schools. Selecting, as he was accustomed to do, eighty copies of the best impressions of every plate which he engraved, he collected them into as many volumes, and prefixed to each two plates of himself, one an etching, the other a finished proof, from a drawing by I. Bapt. Greuse; together with an introduction on the progress of engraving, and critical remarks on the pictures from which the engravings were taken.

STRANGEA, a secondary ridge of mountains which branches off from the Hæmus chain on the south, and extends along the Black sea to the Thracian Bosphorus. An inferior branch called Mount Tekis, becomes detached from this, and stretches partly in a south-west direction to the point of the Chersonesus, partly in a circular form, round the gulf of Enos.

STRANGELY, adv. With some relation to foreigners.

As by *strange* fortune

It came to us, I do in justice charge thee
That thou commend it *strangely* to some place,
Where chance may nurse or end it.

Shakspeare.

Wonderfully; in a way to cause wonder, but commonly with a degree of dislike.

My former speeches have but hit your thoughts,
Which can interpret farther: only, I say,
Things have been *strangely* borne.

Shakspeare.

STRANGENESS, s. Foreignness; the state of belonging to another country.—If I will obey the Gospel, no distance of place, no *strangeness* of country, can make any man a stranger to me. *Sprat*.—Uncommunicativeness; distance of behaviour.—Ungird thy *strangeness*, and tell me what I shall vent to my lady. *Shakspeare*.—Remoteness from common manners or notions; uncouthness.

Men worthier than himself

Here tend the savage *strangeness* he puts on;

And undergo, in an observing kind,
His humorous predominance.

Shakspeare.

Mutual dislike.—In this peace there was an article that no Englishman should enter into Scotland, and no Scottishman into England, without letters commendatory: this might seem a means to continue a *strangeness* between the nations; but it was done to lock in the borderers. *Bacon*.—Wonderfulness; power of raising wonder.—This raised greater tumults and boilings in the hearts of men, than the *strangeness* and seeming unreasonablebleness of all the former articles. *South*.

STRANGER, s. [*estranger*, Fr.] A foreigner; one of another country.

I am a most poor woman, and a *stranger*,
Born out of your dominions; having here
No judge indifferent.

Shakspeare.

One unknown.

Thus the majestic mother of mankind,
To her own charms most amiably blind,
On the green margin innocently stood,
And gaz'd indulgent on the crystal flood;
Survey'd the *stranger* in the painted wave,
And smiling prais'd the beauties which she gave.

Young.

A guest; one not a domestic.

He

He will vouchsafe

This day to be our guest : bring forth and pour
Abundance, fit to honour and receive
Our heavenly *stranger*.

Milton.

One unacquainted.

My child is yet a *stranger* in the world :
She hath not seen the change of fourteen years.

Shakspeare.

One not admitted to any communication or fellowship.

I unspeak my detraction ; here abjure
The taints and blames upon myself,
For *strangers* to my nature.

Shakspeare.

To STRANGER *v. a.* To estrange ; to alienate.

Will you with those infirmities she owes,
Dower'd with our curse, and *stranger'd* with our oath,
Take her or leave her ?

Shakspeare.

STRANGER'S KEY, a small island among the Bahamas.
Lat. 26. 43. N. long. 78. 40. W.

STRANGFORD, an ancient town of Ireland, now decayed, in the county of Down, situated on a rapid inlet leading to Lough Strangford. Here a charter school was established in 1748, by the earl of Kildare, and liberally endowed ; 6 miles east of Downpatrick, and 80½ north-north-east of Dublin. Lat. 54. 21. N. long. 5. 28. W.

STRANGFORD, LOUGH, a large bay of Ireland, in the county of Down, extending from Killard Point in the Irish sea, to Newtown ; about 17 miles from south to north ; in some places five miles broad, in others three, and at its opening into the sea not one. It contains a great many small islands, and numerous creeks convenient for fishing harbours. It takes its name from the town of Strangford.

To STR'ANGLE, *v. a.* [*strangulo*, Lat.] To choke ; to suffocate ; to kill by intercepting the breath.

His face is black and full of blood ;
His eye-balls farther out, than when he liv'd ;
Staring full ghastly, like a *strangled* man.

Shakspeare.

To suppress ; to hinder from birth or appearance.

By th' clock, 'tis day ;
And yet dark night *strangles* the travelling lamp :
Is't night's predominance, or the day's shame ?

Shakspeare.

STR'ANGLER *s.* One who strangles.—The band that seems to tie their friendship together, will be the very *strangler* of their amity.

Shakspeare.

STR'ANGLES, *s.* Swellings in a horse's throat.

STR'ANGLING, *s.* Death by stopping the breath.—My soul chooseth *strangling* and death rather than life.

STRANGULA'TION, *s.* [*strangulation*, Fr. Cotgrave.] The act of strangling ; suffocation ; the state of being strangled.—The reduction of the jaws is difficult, and, if they be not timely reduced, there happen paralysis and *strangulation*.

Wiseman.

STR'ANGURY, *s.* [*σπαγγουρία*, Gr. ; *strangurie*, Fr.] A difficulty of urine attended with pain.—The liquor of the birch is most powerful for the dissolving of the stone in the bladder, bloody water, and *strangury*.

See SURGERY.

STRANING, a small town of Lower Austria, in the quarter below the Mannhartsberg, with 1600 inhabitants.

STRANORLANE, a neat little village of Ireland, in the county of Donegal, pleasantly situated on the river Fin ; 112 miles north-west of Dublin.

STRANRAER, or STRANRAWER, a royal burgh of Scotland, in Wigtonshire, seated at the head of the bay of Loch Ryan. It is the seat of a presbytery, and the chief town of the district called the Rinns. The principal street is of great length in proportion to the extent of the town. The greater part of the houses are old, and no regular plan has been observed. But whole streets of elegant houses have been lately built ; and a handsome town-house and prison erected about 45 years ago, adds greatly to the appearance of the town. It is a port of the custom-house. It has some trade to the

Baltic, to Ireland, and to England, chiefly in the exportation of grain. The cotton and linen manufactures are carried on to a considerable extent. There is also a considerable tan-work. The harbour of Stranraer is excellent, being sheltered on all sides, and lying at the head of Loch Ryan, which affords excellent anchorage. The tonnage of vessels belonging to it is 1200 tons. Stranraer is governed by a provost, two bailies, a dean of guild, and 15 councillors, and unites with Wigton, New Galloway, and Whithorn, in electing a member to parliament. Near the town is the old castle of Stranraer, formerly a seat of the earls of Stair ; and not far from it is the castle of Culhorn, the beautiful residence of that noble family. The burgh is chiefly the property of that nobleman, or dependent upon him. The great road from Carlisle, &c. to Port Patrick passes through the town. The parish is not large, and extends but to a small distance round the burgh ; 50 miles south of Ayr, 68¾ west of Dumfries, and 6¼ east of Port Patrick.

STRANSDORF, a small town of Lower Austria, on the river Bulka ; 32 miles north of Vienna. Population 900.

STRANTON, a parish of England, in Durham ; 10½ miles north-east-by-north of Stockton-upon-Tees.

STRAP, *s.* [στρόπος, Sax. *strop*, Teut. *stroppa*, Ital.] A narrow long slip of cloth or leather.—These clothes are good enough to drink in, and so be these boots too ; an they be not, let them hang themselves in their own *straps*.

Shakspeare.

To STRAP, *v. a.* To beat with a strap.

STRAPPA'DO, *s.* [old Fr. *strapade*, "sorte de punition militaire." Roq. Supposed to be from the Ital. *strappare*, to pull with force.] A kind of military torture formerly practised in drawing up an offender to the top of a beam, and letting him fall ; in consequence of which, dislocation of a limb usually happened.—Were I at the *strappado*, or all the racks in the world, I would not tell you on compulsion.

Shakspeare.

To STRAPPA'DO, *v. a.* To torture.—They had neither been haled into your gehenna at Lambeth, nor *strappadoed* with an oath ex officio by your bowmen of the arches.

Milton.

STRAPPING, *adj.* Vast ; large ; bulky. Used of large men or women in contempt.

STRASBURG, a large city of France, in Alsace, situated at the influx of the Brushe into the Ille, and only half a mile from the Rhine. Its form approaches to the semicircular ; and being built in a plain, it is divided into several parts by canals, over which there is a number of bridges. Its extent is considerable, its population about 50,000. The construction of the houses is after the German manner, Alsace having belonged to France only since the latter half of the 17th century, and the language and customs of the majority of the inhabitants being still German. The material chiefly employed for building is a red sort of stone found in the quarries along the Rhine. The houses are lofty, but often heavy and inelegant. Of the streets, the one called *La Grande rue*, and a few others, are wide and straight, but the far greater part are narrow. The *place d'armes* is a square, surrounded with good buildings, and planted with trees. It is frequented as a public walk ; but the more extensive promenades are the Contadin, adjacent to the city wall ; and at some distance, the Ruptborshant, a fine meadow, divided into a number of alleys bordered with trees. The fortifications are extensive : they are divided into old and new, the former only repaired by Vauban, the later entirely constructed under the direction of that celebrated engineer. The citadel lies towards the east. It is a regular pentagon, composed of five bastions, and as many half-moons, and with outworks extending almost to the Rhine.

Public Buildings.—Of these the principal is the cathedral or minster, justly classed among the most distinguished specimens of Gothic architecture that exist. Its tower, of 470 feet in height, and ascended by a stair of above 700 steps, is said to be the loftiest building in the world, with the exception of the highest of the pyramids of Egypt. It is a master-piece of architecture, being built of hewn stone, cut with

with such nicety as to give it at a distance some resemblance to lace, and combining the most elegant symmetry of parts with the most perfect solidity. It was from first to last upwards of a century and a half in building. The clock of the cathedral is no less a master-piece of mechanism; for, besides the hour of the day, it describes, when in repair, the motions of the heavenly bodies. Of the other churches, the only one worth notice is that of St. Thomas, containing the splendid monument erected by Louis XV. to Marshal Saxe. The town-hall, a large structure, has its façade ornamented with antique paintings. The episcopal mansion is a good modern building, and the theatre is, for a provincial one, handsome and spacious. Here are two hospitals, one for the military, the other for the lower class of the public generally, both extensive and well regulated. Here is also a foundling-hospital and an orphan-house; an artillery school, a cannon foundry, and an arsenal; to which are to be added, as worth the attention of travellers, a telegraph station, a monument to general Desaix, and the wooden bridge over the Rhine, of the extraordinary length of 3900 feet.

Strasburg is more favourably situated for trade than most inland towns; the fertile soil of Alsace furnishing the means of subsistence to manufacturers, and the Rhine connecting it with Switzerland on the one side, and the Netherlands on the other. Its articles for export consist of corn, flax, hemp, wine, spirituous liquors; also of linen, sailcloth, blankets, carpets, hardware, leather, cotton, and lace. Among other products of Alsace is tobacco, and snuff is consequently an object of manufacture and export at Strasburg.

In regard to education, it is common to give the seminaries of Strasburg the next rank after those of Paris; and though the difference is necessarily very wide, there is here a greater variety of institutions for education than in many towns of larger population. The medical school of Strasburg dates from 1538. After being long an academy, it was constituted a university in the 17th century, and though curtailed in its classes during the French revolution, was replaced on its former footing in 1803. In that year also was established a Protestant university, taught by ten professors, and comprising, as in the Scotch universities, a classical, philosophical, and theological course. The only other Protestant university (or, as they are here termed, academies) in France is Montauban. Strasburg contains not only a medical, but a law school; two public libraries of old date; and a botanic garden. For boys there is here a high school, on the plan of those of Rouen, Caen, and other large towns. The minor objects of a traveller's attention are a cabinet of medals and an anatomical class-room.

Strasburg is a place of great antiquity, having existed prior to the Christian era, and having been known to the Romans by the name of *Argentoratum*. It early received the doctrines of the reformation, and is said to have counted among its inhabitants a majority of Protestants until the latter part of the 17th century, when it was ceded to France. Till then it had held the rank of a free city of the empire, by which is to be understood a town electing its own magistrates, exempt from subjection to any neighbouring prince, and entitled to assert its independence at the Germanic diet. At present the proportion of Catholics considerably exceeds that of Protestants. The town is the see of a bishop, and being the capital of the department of the Lower Rhine, is, of course, the residence of a prefect.

Strasburg, or rather its vicinity, has been more than once the scene of military operations in the present age; in 1793, when the French revolutionists were hard pressed by the Austrians; in the early part of the summer 1796, when the former crossed the Rhine for the invasion of Germany; and, finally, in the autumn of that year, when the French being suddenly expelled from Franconia, Kehl, with its bridge leading to Strasburg, had very nearly fallen into the hands of their opponents. In the invasions of 1814 and 1815, Strasburg escaped attack, though the allies in both cases came very near it; 66 miles north of Bale, 75 east of Nancy, and 290 east of Paris. Lat. 48. 34. 56. N. long. 7. 44. 51. E.

STRASBURG, a small town of West Prussia, on the river Dribenz. Population 1800; 35 miles north-east of Thorn, and 39 east of Culm.—2. A small town of the Prussian states, in Brandenburg, on the borders of Mecklenburg, with 2700 inhabitants, part of them French Calvinists, the descendants of refugees; 12 miles north-west of Prenzlau, and 65 north of Berlin.—3. A small town of Austrian Illyria, in Carinthia, on the river Gurk, with a castle, where the bishop of Gurk commonly resides; 16 miles north of Klagenfurt.—4. A post township of the United States, in Franklin county, Pennsylvania, east of North Mountain; 145 miles west of Philadelphia.—5. A post township and village of the United States, in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania; 58 miles west of Philadelphia. Population 2710. It is a pleasant and considerable town. The village is built chiefly of brick and stone.—6. A post township of the United States, in Shenandoah county, Virginia; 12 miles north-east of Woodstock, containing about 40 houses.

STRACHETS, a small town in the west of Bohemia, with a park no less than 18 miles in circumference, belonging to the prince of Furstenberg; 20 miles west-by-north of Prague.

STRASOLDO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the district of Udina, not far from that town.

STRASSWALCHEN, a small town of the Austrian states, in the duchy of Salzburg, on the Muhlbach, with 900 inhabitants; 10 miles north-east of Salzburg.

STRASZ, UPPER and LOWER, two large manufacturing villages of Switzerland, near Zurich.

STRASZ, a small town of Lower Austria, with 800 inhabitants; 2 miles north-east of Meissau.

STRATA *s.* [The plural of *stratum*, Lat.] Beds; layers. A philosophical term.—The terrestrial matter is disposed into *strata*, or layers, placed one upon another; in like manner as an earthy sediment, settling down from a fluid, will naturally be. *Woodward.*

STRATAGEM, *s.* [*stratageme*, Fr., *στρατηγημα*, Gr. from *στρατηγος*, to command an army. *Stratagem* has accordingly been the orthography of some.] An artifice in war; a trick by which an enemy is deceived.

John Talbot, I did send for thee,

To tutor thee in *stratagems* of war.

Shakspeare.

An artifice; a trick by which some advantage is obtained.

Those oft are *stratagems* which errors seem;

Nor is it Homer nods, but we who dream.

Pope.

STRATAGEMICAL, *adj.* Full of stratagems. *Cotgrave*, and *Sherwood*.—His wife to gain entirely his affections, sent him this *stratagemical* epistle. *Swift.*

STRATARITHMOMETRY [formed from the Gr. *στρατος*, army, *αριθμος*, number, and *μετρον*, measure.] In War, the art of drawing up an army, or any part of it, in any given geometrical figure; and of expressing the number of men contained in such a figure, as they stand in array, either near at hand, or at any distance assigned.

STRATEGUS, *στρατηγος*, in Antiquity, an officer among the Athenians, of which there were two chosen yearly, to command the troops of the state.

Constantine the Great, besides many other privileges granted to the city of Athens, honoured its chief magistrate with the title of *Μεγας Στρατηγος*.

STRATFIELD, MORTIMER, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 7 miles south-west-by-south of Reading. Population 672.

STRATFIELD, SAY, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 6½ miles north-east of Basingstoke. Population 708.

STRATFIELD, TURGES, another parish in the above county; 1 mile distant from the foregoing.

STRATFORD, or LONG STRATFORD, a village of England, in the county of Essex, and neighbourhood of London, the first that is met with after crossing Bow bridge, by which it is joined to Stratford-le-Bow. It is situated in the parish of Ham, and has of late years greatly increased in size and population, particularly on the forest side of the town, viz.,

Maryland

Maryland Point and the Gravel Pits, one facing the road to Woodford and Epping, and the other that to Ilford. The hither part is almost joined to Bow, notwithstanding the intervention of canals, rivers, and marshy grounds. The bridge over the river Lea is said to be the most ancient stone arch in England, having been built by Maud, wife of Henry I., as its old church was by Henry II.; 1 mile north of West Ham, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ north-east of London.

STRATFORD, a village and parish of England, in the county of Suffolk, situated near the river Stour, opposite Manningtree, and on the road from Colchester and London, to Ipswich. It is a great thoroughfare, and has also some manufacturing business. The church is a handsome building. About a quarter of a mile south-west of this place, on the bank of the Stour, is a camp, which some antiquarians assert to have been a Roman station; $58\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of London.

STRATFORD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-west-by-west of Saxmundham.

STRATFORD, or STRATFORD-UPON-AVON, a large and respectable market town of England, in Warwickshire, is chiefly celebrated for being the birth-place of Shakspeare. It is seated on the western bank of the river Avon, over which is a bridge of 14 arches, and 376 yards in length. The town consists of 12 principal streets, and has on the whole a cheerful, though not a busy aspect. The public buildings are, the bridge over the Avon, the church, the chapel of the Holy Cross, and the town-hall. The church, a spacious and venerable structure, was formerly collegiate, but the college buildings are now destroyed. It stands on the margin of the river Avon, and is embosomed in lofty trees. The structure is of a cruciform description, with a square tower at the intersection of the transept, of early and curious architecture, and on which was raised in 1764 an octagonal spire of stone, in place of one of wood. The different parts of the church appear, from the style of architecture, to have been constructed of various periods during the 14th and 15th centuries. The interior is divided into a nave, two aisles, a transept or cross aisles, and a chancel. It contains numerous monuments and inscriptions, some of which are interesting. The most remarkable is the monument and bust of Shakspeare, which is attached to the north wall of the chancel, near which lie the remains of the poet. Two other flat stones near the grave of Shakspeare, denote the spots where were interred the bodies of his daughter Susanna, and her husband, John Hall, the physician. Several large monuments to the families of Combe, Clopton, &c., are preserved in this church. The chancel contains a monumental effigy of Mr. John Combe, a neighbour and acquaintance of Shakspeare, and who is said to have been satirised by the poet, in an epitaph written on him in his lifetime. The chapel of the Holy Cross is a handsome structure, and a considerable ornament to the town. It belonged to the guild of the Holy Cross, a fraternity partly civil and partly religious, which was established here so early as the year 1269, by Giffard, bishop of Worcester, under the name of the hospital of the Holy Cross in Stratford, and which had particular municipal privileges granted them. Many parts of the building were taken down, and rebuilt in the ornamental Gothic style, by Sir Hugh Clopton, in the reign of Henry VII.; but the chancel appears from the account of the fraternity, to have been rebuilt about the year 1443. In 1804 the chapel underwent some repairs, and it was then discovered that the interior face of the walls had been embellished with fresco paintings. Attached to the chapel are a hall for the brethren of the guild, an almshouse for 24 poor persons of both sexes, and a free grammar school for children, natives of the borough. The guild and fraternity were dissolved at the general suppression of religious houses, but the school and almshouses are still continued, and the guild-hall is used for the meeting of the corporation. The town-hall, first erected in 1633, was a lofty edifice, built on semicircular arches, and supported by round columns, with a cupola on the top. Above was a room used as a magazine for arms and ammunition, which being in the year 1642 much damaged by the explosion of a barrel of gun-

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powder, was partly taken down in 1767, and the present building erected in the year following. Being dedicated in 1769, at Garrick's jubilee, to the memory of Shakspeare, it was then denominated Shakspeare-hall. It contains a room of 60 feet in length, decorated with two paintings by Wilson and Gainsborough, of the poet, and of Garrick, by whom they were presented. The outside of the hall is also ornamented with a statue of Shakspeare, likewise presented by Garrick. Stratford contains an old dilapidated house, in which it is said Shakspeare was born. It is situated in Henley-street, and remained the property of the Hart family, descended from Jone, the sister of Shakspeare, until 1806, when it was sold. It is now divided into two dwellings, and used as a butcher's shop and a public house. After he had attained comparative affluence, Shakspeare retired to a house called New Place, which is destroyed. It was originally erected by sir Hugh Clopton, in the time of Henry VII. In 1597, it was bought by Shakspeare, who gave it the name of New-Place, and resided in it till his death in 1616. In 1753, it was sold to the reverend Francis Gastrell, who seems to have had but little regard for the memory of its former possessor. In 1756 he cut down the famous mulberry tree planted by the hand of Shakspeare; and in 1759, razed the building to the ground.

Stratford has no staple manufacture, or business of any consequence, except a little trade in corn and malt. The great road from London to Holyhead, through Birmingham, passes through the town. Other turnpike roads branch off towards Warwick, Coventry, and Alcester, and to different parts of Northamptonshire, Oxfordshire, Worcestershire, and Gloucestershire. The Avon is navigable hence to the Severn; and a canal lately completed to join the Worcester and Birmingham canal, opens a communication with the northern parts of the kingdom. The town was formerly under the jurisdiction of a bailiff, 14 aldermen, and 14 burgesses; and was incorporated in the 7th year of Edward VI. A fresh charter of incorporation was granted in the 16th of Charles II. by which the municipal government is vested in a mayor, 12 aldermen, and 12 burgesses. The existence of Stratford may be referred to a period three centuries before the Norman conquest, when a monastery existed here, belonging to Ethelard, a viceroy of the Wiccians, and supposed to have been founded soon after the conversion of the Saxons to Christianity. This convent was annexed to the bishopric of Worcester, at the beginning of the 8th century, when the manor of Stratford had attained to some degree of consequence, and was rated in the Norman survey at the sum of £25. In the reign of Richard I. a charter was granted for a weekly market on Thursday, which is still continued. In the time of queen Elizabeth, the town was nearly destroyed by fires. In the civil war of Charles I. an important period in the history of the principal towns in Warwickshire, a party of the royalists was stationed at Stratford, but was driven from the town by the parliamentary army, who destroyed one arch of the bridge, to prevent their returning incursions; the royalists, however, again approached Stratford, and it afterwards became the residence of the queen Henrietta Maria, till she departed to meet Charles near Edge Hill. In 1769 was celebrated at Stratford, Garrick's jubilee in honour of Shakspeare, a performance which excited much attention at the time. Among the eminent natives of the town are John de Stratford, archbishop of Canterbury, lord Chancellor of England, and regent of the kingdom in the reign of Edward III.; Robert de Stratford, his brother, also lord Chancellor and bishop of Chichester; and Ralph de Stratford, nephew of the above prelates, and bishop of London in the same reign. In 1811, the town and parish of Stratford contained 563 houses, and 2842 inhabitants. Market on Thursday, and three annual fairs; 8 miles south-west of Warwick, and 94 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 12. N. long. 1. 41. W.

STRATFORD, a hamlet of England, in Bedfordshire; 2 miles north of Biggleswade.

STRATFORD, a post township of the United States, in Coos county, New Hampshire, east of the Connecticut. Population 339.

STRATFORD, a post township of the United States, in Fairfield county, Connecticut, on the west side of Stratford river, near its mouth. Population 2895. It is a pleasant town, and has an academy and some trade.

STRATFORD, the name applied to the river Housatonic, in the United States, after the junction of the Naugatic, at Derby.

STRATFORD, FENNY, a market town of England, in the county of Buckingham. It derives its name from the marshy nature of the adjacent lands, though the town itself stands on the rising of a hill. It consists of two streets, one on the main road in Watling-street, the other on the cross road leading to Aylesbury. The north side of the town is in the parish of Simpson, the west in that of Blecheley. Along the skirts of the town runs the little river Lofield, which is well supplied with fish, and over which there is a large stone bridge. The chapel which stands in the parish of Blecheley, was rebuilt and endowed at the expense of the antiquary Browne Willis, and his friends. The ceiling contains the arms of all the persons whose subscription amounted to 10*l.* or upwards. Mr. Willis, at his own request, was buried in this chapel, which he dedicated to St. Martin. The inhabitants of Stratford derive their chief support from the resort of travellers, and the manufacture of white thread lace. The south-east entrance to the town has been lately improved by a new road, and its trade increased by the proximity of the Grand Junction canal. The soil of the neighbouring lands is well adapted for grazing, and also for the culture of crops. The swan inn here has continued under that name since the year 1474. Market discontinued, but there are four annual fairs. Population 481; 12 miles east of Buckingham, and 44 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 0. N. long. 0. 43. W.

STRATFORD-LE-BOW. See Bow.

STRATFORD, OLD, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire, adjacent to the town of Stratford-upon-Avon.

STRATFORD, OLD, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire, adjacent to Stoney Stratford.

STRATFORD, STONEY, a market town of England, in the county of Buckingham, situated on the river Ouse, which here divides the county from Northampton. The town is built on the Watling-street, which, entering the county near Brickhill, crosses it in a direct line. The houses are mostly of free-stone, and extend about a mile on each side of the road. The town is divided into two parishes, viz., St. Giles's and St. Mary Magdalen; and it is said there are scarcely 20 acres of land more than those on which the buildings are erected. Originally it appears to have only consisted of a few inns for the accommodation of travellers; but trade increasing, a stone bridge was built over the Ouse, and the road becoming more frequented, additional houses were successively erected. On the 19th of May 1742, it suffered greatly by fire. Nearly two-thirds of the east side were consumed, together with the body of the church of St. Mary Magdalen, but the tower yet remains. St. Giles's church, on the western side, was rebuilt, with the exception of the tower, in the years 1776 and 1777; it is a handsome structure. Near it is a neat market-place, though the principal business is carried on by means of samples displayed by the farmers in the public-houses. In the days of Camden, the centre of the town was adorned with a cross, erected on the spot where the body of Queen Eleanor had rested; but this was demolished in the civil wars. Besides the church, the town contains meeting-houses for dissenters, the inhabitants being divided into several religious denominations, chiefly Baptists. The Independants have a meeting-house at Potter's Pery, a village at a small distance. Two large Sunday schools have been opened, at which upwards of 300 children are taught the rudiments of education; and there are several charities belonging to the town, particularly one of 70*l.* per annum, for the apprenticing of children. The female inhabitants of the town are much employed in lace making; but the chief support and business of the town arises from the passage of travellers. There is no resident magistrate here; but two of the neighbouring magistrates

hold their meetings on the first Friday of every month. Market on Friday, a large one for butcher's meat and corn. In 1811, Stoney Stratford contained 314 houses, and 1488 inhabitants, viz., 520 on the east side parish, and 968 in the west; 6 miles north-west of Fenny Stratford, and 52 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 3. N. Long. 0. 48. W.

STRATFORD, TONEY, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4 miles south-west-by-south of Salisbury.

STRATFORD-UNDER-THE-CASTLE, a parish of England, in Wiltshire, in which is situated the noted borough of Old Sarum; 2 miles north-west-by-north of Salisbury.

STRATFORD WATER, or **WEST STRATFORD**, a parish of England in Buckinghamshire; 3 miles west-by-north of Buckingham.

STRATH, *s.* [*ystrad*, Welsh.] A vale; a bottom. *Phillips*.—Avimore is situated in a narrow valley or *strath*, called Strathspey, from its being intersected by the river Spey. *Garnett*.

STRATH, in Scotland, is generally understood to mean a valley broader than a dale or glen, and to receive its peculiar appellation from a river passing through it, as *Strath-bogie*, *Strathspey*, &c., or some particular characteristic, as *Strathmore*, *the Great Valley*, &c.

STRATH, or **STRATHSWORDLE**, a parish of Scotland, in Iverness-shire, in the Isle of Sky, about 19 miles long, and 5½ broad. Population 2107.

STRATHALLAN, a valley of Scotland, in Perthshire, through which runs the river Allan.

STRATHAVEN, a district of Scotland in Banffshire.

STRATHAVEN, a considerable town of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, situated on the Aven. Its chief branch of manufacture is the cotton, in which nearly 400 looms are employed. It was erected into burgh of barony in the year 1450, with the usual privileges, and had an extensive commony granted to the burgesses, all of which has long ago become private property. It has a weekly market, and five annual fairs, on the first Thursday of each of the months of January, March, June, August, and November; but having no public funds, it has no other magistracy than a baron-bailie, nominated by the Duke of Hamilton. Population in 1811, 1610; 7½ miles south of Hamilton, and 16 south-east of Glasgow.

STRATHBEG, LOCH, a small lake of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which covers 550 acres, and abounds with trout, eel, and flounders.

STRATHBLANE, a beautiful vale of Scotland, in the counties of Stirling and Dumbarton, formed by the Lennox hills on the south, and the Grampians on the north.

STRATHBLANE, a parish of Scotland, in the north-west corner Stirlingshire, 5 miles long, and 4 broad. Population 821.

STRATHBOGIE, a district of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, formerly one of the great divisions of that shire called lordships or *thanages*, comprehending the whole original estate which King Robert Bruce gave to the noble family of Gordon. It extends over a surface of 150 square miles, divided into 10 parishes, including the arable and uncultivated land lying on each side of the river Bogie, which joins the Deveron at Huntly.

STRATHBRAN, a valley of Scotland in Perthshire.

STRATHDON, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, at the western border of the county. It is 20 miles long, and from 7 to 8 broad. Population 1463.

STRATHERNE, a district in Scotland, in Perthshire, extending from Comrie to Abernethy; bounded by Perth proper on the north, Monteith on the west and south-west, Fife on the south, and the Tay on the east. The river Erne intersects this beautiful district, which consists, for the most part, of a rich and fertile soil, producing abundant crops. It is adorned with numerous villages and gentlemen's seats.

STRATHFILLIN, a vale of Scotland, in Perthshire, noted in former times for a sacred pool dedicated to St. Fillin.

STRATHGRYFE,

STRATHGRYFE, the ancient name of the county of Renfrew, in Scotland; so named from the Gryfe, the principal river.

STRATHMARTIN, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, about 2 miles square. Population 627.

STRATHMIGLO, a parish of Scotland in Fifeshire, about $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ broad. Population 1697.

STRATHMIGLO, a town in the above parish. The inhabitants amount to 800, and are chiefly employed in the linen manufacture; 12 miles south-east of Perth, and 8 east of Kinross.

STRATHMORE, or the **GREAT STRATH**, in Scotland, a name applied to that valley which traverses the kingdom from Stonehaven in Kincardineshire on the east, to the district of Cowal in Argyllshire on the west. Its northern boundary is formed by the Grampian mountains; and its southern by the Sidlaws, the Ochils, and the Lennox hills. The whole vale is fertile and pleasant, interspersed with numerous towns and villages and elegant seats. Strathmore, however, is more generally applied, in a restricted sense, to that part of it which is bounded by the Sidlaws, extending from Methven in Perthshire, to Laurencekirk in Mearns.

STRATHMORE, a river of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, which falls into an arm of the sea called Loch Hope.

STRATHNAVER, or **STRATHNAVERN**, a district of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, and the north-east division of the county, anciently a county of itself, which gives second title of Baroness to the Countess of Sutherland.

STRATHPEFFER, a beautiful valley of Scotland, in Ross-shire, near the town of Dingwall. In this vale is a celebrated mineral spring, called the well of Strathpeffer, strongly impregnated with sulphurated hydrogen gas.

STRATHSPEY, a district of Scotland, in Inverness and Moray shires, through which the Spey flows, celebrated for its great forests of fir.

STRATHY, a river of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, which has its rise from a small loch of the same name, where, after a course of 15 miles, it runs into the Northern sea, at a small creek called Strathy Bay.

STRATHY HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire, forming the west boundary of Strathy Bay; 31 miles east of Cape Wrath. Lat. 58. 33. N. long. 3. 50. W.

STRATIFICATION, *s.* Arrangement of different matter; arrangement in beds or layers.—A mass in which there is no stratification. *Dr. Hutton.*

To **STRATIFY** *v. a.* [*stratifier*, Fr. from *stratum*, Lat.] To range in beds or layers. A chemical term.—Steel is made from the purest and softest iron, by keeping it red hot, stratified with coal-dust and wood-ashes, &c. *Hill.*

STRATIOTES. [*Στρατιωτης*, of Dioscorides. From *στρατος*, an army], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order dodecandria, polyandria hexagynia (*Linn.*), natural order of palmæ, hydrocharides (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: spathe common two-leaved, three or five-flowered: leaflets boat-shaped, compressed, obtuse, converging, keeled, almost equal, permanent. Proper (of the lateral flowers) one-leaved, membranaceous, channelled at the back, opposite to the leaflets of the common spathe, and hidden by them. Corolla: petals three, obcordate, from erect spreading, twice as large as the perianth. Nectaries twenty, anther-shaped, linear-lanceolate, acute, in a ring, inserted into the receptacle. Stamina: filaments twelve, filiform, shorter than the nectaries, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers linear, erect. Female—Calyx: spathe two-leaved, one-flowered: leaflets boat-shaped, compressed, obtuse, converging, unequal, permanent. Perianth as in the male, superior. Corolla as in the male. Nectaries as in the male, a little larger. Pistil: Germ inferior, ovate-hexangular, compressed. Styles six, two-parted. Stigmas simple, recurved. Pericarp: berry ovate, narrowed to both ends, six-sided, six-celled: with a pellucid pulp. Seeds very many, oblong, cylindrical.—*Essential Character.* Spathe two-leaved. Perianth superior, trifold. Petals three. Berry six-celled.

1. *Stratiotes aloides*.—Leaves all radical, forming a star-like tuft, as in the aloes and sedums: their substance is rigid,

brittle, vascular, and pellucid; their teeth and points very sharp; the keel also sharp. Peduncles several, shorter than the leaves, upright, smooth; each bearing one upright white flower, arising from a two-leaved sheath.—Native of some parts of Europe, and of Siberia. In England, it occurs plentifully in the fen ditches of the isle of Ely, and in many other parts.

2. *Stratiotes acroides*.—Leaves ensiform, flat, very smooth, spathe bearded at the point. Root creeping, little branched, jointed as in acorus.—Native of the Ceylonese islands.

3. *Stratiotes alismoides*.—Leaves cordate. Spathe one-leaved, with five, membranaceous, longitudinal angles.—Native of the East Indies and Egypt.

Propagation and Culture.—Young plants must be procured in spring, when they first rise on the surface of the water, and placed in canals, ponds, or large tubs or cisterns, where they will strike down their roots, and increase without farther care.

STRATO, a philosopher of Lampsacus, who succeeded Theophrastus in the Peripatetic school, and took charge of it in the 3d year of the 123d Olympiad, B. C. 286, and presided in it 18 years, with a high degree of reputation for learning and eloquence; and from his attachment to natural philosophy, he obtained the appellation of "Physicus." Ptolemy Philadelphus chose him for his preceptor, and recompensed his services with a present of 80 talents. None of his works have reached our time. His constitution was feeble, and it is said that he lost the powers of perception before his death, which happened about the end of the 127th Olympiad. In his opinion concerning matter, Strato departed essentially from the system both of Plato and Aristotle, and he is said to have nearly approached that system of atheism, which excludes the Deity from the formation of the world. From Cicero (*De Nat. Deor. l. i. c. 13.*) we learn, that he conceived all divine power to be seated in nature, which possesses the causes of production, increase, and diminution, but is wholly destitute of sensation and figure; and the same author, in his *Tuscul. Quæst.* informs us, that he had nothing in common with the atomic principles of Democritus, but ascribes every thing to certain natural motions and librations. Brucker gives the following abstract of his opinions; that there is inherent in nature a principle of motion, or force, without intelligence, which is the only cause of the production and dissolution of bodies; that the world has neither been formed by the agency of a deity; distinct from matter, nor by an intelligent animating principle, but has arisen from a force innate to matter, originally excited by accident, and since continuing to act, according to the peculiar qualities of natural bodies. It does not appear, that he expressly either denied or asserted the existence of a divine nature; but in excluding all idea of deity from the formation of the world, it cannot be doubted, that he indirectly excluded from his system the doctrine of the existence of a supreme being. Strato also taught, that the seat of the soul is in the middle of the brain, and that it only acts by means of the senses. *Brucker by Enfield.*

STRATO'CRACY, *s.* [*στρατος*, Gr. an army, and *κρατος*, power.] A military government.—Ever since the invasion of Kouli Khan, Indostan, from being a well regulated government, became a scene of mere anarchy or *stratocracy*; every great man protecting himself in his tyranny by his soldiers. *Guthrie.*

STRATO'GRAPHY, *s.* [*stratographie*, Fr., *στρατος* and *γραφω*, Gr.] Description of whatever relates to an army.

STRATONISI, three small islands in the Grecian archipelago; 10 miles south of Speccia. Lat. 37. 16. N. long. 23. 25. E.

STRATOR, among the Romans, an officer who took care of the horses furnished by the provincials for the public service.

STRATOR is also used for an officer in the army, whose business it was to take care there was nothing in the roads to

to hinder or incommode the army in its march. For which purpose, he ordered banks and steep eminences to be levelled; laid bridges, cut down woods, and assisted the quartermaster to find out places proper for transporting the army over rivers.

STRATOR is also used for an equerry, who held the bridle of the prince's horse, and assisted him in mounting. This officer was by the Greeks called *anabolous*.

STRATOR likewise denotes a surveyor of the highways.

STRATTON, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Cornwall. It is situated in a low cold country, which stands much in need of draining. Here is a meeting-house for Wesleyan Methodists. The parish contains 2300 acres, and is famed for the well-known battle of Stratton, which was fought near the town, between the parliamentary army, under the Earl of Stamford, and the royal army under George Lord Lansdown, who was supported by Sir Beville Grenville and the Cornish army. The battle took place on the 6th of May 1643, on a hill called Stamford's Hill, from its having been the position of the parliamentary general, whose troops were defeated there with great slaughter. One of the Blanchminster family gave lands of considerable value, part of which are in the parish of Poundstock, to the church and poor of the parish. Market on Tuesday. In 1811, the parish contained 216 houses, and 1094 inhabitants; 46 miles west of Exeter, and 223 west-south-west of London.

STRATTON, a hamlet of England, in Bedfordshire; 1 mile east-south-east of Biggleswade.

STRATTON, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire, on the Roman road north of the river Frome; 3 miles north-west of Dorchester.

STRATTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles north-west of Cirencester.

STRATTON, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4 miles south-west-by-south of Highworth. Population 517.

STRATTON AUDLEY, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3 miles north-east-by-north of Bicester.

STRATTON, EAST, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 5½ miles north-north-west of New Arlesford.

STRATTON-ON-FOSS, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5½ miles north-north-east of Shepton Mallet.

STRATTON, ST. MARY'S, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 10½ miles south-by-west of Norwich. Population 558.

STRATTON, ST. MICHAEL'S and ST. PETER'S, two united parishes in Norfolk, half a mile east of the foregoing.

STRATTON, STRAWLESS, another parish in Norfolk; 4 miles south of Aylesham.

STRATTON, a township of the United States, in Windham county, Vermont. Population 265.

STRATUM, *s.* [Lat.] A bed; a layer. A term of philosophy.

Drill'd through the sandy *stratum*, ev'ry way
The waters with the sandy *stratum* rise. *Thomson.*

STRAUBENZILL, a large village in the north-east of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, near the Sittler. It has manufactures of linen and woollen.

STRAUBING, a considerable town of Bavaria, situated on the right bank of the Danube. It stands partly on a height, is divided into Upper and Lower, and is tolerably well built. It is surrounded with a wall, and the bridge over the river is defended, since 1809, by a *tete de pont*. It is the seat of a high court of justice, has several churches and charitable institutions, a flourishing academy, and, in a convent of Ursuline nuns, an establishment for female education. Straubing has 6200 inhabitants, with well frequented markets of corn and cattle, and a trade on the Danube, but no manufactures. The environs are very fertile, but the town has suffered much at different times from fire; 66 miles north-north-east of Munich, and 23 east-south-east of Ratisbon. Lat. 48. 52. 39. N. long. 11. 34. 48. E.

STRAUGHT, *pret. and part.* Stretched. Obsolete in England; but used (as *straucht*) in Scotland.—Striking me down on the place, where yet I lie *straught*. *Shelton.*

STRAVICHIO, a small town in the north-east of European Turkey, on the Black Sea, between two mouths of the Danube; 63 miles south-east of Ismail.

STRAUMNESS, a cape on the west coast of Iceland. Lat. 65. 39. 40. N. long. 24. 30. W.

STRAUPITZ, a large village of Prussian Silesia, near Hirschberg, with 1100 inhabitants.

STRAUSSBERG, a small town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, government of Potsdam; 20 miles east of Berlin. Population 2700. Here is a large hospital.

STRAW, *s.* [ἵτρεος, Sax.; *stroo*, Dutch. *Dr. Johnson.*—The Saxon forms of this word are also ἵτρεα, ἵτρεο, ἵτρεα, ἵτρε; the last of which is our old English. "*Of stre many a load*," *Chaucer, Kn. Tale.* Our northern word is still *streea*.] The stalk on which the corn grows, and from which it is threshed.

I can countefeit the deep tragedian,
Trembling and start at wagging of a *straw*,
Intending deep suspicion. *Shakspeare.*

To STRAW. See To STREW.

STRA'WBERRY, *s.* [*fragaria*, Lat. ἵτρεα-βεϋε, Sax. Mr. H. Tooke considers *strawberry* as *straw'd-berry*, *stray-berry*, from *straw*, or *strew*. "He would have been pleased," says Todd, "to find, in a curious old book, his statement partly illustrated; the strawberry being there called 'from the manner in which it is set in beds, not cast in heaps, but, as it were *strawed* here and there at manifest distances.' *Dyct's Dry Dinner*, 1599."] A plant. *Miller.* See FRAGARIA.

Content with food, which nature freely bred,
On wildings and on *strawberries* they fed. *Dryden.*

STRAWBERRY PLAINS, a post village of the United States, in Knox county, Tennessee.

STRAWBERRY RIVER, a river of the United States, in the North-west Territory, which runs into Lake Superior, west of Goddard's River. Lat. 46. 40. N. long. 91. 44. W.

STRA'WBERRY TREE, *s.* [*arbutus*, Lat.] It is ever green, the leaves roundish and serrated on the edges; the fruit is of a fleshy substance, and very like a strawberry. *Miller.*

STRA'WBUILT, *adj.* Made up of straw.

They on the smoothed plank,
The suburb of their *strawbuilt* citadel,
New rubb'd with balm, expatiate. *Milton.*

STRA'WCOLOURED, *adj.* Of a light yellow.—I will discharge it in your *strawcolour'd* beard. *Shakspeare.*

STRA'WSTUFFED, *adj.* Stuffed with straw.

So rides he mounted on the market-day,
Upon a *straw-stuff'd* pannel all the way. *Bp. Hall.*

STRA'WWORM, *s.* [*phryganion*, Lat.] A worm bred in straw.

STRA'WY, *adj.* Made of straw; consisting of straw. There the *strawy* Greeks, ripe for his edge,
Fall down before him, like the mower's swath. *Shakspeare.*

Like straw; light.—Luther hath these words: the epistle — is contentious, swelling, dry, *strawy*. *Knott.*

To STRAY, *v. n.* [*stroe*, Danish, to scatter; *stravviare*, Ital., to wander. *Dr. Johnson.*—To *stray*, is the Sax. ἵτρεζαν, to scatter. The Goth, *strawan*, Sax. ἵτρεαϋαν, ἵτρεϋαν, ἵτρεζαν, proceed from *straw*, or, as our peasantry still pronounce it, *strah*; and *astray*, or *astrayed*, means *strawed*, scattered and dispersed, as the *straw* is about the fields. *Mr. H. Tooke, Div. of Purl. i. 469.*] To wander; to rove.

Lo, the glad gales o'er all her beauties *stray*,
Breathe on her lips, and in her bosom play. *Pope.*

To rove out of the way; to range beyond the proper limits.

She doth *stray* about
By holy crosses, where she kneeling prays
For happy wedlock hours. *Shakspeare.*

Wand'rest

Wand'rest thou within this lueid orb,
And *stray'd* from those fair fields of light above,
Amidst this new creation want'st a guide
To reconduct thy steps?

Dryden.

To err; to deviate from the right.—We have erred and *strayed*. *Common Prayer.*

To STRAY, *v. a.* To mislead. *Obsolete.*

Hath not else his eye

Stray'd his affection in unlawful love? *Shakspeare.*

STRAY, *s.* Any creature wandering beyond its limits; any thing lost by wandering.

She hath herself not only well defended,
But taken and impounded as a *stray*
The king of Scots.

Shakspeare.

STRAY, a small river of Franconia, which rises in the Henneberg, and flows into the Saale.

STRA'YER, *s.* One who strays; a wanderer. *Huloet.*—Hubberdin, an old divine of Oxford; a great *strailer* abroad in all quarters of the realm. *For.*

STRAY'ING, *s.* The act of roving; the act of going astray.—Do you see thousand little motes and atoms wandering up and down in a sun-beam? It is God that so peoples it; and he guides their innumerable and irregular *strayings*. *Bp. Hopkins.*

STRAZNITZ, a town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, which has a castle, a monastery, a deanery, a Piarist college, and 4100 inhabitants, of whom a small part are Jews; 14 miles south of Hradisch, and 36 south-east of Brunn.

STREAK, *s.* [ꝛꝛice, Saxon; *streke*, Dutch; *stricca*, Ital.] A line of colour different from that of the ground. Sometimes written *strake*.

The west yet glimmers with some *streaks* of day;
Now spurs the lated traveller apace,
To gain the timely inn.

Shakspeare.

To STREAK, *v. a.* To stripe; to variegate in hues; to dapple.

All the yearlings which were *streak'd* and pied,
Should fall as Jacob's hire.

Shakspeare.

To stretch. *Obsolete.*

She lurks in midst of all her den, and *streaks*
From out a ghastly whirlpool all her necks;
Where, glotting round her rock, to fish she falls. *Chapman.*

STRE'AKY, *adj.* Striped; variegated by hues.

When the hoary head is hid in snow,
The life is in the leaf, and still between
The fits of falling snows appears the *streaky* green. *Dryden.*

STREAM, *s.* [ꝛꝛeam, Saxon; *straum*, Icelandic; *stroom*, Dutch.] A running water; the course of running water; current.

As plays the sun upon the glassy *stream*,
Twinkling another counterfeited beam. *Shakspeare.*

Any thing issuing from a head, and moving forward with continuity of parts.—The *stream* of beneficence hath, by several rivulets which have since fallen into it, wonderfully enlarged its current. *Atterbury.*—Any thing forcible and continued.—It is looked upon as insolence for a man to adhere to his own opinion against the current *stream* of antiquity. *Locke.*—The very *stream* of his life, and the business he hath helmed, must give him a better proclamation. *Shakspeare.*

To STREAM, *v. n.* [*streyma*, Icelandic.] To flow; to run in a continuous current.

God bade the ground be dry,
All but between those banks where rivers now,
Stream, and perpetual draw their humid train. *Milton.*

To emit a current; to pour out water in a stream; to be overflowed.

Then grateful Greece with *streaming* eyes would raise
Historic marbles to record his praise. *Pope.*

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To issue forth with continuance, not by fits.
Now to impartial love, that god most high,
Do my sighs *stream*.

Shakspeare.

To STREAM, *v. a.* To pour; to send forth.

She at length will *stream*

Some dew of grace into my wither'd heart,
After long sorrow and consuming smart. *Spenser.*

To mark with colours or embroidery in long tracks.—The herald's mantle is *streamed* with gold. *Bacon.*

STREAM, a hamlet of England, in the parish of St. Decuman's, Somersetshire.

STRE'AMER, *s.* An ensign; a flag; a pennon; any thing flowing loosely from a stock.

His brave fleet,

With silken *streamers* the young Phœbus fanning. *Shakspeare.*

STRE'AMLET, *s.* A small stream.

Unnumber'd glittering *streamlets* play'd,
And hurled every where their waters sheen. *Thomson.*

STRE'AMY, *adj.* Abounding in running water.

Arcadia,

However *streamy* now, adust and dry,
Deny'd the goddess water: where deep Melas,
And rocky Cratis flow, the chariot smook'd
Obscure with rising dust. *Prior.*

Flowing with a current.

Before him flaming his enormous shield,
Like the broad sun, illumin'd all the field;
His nodding helm emits a *streamy* ray. *Pope.*

STREATHAM, a village and parish of England, in the county of Surrey, and in the vicinity of London. It contains a newly built church, and a charity school; and in the neighbourhood there are numerous handsome villas and country seats. On the side of the small common between Streatham and Tooting is the Streatham Park, which belonged to the late Mr. Thrale, the friend of Dr. Johnson, and afterwards to his relict, Mrs. Piozzi. Dr. Johnson spent much of his time here. In the church, upon tablets of white marble, are Latin inscriptions from the pen of Johnson, to the memory of Mr. Thrale and Mrs. Salisbury, mother of Mrs. Piozzi. On Lime Common in this parish, was discovered in 1660, a mineral water of a mild cathartic quality, which is still held in considerable esteem, but there are no accommodations for persons coming to the spot, though the place is much resorted to; 7 miles south-by-west of St. Paul's, London.

STREATHAM, a parish of England, in the Isle of Ely, Cambridgeshire; 3½ miles south of Ely.

STREATLAM, a township of England, in Durham; 2½ miles north-east-by-east of Barnard Castle.

STREATLEY, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 5 miles north-north-west of Luton.

STREATLEY, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 5½ miles south-by-west of Wallingford. Population 596.

STREEFKERK, a village in the interior of Holland, near Goreum, with 900 inhabitants.

To STREEK, *v. a.* [ꝛꝛeccan, Saxon, *expandere*, to stretch.] To lay out a dead body. *North. Ray.*—Durand gives a pretty exact account of some of the ceremonies used at laying out the body, as they are at present practised in the north of England, where the laying out is called *strecking*. *Brand.*

STREET, *s.* [ꝛꝛæte, Saxon; *strasse*, German; *strada*, Spanish and Italian; *streede*, Danish; *straat*, Dutch; *stratum*, Latin. *Dr. Johnson.*—To these words Wachter and Serenius add the Welsh *ystriad*, Icel. *stracta*, Su. Goth. *straat*; and consider them derived from the verbs signifying to tread, as *tretten*, German; *traeda*, Su. Goth., having the *s* (which is common) prefixed.] A way, properly a paved way, between two rows of houses.—He led us through fair
7 U streets;

streets; and all the way we went there were gathered people on both sides, standing in a row. *Bacon*.

When night

Darkens the *streets*, then wander forth the sons
Of Belial, flown with insolence and wine;
Witness the *streets* of Sodom.

Milton.

Proverbially, a public place.—Our public ways would be so crowded, that we should want *street-room*. *Addison*.

STREET, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 2 miles south-south-west of Glastonbury. Population 634.

STREET, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5 miles north-west of Lewes.

STREETHALL, a hamlet of England, in Essex; 4 miles west-north-west of Saffron Walden.

STREET-HAY, a township of England, in Staffordshire; 2 miles east of Lichfield.

STREET-HAYNE, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Colyton, Devonshire.

STREETWALKER, *s.* A common prostitute that offers herself to sale in the open street.

STREETWARD, or **STRE'TWARD**, *s.* An officer who formerly took care of the streets. See **COWEL**.

STREHLA, a small town of the interior of Germany, in Saxony, on the Elbe. It has 1400 inhabitants, with manufactures of pottery ware, and a corn trade carried on by the Elbe; 29 miles north-west of Dresden.

STREHLEN, a small town of Prussian Silesia, on the Ohle. It contains 3000 inhabitants, who manufacture woollens, stockings, and leather. It has also large wool markets; 17 miles west of Brieg, and 22 south of Breslau.

STREIGHT, *adj.* Narrow. See **STRAIGHT** and **STRAIT**: [*strictus*, Lat.] Restrained.

Whereas he meant his corrosives t' apply,

And with *streight* diet made his stubborn malady. *Spenser*.

STREIGHT, *adv.* Strictly.

My lord me sent, and *streight* behight
To seek occasion.

Spenser.

STREIN, or **STRINIUS**, an Austrian baron with the title Von Schwartzenuau, was born about the year 1538. The first object of his attention was jurisprudence; but afterwards, under the care of Francis Hotman, he prosecuted the study of Roman antiquities with such assiduity and success, that in the twentieth year of his age he composed a work "De Gentibus et Familiis Romanorum," which was published at Paris in 1599, fol. by Henry Stephens; and "Stemmata Gentium et Romanarum Familiarum," inserted in the 7th volume of "Grævii Thesaurus Rom. Ant." He also wrote "Commentarius de Rob. Bellarmini Scriptis atque Libris," and published, under his name, "A Defence of the Freedom of the States of Holland." He died at Vienna, according to De Thou, in 1601, but, as Baillet says, in 1600. He was a decided and steady friend to the Protestant communion.

STREITBERG, a petty town in the interior of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, on the river Wiesent; 16 miles west-south-west of Bayreuth.

STRELITZ, a village of Scotland, in Perthshire, so named in honour of her Majesty, Queen Charlotte. It was built in 1763, as a place of residence for the discharged soldiers, at the conclusion of the German war. It consists of upwards of 80 dwelling-houses, built in a neat manner, forming a street 90 feet broad, watered by a small stream which runs through it. To every house is annexed a good garden, with about three acres of land, properly inclosed; and the whole village is finely sheltered by belts and stripes of planting; 8 miles north of Perth.

STRELITZ, a city in the north of Germany, the capital of the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, is situated in the lordship of Stargard, in the midst of lakes and marshes. It is divided into Old and New Strelitz, which form properly two towns, being a mile distant from each other. Old Strelitz was formerly the ducal residence, but the palace having been burned in 1713, the duke built a new one at a little

distance, at a place called Glienke, and in 1733 founded a town, called New Strelitz. The two came in time to be considered as one town, but each has its separate magistrates. Old Strelitz contains 3000 inhabitants. New Strelitz, a better built place, has 4000. The manufactures of the two consist of woollen, linen, and, in a small degree, of tobacco. Here are also the public offices of the duchy; 57 miles north-by-west of Berlin. Lat. 53. 25. N. long. 13. 8. E.

STRELITZ, a small town of Prussian Silesia; 35 miles east of Breslau, and 7 east of Namslau. Population 900.

STRELITZ, GREAT, another small town of Prussian Silesia, in the government of Oppeln. Population 1000.

STRELITZIA [so named by Sir Joseph Banks and Mr. Aiton, as a tribute of respect to the botanical zeal and knowledge of the queen of Great Britain, a princess of the house of Mecklenburg-Strelitz], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order musæ, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common sheath inferior, of one leaf, channelled, pointed, widely spreading, many-flowered; partial ones lanceolate, shorter than the flowers. Perianth none. Corolla: superior, irregular, of three-lanceolate, acute petals; the lowermost boat-shaped; two upper ones bluntly keeled. Nectary of three leaves; the two longest equal, rather shorter than the petals, broad at the base, then tapering, with a folded wavy border, embracing the stamens and style, half arrow-shaped towards the top, with a thick dorsal appendage; the third leaf much shorter, ovate, compressed, keeled. Stamina: filaments five, inserted into the receptacle, thread-shaped, three of them embraced by one leaf of the nectary, two by the others; anthers terminal, linear, erect, parallel, about as long as their filaments, concealed in the nectary. Pistil: germen below the corolla, oblong, bluntly triangular; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigmas three, awl-shaped, rising above the nectary, erect, glued together in an early state. Pericarp: capsule woody, oblong, slightly triangular, obtuse, of three cells and three valves, the partitions from the centre of each valve. Seeds: numerous, nearly globose, hairy, ranged in two rows along each partition.—*Essential Character.* Sheaths general and partial. Perianth none. Petals three. Nectary of three leaves, enfolding the stamens and pistil. Capsule inferior, of three cells, with many seeds.

1. *Strelitzia angusta*, or great white *Strelitzia*.—The root is perennial, with long and thick fibres. Leaves radical, about six feet long, resembling those of a *Musa*. Flowers white, bearing but a small proportion to the magnificent foliage.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Strelitzia reginæ*, or canna-leaved *Strelitzia*.—Leaves ovate, not one-third the length of their foot-stalks, which are nearly as long as the flower-stalk.

3. *Strelitzia farinosa*, or meally-stalked *Strelitzia*.—Stalk rather longer than the footstalks, which are half as long again as the oblong leaves, unequal at the base.—Native of the Cape.

STRELLEY, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 4½ miles west-north-west of Nottingham.

STRELNA, a river in the north of European Russia, in the government of St. Petersburg, which falls into the gulf of Bothnia. On an eminence near its mouth stands a palace belonging to the emperor.

STRENÆ, in Antiquity, *new year's gifts*; presents made out of respect on new-year's day, as an happy augury for the ensuing year.

STRENGBACH, a small river of France, in Upper Alsace, which falls into the Ille at Gemar.

STRENGBERG, a small town of Lower Austria, on the road from Ens to Anstatten; 10 miles east-south-east of Ens.

STRENGNAS, a town of Sweden, in Sudermania, on the Malar lake. Though containing only 1100 inhabitants, it is of great antiquity, is a bishop's see, and has a large cathedral. Here is also a public school, founded in 1626; 32 miles west of Stockholm. Lat. 59. 20. N. long. 16. 55. E.

STRENGTH,

STRENGTH, *s.* [στρεγγος, Saxon.] Force; vigour; power of the body.

Thou must outlive
Thy youth, thy *strength*, thy beauty, which will change
To wither'd, weak, and grey. *Milton.*

Power of endurance; firmness; durability; toughness; hardness.—Not founded on the brittle *strength* of bones.
Milton.—Vigour of any kind; power of any kind.

This act
Shall crush the *strength* of Satan. *Milton.*

Power of resistance; sureness; fastness.
Our castle's *strength*
Will laugh a siege to scorn. *Shakspeare.*

Support; security; that which supports.
Bereave me not thy aid,
Thy counsel in this uttermost distress,
My only *strength* and stay. *Milton.*

Power of mind; force of any mental faculty.
We, like friendly colours, found our hearts unite,
And each from each contract new *strength* and light. *Pope.*

Spirit; animation.
Methinks I feel new *strength* within me rise,
Wings growing, and dominion given. *Milton.*

Adam and first matron Eve
Had ended now their orisons, and found
Strength added from above, new hope to spring
Out of despair. *Milton.*

Vigour of writing; nervous diction; force opposed to softness, in writing or painting.

Leave such to tune their own dull rhymes, and know,
What's roundly smooth, or languishingly slow,
And praise the easy vigour of a line,
Where Denham's *strength* and Waller's sweetness join. *Pope.*

Caracci's *strength*, Coreggio's softer line,
Paulo's free stroke, and Titian's warmth divine. *Pope.*

Potency of liquors. Fortification; fortress.—The rashness of talking should not only be retarded by the guard of our heart, but fenced in by certain *strengths* placed in the mouth. *B. Jonson.*

He thought
This inaccessible high *strength* to have seiz'd. *Milton.*
Betray'd in all his *strengths*, the wood beset;
All instruments, all arts of ruin met. *Denham.*

Support; maintenance of power.—What they boded would be a mischief to us, you are providing shall be one of our principal *strengths*. *Sprat.*—Legal force; validity; security. Confidence imparted.—The allies, after a successful summer, are too apt, upon the *strength* of it, to neglect their preparations for the ensuing campaign. *Addison.*—Arma-ment; force; power.—What is his *strength* by land? *Shakspeare.*—Persuasive prevalence; argumentative force.—This presupposed; it may then stand very well with *strength* and soundness of reason thus to answer. *Hooker.*

To **STRENGTH**, *v. a.* To strengthen. *Not used.*
Edward's happy-order'd reign, most fertile breeds
Plenty of mighty spirits, to *strength* his state. *Daniel.*

To **STRENGTHEN**, *v. a.* To make strong.—To confirm; to establish.

Thee, bold Longinus! all the Nine inspire,
And bless your critic with a poet's fire;
An ardent judge, who, zealous in his trust,
With warmth gives sentence, yet is always just;
Whose own example *strengthens* all his laws,
And is himself that great sublime he draws. *Pope.*

To animate; to fix in resolution.—Charge Joshua and encourage him and *strengthen* him. *Deut.*—To make to increase in power or security.

Let noble Warwick, Cobham, and the rest,
With powerful policy *strengthen* themselves. *Shakspeare.*

To **STRENGTHEN**, *v. n.* To grow strong.
Oh men for flatt'ry and deceit renown'd!
Thus when y' are young ye learn it all like him,
Till, as your years increase, that *strengthens* too,
T' undo poor maids. *Otway.*

STRENGTHENER, or **STRENGTHNER**, *s.* By contraction *strengthner*.—That which gives strength; that which makes strong.—Garlic is a great *strengthner* of the stomach upon decays of appetite or indigestion. *Temple.*—[In medicine.] *Strengthners* add to the bulk and firmness of the solids: cordials are such as drive on the vital actions; but these such as confirm the stamina. *Quincy.*

STRENGTHLESS, *adj.* Wanting strength; deprived of strength.

Yet are these feet, whose *strengthless* stay is numb,
Unable to support this lump of clay. *Shakspeare.*

As the wretch, whose fever-weaken'd joints,
Like *strengthless* hinges, buckle under life,
Impatient of his fit; breaks like a fire
Out of his keeper's arms. *Shakspeare.*

Wanting potency; weak. Used of liquors.—This liquor must be inflammable or not, and yet subtle and pungent, which may be called spirit; or else *strengthless* or insipid, which may be named phlegm. *Boyle.*

STRENSALL, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-north-east of York.

STRENSHAM, a village and parish of England, in Worcestershire, near the influx of the Avon into the Severn. It is noted as the birth-place of Samuel Butler, the author of Hudibras; 4½ miles south-west-by-south of Pershore.

STRENUOUS, *adj.* [*strenuus*, Lat.] Brave; bold; active; valiant; dangerously laborious.

Nations grown corrupt
Love bondage more than liberty;
Bondage with ease than *strenuous* liberty. *Milton.*

Zealous; vehement.—He resolves to be *strenuous* for taking off the test, against the maxims of all wise Christian governments, which always had some established religion, leaving at best a toleration to others. *Swift.*

STRENUOUSLY, *adv.* Vigorously; actively.—Many can use both hands, yet will there divers remain that can *strenuously* make use of neither. *Brown.*—Zealously; vehemently; with ardour.—Writers dispute *strenuously* for the liberty of conscience, and inveigh largely against all ecclesiastics under the name of high church. *Swift.*

STRENUOUSNESS, *s.* The state of being strenuous; earnestness; laboriousness. *Scott.*

STREPENT, *adj.* [*strepens*, Lat.] Noisy; loud.

Peace to the *strepent* horn!
Let no harsh dissonance disturb the morn;
No sounds inelegant and rude
Her sacred solitude profane. *Shenstone.*

STREPEROUS, *adj.* [*strepo*, Lat.] Loud; noisy.—Porta conceives, because in a *streperous* eruption it riseth against fire, it doth therefore resist lightning. *Brown.*

STREPTACHNE [from στρεπτος, *twisted*, or *spiral*, and αχνη, *the pointed summit of the glume*, which insensibly becomes the awn, without any intermediate joint], a grass with the aspect of an Aristida or Stipa, differing from the latter genus in the want of an articulation between the awn and its glume. *Brown, Nov. Holl.*

STREPTIUM [from στρεπω, *to twist*, on account of the very singular spiral tube of the corolla]. See **TORTULA**.

STREPTOPUS [from στρεπτος, *twisted*, and πους, *a foot*; because of a peculiar twist about the middle of each flower-stalk], a genus of Michaux's allied to Convallaria and Uvularia; distinguished from the former by its polypetalous corolla, with nectariferous furrows; from the latter by having a berry, not a capsule, and the want of an appendage, or tunic, to the scar of each seed.

STRESS,

STRESS, *s.* [*r̄*teece, Saxon, violence; or from *distress*.]—Importance; important part.—The *stress* of the fable lies upon the hazard of having a numerous stock of children. *L'Estrange*.—Importance imputed; weight ascribed.—Consider how great a *stress* he laid upon this duty, while upon earth, and how earnestly he recommended it. *Atterbury*.—Violence; force, either acting or suffered.

By *stress* of weather driv'n,
At last they landed.

Though the faculties of the mind are improved by exercise, yet they must not be put to a *stress* beyond their strength. *Locke*.

To **STRESS**, *v. a.* To distress; to put to hardships or difficulties.

Stirred with pity of the *stressed* plight
Of this sad realm.

To **STRETCH**, *v. a.* [*r̄*teccan, Saxon; *strecken*, Dutch.] To extend; to spread out to a distance.

Eden *stretch'd* her line
From Auran, eastward to the royal towers
Of great Seleucia, built by Grecian kings.

To elongate, or strain to a greater space.

Regions to which
All thy dominion, Adam, is no more
Than what this garden is to all the earth,
And all the sea, from one entire globose
Stretch'd into longitude.

To expand; to display.

Leviathan on the deep,
Stretch'd like a promontory, sleeps.

To strain to the utmost.

This kiss, if it durst speak,
Would *stretch* thy spirits up into the air.

To make tense.—So the *stretch'd* cord the shackl'd dancer tries. *Smith*.—To carry by violence farther than is right; as strain; as, to *stretch* a text; to *stretch* credit.

To **STRETCH**, *v. n.* To be extended, locally, intellectually, or consequentially

A third? a fourth?
What! will the line *stretch* out to th' crack of doom?

To bear extension without rupture.—The inner membrane, that involved the liquors of the egg, because it would *stretch* and yield, remained unbroken. *Boyle*.—To sally beyond the truth.—What an allay do we find to the credit of the most probable event, that is reported by one who uses to *stretch*. *Gov. of the Tongue*.

STRETCH, *s.* Extension; reach; occupation of more space.

At all her *stretch* her little wings she spread
And with her feather'd arms embrac'd the dead:
Then flickering to his pallid lips, she strove
To print a kiss.

Force of body extended.

He thought to swim the stormy main,
By *stretch* of arms the distant shore to gain.

Effort; struggle: from the act of running.—Upon this alarm we made incredible *stretches* towards the south to gain the fastnesses of Preston. *Addison*.—Utmost extent of meaning.—Quotations, in their utmost *stretch*, can signify no more than that Luther lay under severe agonies of mind. *Atterbury*.—Utmost reach of power.

This is the utmost *stretch* that nature can
And all beyond is fulsome, false, and vain.

STRE'TCHER, *s.* Any thing used for extension.

His hopes enstill'd
His strength, the *stretcher* of Ulysses' string
And his steeles piercer.

A term in bricklaying.—Tooth in the stretching course two inches with the *stretcher* only. *Moxon*.—The timber against which the rower plants his feet.

This fiery speech inflames his fearful friends,
They tug at every oar, and every *stretcher* bends. *Dryden*.

STRETENSK, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 492 miles east of Irkoutsk.

STRETFORD. 1. A parish of England, in Herefordshire; 4½ miles south-west-by-west of Leominster.—2. A township in Lancashire; 4 miles south-west-by-west of Manchester.

STRETTON. 1. A parish of England, in Derbyshire; 4½ miles north-by-west of Alfreton. Population 390.—2. A parish of England, in Rutlandshire; 9 miles north-east-by-east of Oakham.—3. A township in Staffordshire; 3 miles south-west-by-west of Penkridge.—4. A township in Cheshire; 10½ miles south-south-east of Chester.—5. A township in Cheshire; 7 miles north-north-west of Norwich.—6. A township in Staffordshire; 2 miles north-by-west of Burton-Upon-Trent.—7. **STRETTON**, *Baskerville*, a hamlet in Warwickshire; 3½ miles east-by-south of Nuneaton.—8. **STRETTON**, *Church*. See **CHURCH STRETTON**.—9. **STRETTON-ON-DUNSMOOR**, a parish in Warwickshire, situated on Dunsmoor-heath; 5½ miles west-north-west of Dunchurch.—10. **STRETTON-EN-LE-FIELDS**, a parish in Derbyshire; 5 miles south-west-by-south of Ashby-de-la-Zouch.—11. **STRETTON-ON-THE-FOSS**, a parish in Warwickshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Shipston-Upon-Stour.—12. **STRETTON-UNDER-FOSS**, a hamlet in Warwickshire; 5½ miles north west-by-north of Rugby.—13. **STRETTON**, *Grandsham*, a parish in Herefordshire; 6½ miles north-west of Ledbury.—14. **STRETTON**, *Magna* and *Parva*, two hamlets in Leicestershire; 6 miles east-south-east of Leicester.—15. **STRETTON**, *Sugwas*, a parish in Herefordshire; 3½ miles north-west-by-west of Hereford.

To **STREW**, *v. a.* [The orthography of this word is doubtful: it is sometimes written *strew*, and sometimes *strow*. Skinner proposes *strow*, and Junius writes *straw*. Their reasons will appear in the word from which it may be derived: *strawan*, Gothic; *stroyen* Dutch; *r̄*teapian, Saxon; *strewen*, German; *stroe*, Danish. Perhaps *strow* is best, being that which reconciles etymology with pronunciation. *Dr. Johnson*.—Todd adds the Sax. *r̄*teopian, and the Swedish *stroo*. *Straw*, as Junius writes it, and as it is often written in our translation of the Bible, is strictly conformable to the etymology, viz., to the Goth. *strawan*, which, as well as the Saxon verbs, Mr. H. Tooke derives from *straw*.] To spread by being scattered.

Is thine alone the seed that *strews* the plain?
The birds of Heav'n shall vindicate their grain.

To spread by scattering.

I thought thy bride-bed to have deck'd, sweet maid,
And not have *strew'd* thy grave.

To scatter loosely.

With furies and nocturnal orgies fir'd,
Whom ev'n the savage beasts had spar'd, they kill'd,
And *strew'd* his mangled limbs about the field.

STRE'WING, *s.* Any thing fit to be strewed. *Mason*.
The herbs, that have on them the cold dew o' the night,
Are *strewings* fitt'st for graves.

STRE'WMENT, *s.* Any thing scattered in decoration.

Her death was doubtful.—For charitable prayers,
Shards, flints, and pebbles should be thrown on her,
Yet here she is allow'd her virgin chants,
Her maiden *strewments*, and the bringing home
Of bell and burial.

STRI'E, *s.* [Lat.] In Natural History, the small channels in the shells of cockles and scallops.—The salt, leisurely permitted to shoot of itself in the liquor, exposed to the open air, did shoot into more fair crystalline *stræ*, than those that were gained

gained out of the remaining part of the same liquor by a more hasty evaporation. *Boyle*.

STR'ATE, or STR'ATED, adj. [*striæ*, Lat., *strié*, Fr.] Formed in *striæ*.—Crystal, when incorporated with the fibrous talcs, shews, if broke, a *striated* or fibrous texture, like those talcs. *Woodward*.

STR'ATURE, s. [*striæ*, Lat., *striure*, Fr.] Disposition of *striæ*.—Parts of tuberous hæmatitæ shew several varieties in the crusts, *striature*, and texture of the body. *Woodward*.

STRICH, s. [*στριχῆς*, Gr., *strix*, Lat.] A bird of bad omen.

The ill-fac'd owl, death's dreadful messenger,

The hoarse night-raven, trump of doleful dreere,

The leather-winged bat, day's enemy,

The rueful *strich*, still waiting on the bier. *Spenser*.

STRICHEN, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, comprehending 8000 acres, sloping to the banks of the Ugie. Population, including that of the village, 1760.

STRICHEN, a village of the above parish, containing about 200 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in the linen manufacture; 15 miles west-by-north of Peterhead.

STRICKATHROW, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Forfar; 7 miles long, and 2 broad. Population 580.

STR'ICKEN. The ancient participle of *strike*; but it has in the antiquated phrase *stricken*, (that is, advanced in years,) a meaning not borrowed from *strike*.—Abraham and Sarah were old, and well *stricken* in years. *Genesis*.

STRICKLAND, GREAT. 1. A township of England, in Westmoreland; 5½ miles south-east-by-south of Penrith. —2. **STRICKLAND, Little**, a township in the above county; 8½ miles north-north-west of Orton.—3. **STRICKLAND, Kettle**, also a township in Westmoreland; 3 miles north-west-by-west of Kendal.—4. **STRICKLAND, Roger**, another township in the same county; 4 miles north-by-west of Kendal.

STR'ICKLE, or STRICKLER, or STRICKLESS, or STRICHEL, s. That which strikes the corn to level it with the bushel. *Ainsworth*.—This level measure of grain is here provincially termed *stricke*, and *strickless*. *Shaw*.—*Strickle* is an instrument used to whet scythes with. *North*. *Grose*.

STRICT, adj. [*strictus*, Lat.] Exact; accurate; rigorously nice.

He checks the bold design;
And rules as *strict* his labour'd works confine,
As if the Stagyrite o'erlook'd each line. *Pope*.

Severe; rigorous; not mild; not indulgent.
Implore her, in my voice, that she make friends
To the *strict* deputy. *Shakspeare*.

Confined; not extensive.—As they took the compass of their commission *stricter* or larger, so their dealings were more or less moderate. *Hooker*.—Close; tight.

The god, with speedy pace,
Just thought to strain her in a *strict* embrace. *Dryden*.

Tense; not relaxed.—We feel our fibres grow *strict* or lax according to the state of the air. *Arbuthnot*.

STR'ICTLY, adv. Exactly; with rigorous accuracy.

Charge him *strictly*
Not to proceed, but wait my farther pleasure. *Dryden*.

Rigorously; severely; without remission or indulgence.—A weak prince again disposed the people to new attempts, which it was the clergy's duty to endeavour to prevent, if some of them had not proceeded upon a topic that, *strictly* followed, would enslave all mankind. *Swift*.—Closely; tightly; with tenseness.

STR'ICTNESS, s. Exactness; rigorous accuracy; nice regularity.—Such of them as cannot be concealed connive at, though in the *strictness* of your judgment you cannot pardon. *Dryden*.—Severity; rigour.—These commissioners proceeded with such *strictness* and severity as did much obscure the king's mercy. *Bacon*.—Closeness; tightness; not laxity.

STR'ICTURE, s. [from *strictura*, Lat. a spark.] A Vol. XXIII. No. 1596.

stroke; a touch.—The God of nature implanted in their vegetable natures certain passive *strictures*, or signatures of that wisdom which hath made and ordered all things with the highest reason. *Hale*.—Contraction; closure by contraction.—As long as there is thirst, with a free passage by urine, and *stricture* of the vessels, so long is water safely taken. *Arbuthnot*.—A slight touch upon a subject; not a set discourse.—Thus have I past through all your letter, and given myself the liberty of these *strictures*, by way of reflection on all and every passage. *Hammond*.

STRICTURE OF THE ŒSOPHAGUS, &c. See **PATHOLOGY**.

STRIDE, s. [ʒrjæbe, Sax.] A long step; a step taken with great violence; a wide divarication of the legs.

I'll speak between the change of man and boy,

With a reed voice, and turn two mincing steps

Into a manly *stride*. *Shakspeare*.

To **STRIDE, v. n.** pret. *strode* or *strid*; part. pass. *stridden*. To walk with long steps.

Mars in the middle of the shining shield

Is grav'd, and *strides* along the liquid field. *Dryden*.

To stand with the legs far from each other.

To **STRIDE, v. a.** To pass by a step.

See him *stride*

Valleys wide. *Arbuthnot*.

STRIDO, a small town in the south-west of Hungary. It is chiefly remarkable as being the ancient **STRIDONIA**, the birth-place of St. Jerome, a well known father of the Christian church; 116 miles south of Vienna, and 12 north-west of Csakathurn.

STRID'DOR, s. [Lat.] A quick loud noise; a clap.

Juturna from afar beheld her fly,

And knew the ill omen by her screaming cry,

And *stridor* of her wings. *Dryden*.

STRID'ULOUS, adj. [*stridulus*, Lat.] Making a small noise; hissing; creaking; chattering.—Not a *stridulous* jay, not a petulant sparrow. *Bp. Hall*.

STRIEGAU, a small town of Prussian Silesia. It contains 2700 inhabitants, and has several distilleries, but is more remarkable for the victory obtained here over the Austrians and Saxons by the Prussians, on the 4th June, 1745; 9 miles north-west of Schweidnitz, and 32 west-by-south of Breslau.

STRIEGIZ, a small river of Saxony, in the circle of the Erzgebirge, which falls into the Freyberg Mulda at Roswein.

STRIFE, s. [*estrif*, old French, contention; discord; from *estriver*. See **TO STRIVE**.] Contention; contest; discord; war; lawsuit.

These vows, thus granted, rais'd a *strife* above

Betwixt the god of war and queen of love;

She granting first, had right of time to plead;

But he had granted too; and would recede. *Dryden*.

Contest of emulation.

Thus gods contended, noble *strife*!

Who most should ease the wants of life. *Congreve*.

Opposition; contrariety; contrast.

Artificial *strife*
Lives in those touches, livelier than life. *Shakspeare*.

Natural contrariety; as, the *strife* of acid and alkali.

STRIFEFUL, adj. Contentious; discordant.—I know not what new creation may creep forth from the *strife*ful heap of things, into which, as into a second chaos, we are fallen. *Dr. Maine*.

STRIGES, in the Ancient Architecture, are what in the modern we call *flutings*.

STRIGIL, an instrument used among the ancients in their baths, and at some of their gymnastic exercises.

It served to absterge the sweat, or other sordes, from the body. Persons who intended to bathe, or to use any of

these exercises, when they entered the gymnasium, put off their clothes in the apodyterium; after which, such of them as intended to box, wrestle, or to use any of the more violent exercises, went into the alipterium, where they were anointed, and thence returning into the place where the dust was, they were sprinkled with this as they passed along, and then entered upon their several exercises; after this they returned to the alipterium, where they had the sweat and sordes wiped off from their bodies by the alipta with an iron strigil.

STRIGILIA [so named by Cavanilles, in allusion to the resemblance of the anthers to a *strigil*, or curry-comb], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order trihilatae, meliæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, bell-shaped, with five small teeth. Corolla, of one petal; tube cylindrical, the length of the calyx; limb in five deep, segments. Nectary a short cylindrical tube, of one leaf, hairy at the summit, bearing the anthers. Stamina: filaments scarcely any; anthers ten, erect, linear, besprinkled on the inner surface with starry hairs. Pistil: germen superior, ovate; style triangular, the length of the stamens; stigmas three, prominent, globose, combined. Seeds solitary.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five toothed. Corolla in five deep segments. Nectary tubular, shorter than the tube of the corolla, hairy, bearing the stamens. Anthers linear, erect. Fruit of six cells, with solitary seeds.

Strigilia racemosa.—The stem is shrubby, with round, downy, rusty, leafy branches. Leaves alternate, elliptical, entire, three or four inches long, single-ribbed, veiny, on shortish thick stalks; smooth above, clothed with reddish down beneath. Flowers in axillary simple clusters, shorter than the leaves.

STRIGMENT, *s.* [*strigmentum*, from *stringo*, Lat. to scrape.] Scraping; recement.—Many, besides the *strigments* and sudorous adhesions from men's hands, acknowledge that nothing proceedeth from gold in its usual decoction. *Brown.*

STRIGOVA. See **STRIDO.**

To STRIKE, *v. a.* pret. *struck* or *strook*; part. pass. *struck*, *strucken*, *stricken*, or *strook*. [*αἰτῦκαν*, Saxon; *streichen*, German; *adstrykia*, Icelandic; *striker*, Danish.] To act upon by a blow; to hit with a blow.

He at Philippi kept

His sword e'en like a dancer, while I *struck*
The lean and wrinkled Cassius.

Shakspeare.

To punish; to afflict.—To punish the just is not good, nor to *strike* princes for equity. *Prov.*—To dash; to throw by a quick motion.—The blood *strike* on the two side-posts. *Ex.*—To notify by sound.—The Windsor bell hath *struck* twelve. *Shakspeare.*—To stamp; to impress.—The memory in some men is very tenacious; but yet there seems to be a constant decay of all our ideas, even of those which are *struck* deepest, and in minds the most retentive. *Locke.*—To contract; to lower; to vail. It is only used in the phrases to *strike sail*, or to *strike a flag*.

How many nobles then would hold their places,
That must *strike sail* to spirits of vile sort!

Shakspeare.

Now, did I not so near my labour's end,
Strike sail, and hast'ning to the harbour tend,
My song to flow'ry gardens might extend.

Dryden.

To alarm; to put into emotion; to surprise.

Court virtues bear, lie gems, the highest rate,
Born where heaven's influence scarce can penetrate;
In life's low vale, the soil the virtues like,
They please as beauties, here as wonders *strike*.

Pope.

[*Fædus ferire.*] To make a bargain.

Sign but his peace, he vows he'll ne'er again
The sacred names of fops and beaus profane:
Strike up the bargain quickly; for I swear,
As times go now, he offers very fair.

Dryden.

To produce by a sudden action.

Take my caduceus!
With this the infernal ghosts I can command,
And *strike* a terror through the Stygian strand. *Dryden.*

To affect suddenly in any particular manner.

Strike her young bones.

Ye taking airs, with lameness.

Shakspeare.

He that is *stricken* blind cannot forget

The precious treasure of his eye-sight lost.

Shakspeare

To cause to sound by blows; with *up* only emphatical.

Strike up the drums and let the tongue of war,

Plead for our interest, and our being here.

Shakspeare.

To forge; to mint.

Though they the lines on golden anvils beat,

It looks as if they *struck* them at a heat.

Tate.

It is used in the participle, for *advanced in years*.

The king,

Is wise and virtuous, and his noble queen

Well *struck* in years; fair and not jealous.

Shakspeare.

To STRIKE off. To erase from a reckoning or account.

I have this while with leaden thoughts been prest;

But I shall in a more convenient time

Strike off this score of absence.

Shakspeare.

To STRIKE off. To separate by a blow, or any sudden action.—Germany had *stricken off* that which appeared corrupt in the doctrine of the church of Rome; but seemed, nevertheless, in discipline still to retain therewith great conformity. *Hooker.*—They followed so fast that they overtook him, and without further delay *struck off* his head. *Knolles.*

To STRIKE out. To produce by collision.

My thoughtless youth was wing'd in vain desires;

My manhood long misled by wand'ring fires,

Follow'd false lights; and when their glimpse was gone,

My pride *struck out* new sparkles of her own. *Dryden.*

To STRIKE out. To blot; to efface.—By expurgatory animadversions, we might *strike out* great numbers of hidden qualities, and having once a conceded list, with more safety attempt their reasons. *Brown.*

To STRIKE out. To bring to light.

To STRIKE out. To form at once by a quick effort.

Whether thy hand *strike* out some free design,

Where life awakes and dawns at ev'ry line,

Or blend in beauteous tints the colour'd mass,

And from the canvas call the mimic face.

To STRIKE, v. n. To make a blow.

I, in mine own woe charm'd,

Could not find death, where I did hear him groan;

Nor feel him where he *struck*.

Shakspeare.

To collide; to clash.—Holding a ring by a thread in a glass, tell him that holdeth it, it shall *strike* so many times against the side of the glass, and no more. *Bacon.*—To act, by repeated percussion.

Bid thy mistress when my drink is ready,

She *strike* upon the bell.

Shakspeare.

To sound by the stroke of a hammer.—Cæsar, 'tis *strucken* eight. *Shakspeare.*—To make an attack.

Is not the king's name forty thousand names?

Arm, arm, my name; a puny subject *strikes*

At thy great glory.

Shakspeare.

To act by external influx.—Consider the red and white colours in porphyre; hinder light but from *striking* on it and its colours vanish. *Locke.*—To sound with blows.

Whilst any trump did sound, or drum *struck* up,

His sword did ne'er leave striking in the field. *Shakspeare.*

To be dashed; to be stranded.—The admiral's galley, wherein the emperor was, *struck* upon a sand, and there stuck

stuck fast. *Knolles*.—To pass with a quick and strong effect.—Now and then a glittering beam of wit or passion *strikes* through the obscurity of the poem: any of these effect a present liking, but not a lasting admiration. *Dryden*.—To pay homage, as by lowering the sail.

We see the wind sit sore upon our sails;
And yet we *strike* not, but securely perish. *Shakespeare*.

To be put by some sudden act or motion into any state; to break forth.—It *struck* on a sudden into such reputation, that it scorns any longer to sculk, but owns itself publicly. *Gov. of the Tongue*.

To *STRIKE in with*. To conform; to suit itself to; to join with at once.—Those who, by the prerogative of their age, should frown youth into sobriety, imitate and *strike in with* them, and are really vicious that they may be thought young. *South*.

To *STRIKE out*. To spread or rove; to make a sudden excursion.—When a great man *strikes out* into a sudden irregularity, he needs not question the respect of a retinue. *Collier*.

STRIKE, s. A bushel; a dry measure of capacity; four pecks.

What dowry has she?—Some two hundred bottles,
And twenty *strike* of oats. *Beaumont and Fl.*

STR'KEBLOCK, s. Is a plane shorter than the jointer, having its sole made exactly flat and straight, and is used for the shooting of a short joint. *Moron*.

STR'KER, s. Person or thing that strikes.—Music, the most divine *striker* of the senses. *Sidney*.

STR'KING, part. adj. Affecting; surprising.—Though colour be the lowest of all the constituent parts of beauty, yet it is vulgarly the most *striking*. *Spence*.

STR'KINGLY, adv. So as to affect or surprise.—The force of many *strikingly* poetical passages has been weakened or unperceived, because their origin was unknown, unexplored, or misunderstood. *Warton*.

STR'KINGNESS, s. The power of affecting or surprising.

STRIMMING, a village of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, near Coblenz, with 900 inhabitants.

STRING, s. [ʃtrɪŋg, Sax.; *streng*, German and Danish; *stringhe*, Dutch; *stringo*, Lat.] A slender rope; a small cord; any slender and flexible band.—Any lower bullet hanging upon the other above it, must be conceived, as if the weight of it were in that point where its *string* touches the upper. *Wilkins*.—A riband.

Round Ormond's knee thou ty'st the mystic *string*,
That makes the knight companion to the king. *Prior*.

A thread on which any things are filed.—Their priests pray by their beads, having a *string* with a hundred of nutshells upon it; and the repeating of certain words with them they count meritorious. *Stillingfleet*.—Any set of things filed on a line.—I have caught two of these dark undermining vermin, and intend to make a *string* of them, in order to hang them up in one of my papers. *Addison*.—The chord of a musical instrument.

Thus when two brethren *strings* are set alike,
To move them both, but one of them we strike. *Cowley*.

A small fibre.—Duckweed putteth forth a little *string* in the water, from the bottom. *Bacon*.—A nerve; a tendon. The most piteous tale, which in recounting,
His grief grew puissant, and the *strings* of life
Began to crack. *Shakespeare*.

The nerve or line of the bow.
Th' impetuous arrow whizzes on the wing,
Sounds the tough horn, and twangs the quiv'ring *string*.
Pope.

Any concatenation or series; as, a *string* of propositions.
To have two **STRINGS to the bow**. To have two views or two expedients; to have double advantage, or double security.

No lover has that power
T' enforce a desperate amour,
As he that has *two strings to's bow*,
And burns for love and money too.

Hudibras.

To **STRING, v. a.** pret. *strung*, part. pass. *strung*, [from the noun.] To furnish with strings.

Has not wise nature *strung* the legs and feet
With firmest nerves, design'd to walk the street? *Gay*.

To put a stringed instrument in tune.
Here the muse so oft her harp has *strung*.
That not a mountain rears its head unsung. *Addison*.

To file on a string.—Men of great learning or genius are too full to be exact; and therefore chuse to throw down their pearls in heaps before the reader, rather than be at the pains of *stringing* them. *Spectator*.—To make tense—Toil *strung* the nerves, and purified the blood. *Dryden*.

STR'NGED, adj. Having strings; produced by strings.
Divinely warbled voice,
Answering the *stringed* noise,
As all their souls in blissful rapture took. *Milton*.

STR'NGENT, adj. [*stringens*, Lat.] Binding; contracting.

What down doth dive
Into the straiten'd cuspis, needs must strive
With *stringent* bitterness, vexation. *Morc*.

The serpents twisting round their *stringent* folds,
Inextricable tie! *Thomson*.

STR'NGER, s. One who makes strings for a bow. *Obsolete*.—*Stringers* ought more diligently to be looked upon—than either bowyer or fletcher. *Ascham*.

STR'NGHALT, s. A sudden twitching and snatching up of the hinder leg of a horse much higher than the other, or an involuntary or convulsive motion of the muscles that extend or bend the hough. *Farricr's Dict.*

STR'NGLESS, adj. Having no strings.
Nothing; all is said;

His tongue is now a *stringless* instrument,
Words, life, and all, old Lancaster hath spent. *Shakespeare*.

STRINGSTON, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 10 miles north-west-by-west of Bridgewater.

STR'NGY, adj. Fibrous, consisting of small threads; filamentous.—A plain Indian fan, made of small *stringy* parts of roots spread out in a round flat form. *Grew*.

To **STRIP, v. a.** [ʃtrɪpən, Sax. *denudare*; *streifen*, Germ. *decorticare*; *strypr*, Icel. *nudum corpus*, *stripdr*, *denudatus*. *Serenius*.] To make naked; to deprive of covering: with *of* before the thing taken away.

Hadst thou not committed
Notorious murder on those thirty men
At Askalon, who never did thee harm,
Then like a robber *stripp'dst* them of their robes. *Milton*.

The bride was put in form to bed;
He follow'd *stript*. *Swift*.

To deprive; to divest.—One would imagine these to be the expressions of a man blessed with ease and affluence, not of one just *stript* of all those advantages, and plunged in the deepest miseries; and now sitting naked upon a dunghill. *Atterbury*.—To rob; to plunder; to pillage: as, a thief *stripped* the house.—That which lays a man open to an enemy, and that which *strips* him of a friend, equally attacks him in all those interests that are capable of being weakened by the one, and supported by the other. *South*.

—To peel; to decorticate.—If the leaves or dried stocks be *stripped* into small straws, they arise unto amber, wax, and other electricies, no other ways than those of wheat or rye. *Brown*.—To deprive of all.—When some fond easy fathers *strip* themselves before they lie down to their long sleep, and settle their whole estates upon their sons, has it not been seen that the father has been requited with beggary? *South*.—To take off covering: with *off* emphatical.—He *stript off* his clothes. 1 *Sam*.—To cast off. *Not in use*.

His

His unkindness,
That *stript* her from his benediction, turn'd her
To foreign casualties, gave her dear rights
To her dog-hearted daughters: these things sting him.
Shakspeare.

To separate from something adhesive or connected. *Not accurately used.*—Amongst men who examine not scrupulously their own ideas, and *strip* them not from the marks men use for them, but confound them with words, there must be endless dispute. *Locke.*—To draw the after-milkings of cows. *North. Grose.*

STRIP, *s.* A narrow shred.
A plumed fan may shade thy chalked face,
And lawny *strips* thy naked bosom grace. *Bp. Hall.*

To STRIPE, *v. a.* [*strepen*, Dutch.] To variegate with lines of different colours; to beat; to lash.

STRIPE, *s.* [*strepe*, Dutch.] A lineary variation of colour.—Gardeners may have three roots among an hundred that are rare, as purple and carnation of several *stripes*. *Bacon.*—A shred of a different colour.—One of the most valuable trimmings of their clothes was a long *stripe* sowed upon the garment, called *latus clavus*. *Arbutnot.*—A weal, or discolouration made by a lash or blow.—Cruelty marked him with inglorious *stripes*. *Thomson.*—A blow; a lash.—A body cannot be so torn with *stripes*, as a mind with remembrance of wicked actions. *Hayward.*

STRIPED, *part. adj.* Distinguished by lines of different colour.

STRIPPLING, *s.* [Of uncertain etymology. *Dr. Johnson.*—It is probable, by an easy metathesis, from the Sax. *pputan*, to shoot out. See *To OUTSTRIP.*] A youth; one in the state of adolescence.

'Thwart the lane,
He, with two *striplings*, lads, more like to run
The country base, than to commit such slaughter,
Made good the passage. *Shakspeare.*

STRIPPER, *s.* One that strips. *Sherwood.*
STRIPPINGS, *s.* After-milkings. *North.* See the last sense of *To STRIP*. *Grose.*

STRITCHEL, *s.* A strickle. *Sherwood.* See *STRICKLE*.
STRIVALI (the ancient *Strophades*), a small cluster of islands of the Ionian sea, on the west coast of the Morea. They are four in number. The largest, the abode, according to the Greek poets, of the harpies, abounds in olives and other fruit, but produces hardly enough of corn for its limited population. The smallest is little else than a rock, and the two others form a kind of harbour for small craft; 26 miles south of Zante. Lat. 37. 29. N. long. 21. 12. E.

To STRIVE, *v. n.* preterite *strove*, anciently *strived*; part. pass. *striven*. [*streven*, Dutch; *estriver*, Fr.] To struggle; to labour; to make an effort.

Was it for this that Rome's best blood he spilt,
With so much falsehood, so much guilt?
Was it for this that his ambition *strove*
To equal Cæsar first, and after Jove? *Cowley.*

To contest; to contend; to struggle in opposition to another: with *against* or *with* before the person opposed.

Do as adversaries do in law,
Strive mightily, but eat and drink as friends. *Shakspeare.*

To oppose by contrariety of qualities.
Now private pity *strove* with public hate,
Reason with rage, and eloquence with fate. *Denham.*

To vie; to be comparable to; to emulate; to contend in excellence.

Nor that sweet grove
Of Daphne by Orontes, and the inspir'd
Castalian spring, might with this paradise
Of Eden *strive*. *Milton.*

STRIVER, *s.* One who labours; one who contends. *Prompt. Parv.*—An imperfect *striver* may overcome sin in some instances; and yet in that do no great matter neither, if he lies down, and goes no further. *Glanville.*

STRIVING, *s.* Contest.—This is warrantable conflict for trial of our faith; so that these *strivings* are not a contending with superior power. *L'Estrange.*

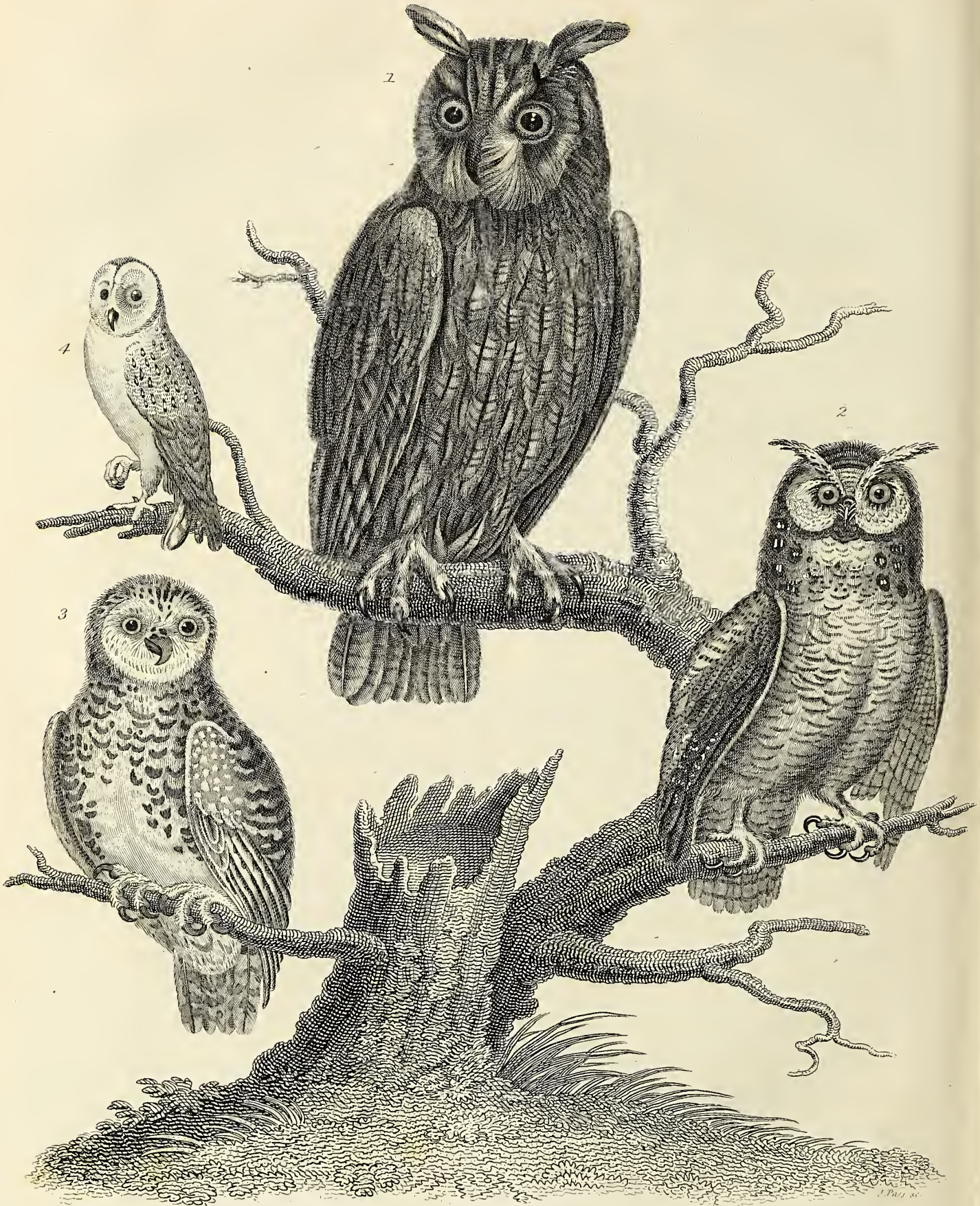
STRIVINGLY, *adv.* With struggle; with contest. *Huloet.*

STRIX, the OWL, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order accipitres.—Generic Character: the bill is hooked, and covered at the base with bristles, instead of that membranous substance called the cere in other predatory birds. The nostrils of owls are oblong, and their tongues cloven at the end; the heads are, in every species, remarkably large, and in some, the large apertures of the ear, called the horns, are covered with a tuft of feathers; their claws are hooked and sharp; and the outer toe capable of turning backward like that of the parrot. There are forty-three species, besides many varieties; and they are ranged in two subdivisions; the eared, and the earless.

The eyes of these birds distinguish them from every other genus; they are large and protuberant, and possess such exquisite sensibility, that they are dazzled by the full light of day, and altogether overpowered by the rays of the sun. As among quadrupeds, those of the tiger and cat kind, by the structure of the eye, are capable of seeing in a faint light, so among the feathered race, this numerous tribe is fitted for plunder amid the darkness of night, when the other animals are overpowered by sleep. "In these birds," says Goldsmith, "the pupil of the eye is capable of opening very wide, or shutting very close; by contracting the pupil, the brighter light of the day, which would act too powerfully on the sensibility of the retina, is excluded; by dilating the pupil, the animal takes in the more faint rays of the night, and thereby is enabled to spy its prey, and catch it with greater facility in the dark." We are not, however to imagine that the eyes of these animals, which are so perfectly fitted for a feeble light, can see without it altogether, or are capable of penetrating into absolute darkness. On the contrary, in the dead of night it is probable that they see but little, and resemble the hares, wolves, and stags, who issue from the woods to feed or to chase in the night; only the eyes of these animals seem less dazzled by the full glare of the rays of the sun. It is in the evening twilight, or at the dawn of day, that the owls are best fitted for seeing; it is then they issue from their dark retreats to chase or surprise their prey. Their search is generally successful; for, at these hours of rest, the little animals are off their guard, and incapable of eluding their search.

Except during the nights of moon-shine, their time of chase is but very short; for they generally retire to their lurking places, before they are surprised by the profound gloom of midnight, or the dazzling beams of the sun. Moon-shine is their harvest; a season of pleasure and abundance; for then they protract their flight for several hours, and lay up an ample store of provision. If, from the scarcity of game, they continue their search longer than usual, and, following the dictates of appetite rather than of prudence, wait till broad day-light breaks in upon them, they are bewildered, dazzled, and confounded, and, however far from home, are obliged to remain in the same spot till the return of evening. If you force them away, they make short slow flights, as if afraid of dashing against some unseen object. If the other birds perceive, by his awkwardness or fear, the distress of the owl's situation, they fly with emulation to insult him. The thrush, the jay, the bunting, and the red-breast, attack him in a body, with cries, insults, and strokes of their wings. The unfortunate owl knows not how to defend himself, or where to fly; "astonished and purblind, he only replies to their mockeries by awkward and ridiculous gestures, by rolling his eyes, and turning his head with an air of stupidity." Among this tribe of tormentors, the smallest and most feeble of his enemies are commonly the foremost; and, by a mistake similar to what the owl himself has committed, they sometimes prolong their insults till the return of evening restores him the use of his sight. Then he becomes truly formidable, and inflicts on his tormentors dreadful revenge for their ill-timed audacity.

STRIX.



1 *S. virginiana*. 2 *S.ubo*. 3 *S. passerina*. *S. minor*.

All the different species of owls are not equally distinguished by sensibility in the organs of sight; and consequently not equally overpowered by the light of day. The great owl of North America takes considerable flights, and is sometimes seen chasing its prey successfully in broad day; while the common barn owl, far from being able to encounter the full rays of the sun, possesses such sensibility of vision, that it catches mice even in the middle of the night. This difference in the sight of the owls, regulates the time of their depredations; such as nearest resemble other birds, issue from their retreats immediately after the setting of the sun; the more quick-sighted, remain concealed till later in the evening, when they fall with destructive success on the smaller birds, in the midst of that season of repose. The owls in general conceal themselves in some dark retreat during the day; the cavern of a rock, the hollow of a tree, or the holes of a ruinous and unfrequented castle, are the solitary abodes preferred by these gloomy birds: there, they often render the solemnity of these dreary haunts tremendous by their cries. The harshness of their notes, the darkness and silence during which they are heard, joined to the gloomy habitations where these birds dwell, have always strongly affected the imaginations of men, and given rise to melancholy ideas. The prejudices and weakness of the uninformed part of mankind, alarmed by these frightful images, have always led them to regard the voice of the screech-owl as a presage of some sad calamity that awaited them. It is only, however, when the owls are stationary, that they utter these doleful notes; while in pursuit of their prey, they are all silent, as the smallest noise might alarm the animal which it is their endeavour to surprise.

I.—Eared.

1. *Strix bubo*; great owl, or rufous horned owl, variegated with black, brown, and ash-coloured spots and freckles.—The Specific Character given by Gmelin is, body tawny. There are three other varieties: 1. Body darker, with blackish wings. 2. Legs naked. 3. Blackish-yellow, variegated with white. This is the largest species of owl, and but little inferior in size to an eagle. Its general colour is rufous or ferruginous, varied with larger and smaller spots and markings of brown, black, and grey; together with innumerable freckles or minute specks of the same colours. It is found of a deeper or lighter hue, according to various circumstances of age, health, and climate: the larger wing and tail feathers are obscurely varied by dusky transverse bars; the bill is black, the eyes are very large, and of a bright reddish or golden orange-colour; the legs are short and strong, thickly clothed, down to the very claws, with fine, downy, and setaceous plumes; the claws are extremely large, strong, and black.

This species, including the varieties above enumerated, appears to be very generally diffused throughout the temperate and northern parts of the old continent, and is even supposed to occur both in North and South America. In this country it is rarely seen: in Germany it is rather common. It preys, in the manner of eagles and the larger falcons, on hares, rabbits, and almost all kinds of birds, and builds its nest among the crags of rocks, or among ruined edifices, and lays, as it is supposed, rarely more than two eggs, which are larger and rounder than those of a hen, and of a rufous colour, blotched with variegations not much unlike the bird itself.

2. *Strix Virginiana*, or Virginian owl.—Body above brown, varied with fine, zig-zag, tawny, and cinereous lines; beneath pale-ash, with longitudinal brown streaks; throat and sides of the breast orange, streaked with brown.—This is an inhabitant of America, and is less than the last. According to Mr. Edwards, it approaches in magnitude nearly to the greatest horn or eagle owl: the bigness of the head in this seems not at all inferior to that of a cat; the wing, when closed, measures, from the top to the ends of the quills, full fifteen inches; the bill is black, the upper mandible is hooked, and overhanging the nether, as in eagles and hawks,

having no angle in them, but plain on its edges; it is covered with a skin, in which are placed the nostrils, and that skin hidden with a bristly kind of grey feathers, that grow round the basis of the bill; the eyes are large, having circles round them, broad, of a bright shining gold-colour; the space round the eyes, which may be called the face, is of a light brown colour, confusedly mixed with orange, gradually becoming dusky where it borders on the eyes; over the eyes it has white strokes; the feathers that compose the horns begin just above the bill, where they are intermixed with a little white, but as they extend onwards beyond the head, they become of a red-brown, clouded with dusky, and tipped with black; the top of the head, neck, wings, and upper side of the tail, are barred across with bars of dusky-reddish; the feathers between the back and wings are orange-coloured, tipped with white; the fore-part of the neck and breast are bright brown, inclining to orange, which grows fainter on the sides; this brown part is spotted with pretty large dark spots; the middle of the breast, belly, thighs, and under-side of the tail, are white, or faint ash-colour, barred transversely with dusky lines pretty regularly: the inside of the wings is coloured and variegated in the same manner; the legs and toes, almost to the ends are covered with light ash-coloured feathers; the ends of the toes and claws are of a dark horn colour.

This species occasionally varies in the cast of its colours, which are sometimes darker, with fewer variegations in its plumage.—It is found in North America, as high as Hudson's Bay, frequenting woody districts, and uttering, it is said, a most hideous noise in the woods, not unlike the hallooing of a man.

3. *Strix Scandiaca*, or Scandinavian owl.—Body whitish, with black spots.—It inhabits the mountains of Lapland, and is the size of a turkey.

4. *Strix Zeylonensis*, or Ceylon owl.—Body above reddish-brown, beneath yellowish-white; circles on the face reddish-brown, streaked with black. The length of this species is nearly two feet, and its weight about two pounds and three quarters. The bill is horn-coloured; the irids yellow, the upper parts of the bill of a pale reddish-brown; the under parts yellowish-white; each feather appearing to be streaked and barred with a dusky-black; the ears of the horns are short and pointed; the prime quills and tail are barred with black, white, and pale-red.—It is, as its name denotes, an inhabitant of Ceylon, where it is called *Raia Allia*.

5. *Strix Sinensis*, or Chinese owl.—Body reddish-brown, with waved black lines, beneath streaked with reddish-black, and barred with white. The bill and legs are black; secondary quill-feathers with four blackish bars.—It inhabits China.

6. *Strix Coromanda*, or Coromandel owl.—Body above greyish-red, with reddish-white spots; beneath pale-red, with small semilunar black spots. The bill is black; the irids yellow; legs reddish; cheeks white; quill and tail feathers barred with reddish-white.—It is found in India.

7. *Strix otus*, or long-eared owl.—This, in its general appearance and colours, is very strikingly allied to the *Strix bubo*, but in size it is far inferior. It is about fourteen inches and a half in length. This bird is fond of woody and rocky solitudes, and is not observed to build any nest of its own, but contents itself with a deserted nest of a bustard or magpie, and usually lays five eggs.—In North America it is found to inhabit the woods at a distance from the sea-coast, and has been observed at Hudson's Bay, preying by night, with much clamour.

8. *Strix brachyotos*, or short-eared owl.—Horns short; body above brown; the feathers edged with yellow; beneath pale-yellow, longitudinally streaked with dusky.—This species is found in our country, in divers other parts of Europe, also in America and Siberia. The short-eared owl is a bird of passage, and has been observed to visit Lincolnshire in the beginning of October, and to retire early in the spring; so probably, as it performs its migrations like the

woodcock, its summer retreat is Norway. During the day, it lies hidden in long old grass; when disturbed, it seldom flies far, but will alight, and sit looking at any person who happens to be present, at which time the horns may be seen very distinctly. It has not been observed to perch on trees, like other owls; it will fly in search of prey in cloudy and hazy weather. Farmers are fond of seeing these birds in their fields, as they soon clear them of mice. It is frequently found on the hill of Hoy in the Orkneys, where it flies and preys by day, like a hawk. This bird in Hudson's Bay is called the mouse-hawk. Here it never flies, like other owls, in search of prey, but sits quietly on the stump of a tree, watching the appearance of mice. It breeds near the coast, making its nest with dry grass upon the ground, and migrates southwards in the autumn.

9. *Strix Brasiliana*, or Brasil owl.—Body above pale rusty-brown, spotted with white, beneath whitish, with rusty-brown spots. Bill, irids, short feet, and toes, yellowish.—It inhabits Brasil, and is about the size of a thrush.

10. *Strix Pulchella*, or Siberian owl.—Body grey, variegated with brown, rusty, and white.—It inhabits Siberia, and is nine inches long.

11. *Strix Scops*, or little horned-owl.—Ears of one feather each.—This inhabits Europe; is seven inches and a quarter long, and preys on field-mice. In the dead body the ears are scarcely conspicuous; the colour varies according to the age, grey, rufous, brown or blackish; the legs are spotted with brown; the toes and claws are brown. This is a species of uncommon elegance, and of a small size. The general disposition of its colours is similar to that of the eagle owl, but with a mixture of grey, which predominates on the breast and belly of the bird; it varies, however, considerably in the cast of its colours, according to the various circumstances of age and sex, and when young it is said to be wholly grey: the irids are also said to be of a pale yellow in the young, and deep yellow or even hazel in the old birds; the legs are covered to the toes with speckled grey and brown plumes. The scops is a native of the warmer parts of Europe, and is of a migratory nature. In France it is said to arrive and depart at the same time with the swallow. At particular times great flights arrive, and wage war against field-mice, in those years when these animals happen to be unusually numerous.

II.—Earless.

12. *Strix nyctea*, or snowy owl.—Body whitish, with a few brown lunate spots.—This is found in Europe, America, and Asia, and is two feet long; it flies abroad by day, and preys on herons, hares, mice, and sometimes carrion; makes a howling noise: in winter it is often snow-white. A variety has numerous spots; the bill and claws are black. According to Mr. Pennant, this species varies greatly in weight, being from three pounds to a pound and a half.—It inhabits the coldest parts of America, even as high as the remote mountains in the icy centre of Greenland, from which intense cold it migrates to the shores. It adds horror even to that country, by its hideous cries, resembling those of a person in deep distress. It is rare in the temperate parts of America, and strays seldom as low as Pennsylvania and Louisiana: it is very common in Hudson's Bay, Norway and Lapland. It has no dread of the utmost rigour of the season, but bears the cold of the northern regions the whole year. It flies by day, and is scarcely distinguished from the snow; it falls perpendicularly on its prey; feeds on white grouse, and probably on hares; hence its Swedish name *harfang*. In Hudson's Bay it is almost domesticated, harbouring in places near the tents of the Indians. It is scarce in Russia, but rather common on the Uralian mountains, and all over the north and east of Siberia, and in the Asiatic empire, even in the hot latitude of Astrakan. In Kamtschatka it is very numerous.

13. *Strix tengmalmi*, or Swedish owl.—Body grey, with small round spots.—It inhabits Sweden, and is the size of a black bird.

14. *Strix nebulosa*, or barred owl.—Head, neck, breast, back, and wing-coverts, brown, spotted with white; the belly and vent are of a dirty-white, streaked with brown; the tail is marked with brown and whitish bands, whitish at the tip.—It inhabits Hudson's Bay and New York; sometimes, but rarely, in England. It is two feet long, and feeds on mice, hare and cranes.

15. *Strix perspicillata*, or spectacle owl.—Head white, smooth, downy; body above, area of the eyes and chin, brownish; beneath reddish-white; the breast is barred with reddish-brown.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is twenty-one inches long.

16. *Strix cinerea*, or sooty owl.—Head, neck, and wing-coverts sooty, with dirty-white lines; breast and belly whitish, with large oblong dusky brown spots.—It inhabits Hudson's Bay; is two feet long; flies in pairs, and preys on mice or hares. The bill is whitish; irids yellow; the tail is marked with oblique brown and dirty-white streaks; a part of the skin from the chin to the vent bare of feathers.

17. *Strix wapacutha*, or spotted owl.—Back and tail-coverts white, spotted with dusky; breast and belly of a dirty-white, with reddish lines cross each other. This also is found in Hudson's Bay: it is two feet long; forms its nest of moss on the ground, and preys on mice and small birds: its flesh is considered as excellent food.

18. *Strix cucularia*, or Coquimbo owl.—Body above brown, beneath white; legs warty and hairy.—It is found in Chili; is the size of a pigeon; flies in pairs, sometimes by day; and preys on insects and reptiles; it lays four eggs, variegated with white and yellow, in long subterraneous burrows. The irids are yellow; the body above spotted with white.

19. *Strix aluco*, or aluco owl.—Head rusty; irids black; first quill-feathers serrate.—This is found in divers parts of Europe; is about fifteen inches long; lives during summer in woods, in winter near habitations: it feeds on mice.

20. *Strix sylvestris*, or Austrian owl.—Body variegated white and brown; the space round the eyes is white, the irids red.—It inhabits Austria; is the size of a fowl; the covering of the head is an elegant radiate wreath of white feathers.

21. *Strix alba*, or white owl.—Body above tawny, spotted with grey, beneath white; quill and tail feathers rufous, the latter tipped with white.—It inhabits Austria, as does the next.

22. *Strix noctua*, or rufous owl.—Body pale rufous, with longitudinal brown spots; the irids are brown.

23. *Strix rufa*, or ferruginous owl.—Body rusty, spotted with brown; the irids are blueish.—It inhabits the woods of Idria.

24. *Strix soloniensis*, or solonese owl.—Body above black-brown mixed with tawny, beneath white; tail white, with blackish lines crossing each other near the tip.—This inhabits France, and is fifteen inches long. Crown, and outward circle of feathers round the face, varied with reddish and white; toes horn-colour.

25. *Strix flammea*, or common owl.—Body above pale yellow, with white dots, beneath whitish, with black dots.—It inhabits Europe, America, and Northern Asia, and is about fourteen inches long.

26. *Strix barbata*, or mountain owl.—Space round the eyes and chin black. Bill and irids yellow; body cinereous; primary quill-feathers serrate on both edges.

27. *Strix stridula*, or tawny owl.—Body rusty, the third quill-feather is longest.—It inhabits Europe and Tartary, and is nineteen ounces in weight.

28. *Strix ulula*, or brown owl.—Body above brown, spotted with white; tail-feathers with linear white bands. A variety is much smaller, though some writers consider these two varieties as merely the male and female of the same.—This species inhabits Europe and Newfoundland, and is about fourteen inches long. With respect to the general manners of the brown owl, or, as it is called by Pennant, the wood owl, the naturalist observes, that by night these birds
and

are very clamorous. In the dusk they approach our dwellings, and will frequently enter pigeon-houses, and make great havoc in them. They destroy number of leverets, as appears by the legs frequently found in their holes; they also kill abundance of moles.

29. *Strix Arctica*, or Arctic owl.—Body rusty-brown, above spotted with black, beneath streaked with narrow brown lines; bill, orbits, and band under the wings, brown.—It inhabits Sweden, and is eighteen inches long.

30. *Strix funerea*, or Canada owl.—Body brown, with a few large white spots above, beneath white, with transverse narrow brown bars; the tail is long, with broad brown and narrow white bars. The head is black, with white points; five first inner quill-feathers not spotted on the outer edge; the irids are yellow.—This species is found in many parts of Europe and North America.

31. *Strix Hudsonia*, or hawk-owl.—Feathers above brown, with white edges, beneath white, with transverse black lines; the bill and irids are golden. This bird is, says Edwards, who was the first describer of it, rather larger than a sparrow-hawk, and has much the air and manner of a hawk, from the length of its wings and tail; but the form of the head and feet clearly show it to be near of kin to the owl kind. The birds of this species fly and prey at noon, which is contrary to the nature of most of the owl kind. The bill is like a hawk's, but without angles on the sides, of a bright reddish-yellow. Mr Edwards was told that the eyes are of the same colour. The spaces round the eyes are white, a little shaded with brown, and dashed with small, longish, dusky spots; the outsides of these spaces, towards the ears, are encompassed with black; without that again is a little white; the bill is covered almost with light-coloured bristly feathers, as in most of the owl kind; the top of the head is of a very dark brown, spotted finely with little regular round spots of white; round the neck, and down to the middle of the back, is dark brown, the feathers seeming to be tipped with white; the wings are of a brown colour, the quill and covert feathers being finely spotted on their outer webs with white; the three quills next the body are not spotted, but have whitish tips: the feathers between the back and wing are painted with broad transverse bars of brown and white; the inner coverts of the wing are white, with transverse lines of brown; the quills within are of a dark-ash-colour, with white spots on both webs; the prime quill is spotless within and without on its outer web, and hardly any of that reflecting back of the points of the outer web as is observed in owls; the rump and covert-feathers of the tail are dark-brown, transversely barred and mixed with a lighter brown; the tail on the upper side is dark brown, and ash-coloured beneath, composed of twelve feathers, the middlemost longer by two inches across than the very outermost; it is barred across by seven or eight transverse narrow bars of light brown; the breast, belly, thigh, and coverts under the tail, are white across, with narrow brown lines in a regular manner; the legs and feet are wholly covered with fine soft feathers of the colour of the belly, but the variegating lines are smaller; the claws are sharp, crooked and pointed, and of a dark brown colour. There was, says Edwards, another of this species brought with this, which was a little bigger, and differed something in colour, which he imagines was the female of this. These were natives of Hudson's Bay, where its native name is *Caparacock*. It preys on white partridges and other birds, and is so bold as to attend near the fowler with his gun, and will sometimes carry off a partridge after it is shot, before the sportsman can come up to it. Pennant, in his Arctic Zoology, says this species is common to North America, Denmark, and Sweden; it never hatches above two at a time, which for months after flight remain of a rusty-brown colour.

32. *Strix Uralensis*, or Ural owl.—Body whitish, with longitudinal brown spots in the middle of each feather. The bill is of a wax colour; the irids and eye-lids are black; orbits ash; the rump is white; the tail is long and wedged.—It inhabits the mountains of Ural, in Siberia, and is the size of a hen.

33. *Strix accipitrina*, or Caspian owl.—Body above yellowish beneath yellowish-white, both sides with longitudinal blackish streaks, belly dotted with black, irids citron. This inhabits near the Caspian sea; and is the size of the brown owl. Bill black; wings beneath and vent white; quill-feathers outside yellowish, within white tessellate with black; the tail is rounded, shorter than the wings, blackish barred with white, and whitish at the sides.

34. *Strix Javanica*.—Body cinereous, in a few places reddish, with black and white spots; beneath it is of a dirty white, mixed with reddish and black spots.

35. *Strix Nova Scelandia*, or New Zealand owl.—Irids yellow; body above brown, spotted with white; beneath it is twany. There is a variety of which the body is brown, the feathers edged with tawny; the tail is brown, with paler bars; orbits tawny.—It inhabits New Zealand: is eleven inches long; the bill is horny, with a black tip.

36. *Strix Cayennensis*, or Cayenne owl.—Body streaked with reddish, and transversely waved with brown: the irids are yellow.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is the size of the screech-owl. The bill is horny, claws black.

37. *Strix Dominicanensis*, or St. Domingo owl.—Body beneath rufous; breast a little spotted.—It inhabits St. Domingo; resembles the brown owl: bill larger, stronger, and more hooked.

38. *Strix tolchiquatli*, or New Spain owl.—Irids pale yellow; body above variegated with black, pale-yellow, white and tawny; beneath white. The bill, claws, and lower wing-coverts, black.—It inhabits New Spain.

39. *Strix chichictli*, or Mexican owl.—Body tawny, variegated with brown and black; the eyes are black, the eye-lids blue.—It inhabits New Spain, and is about the size of a hen.

40. *Strix Acadica*, or Acadian owl.—Body above bright bay, spotted with white; beneath dirty-white, mixed with rusty. The bill is brown, the irids yellow, crown, with pale spots; orbits cinereous; toes brown. It inhabits North America, and is seven inches long.

41. *Strix passerina*, or little owl.—Quill-feathers with five rows of white spots. There are two other varieties. 1. Larger; wings variegated with brown and yellow; the chin is white: the bird is twelve inches long.—This species is found in many parts of Europe, but is rare in England. It appears to vary not only in the cast of its plumage, but in the colour of its irids, which, in some specimens, are said to be of a darker colour than those in which the irids are yellow. The passerine owl frequents ruins, and is said to deposit its eggs in such situations more frequently than in trees.

STRIXTON, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 4 miles south-by-east of Wellingborough.

STROBILUS [*στροβίλος*, Gr.], in Botany and Vegetable Physiology, a name applied by the Greeks to the cone of a fir-tree, and adopted in the same sense by modern botanists, for every seed-vessel of the same structure and character. See BOTANY.

STROBULUS, among the Ancients, a kind of mitre, which rose to a height by many windings and turnings, and was used by the Barbarians; instead of which, the Romans wore the *apex*, which had a high but straight top.

STROEMIA [so denominated by the late Professor Vahl, in honour of the Rev. Hans Stroem, a clergyman at Eger, in Norway, author of some botanical and zoological treatises], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order capparides (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of four ovate, acute, deciduous leaves; the two outer ones concave; inner flat. Corolla: petals four, lanceolate, all turned to one side, wavy, with claws, the length of the calyx; sometimes wanting. Nectary of one-leaf, ligulate, lanceolate, ascending, inserted into the elongated receptacle towards its base; its tube slender, longer than the petals. Stamina: filaments five, sometimes but four, thread-shaped, unequal, inserted into the stalk of the germen, two in the middle, three below, longer than the nectary; anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germen on a stalk

stalk exceeding the length of the stamens, ascending, oblong; style none; stigma sessile, obtuse. Pericarp: berry coriaceous, stalked, cylindrical, of one cell and two revolute valves. Seeds numerous, kidney-shaped, compressed, smooth, imbricated in three rows, imbedded in pulp.—*Essential Character.* Petals four, or none. Nectary ligulate. Calyx of four leaves, deciduous. Berry coated, stalked.

1. *Stroemia farinosa*, or mealy stroemia.—Leaves oblong, mealy. Flowers with petals, and five stamens.—Native of Arabia.

2. *Stroemia tetrandra*, or tetrandrous stroemia.—Leaves elliptic-oblong, obtuse, with a small point, naked. Flowers with petals, and four stamens.—Native of the East Indies.

3. *Stroemia glandulosa*, or glandular stroemia.—Hairy and viscid. Leaves roundish. Flowers without petals.—Native of Arabia, where it is called *tammim*.

4. *Stroemia rotundifolia*, or round leaved stroemia.—Leaves orbicular, smooth. Flowers without petals.—Frequent about Loheia, in Arabia, and known by the name of *kadhah*.

STRO'KAL, *s.* An instrument used by glass-makers. *Bailey.*

STROKE, or STROOK. Old preterite of *strike*, now commonly *struck*.—He hoodwinked with kindness, least of all, men knew who *stroke* him. *Sidney.*

STROKE, *s.* A blow; a knock; a sudden act of one body upon another.

The oars were silver,
Which to the tune of flutes kept *stroke*, and made
The water which they beat to follow faster,
As amorous of their *strokes*. *Shakspeare.*

A hostile blow.
As cannons overcharg'd with double cracks,
So they redoubled *strokes* upon the foe. *Shakspeare.*

A sudden disease or affliction.
Take this purse, thou whom the heav'n's plagues
Have humbled to all *strokes*. *Shakspeare.*

The sound of the clock.
What is't o'clock? —
Upon the *stroke* of four. *Shakspeare.*

The touch of a pencil.
Oh, lasting as those colours may they shine!
Free as thy *stroke*, yet faultless as thy line. *Pope.*

A touch; a masterly or eminent effort.—The boldest *strokes* of poetry, when managed artfully, most delight the reader. *Dryden.*—An effect suddenly or unexpectedly produced; power; efficacy.—These having equal authority for instruction of the young prince, and well agreeing, bare equal *stroke* in divers faculties. *Hayward.*—Perfectly opacous bodies can but reflect the incident beams, those that are diaphanous refract them too, and that refraction has such a *stroke* in the production of colours, generated by the trajection of light through drops of water, that exhibit a rainbow through divers other transparent bodies. *Boyle.*—He has a great *stroke* with the reader when he condemns any of my poems, to make the world have a better opinion of them. *Dryden.*

To STROKE, *v. a.* [ʃʁpacan, Sax.] To rub gently with the hand by way of kindness or endearment; to soothe.

Come, let us practise death,
Stroke the grim lion till he grow familiar. *Dryden.*

To rub gently in one direction. See STROKING.
STROKER, *s.* One who rubs gently with the hand; one who attempts to cure diseases by such application of the hand to the part affected. Ben Jonson figuratively uses the word for a flatterer.—An eye-witness of several wonderful cures by the famous Irish *stroker*, Mr. Greatrix. *Thoresby.*

STROKERTOWN, a neat town of Ireland, in the county of Roscommon; 71 miles west of Dublin.

STRO'KING, *s.* The act of rubbing gently with the hand.—The manner of his cure in those imperfections is somewhat strange: he useth no bindings, but oils and *stroking*s. *Wotton.*—The act of rubbing gently in one direction.

The big-uddered cows with patience stand,
Waiting the *stroking*s of the damsel's hand. *Gay.*

To STROLL, *v. n.* [ʃʁpæʒian, Sax.; to *stray*. See To STRAGGLE.] To wander; to ramble; to rove; to gad idly.—These mothers *stroll* to beg sustenance for their helpless infants. *Swift.*

STROLL, *s.* Ramble: a low expression; as, upon the *stroll*.

STRO'LLER, *s.* A vagrant; a wanderer; a vagabond
Two brother-hermits, saints by trade,
Disguis'd in tatter'd habits, went
To a small village down in Kent;
Where, in the *strollers'* canting strain,
They begg'd from door to door in vain. *Swift.*

STROMA, an island of Scotland, a mile long, and a mile and a half broad, in the middle of the Pentland frith, between Caithness and Orkney, and belonging to the former. It is extremely fruitful in corn, but destitute of fuel. The inhabitants, amounting to 30 families, consisting of 170 souls, are remarkable for industry, sobriety, and simplicity of life. The sea, particularly in the winter months, is inconceivably tempestuous around the island, more especially when it beats against the high western shore. At this time the spray rises so thick and so high, as to run down in rills to the opposite side, where a reservoir is made to retain the water, which, with the rain that falls occasionally, serves to turn the cornmill of the island. In the caverns of this island were formerly seen several human bodies in a state of great preservation, though they had been dead upwards of 60 or 80 years. On the west side of the island are the ruins of an old castle; and on another part is seen the ruins of an ancient chapel; 3 miles north-west of Duncansby head. Lat. 58. 35. N. long. 2. 53. W.

STROMATEUS, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order apodes. The Generic Character is as follows: head compressed; teeth both in the jaws and palate; body oval, broad, slippery; tail forked.

1. *Stromateus fiatola*.—Body beautifully barred.—It inhabits the Mediterranean, and has two stomachs.

2. *Stromateus paru*.—The back is of a gold-colour; the belly is silvery.—This is chiefly found in South America and Tranquebar: it feeds on lesser fish and vermes; the body is slender, covered with small thin deciduous scales; the flesh is white, tender, and reckoned very delicious food. Its other and minor characteristics are, that it has a middle-sized head, sloping, above brownish; the eyes are large and the pupil black; the iris is marked with a white ring and another yellow one; the mouth is small; the jaws equal; teeth small and sharp; lips strong and moveable; tongue smooth, broad; aperture of the gills very large, the cover of one piece, and surrounded with a membrane; the lateral line nearer the back, broad, silvery; vent nearer the mouth than the tail; the fins are long, scaly, rigid, white at the base, and edged with blue; the rays are soft and branched.

3. *Stromateus cumara*.—Back blue; belly white.—It is found in the fresh waters of Chili; it is about a span long, and not crossed with stripes.

4. *Stromateus cinereus*, or ash-coloured stromateus with a forked tail; the lower lobe longer than the upper.—The body of this species is of a more rhomboid form than that of the others, and the fins are somewhat more extended or pointed; the tail is more deeply forked, the lower lobe considerably exceeds the upper in length; the colour of the whole animal is cinereous, with a cast of yellow on the sides of the head and the base of the fins and tail; the pectoral fins are tinged with red.—It is a native of the Indian seas, and grows to about the length of a foot or more, and is about two inches in thickness: it is considered as excellent food, but the largest specimens are the finest flavoured. The bones are said to be of a soft or nearly cartilaginous nature: the residents in India use this fish both in its fresh and salted state, prepared in various ways. The trivial name with them is *pampel*.

5. *Stromateus argenteus*, or silvery stromateus.—The lobes of

of the tail of this species are equal.—It is of the same general form with the preceding, but with rather shorter fins and tail, the lobes of the latter being both of equal length; the mouth is situated considerably beneath the muzzle, which is thick and round; the colour of the whole animal is bright-silver, with a blueish or dusky tinge on the back and fins; the scales are small, thin, and easily deciduous.—It is a native of the same seas with the preceding, and is in equal estimation as an article of food.

6. *Stromateus niger*, or black stromateus.—This species is entirely black. It is, however, very nearly allied to the former in shape, but the mouth is placed in the usual manner, the upper part of the muzzle not rising above it, as in that species; the colour of the whole animal is blackish, with a silvery cast about the breast and sides of the head; the scales are small, and the lateral line, as in others of the genus, is curved in the direction of the back.—It is a native of the Indian seas, and not regarded in much estimation as an article of food, on account of a popular prejudice entertained against it from its colour, as well as from its feeding on onisci, which are occasionally found in its mouth.

Dr. Shaw observes, that there is a considerable degree of general resemblance between the habits of the genus stromateus and that of chætodon; but as the species of the stromateus are destitute of ventral fins, they cannot be placed in the same artificial order, and must rank among the apodes. “The same is the case with some other genera which are naturally allied to fishes placed in very different orders. This forms the greatest objection to the Linnæan arrangement of fishes: it would, however, be difficult to prove that a more natural distribution would lead to a readier investigation of the animals.”

STROMAY, one of the smaller Hebrides, in the sound of Harris.

STROMBERG, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the government of Munster; 24 miles west-by-north of Paderborn.

STROMBOLI, the most northerly of the Lipari islands, in the Mediterranean. It belongs to Naples. Though small (only 10 miles in circumference), it produces very good wine. The climate, mild and pleasant in winter, is hot in summer, from the reflection of the rays of the sun from the strand. The inhabitants derive their subsistence partly from fishing, partly from the cultivation of wine and fruits. Stromboli has from time immemorial been remarkable for its volcanic eruptions, and is perhaps the only volcano whose fires are in a state of constant activity. Its mountain has two summits, one of great height, but the crater is on its side. The eruptions last for a few moments at a time, but recurring at short intervals, the flames are seen by night, at a great distance, and being of considerable service to navigators, have procured this island the name of the great lighthouse of the Mediterranean. The matter thrown out consists of lava, ashes and stones; and each eruption is attended with an explosive noise; 16 miles north-north-east of Lipari, and 34 north of Melazzo, in Sicily. Lat. 38. 58. N. long. 15. 55. E.

STROMBUS, in Natural History, a genus of the class vermes and order testacea. The Generic Character is, animal a limax; shell univalve, spiral; aperture much dilated; the lip expanding, and produced into a groove, leaning to the left. These shells in their younger state want the lip, and have a thin turbinate appearance; many of them therefore, for this reason, have been mistaken by authors, and referred to a genus to which they do not belong. There are about forty-five species, divided into separate sections, according as the species have lips projecting, lobed, dilated, or tapering.

I.—Lip projecting into linear divisions or claws.

1. *Strombus fusus*.—Shell tapering, smooth, with a subulate beak and toothed lip. It is found in the Red Sea; resembles a murex, in having the beak rather straight; nevertheless it approaches nearer the genus strombus, in being smooth, and having the lip toothed; the shell is brown, and

transversely striate at the base; the pillar is white; the beak is black outwardly.

2. *Strombus pes pelecani*, or corvorant's foot.—Lip with four palmate angular claws; the mouth is smooth.—It is found in the American and European seas; is about two inches long; the shell is pointed; in colour it is whitish, cinereous, or reddish; within it is white, smooth, and polished; the whorls are tuberculate.

3. *Strombus chiragra*.—Lip with six curved claws, and recurved beak. The shell is large, brown varied with white, the back tuberculate; lip striate; it has six claws, including the beak, which are long; the two hind-ones are divergent and bent outwards.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, and is very rare and valuable.

4. *Strombus scorpius*.—Lip with four knotty claws, the hinder one is very long.—It inhabits the Indian ocean, and is four inches long.

5. *Strombus lambis*.—Lip with about seven straightish claws, and a smooth mouth. There are four varieties of it. The shell is large, brown varied with white; the mouth is reddish; claws not knotty.—It is found chiefly in Asia.

6. *Strombus millepeda*.—Lip with ten inflected claws, and substrate mouth; the back is compressed and gibbous.—It inhabits the southern coasts of Asia.

7. *Strombus clavus*.—The shell of this species is tapering, smooth, with a subulate beak and a simple lip.

II.—Lobed.

8. *Strombus lentiginosus*.—Lip thickened, and three-lobed on the fore-part; the beak is warty, crowned with tubercles; the beak is obtuse. It is about three or four inches long and is found in Asia and America.

9. *Strombus fasciatus*.—Lip entire; the back is crowned with three rows of protuberances, and is rosy between them.—It is found in divers parts of Africa.

10. *Strombus rapinus*.—Lip thin, rugged, repand above; back orange, transversely striate, and crowned with tubercles; the aperture is polished and white.

11. *Strombus gallus*.—Lip mucronate on the fore-part, and very long; the back is crowned with tubercles; the beak is straight. It is about six inches long. The shell is sometimes uniformly brown, yellow, or violet; sometimes it is varied with spots and rays; the back is surrounded with smooth ribs, which are sometimes simple, sometimes double; the first whorl is crowned with tubercles, which in the other whorls are more or less conspicuous.—It inhabits Asia and America.

12. *Strombus auris dianæ*.—Lip projecting to a sharp point; the back is muricate; the beak erect and acute. The shell is thick, and generally varied with colours.—It inhabits the southern coasts of Asia, and is three inches long.

13. *Strombus pugilis*.—Anterior lip prominent, rounded, smooth; the spire is spinous; beak three-lobed, obtuse.—It inhabits South America.

14. *Strombus alatus*.—Anterior lip rounded, prominent, smooth; spire unarmed; beak three-lobed and obtuse.

15. *Strombus marginatus*.—Lip a little prominent; the back margined, smooth; beak entire.

16. *Strombus luhuanus*.—Lip a little prominent; back smooth; whorls rounded and equal.—This species is found on the southern coasts of Asia, and is about two inches and a half long.

17. *Strombus gibberulus*.—Lip a little prominent; back smooth; whorls gibbous, unequal. The shell is white, with numerous bands, spots, and clouds; the lip is striate within, and with the pillar it is partly blue and partly red.—It is found on the southern shores of Asia.

18. *Strombus oniscus*.—Shell obovate, with knotty belts, and a subulate smooth projection.—This species is found in the South American ocean; and is about an inch long.

III.—Dilated.

19. *Strombus lucifer*.—Lip rounded and entire on the fore-part; the belly is doubly striate; spire crowned with tubercles; the upper ones minute. The shell is variegated, resembling

bling the next; but is thinner, and, armed with much less spines. It is thought to be a younger species of *strombus gigas*.

20. *Strombus gigas*.—Lip rounded, and very large; the shell is crowned; the belly and spire have conic expanded spines. The shell is of a beautiful glossy white; within it is of a rich rose-colour.—It is found in divers parts of South America; and is ten inches long and nine broad.

21. *Strombus latissimus*.—Lip rounded and very large; the belly is unarmed; the spire a little knotty. The shell is solid, fourteen inches long, varied with brown and white, sometimes radiate; the lip within is white; the mouth rosy.—It inhabits Asia.

22. *Strombus epidromis*.—Lip rounded, short; belly smooth; spire a little knotty.—It inhabits southern Asia; and is about three inches long.

23. *Strombus minimus*.—Lip retuse, gibbous; belly and spire knotty, with knotty plaits; aperture two-lipped, smooth.—Inhabits India; and is about an inch and a half long.

24. *Strombus canarium*.—Shell somewhat heart-shaped, with a rounded, retuse, smooth lip; pillars smooth.—It inhabits the southern coasts of Asia.

25. *Strombus vittatus*.—Lip rounded, short; belly smooth; spire elongated; the whorls are divided by an elevated suture. The shell is whitish, with brown bands.—It inhabits Asia; and is about four inches long.

26. *Strombus succinctus*.—Lip rounded, retuse; belly smooth, with four pale, linear, punctured belts.—It inhabits different parts of Asia.

27. *Strombus spinosus*.—Lip tapering, entire, slightly plaited, and crowned with fine spines; the spire is prickly.—It has been found hitherto only in a fossile state, and very much resembles the *Voluta vespertilio*, but is not emarginate at the base; and the pillar is not always plaited; the shell is whitish, with numerous parallel lines, above angular, and crowned with very sharp spines.

28. *Strombus fissurella*.—Lip continued into a longitudinal cleft ridge.—It inhabits India, and is found frequently in a fossile state in Campania.

29. *Strombus urceus*.—Lip tapering, short, striate; the belly and spire have knotty plaits; aperture two-slipped, unarmed. There are several varieties of this species.—It is chiefly found in the Indian ocean, is two inches and a half long; and varies much in colours and marks.

30. *Strombus tridentatus*.—The shell of this species is thin, white, with orange spots and clouds; the back is smooth and plaited; the beak is violet; the whorls are grooved; the lip is three-toothed.—It inhabits the Indian ocean.

31. *Strombus dentatus*.—Lip tapering, short, toothed; belly and spire plaited. This is very like the *strombus urceus*.

32. *Strombus costatus*.—Lip very thick, first whorl crowned with tubercles, the interstices of the tubercles plaited; the next transversely ribbed, the rest transversely striate.

33. *Strombus bryonia*.—Shell conic, with a mucronate eight-toothed lip and knotty spire. It is about seven inches long; extremely rare. Shell brown, varied with white and blueish clouds. Some authors suspect it is not of this division.

34. *Strombus affinis*.—Shell transversely striate, gibbous; spire unarmed; the first whorl crowned with tubercles.

35. *Strombus latus*.—The lip of this species is a little prominent, and twice emarginate beneath; the first whorl of the spire is smooth in the middle, and transversely striate on each side; the others are crowned with obtuse knots.

36. *Strombus lævis*.—Shell smooth, silvery, radiate with brown, with obsolete, transverse plaits; the spire is elongated, with inflated rounded whorls.

37. *Strombus vexillum*.—Shell solid and subcylindrical, with alternate, reddish, and ochraceous bands; lip denticulate within; pillar flat, glabrous, and emarginate at the base.—It is found in the Indian ocean, and is extremely rare.

38. *Strombus Norwegicus*.—Shell oblong, subulate, white with round wheals; aperture spreading, ovate; beak ascending a little.—This is obtained on the coasts of Norway.

IV.—Tapering, with a very long spire

39. *Strombus tuberculatus*.—Shell ovate, oblong, tuberculate; lip thickened. The shell is coarse; the whorls covered with rows of raised horny dots; lip gibbous; aperture ovate; the beak is very short and recurved.—It inhabits the Mediterranean.

40. *Strombus palustris*.—Shell smoothish; lip separated behind. The shell is thick, and yellow or brown, with from twelve to sixteen whorls; the first twice as large as the next; the rest longitudinally plaited, and with from three to five transverse striæ.—It inhabits the Savannas near the Indian ocean.

41. *Strombus ater*.—Shell smooth, lip separated before and behind. It is of a black-brown or bay, within white, very finely striate transversely; aperture ovate; spire subulate, with twelve flatish contiguous whorls.—It is found in the fens of Amboyna, and is more than two feet long.

42. *Strombus lineatus*.—Shell subulate, brown, with seven spiral impressed lines; the aperture is ovate.

43. *Strombus punctatus*.—Shell subulate, yellowish-white, band striate with red near the suture; the lesser whorls grooved.

44. *Strombus vibex*.—Shell subulate, cinereous, transversely striate; whorls nodulous, and marked with red streaks.—It inhabits Coromandel; and a variety is found in the Friendly Islands.

45. *Strombus auritus*.—Shell barred with brown; whorls muricate; aperture ovate.—It is found in different parts of Africa; is an inch and a half long.

46. *Strombus aculeatus*.—Shell brown, tuberculate; whorls minute; lip depressed, crenulate. A variety of this species is named the Hercules club.—This species inhabits the marshes of Africa, and is nearly two inches long.

47. *Strombus agnatus*.—Shell smooth; the lip very prominent, and emarginate behind.

48. *Strombus dealbatus*.—Shell with transversely, striate, black whorls; the outer ones smooth, and with the margin of the lip and pillar white.

49. *Strombus fuscus*.—The shell of this species is brown, with numerous tubercles on the whorls; the lip is separated before and behind, within it is striate with brown.

50. *Strombus marginatus*.—Shell brown; the lowest whorl is edged with white.

51. *Strombus lividus*.—Shell subangular, with spinous knots; the lip is separated on the fore part.

52. *Strombus striatus*.—Shell convex, striate, white, with a few fulvous streaks; the pillar is sinuated and inflected.

53. *Strombus sinister*.—Whorls turned contrary; the shell is thin, and longitudinally striate.—It has hitherto been found only in a fossile state in Switzerland.

STROMIO, or SPIRAZZA, a small river of the Morea, which falls into the gulf of Coron; 9 miles from Calamata.

STROMNESS, a town of Scotland, at the south-west end of the island of Pomona, on a bay of the same name, opposite to the north extremity of Hoy. It has a safe and commodious harbour. The entrance into it from the south is by a passage a quarter of a mile in breadth, which gradually expands as it advances inwards, to about a mile in breadth. It has a firm clay bottom, with a sufficient depth of water for vessels of 1000 tons burden, and is sheltered from all winds. On the west side is a sandbank, which is not dangerous; and two rocks on the east side point out the entrance. The bay is not above a mile long, and half a mile broad, but is one of the safest harbours in the northern parts of the kingdom. Very large vessels usually anchor in Cairston road, on the outside of the small islands; but there the tide is stronger, and the waves, especially with a south wind, very impetuous. It is regularly visited by the ships of the Hudson Bay Company, who have an agent constantly residing here. Numbers of young men enter into their service; it is said three-fourths of their servants are natives of Orkney. Many vessels bound for the Greenland and Davis' Straits whale fisheries also put in here, and frequently complete their crews from among the young Orcadian sailors. The town of Stromness, in the beginning

of the last century, was small, and much hampered in its commerce by the neighbouring royal burgh of Kirkwall; which, acting upon an act of parliament of William and Mary, that denies the benefit of trade to all other places except royal burghs, exacted from the town of Stromness a share of the cess or burdens to which Kirkwall was liable. The town of Stromness refused to pay the exaction, and was nearly ruined by the expenses of the process before the court of session and the house of lords; but in the year 1758, it was finally settled in favour of Stromness; and, since that time, its trade and commerce have greatly increased. There are vestiges of lead ore near the village; and hematitic iron ore is not uncommon. About a mile from Stromness is situated a very ancient circle of huge rude columns, called *The Standing Stones of Stennes*; which may be considered as constituting the Stonehenge of Orkney. Lat. 58. 51. N. long. 3. 9. W.

STROMMOE, the largest of the Faroe islands, in the North sea, belonging to Denmark. It is situated in the centre of the groupe, and is about 30 miles in length, and 6 in breadth. It is deeply indented by bays and creeks, some of which form good harbours, particularly that of Westman-shan, which is fit for the reception of vessels of any size. The coast presents a series of the most majestic, and in many places sublime scenery, the rocks rising in bold cliffs, almost perpendicular to the water, and forming in many places detached columns of great height. They are often hollowed so as to form immense caverns; and in some cases they are completely perforated, and afford a passage for boats. In the interior is the highest mountain of the Faroe islands, called Skieling Field, which rises to a perpendicular height of 3000 feet. The population of this and the neighbouring island of Nalsoe, is about 1600. They subsist, as in the other Faroe isles, by fishing, cultivating a little corn, and rearing cattle, but depend on Denmark for annual supplies. In 1812, the number of horned cattle was 600, of sheep 9000, and of fishing boats 150. The chief town is Thorhaven, a small place with 500 inhabitants.

STROMSTADT, a small town in the south-west of Sweden, in West Gothland, celebrated for its shell-fish, particularly lobsters. It lies in a hilly district, contains 1100 inhabitants, and has a good harbour; 43 miles north-north-west of Uddevalla. Lat. 58. 55. 30. N. long. 11. 12. E.

STROMZA, a small town of Greece in Macedon, situated on an eminence; 48 miles north of Salonica.

STROND, *s.* The beach; the bank of the water: *Obsolete.*

So looks the *strond*, whereon the imperious flood
Hath left a witness'd usurpation. *Shakspeare.*

STRONG, *adj.* [ʃtrɒŋ, ʃtrɒŋz, ʃtrɒŋz, Saxon; "Strangr, Icel.; strenuus, rapidus, intensus; streng, Sueth. asper; strong, rigidus: consent. linguis cognatis omnibus." *Serenius.*] Vigorous; forceful; of great ability of body.

The *strong-wing'd* Mercury should fetch thee up,
And set thee by Jove's side. *Shakspeare.*

Fortified; secure from attack.

Within Troy's *strong* immures

The ravish'd Helen with wanton Paris sleeps. *Shakspeare.*

Powerful; mighty.—The merchant-adventurers being a *strong* company, and well underset with rich men and good order, held out bravely. *Bacon.*—Supplied with forces. It has in this sense a very particular construction. We say, a thousand *strong*; as we say, twenty years old, or ten yards long.

When he was not six-and-twenty *strong*,
Sick in the world's regard, wretched and low,
My father gave him welcome to the shore. *Shakspeare.*

Violent; forcible; impetuous.

But her own kings she likens to his Thames,
Serene yet *strong*, majestic yet sedate,
Swift without violence, without terror great. *Prior.*

Hale; healthy.—Better is the poor, being sound and *strong* in constitution, than a rich man afflicted in his body. *Eclus.*—Forcibly acting on the imagination.—This is one of the *strongest* examples of a personation that ever was. *Bacon.*—Ardent; eager; positive; zealous.

Her mother, ever *strong* against that match,
And firm for doctor Caius, hath appointed,
That he shall shuffle her away. *Shakspeare.*

Full; having any quality in a great degree; affecting the sight forcibly.—By mixing such powders, we are not to expect a *strong* and full white, such as is that of paper; but some dusky obscure one, such as might arise from a mixture of light and darkness, or from white and black, that is, a grey or dun, or russet brown. *Newton.*—Potent; intoxicating.—Get *strong* beer to rub your horses' heels. *Swift.*—Having a deep tincture; affecting the taste forcibly.—Many of their propositions savour very *strong* of the old leaven of innovations. *King Charles.*—Affecting the smell powerfully.—Add with Cecropian thyme *strong*-scented centaury. *Dryden.*—Hard of digestion; not easily nutrimental.—*Strong* meat belongeth to them that are of full age. *Hebrews.*—Furnished with abilities for any thing.—I was *stronger* in prophecy than in criticism. *Dryden.*—Valid; confirmed.—In process of time, an ungodly custom grown *strong*, was kept as a law. *Wisdom.*—Violent; vehement.—In the days of his flesh he offered up prayers, with *strong* crying and tears. *Heb.*—The Scriptures make deep and *strong* impressions on the minds of men: and whosoever denies this, as he is in point of religion atheistical, so is he in understanding brutish. *J. Corbet.*—Cogent; conclusive.

Messengers

Of *strong* prevailment in unharden'd youth. *Shakspeare.*

Able; skilful; of great force of mind.

There is no English soul

More *stronger* to direct you than yourself,
If with the sap of reason you would quench,
Or but allay the fire of passion. *Shakspeare.*

Firm; compact; not soon broken.

Full on his ankle fell the ponderous stone,
Burst the *strong* nerves, and crash'd the solid bone. *Pope.*

Forcibly written; comprising much meaning in few words.

Like her sweet voice is thy harmonious song,
As high, as sweet, as easy, and as *strong*. *Smith.*

STRONG, formerly REEDSTOWN, a township of the United States, in Somerset county, Maine; 308 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 424.

STRONG TIDE PASSAGE, a passage between Townshend island and the coast of New Holland, in which the tide runs at the rate of 4½ miles per hour.

STRONG SALINE, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which enters the Arkansas.

STRONGBOW INDIANS, Indians of North America, about Lat. 62. N. long. 124. W.

STRONGFISTED, *adj.* Stronghanded.—John, who was pretty *strongfisted*, gave him such a squeeze as made his eyes water. *Arbuthnot.*

STRONGHAND, *s.* Force; violence.—When their captain dieth, if the seniory should descend to his child, and he an infant, another would thrust him out by *stronghand* being then unable to defend his right. *Spencer.*

STRONGILO, a small island, or rather rock, near the coast of Asia Minor; 6 miles south-west of Paros.

STRONGLY, *adv.* [ʃtrɒŋlɪce, Sax.] With strength; powerfully; forcibly.

The dazzling light

Had flash'd too *strongly* on his aking sight. *Addison.*

With strength; with firmness; in such a manner as to last; in such a manner as not easily to be forced.—Great Dunsinane he *strongly* fortifies. *Shakspeare.*—Vehemently; forcibly; eagerly.—All these accuse him *strongly*. *Shakspeare.*

STRONGOLI,

STRONGOLI, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, with 1900 inhabitants. It is a place of great antiquity, for tradition declared it to have been built by Philoctetes, after his return from the Trojan war; 16 miles south-south-east of Cariati Vecchia, and 47 east of Cosenza. Lat. 39. 15. N. long. 17. 17. E.

STRONGSET, *adj.* Firmly compacted.—As to his person, he is described to be of middle stature; his body *strong-set* and fleshy. *Swift*.

STRONGWATER, *s.* Distilled spirits.—Metals receive in readily *strongwaters*; and *strongwaters* do readily pierce into metals and stones: and some will touch upon gold, that will not touch upon silver. *Bacon*.

STRONGYLE, a mountain in the northern side of the island of Candia.

STRONGYLUS, a genus of the class and order vermes intestina. The Generic Character is as follows: Body round, long, pellucid, glabrous; the fore-part is globular, truncate, with a circular aperture fringed at the margin; the hind-part of the female entire and pointed; in the male, it is dilated into loose, distant, pellucid membranes. There are only two species:—

1. *Strongylus equinus*.—Head opaque; the intestine is black. The male worm is of a pale yellow, with a fine yellowish membrane covering the intestines; the tail is three-leaved, with a small spine or two: the female with white filiform vesicles surrounding the intestines.—It is found in the stomach of the horse in great numbers.

2. *Strongylus ovinus*.—This, as its name imports, is found in the intestines of sheep.

STRONSAY, one of the Orkney islands, on the coast of Scotland. It is $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, by nearly as much in breadth, of a very irregular figure, deeply indented by the sea, and cut almost into three distinct islets. The coast is partly flat and partly rocky, having two remarkable promontories, Burrow-head on the south-east, and Rothiesholm or Rousom-head on the south-west. There are three sandy bays, which do not afford safe anchorage, on account of the low sunk rocks with which they are interspersed. These rocks, however, are the chief source of emolument to the inhabitants, from the immense quantity of sea-ware which they afford for the making of kelp: the island, on an average, produces 300 tons per annum. There are two safe harbours, viz., Ling bay on the west side of the island, sheltered by the holm of Ling, and Papa sound, lying between Stronsay and Papa Stronsay. The surface of the island is rugged, a ridge of low hills running its whole length from north to south. The soil is a dry friable blackish earth lying on a clay bottom, mixed with small stones, which in many places have been turned up by the plough, and render the soil very gravelly. Traces of lead-ore were discovered many years ago on the west coast of the island; but the whole island consists of secondary rocks, unfavourable to the expectation of any workable vein. There is a chalybeate spring called the well of Kildinguie, which was in so high repute while the Orkneys were subject to Denmark, that persons of the first rank in that kingdom used to come over to drink its waters. There are the remains of four chapels on the island. It was in Stronsay, in the summer of 1722, that kelp was first manufactured in Orkney; and in the autumn of that year, Mr. James Fea, a landholder in this island, sailed for Newcastle with the first cargo of that article, which now brings into Orkney several thousand pounds sterling a-year.

STRONSAY AND EDAY, a parish in Orkney, comprehending the islands of Stronsay, Eday, Papa Stronsay, Fairay, and nine holms or pasture isles. Population of the parish in 1801, 1642; in 1811, 1444.

STRONTIAN, or **STRONTIANITE** [*Strontiane carbonatée* of Haüy], a mineral composed of a peculiar earth combined with carbonic acid. See **MINERALOGY**.

STRONTIAN, a place of Scotland, in Argyleshire, in the parish of Ardnamurchan, noted for its lead mines. There is a small village erected for the accommodation of the miners. The mines of this place are famous for having given to the

world a new species of earth, which is distinguished by the name of *strontian*. The characters of this mineral are these: its colour is whitish or light green, its lustre common, its transparency intermediate between semi-transparent and opaque, its fracture striated, presenting oblong distinct concretions, somewhat uneven and bent; its hardness moderate, being easily scratched, but not scraped; it is very brittle, and its specific gravity is from 3.4 to 3.644. Independent of tinging flame of a blood red colour, it is found to disagree with barytes in its order of chemical attraction, holding an intermediate rank betwixt barytes and lime. An hundred parts of strontites are composed of 60.21 of pure earth, 30.29 of carbonic acid gas, and 8.59 of water. It was first discovered in 1720, and analyzed by Dr. Kirwan and Dr. T. C. Hope, of Edinburgh; 30 miles south-west of Fort William.

STROOK. The proterite of *strike*, used in poetry for *strok*. *Dr. Johnson*.—And also in prose.—The Lord *strook* the child that Uriah's wife bare unto David. 2 *Samuel*.

STROOM ROCK, a rocky islet in the strait of Sunda. Lat. 5. 51. S. long 105. 50. E.

STROP, *s.* [τρωπ, Sax.; *strop*, Teut.; *strupus*, Lat.] A piece of rope spliced into a circular wreath, and used to surround the body of a block, or for other purposes on board a ship. A leather on which a razor is sharpened.

STROPHADÆ. See **STRIVALI**.

STROPHANTHUS [compounded of στρεφω, Gr. from στρεφω, to twist, and ανθος, a flower, alluding to the twisted segments of its corolla], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order contortæ, apocinæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Perianth inferior, of one-leaf, in five deep, ovate-oblong, acute segments. Corolla of one-petal, funnel-shaped; crowned in the throat with ten undivided scales; limb in five segments, each terminating in a very long, taper, more or less contorted, point. Nectary of five scales below the germen. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, short, inserted into the middle of the tube; anthers erect, converging, arrow-shaped, pointed or awned. Pistil: germen of two lobes; style simple, thread-shaped, dilated upwards; stigma nearly cylindrical.—*Essential Character*. Corolla funnel-shaped, with ten undivided scales in the tube; segments of the limb with very long tails. Nectary of five scales below the germen.

1. *Strophanthus sarmentosus*.—Smooth, trailing. Flowers aggregate, terminal and lateral, accompanying the leaves. Corolla nearly bell-shaped. Anthers with elongated capillary points.—Gathered at Sierra Leone.

2. *Strophanthus laurifolius*.—Smooth. Leaves opposite or ternate. Flowers aggregate, terminal, coming after the leaves. Anthers with elongated capillary points.—Found at Sierra Leone.

3. *Strophanthus dichotomus*, the **ECHITES CAUDATA**, of Linnæus; which see.

4. *Strophanthus hispidus*.—Very bristly. Tube of the corolla cylindrical, half as long as the calyx. Anthers acute, without points.—Gathered by Mr. Smeathman at Sierra Leone.

STROPHE, *s.* [*strophe*, Fr.; στροφή, Gr.] A stanza.—The measure of verse used in the chorus is of all sorts, without regard had to *strophe*, antistrophe, or epode, which were a kind of stanzas framed only for the music. *Milton*.

STROPHIARIUS, among the Romans, a person who prepared and made the strophia. See **STROPHIUM**.

STROPHIUM, among the Romans, a short swarth or band, by which the young women kept down the swelling of their breasts.

STROPHIUM was likewise a bandage for the head, made of two or three garlands of flowers tied together.

STROPHULUS, in Medicine. See **PATHOLOGY**.

STROPPE, or **STROBECK**, a village of the Prussian states, in the principality of Halberstadt, with 600 inhabitants.

STROPPEF, a small town of Prussian Silesia; 20 miles north-north-west of Breslau.

STROPIANA,

STROPPIANA, a small town of the Sardinian states, in the Piedmontese province of Vercelli, with 1900 inhabitants.

STROPPUS, among the Romans, the thong with which the oars were tied to the scalmus.

STROUD, a market town of England, in the county of Gloucester, situated on the ridge of a declivity, near the confluence of the river Frome and the Slade-water. The latter, also called the Stroud-water, has a very clear stream, and is particularly celebrated for its properties in the dyeing of broad cloth, scarlet, and other grain colours. On this account an extensive clothing trade has been established here, of which the town Stroud may be regarded as the centre; all the surrounding valleys exhibiting a continued range of houses or villages, inhabited by persons engaged in this manufacture. The clothiers occupy the banks of the river for nearly 20 miles together: they have erected many fulling mills on it, and some of them are supposed to make 3000 cloths a-year. The Stroud-water canal has been of great advantage to this trade. It accompanies the course of the river to the Severn, into which it falls about five miles below Gloucester. This canal is extended, in another direction, so as to join the Thames at Lechlade. The scenery of this district is very beautiful, though the steepness and irregularity of the ground render the roads fatiguing to the traveller. At the time of the Domesday Survey, the manor of Stroud appears to have been comprehended in the adjoining parish of Bisley. The church, dedicated to St. Lawrence, has been erected and repaired at different periods. It consists of a nave, chancel, and side aisles, with a tower and spire at the west end. Here are also commodious chapels for the Independents and Wesleyan Methodists. An endowed free school, and several charity schools, supported by subscription, have been established in the town. Stroud was the birth-place of John Canton, an ingenious philosopher and mathematician of the last century. In 1811, the town and parish contained 1184 houses, and 5321 inhabitants. Market on Friday, and two annual fairs; 11 miles south-east of Gloucester, and 103 west-by-north of London. Lat. 51. 44. N. long. 2. 12. W.

STROUD, a village and parish of England, in the county of Kent, situated on the river Medway, which separates it from Rochester, and over which it has a stone bridge of 11 arches. The church is a handsome building, consisting of a nave and two aisles, 100 feet in length. In the south aisle is a stone chapel, the pavement of which contains several specimens of Mosaic work. The remains of an ancient mansion-house of the knights templars is still discernible in a farm-house on the banks of the river, now called the Temple house; 28½ miles east of London.

STROUD'S BAY, a bay on the north-west coast of Barbadoes; 4 miles north of Speightstown.

STROUDEND, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Painswick, Gloucestershire.

STROUDSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania.

STROVE. The preterite of *strive*.—Having quite lost the way of nobleness, he *strove* to climb to the height of terrible-ness. *Sidney*.

SROVISI, or **VERDOGNA**, a small town of Greece, in the south-east of the Morea, in the province of Zaconia.

To STROUT, *v. n.* [*strotzen*, German.] To swell with an appearance of greatness; to walk with affected dignity; to strut. This is commonly written *strut*, which seems more proper. To protuberate; to swell out.

The daintie clover grows, of grass the only silke,
That makes each udder *strout* abundantly with milke.

Drayton.

To STROUT, *v. a.* To swell out; to puff out; to enlarge by affectation.—I will make a brief list of the particulars in an historical truth in nowise *strouted*, nor made greater by language. *Bacon*.

To STROW, *v. a.* [See **To STREW**.] To spread by being scattered.

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Angel forms lay entranc'd,
Thick as autumnal leaves that *strow* the brooks
In Vallombrosa. *Milton*.

To spread by scattering; to besprinkle.

Come, shepherds come, and *strow* with leaves the plain;
Such funeral rites your Daphnis did ordain. *Dryden*.

To spread.—There have been three years' dearth of corn,
and every place *strow'd* with beggars. *Swift*.—To scatter;
to throw at random.—But little need to *strow* my store.
Spenser.

The tree in storms

The glad earth about her *strows*,
With treasure from her yielding boughs. *Waller*.

STROW, a petty village in Bohemia, not far from the town of Sanz, remarkable for nothing but the partial sinking of the mountain on which it stands, on 21st March, 1820. The removal was gradual, and no lives were lost; but the walls of every house in the village gave way during, this singular convulsion.

STROWAN, a parish of Scotland, in Perthshire, united to Blair-Athol.—Also a parish of Perthshire, united to Monivaird.

STROWAY, a small river of England, in Monmouthshire, which falls into the Ebwith, at Kirton.

To STROWL, *v. n.* To range; to wander. [See **To STROLL**.] 'Tis she who nightly *strowls* with saunt'ring pace. *Gay*.

STROXTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles south-south-west of Grantham.

To STROY, *v. a.* [For *destroy*.] Dig garden, *stroy* mallow, now may you at ease. *Tusser*.

STROZZI (Tito Vespasiano), a Latin poet of the 15th century, belonging to the famous Florentine family of that name. He was one of four sons, whose father caused them to be well instructed in public literature. Tito studied in poetry and eloquence under Guarino, at Verona. He married in 1470, and was made a cavalier by duke Borso. He sustained some considerable offices at Ferrara, and was employed as the ambassador of duke Hercules at the papal and other courts. His death is said to have occurred in 1505. He wrote many Latin poems, amorous, serious, and satirical; and having planned a long poem in praise of duke Borso, he wrote ten books, but did not live to finish it. Aldus printed a collection of his productions, but many more were left in MS. As an author he displayed a degree of facility and elegance, which was not common so soon after the revival of literature.

STRUBBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles north-by-west of Alford.

STRUCK. The old preterite and participle passive of *strike*.

This message bear: the Trojans and their chief

Bring holy peace, and beg the king's relief;

Struck with so great a name, and all on fire,

The youth replies; whatever you require. *Dryden*.

STRU'CKEN. The old participle passive of *strike*.

Down fell the duke, his joints dissolv'd asunder,

Blind with the light, and *strucken* dead with wonder.

Fairfax.

STRU'CTURE, *s.* [*structure*, Fr., *structura*, from *structus*, Latin.] Act of building; practice of building.

His son builds on, and never is content,

Till the last farthing is in *structure* spent. *Dryden*.

Manner of building; form; make.—Several have gone about to inform them, but for want of insight into the *structure* and constitution of the terraqueous globe, have not given satisfaction. *Woodward*.—Edifice; building.—High on a rock of ice the *structure* lay. *Pope*.

STRUDE, or **STRODE**, *s.* A stock of breeding mares.

Bailey.

STRUENSEE (John Frederic), was the son of a clergyman of Halle, in Saxony, and born at Halle in 1737. At

an early age he manifested very promising talents, and devoted himself to the study of medicine; and having taken his degree of doctor in 1757, he removed to Altona; and there obtained extensive medical practice. Besides the acquaintance he formed with two persons, viz., count Von Ranzau Aschberg, and count Brandt, connected with his subsequent fate, he acquired also, in the course of his practice, the friendship of the widow of the chief marshal of the court of Denmark; and thus was honoured with an appointment, in 1768, to be one of the physicians of the king, whom he accompanied in his tour to Germany, France, and England. Soon after the marriage of Christian VII. with Matilda, the English princess, an open rupture succeeded a coldness that was observed to subsist between this prince and the queen. The queen-dowager availed herself of this circumstance, with a view of recovering her lost influence. The misunderstanding between the two queens was increased on the birth of the crown-prince; nor did the king's tour contribute to lessen his indifference towards his consort. On his return, the discount was manifested more openly and decisively; and divided the nation into two parties. The most numerous party was supported by the minister and the principal officers of state; and at the head of it was count Holk, the king's favourite. The queen-dowager had her partizans at Friedensburg; and some young persons, who had neither influence nor property, took part with Matilda, and entertained hopes that, on account of her youth, beauty, and engaging manners, a reconciliation might be effected between her and the king. The young queen, however, well knowing that these friends had no experience in court-intrigues, formed her own plan; and determined to make every possible effort for depriving count Holk of the royal favour, and thus of regaining the confidence of the king. Holk, for his own security, endeavoured to widen the breach between the royal pair; and conceiving that Struensee hated the queen as much as he himself did, he persuaded his royal master to take Struensee with him, whenever he visited the queen. But, contrary to Holk's expectations, the king became attached to Struensee; and the queen, remarking this change, became gradually familiarized to his company; and her aversion to him was succeeded by an admiration of his talents, his wit, and his extensive knowledge. The crown-prince being at this time inoculated for the small-pox, under the superintendance of Struensee, the queen informed him, that, in recompence of his services, he should be intrusted with the prince's education. Struensee having succeeded in the operation, was made a counsellor of conference, with a salary of 1500 dollars, and appointed reader to the king and queen. This new favourite succeeded in his endeavours for producing a complete reconciliation between the king and his royal consort; which was followed by an indifference, on the part of the former, towards Holk. Bernstorff, the minister, became jealous of Struensee, and attempted, though unsuccessfully, to undermine the confidence reposed in him by the king and queen. Soon after, the court made a tour to Schleswic; and the heads of the different parties composed the royal suite. The queen behaved to both parties in the same courteous manner. Brandt succeeded Holk in the king's favour and confidence; but Bernstorff, though mortified by the loss of his influence over the king, declined making a voluntary resignation. His fate, however, was soon determined, and intimation was given him that his services were no longer necessary. The remaining members of government were dismissed, and the administration was formed by the friends of the queen and of Struensee. During these events, the queen-dowager remained at Friedensburg, watching their progress, and condoling with the discarded ministers. The queen at length obtained a complete triumph. The king behaved to her with the affectionate tenderness which her amiable qualities deserved; and Struensee possessed her confidence, and employed all possible means to retain it. The king, naturally of a weak mind, was secluded from society by Struensee; and Brandt was commissioned to keep him

constantly occupied with amusements. The king was gratified by this mode of life; the influence of Struensee was augmented; and he at length accomplished his main object, which was that of preventing his majesty from personally transacting any business with his ministers. In process of time, or towards the close of the year 1770, Struensee, in order to retain his power more securely, prevailed on the queen to commit to his management the whole business of the cabinet. In consequence of this measure, the whole form of the government was new-modelled; and public business was transacted in the king's name, by those immediately around him. But Struensee's paramount power was of no long duration. His boldness, approaching to the highest degree of insolence, degenerated into timidity, when any of his measures were opposed; and though he conducted foreign affairs according to the principles of sound policy, his internal administration, perverted by avarice or ambition, did not answer the purpose intended. The various measures which he projected for the improvement of the government and country, and which our limits will not allow us to detail, excited dissatisfaction amongst persons of every rank. Struensee, however, was indefatigable in the complicated duties of his office, and sedulously attentive to the education of the crown-prince. Two of his brothers were advanced to stations of importance; one in the new college of finance, and the other in the department of war. Brandt, Berger the physician, and other confidential persons, remained constantly near the king's person, nor were any others, suspected to be adverse to the existing order of things, permitted to have any intercourse with him; so that his indifference to public business gradually increased, and his capacity for conducting it diminished. In July 1771, the queen was delivered of a princess; and as she knew the surmises, originating at Friedensburg, that were circulated on this occasion, she was not unapprehensive that they might serve as pretences to wrest from her the power which she had acquired. She was unfortunately dependent on Struensee, who, by the abuse of his power, had become an object of detestation. Not content with being inrolled in the list of the Swedish nobility, and being created Count, he invented a new title, or that of private counsellor of the cabinet, and with this he acquired a degree of power which had never been enjoyed before by any minister of Denmark. In fact, it was this ambitious minister's aim to annihilate the royal authority; and in the circumstances then existing, and under the protection of the queen, if he had conducted himself with more prudence, he would have defeated the machinations of those who were meditating his ruin. His friends, probably foreseeing his fall, became cool and indifferent; and the people in general, while they despised his power, execrated his name. A spirit of discontent pervaded all ranks; the sailors and the soldiers complained of his conduct; and the populace joined the malcontents in their opposition and murmurs. The dissatisfaction and tumult that prevailed increased Struensee's timidity: his measures were indecisive, and his situation became every day more dangerous. The British minister, actuated by a respect for the young queen, endeavoured to hasten his removal from power, and he himself wished for a release. Accordingly, he offered him a sum of money to enable him to quit the country. The queen, apprehending that her enemies would get the king into their hands, and obtain possession of all the royal power, opposed this measure. A crisis, however, was approaching; and Struensee could no longer resist or controul the counsels and operations of those who were hastening his downfall. Notwithstanding the measures which he adopted for insuring his own personal safety, and which were interpreted by the people into a kind of avowal of his political misconduct, every thing conspired, not only to accelerate his own ruin, but to favour the plan which had been formed against the young queen. On the morning of the 17th of January, 1772, the inhabitants of Copenhagen heard, not without astonishment and terror, that this princess, count Struensee, his brother, count Brandt, and all their friends and adherents, had been arrested

arrested in the night. At 3 o'clock in the morning, succeeding a ball that had been given at court the preceding evening, and after the queen had closed about 1 o'clock with prince Frederick, colonel Koller, an inveterate enemy of Struensee's, whose regiment was on guard at the palace, informed his officers, after having admitted them into the palace, that he had the king's orders to take the queen into custody. The officers, without requiring to see the orders, which would have defeated the whole plan, implicitly obeyed. Ranzau hurried into the king's bed-chamber, and drawing the curtains so as to awaken him, told him, before he had time for reflection, that his life was in danger. "What must we do?" said the alarmed king: "Shall we fly? Stand by me: give me your advice."—"Sign this," replied Ranzau, "it will save my sovereign and the whole royal family." The king took hold of his pen, but let it drop as soon as he cast his eye on the name of his consort. At length he suffered himself to be persuaded; and Ranzau, supported by colonel Eichstadt, whose dragoons, surrounded the palace, and some other officers, carried out the fatal order; and, in a manner the most violent and brutal, seized the person of the unfortunate Matilda, and conveyed her in a carriage to the castle of Cronenberg. Struensee's arrest was followed by the appointment of a commission for his trial; the proceedings against him were carried on with great zeal and severity; and on the 25th of April was passed the following sentence:—"That after his right hand had been cut off, he should be beheaded; that his body should then be quartered, and in that state publicly exposed; and that his head and hand should be affixed to a pole." This sentence was, on the 28th, carried into execution.

To STRUGGLE, *v. n.* [Of uncertain etymology. *Dr. Johnson*.—It is probably from *strucken*, or *struyckelen*, Teut. to stumble; we have the old English word *strokeliuge*, and *strogelyn*, collectatio. *Prompt. Parv.*] To labour; to act with effort. To strive; to contend; to contest.

I repent, like some despairing wretch,
That boldly plunges in the frightful deep,
Then pants, and *struggles* with the whirling waves;
And catches every slender reed to save him. *Smith.*

To labour in difficulties; to be in agonies or distress.
Strong virtue, like strong nature, *struggles* still,
Exerts itself, and then throws off the ill. *Dryden.*

STRU'GGLE, *s.* Labour; effort. Contest; contention.—When, in the division of parties, men only strove for the first place in the prince's favour, an honest man might look upon the *struggle* with indifference. *Addison*.—It began and ended without any of those unnatural *struggles* for the chair, which have disturbed the peace of this great city. *Atterbury*.—Agony; tumultuous distress.

STRU'GLER, *s.* One who contends; a striver.—The Jews were hard-hearted and malicious *strugglers* against the truth. *Martin*.

STRU'GLING, *s.* The act of striving or contending.—No man is guilty of an act of intemperance but he might have forborne it, not without some trouble from the *strugglings* of the contrary habit; but still the thing was possible. *South*.

STRUMA, *s.* [Latin.] A glandular swelling; the king's evil.—A gentlewoman had a *struma* about the instep, very hard and deep about the tendons. *Wiseman*.

STRUMÆ [formed, as some will have it, *a struendo*; because they grow insensibly, *structum assurgunt*], in Medicine and Surgery, tumours arising most usually on the neck and throat; called also *serofula*, and popularly the *evil*, or *king's evil*. See *PATHOLOGY*.

The Greeks call them *χοιγαδες*, sores.
STRUMARIA, in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order spathaceæ, narcissi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: sheath of two, unequal, oval, pointed leaves or valves. Corolla: petals six, superior, spreading, the three outer ones generally carinated

at the back. Stamina: filaments six, inserted into the receptacle, shorter than the corolla, equal, awl-shaped; anther oval, or roundish. Pistil: germen inferior, triangular, three-furrowed; style longer than the stamens, inflated from the base to its centre, awl-shaped upwards; stigma trifid. Pericarp: capsule oval or roundish, slightly triangular, with three furrows, three cells, and three valves. Seeds numerous, round.—*Essential Character*. Petals six, spreading. Style thickened below the middle. Stigma three-cleft. Capsule inferior, roundish, of three cells.

1. *Strumaria linguæfolia*, or tongue-leaved *strumaria*.—Leaves linear-sword-shaped, flat, obtusely rounded at the tip. Stalk round; compressed upwards. Stamens the length of the corolla.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Strumaria truncata*, or truncated *strumaria*.—Leaves linear-sword-shaped, flat, obtusely rounded at the tip. Stalk compressed. Stamens longer than the corolla.—It flowers in April and May.

3. *Strumaria rubella*, or pale-red *strumaria*.—Leaves linear, waved in an oblique manner. Petals flat.—It flowers in May and June.

4. *Strumaria undulata*, or waved *strumaria*.—Leaves linear, waved in an oblique manner. Petals undulated. Root perennial. Stalk a foot high, erect. Flowers in a loose umbel. Petals narrow, undulated, pink at the tip.

5. *Strumaria angustifolia*, or narrow-leaved *strumaria*.—Leaves linear, flat. Germen with three glands.—It flowers in April and May.

6. *Strumaria filifolia*, or fine-leaved *strumaria*.—Leaves thread-shaped. Petals acute.—It flowers in November.

7. *Strumaria spiralis*, or spiral-stalked *strumaria*. See *HEMANTHUS SPIRALIS*.

STRU'MOUS, *adj.* Having swellings in the glands; tainted with the king's evil.—How to treat them when *strumous*, scirrhus, or cancerous. *Wiseman*.

STRU'MPET, *s.* [of doubtful original. "*Stropo*, vieux mot, *palliardise*: *stuprum*, Lat." *Trevoux*. *Dr. Johnson*.—The old French word is *strupe*, which denotes whoredom. See *Roquefort*, *Gloss*. And hence *strupet* might be formed, and by an easy corruption *strumpet*. The word is old in our language: it occurs in addition to the name of a woman, or by way of description, in a return made by a jury in the sixth year of King Henry the fifth. See *Cowel*. Mr. Tooke refers, as the *Etym. Dict.* of 1691 had before, to a Dutch word, applying in the way of contempt for the name. Wachter notices *strune* as having been used, in the dialect of Lower Saxony, for a prostitute. See his *Germ. Dict.* in *V. STRUNZE*.] A whore; a prostitute.

Ne'er could the *strumpet*,
With all her double vigour, art, and nature,
Once stir my temper; but this virtuous maid
Subdues me quite. *Shakespeare.*

STRU'MPET, *adj.* Like a *strumpet*; false; inconstant.
How like a younker, or a prodigal,
The scarfed bark puts from her native bay,
Hugg'd and embraced by the *strumpet* wind!
How like a prodigal doth she return,
Lean, rent, and beggar'd by the *strumpet* wind!
Shakespeare.

To STRU'MPET, *v. a.* To make a whore; to debauch.
If we two be one, and thou play false,
I do digest the poison of thy flesh,
Being *strumpeted* by the contagion. *Shakespeare.*

STRUMPFIA [so named by Jacquin, in memory of Christoph. Car. Strumpff, Professor of Chemistry and Botany, at Hall, in Madgeburgh], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order monogamia, natural order of compositæ nucamentacææ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-toothed, superior, very small, permanent. Corolla: petals five, oblong, obtuse, spreading. Stamina: filaments none. Anthers five, united into an ovate body. Pistil: germ inferior, roundish. Style awl-shaped, erect, commonly

commonly longer than the stamens. Stigma simple, obtuse. Pericarp: berry crowned with the calyx, roundish, one-celled. Seed one, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-toothed, superior. Corolla five-petalled. Berry one-seeded.

Strumpfia maritima.—This is an upright shrub, three feet high. Branches round, somewhat ash-coloured, appearing to be composed of short joints from the fallen leaves, because the leaves together with the stipules take their rise from a common sheath, which surrounds the branch, and is permanent. The leaves are in threes, and very much resemble those of rosemary. Stipules small, acute and blackish, alternate with the leaves. Common peduncles axillary, and only half the length of the leaves, sustaining about five small flowers, with white petals, and on short peduncles. Berries soft and white, the size of a pea. The whole plant has an unpleasant smell.—Native of Curaçao, on the rocks by the coast.

Propagation and Culture.—It must be preserved in the bark stove, and will not bear transplanting; several plants that were raised from seeds, thrived very well while they continued in the pot where they were sown, but decayed when they were transplanted.

STRUMPSHAW, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles south-west-by-west of Acle.

STRUMUS, a name given by some of the old Roman authors to the cucubalus, or berry-bearing chick-weed. It had this name from its being found of service in strumous and scrofulous swellings, when externally applied. The name cucubalus seems to have been derived from the word *halicaccubum*, or the winter-cherry, for the ancients esteemed both these plants species of nightshade; and some of them have plainly described the cucubalus under the name of *solanum hortense*.

STRUNG. The preterite and participle passive of *string*.—The *string* bow points out the Cynthian queen. *Gay*.

STRUNKOWITZ, a small town in the south of Bohemia; 6 miles north of Prachatitz, and 70 south-by-west of Prague.

STRUPPI, among the Romans, garlands or wreaths of vervain, with which the statues of the gods were crowned.

STRUSOW, or STRUSZOW, a small town of Austrian Poland, in the circle of Tarnopol, on the river Sereth.

To STRUT, *v. n.* [*strätzen*, Germ.] To walk with affected dignity; to swell with stateliness.

Adore our errors, laugh at us while we strut
To our confusion. *Shakspeare.*

Does he not hold up his head and strut in his gait. *Shakspeare.*—To swell; to protuberate.

The pow'r appeas'd, with winds suffic'd the sail,
The belying canvass strutted with the gale. *Dryden.*

As thy strutting bags with money rise,
The love of gain is of an equal size. *Dryden.*

STRUT, *s.* An affectation of stateliness in the walk.—Certain gentlemen, by smirking countenances and an ungainly strut in their walk, have got preferment. *Swift.*

STRUTHIA, in Botany, a name originally given by Van Royen to the *Gnidia* of Linnæus; and which being derived from *στρουθός*, Gr., a sparrow, appears to have had in view the near affinity of that genus to passerina. See GNIDIA and PASSERINA.

STRUTHIO, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order Gallinæ. Bill subconic; nostrils oval; wings short, unfit for flight, feet formed for running. There are four species. Though the power of flying may be considered as the distinguishing characteristic of the feathered tribes in general, yet there are some families to which nature has denied that endowment, while she seems to have granted it to a few quadrupeds, and even partially to some fishes. It is thus that she displays the extent of her power, by the variety of her productions, and disdains to be confined within the narrow limits prescribed to her by the systems of philosophers. In descending from the class of quadrupeds to contemplate

that of birds, we find the connecting links, which unite these orders into one chain, very short, and almost imperceptible; for while the flying squirrel, the bat, and some other quadrupeds, are invested with the power of flight, and with other properties of birds, the ostrich, dodo, and cassowary, are by their great bulk confined to the ground, and they indicate by their habits, a near affinity to the four-footed animals. Hence, as we descend from those swift and slender birds, which are destined to move in the higher regions of the air, we find them growing, by almost imperceptible degrees, heavier and less agile, till at length, being wholly destitute of the qualities necessary for flight, they are incapable of rising from the surface of the earth.

1. *Struthio camelus*, or black ostrich.—Feet two-toed. This is the largest of all birds, and from this prerogative, in a great measure, is incapable of flight. Its weight is sometimes from eighty to one hundred pounds: from the top of the head to the ground, it is from seven to nine feet; and its length from the beak to the top of the tail eight feet. When walking, it seems as tall as a man on horseback. The plumage of the ostrich, however, as well as its weight, is an insuperable bar against its rising in the air. The vanes of wing-feathers are separate and detached, like hairs, and incapable of making any impression on the atmosphere. Those of the tail, and indeed of the whole body, are of the same structure. They are all as soft as down, and utterly unfit not only for flying, but for defending the body of the animal from external injury. The feathers of other birds have their webs broader on the one side than the other, but those of the ostrich have the shaft exactly in the middle. The head, the upper part of the neck, sides, and thighs, are covered with a clear kind of hair, which on the head somewhat resembles the bristles of a hog. The thighs of this bird, in which its great strength seems to lie, are large and muscular: and its hard and scaly legs, which are supported by two thick toes, have a considerable similarity to those of the goat. These toes are of unequal size; the inner, which is both longer and thicker, being seven inches in length, including the claw; the other, which is without a claw, is four inches. It is the only bird that possesses eye-lids, and these are fringed.

Though the ostrich be a bird known from the earliest ages, little comparatively is related of its history. In the scriptures, we have many comparisons drawn from its manners; as an article of food it was forbidden the Jews. It is mentioned by Aristotle as remarkable for its fecundity. In the parched deserts of Africa, where it resides, and where it runs with precipitation on the approach of an invader, it can rarely become an object of close examination. The race of these birds, though extremely ancient, still remains pure and almost solitary. Like the elephant, among the quadrupeds, the ostrich constitutes a genus offering few or no varieties, and is perfectly distinguished by characters equally striking and permanent. It is peculiar to Africa, to the neighbouring islands, and to those parts of Asia that lie in the vicinity of the African continent. It is seldom found beyond the distance of thirty-five degrees from the equator; and as it is incapable of flight, it must, like the quadrupeds of these latitudes, have always been confined to the ancient continent. It prefers for its residence those mountains and parched deserts that are never refreshed with rain, a circumstance which tends to corroborate the report of the Arabs, that these birds never drink. Vast flocks of them are seen in these barren and solitary regions. At a distance they are said to appear like an army of cavalry, and often alarm the caravans that are travelling through them.

Among some nations, the eggs, the blood, and the flesh, have been eagerly sought as articles of food. Whole people have obtained the appellation of *Struthophagi*, from their partiality for this food. The Romans considered the flesh of the ostrich as a delicacy; and the imperial glutton, Heliogabalus, is said to have had 600 of them slaughtered in one day, in order that he might have the brains served up as a dish to pamper his appetite. At present, the inhabitants

STRUTHIO.



1. *S. Novae Hollandiae.* 2. *S. Camelus.* 3. *S. Casuarinus.*

Engraved for the *Encyclopaedia Londinensis* 1827.



inhabitants of Numidia tame and breed them, to live upon their flesh, and sell their feathers. Their eggs are said to contain as much food as thirty of those of a common hen. The beauty of the plumage of this bird, particularly of the long feathers that compose the wings and the tail, is the chief reason why man has been so active in pursuing him into the deserts, at so much expense and labour. The Arabs, who made a trade of killing these birds, formerly converted their skins into a kind of buckler. The ancients used their plumes as ornaments for their helmets. The ladies in the East make them still an ornament in their dress, and they are not unfrequently used in this country for the same purpose. In Turkey, the Janizary, who has signalized himself by some military achievement, is allowed to assume them as a decoration to his turban; and the sultan, in the seraglio, when meditating conquests and feats of a more gentle nature, puts them on, as the most irresistible ornament of his person.

The spoils of the ostrich being thus valuable as articles of commerce, the hunting of that bird is one of the most serious employments of the Arabs, who train their fleetest horses for the purpose. Although the ostrich be far swifter than the best courser, yet by hunters on horseback he is commonly taken; and it is said of all the varieties of the chase, this is the most difficult and laborious. The Arab, when mounted, still keeps the ostrich in view, but without pushing him so close as to make his escape to the mountains, but at the same time so as to prevent him from taking food. This is the more readily done, as the bird takes its course in a wavering and circuitous direction, which is greatly shortened by the hunters, who come up behind, and relieving each other by turns, thus keep him still running. After two or three days of fatigue and famine, he becomes exhausted, and the hunters fall upon him by striking him on the head with cudgels, that his blood may not tarnish the lustre of his white feathers. When all possibility of escape is cut off, the ostrich hides its head, conscious that this is its most vulnerable point.

Ostriches, though inhabitants of the desert, and possessed of prodigious strength, are, especially if taken young, neither so fierce nor difficult to tame as might be expected. The inhabitants of Dara and Lybia render them domestic, like herds of cattle, with scarcely any other means than constantly accustoming them to the sight and society of man; to receive from him their food, and to be treated with gentleness. Besides the use of their feathers, ostriches, in their domestic state, are said to be mounted and rode upon in the same manner as horses. It is asserted by Adanson, that at the factory of Podore, he had himself two ostriches, that ran faster than a race-horse with a negro each on their backs. Though these birds may be so tamed that they will suffer themselves to be driven in flocks to and from their stalls, and even to be mounted like horses, yet their stupidity is such, that they can never be taught to obey the hand of the rider, to comprehend the meaning of his commands, or submit to his will. From this intractable disposition, there is reason to apprehend that man will ever be able to avail himself of the strength and swiftness of the ostrich, as he has availed himself of those qualities of the horse. The voracity of this bird far exceeds that of any animal whatever; for it will devour every thing it meets with, stones, wood, brass, iron, or leather, as readily as it will grain and fruit, which, in its native wilds, are probably its principal food.

The season at which the ostrich lays her eggs varies very much with the temperature of the climate. Those north of the equator begin to lay their eggs in the beginning of July, while such as inhabit the south of Africa defer it till the end of December. Climate and situation have also a great influence on their manner of incubation. In the torrid zone, the ostrich is contented with depositing her eggs in a mass of sand, seemingly scraped together with her feet. There they are sufficiently heated to the warmth of the sun, and need the incubation of the female only for a little time during the night. But although the ostrich be but little engaged in hatching her eggs, she displays, by continually watching for the preservation of her progeny, all the solicitude of a tender

mother. In proportion to the coldness of the climate, the ostrich hatches with more assiduity; and it is only in the warm regions, where there is no danger of her eggs being chilled, that she leaves them by day, a circumstance from which she very early incurred the reproach of being destitute of parental affection. So far, however, is this from being true, that she continually watches for their preservation, so long as they remain in a helpless state, which is always a longer or shorter period, according to the climate. Neither the size of the eggs of these birds, nor the time necessary for hatching them, nor the number of the young, are exactly ascertained.

2. *Struthio casuarius*, or cassowary.—Feet three-toed; helmet and dew-laps naked.—This bird inhabits the torrid zone, and especially the island of Java, whence it was brought into Europe in the year 1597. Its habitation begins in those temperate climes which are contiguous to the precincts of the ostrich; and as it occupies a region more favourable to the multiplication of the human race, its numbers are continually decreasing, in proportion to the increase of the number of its destroyers. Cassowaries are of various sizes; they have been seen as large as six feet high. The Dutch compare the bulk of this bird to that of a sheep. From the shortness of the legs and neck, they are not so tall as the ostrich, but the body has a more heavy and clumsy appearance. The most remarkable trait in the appearance of these birds is a sort of helmet on the head, which reaches from the base of the bill to the crown. The middle or upper eye-lid is furnished with a row of black hairs, which gives the animal a wild aspect, which the large aperture of the beak renders still more fierce and menacing. The head and upper part of the neck are almost naked, being only here and there interspersed with blackish hairs, that partially cover a blue wrinkled skin. The feathers that cover the body of the cassowary, as well as those of the wing are all of one kind, and of the same blackish colour. They are generally double, having two shafts, that grow from one short trunk, which is fixed in the skin. The small fibres of which the vanes are composed, have so little adhesion to each other, that the bird, when viewed at a distance, seems clothed with hair instead of feathers. The wings of the cassowary are still shorter than those of the ostrich, and consequently still more unfit for flying. They are furnished each with four hard pointed feathers, resembling darts, of which the longest, which is about eleven inches, is a quarter of an inch thick at the root. Its feet are also armed with large black claws, which give the animal an appearance of being formed for hostility. But though supplied with weapons that might render it formidable to the rest of the animal world, the cassowary leads a peaceable and inoffensive life. It never attacks others, and nothing short of necessity will make it defend itself. The movements of the cassowary, when travelling, are awkward and heavy, nevertheless it will, in running, outstrip the fleetest horse. It is distinguished by the same voracity which characterises the ostrich, swallowing every thing that is offered to it unless it be too large for the circumference of its throat; and it possesses the faculty of rejecting its food, when disagreeable, with the same dispatch with which it took it in. The female lays a number of ash-coloured eggs, about thirteen inches in circumference one way, and six the other; they are of a greenish colour, with dark green spots.

3. *Struthio Novæ Hollandiæ*, or New Holland cassowary.—Feet three toed; crown flat; shanks serrate behind. The bill is black; head, neck, and body, covered with bristly feathers, varied with brown and grey; throat rather naked, blueish; feathers of the body a little incurved at the tip; wings scarcely visible; legs brown.—This, as its specific name imports, is found chiefly in New Holland, and is seven feet two inches long.

4. *Struthio rhea*, or American ostrich.—Feet three-toed, and a round callus behind. This bird is so nearly allied to the ostrich, already described, that it has been considered as his representative in the new continent, to which it peculiarly belongs.—It inhabits Guiana, Brasil, Chili, and those

immense forests that extend northwards from the mouth of the River Plata, and it has been found as far south as the Magellanic Straits. Formerly, these birds were more widely spread over South America; but, in proportion as population increased, these timid animals fled from their habitations, or became the victims to superior power. It is by far the largest bird in the new world. The adults are full six feet high, and the thighs of some of them have been known to equal that of a muscular man. It has a long neck, small head, and flat beak, that distinguish the black ostrich; but in other respects it has a greater resemblance to the cassowary. The shape of the body is oval; and when fully covered with feathers, approaches to rotundity. Its wings are so short as to be useless for flight, but, like those of the ostrich, probably afford assistance in running. The back and rump are covered with long feathers, which extend and form what, in this animal, is called the tail. The whole upper part of the body is covered with grey plumage, and the under with white. The toes are three, all before; behind there is a callous kind of heel, which supports the bird, and is supposed to assist it in running. It possesses the same velocity which characterises the former species, and its running is attended with a singular motion of its wings. It raises one for some time above the body, and then drops it to erect the other, and hold it, for a while, in the same strange position. Such is their velocity, that the savages are obliged to lay snares in order to catch them: for they may, in vain, chase them with the swiftest dogs.

The rhea shews the same indiscriminate voraciousness with the ostrich: and it is probable, that her eggs are hatched partly by the heat of the sun, and partly by incubation. The young, when first excluded from the shell, are so familiar, that they will follow the first person they happen to meet with; but upon growing older, they acquire experience, and become more shy and suspicious. The flesh of the young rhea is reckoned good eating, but it might probably be much improved, and the race rendered more abundant, by domestication, as has been the case with the turkey and hen, which originally came from the torrid zone. The rhea defends itself with its feet, and calls its young by a kind of hiss.

STRUTHIOLA [Dimin. from *Στρούδιον*, a sparrow], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria order monogynia, natural order of vepruculeæ, thymelææ, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx none, unless the corolla be taken for it. Corolla one-petalled, shrivelling. Tube filiform, elongated. Border four-parted, flat, shorter than the tube; segments ovate. Nectary eight glands, ovate, placed round the throat, surrounded with their proper pencil. Stamina: filaments four, very short, concealed within the tube. Anthers linear. Pistil: germ ovate. Style filiform, length of the tube. Stigma capitate. Pericarp coriaceous, ovate, one-celled. Seed one, sharpish. Allied to *Passerina*.—*Essential Character*. Corolla none. Calyx tubular, with eight glands at the mouth. Berry juiceless, one-seeded.

1. *Struthiola virgata*.—Leaves lanceolate, striated; the upper ones ciliate; branches pubescent. This is a shrub with long rod-like branches, and four-cornered branchlets. Flowers sessile, solitary, long, coriaceous, red, silky-tomentose without. It varies with yellow flowers, in whitish membranaceous calyxes, and yellowish anthers dark yellow at the tips. Also with longer and shorter leaves.

2. *Struthiola nana*.—Leaves linear, obtuse, hairy; flowers terminating, in bundles, tomentose.

3. *Struthiola juniperina*.—Leaves linear, acute, spreading; corollas and calyxes naked.

4. *Struthiola erecta*.—Leaves linear, smooth; branches smooth, four-cornered.

5. *Struthiola ovata*.—Leaves ovate, smooth; branches smooth, wrinkled.—This and all the preceding are natives of that inexhaustible magazine of shrubby plants, the southern promontory of Africa. They may be increased by cuttings.

STRUTT (Joseph), an artist and antiquary, the son of a miller at Springfield, in Essex was born there in 1794,

and in 1764 apprenticed to the ingenious but unfortunate engraver, W. Wynn Ryland. In 1770, he became a student at the Royal Academy, where he obtained the gold and silver medals. Connecting antiquities with the practice of engraving, he published, in 1773, a work entitled "The Regal and Ecclesiastical Antiquities of England," containing representations of all the English monarchs from Edward the Confessor to Henry VIII. and of many distinguished personages in their reigns, in their appropriate costumes, taken from illuminated MSS., and accompanied with remarkable passages of history. To this succeeded "A complete View of the Manners, Customs, Arms, Habits, &c. of the English, from the Arrival of the Saxons to the Reign of Henry VIII., with a short Account of the Britons during the Government of the Romans," in 3 vols. 1774, 1775, 1776, with 157 plates. In 1777 and 1778, he published a "Chronicle of England," designed to extend to six volumes, but discontinued for want of encouragement. His "Biographical Dictionary of Engravers" next appeared in 2 vols., 1785, 1786, with 20 plates. His other works are "A complete View of the Dresses and Habits of the people of England from the establishment of the Saxons in England to the present time," in 2 vols. 1796, 1799, with 143 plates. "The Sports and Pastimes of the People of England," 1801, with 40 plates. The decline of his health constrained Mr. Strutt to leave the metropolis in 1790, and to reside at a farm near Hertford, where he engraved a number of plates for an edition of the "Pilgrim's Progress." His disposition being benevolent and religious, he founded a Sunday school at the neighbouring village of Tewin, and devoted much time to reforming the morals of the inhabitants. He afterwards returned to London, where he died in 1802, with an estimable character for moral worth, and for indefatigable industry in elucidating the antiquities of his country. His style of engraving, in which he followed his master, Ryland, was that of dots in imitation of chalk, producing an effect of much softness and harmony. *Nichols's Liter. Anec.*

STRUTTTER, *s.* One who swells with stateliness; one who is blown up with self-conceit; a bragger.—We have seen what a mere nothing it is, that this *strutter* has pronounced with such sonorous rhetoric. *Annot.*

STRUTTINGLY, *adv.* With a strut; vauntingly. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

STRUVE, **POINT**, a cape of Ireland, on the coast of the county of Donegal, a little to the south of Inishowen Head.

STRUYS BAY, a bay at the southern extremity of Africa, to the east of Cape Agulhas. It extends nearly 100 miles to Cape Infant, and affords good anchorage, but no shelter, except from north-westerly winds, and is exposed to a continued swell and strong current.

STRY, a circle of Austrian Poland, lying in the east of the province, between Hungary and the circle of Lemberg. It is one of the largest in Galicia, having a superficial extent of 3100 square miles, with 174,000 inhabitants. Its appearance differs completely in the south and north, the former consisting almost entirely of mountains, the latter of extensive plains. A single large river (the Dniester), traverses it, first from west to east, and afterwards from north to south; and it is intersected in various directions, particularly in the east and south, by smaller streams.

STRY, or **STRYI**, a small town of Austrian Galicia, the capital of the above circle, stands on a small river of the same name, which divides here into a number of branches forming small islands. It is surrounded with a wall and ditch, has a castle, a Catholic and a united Greek church, with a circular school, and 5500 inhabitants; 35 miles west-north-west of Halicz, and 42 south of Lemberg.

STRYCHNINE, *s.* [from the Gr. *Στρούχνος*, the name Dioscorides gave the *datura stramonium*, but which we now apply to a different plant], an extract of a virulently poisonous nature, which is made from the nux vomica, the bean of Ignatius, or the poison of Java. It is of an alkaline nature, and so intensely bitter that it affects the palate when diluted with 10,000 times its weight of water. A
sixteenth

sixteenth part of a grain has been found to paralyse a dog in four or five minutes, and kill him in half an hour. It does not seem, according to Majendie's experiments, to have a direct influence on the brain, but to confine its action to the spinal marrow; the lower extremities being invariably paralyzed.

STRYCHNOS [Strychnon of Pliny. *Στρυχνος*, Gr. of Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of luridæ, apocineæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, very small, deciduous. Corolla one-petalled: tube cylindric; border spreading, five-cleft, acute. Stamina: filaments five, length of the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish. Style simple, longer than the stamens. Stigma thickish. Pericarp: berry brittle, globular smooth, very large, one-celled, full of pulp. Seeds orbicular, depressed, villose, radiant, with villose hairs towards the periphery.—*Essential Character.* Corolla five-parted. Berry one-celled, with a woody rind.

1. *Strychnos nux vomica*, or poison-nut.—This is a middling sized tree, with the trunk short and crooked, but pretty thick, and the branches irregular: both are covered with a smooth ash coloured bark. Leaves opposite, on short petioles, round oval, shining, smooth on both sides, entire, three-five-nerved, differing in size, from one and a half to four inches long, and from an inch to three inches broad. Stipules none. Flowers small, greenish white, collected in small terminating umbels. Berry the size of a pretty large apple, covered with a smooth somewhat hard shell, of a rich beautiful orange-colour when ripe, filled with a soft jelly-like pulp. Seeds from two to five, immersed in the pulp.—Native of the East Indies. The wood is hard and durable, and is used for many purposes by the natives.

2. *Strychnos colubrina*.—Leaves ovate, acute; tendrils simple. The Indian botanists contend that this is not a different species from the preceding.—Native of the East Indies.

3. *Strychnos potatorum*.—Leaves opposite, ovate, acute, quintuple-nerved, veined; cymes axillary. This is a tree with opposite branches.

STRYEN, a large and well built village of the Netherlands, in south Holland, with nearly 2000 inhabitants; 6 miles south-south-west of Dort, and 12 south-south-east of Rotterdam.

STRYKOW, a small town in the west of Poland; 59 miles west-south-west of Warsaw, and 21 east-south-east of Lenezicz. Population 1500, the half of whom are Jews.

STRYMON, or **CARASSU**, a river of European Turkey, in Romania, the ancient *Thrace*, which takes its rise in the hill of Scomius, and after a course of more than 50 miles, discharges itself into the gulf of Contessa. It flows through a fruitful valley.

STRYMONA, a small town of European Turkey, in Romania, on the river Strymon.

STRYNOE, a small island of Denmark, about two miles from the west coast of Langeland. Lat. 54. 54. N. long. 10. 38. E.

STRYP, a small town of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, a little to the north of Eindhoven, with 900 inhabitants.

STRYPE (John), a voluminous writer, of German extraction, was born in the parish of Stepney, near London, in the year 1643, educated at St. Paul's school, and in 1661 entered at Jesus college, Cambridge, from whence he removed to Catharine-hall. In 1669 he became Master of Arts, and taking orders, was nominated to the perpetual curacy of Theydon-Boys, in Essex, and being afterwards appointed minister of Low Layton, in the same county, he retained this office during the whole of his life. Having access to the numerous MSS. of Sir Mich. Hicckes, secretary to lord Burleigh, he availed himself of them in his subsequent writings on historical antiquities, to which, probably in consequence of this circumstance, he became zealously

attached. His first publication in this department of literature was entitled "Ecclesiastical Memorials, relating chiefly to Religion, and the Reformation of it under Henry VIII., Edward VI., and Queen Mary I.," in 3 vols. folio, with an appendix to each volume, consisting of original papers, records, &c. The last of these volumes, which were printed in succession, appeared in 1721. The publication of his "Annals of the Reformation of the Church of England," in 4 vols. fol., began in 1701, and were completed in 1731. the last volume being merely a collection of original papers. His much augmented edition of "Stow's Survey of London;" in 2 vols. fol. was published in 1720. The historical part of this work was brought down to his own time, and he added maps of all the wards, and illustrative plates, besides various other improvements. In the department of biography, he published separately, in folio volumes, the lives of archbishops Cranmer, Parker, Grindal, and Whitgift, and in three octavo volumes, the lives of Sir John Cheke, Sir Thomas Smith, and bishop Aylmer. In these works he manifested an industry and correctness, which claimed the respect of prelates and learned persons of his own time, and procured for him several small benefices in the church, though he was never advanced to any very high rank. He was for many years lecturer of Hackney, where he spent the latter part of a life, prolonged, notwithstanding his unintermitted course of study, to the uncommon age of 94. His death happened in December, 1757. Of his works Dr. Birch observes, that "his industry and fidelity will always give a value to his numerous writings, however destitute of the graces, and even uniformity, of style, and the art of connecting facts." *Biog. Brit.*

STRZELISKE-NOWA, a small town of Austrian Poland; 37 miles south-east of Lemberg.

STRZELNO, a small town of Prussian Poland, between the Lake Goplo and the river Netz, with 1100 inhabitants; 30 miles south-south-west of Thorn, and 12 south of Inowraclaw.

STUART (James), commonly called *Athenian Stuart*, rose from an obscure origin, by his talents and industry, to distinguished eminence. His father was a native of Scotland, and a mariner of humble station, and his mother a native of Wales. Their son was born in London in 1713; and his parents, though poor, yet respectable in character, gave him the best education which their limited means would allow. Being one of four children, left destitute at their father's death, he was employed, at an early age, in drawing and painting, and contributed to the support of his mother and family, by his ingenuity in designing and painting fans, for a shop in the Strand. By his own persevering but unaided efforts, he gained an accurate knowledge of anatomy, geometry, and the other branches of mathematics. He also studied the Latin and Greek languages; and made himself acquainted with most of the sciences. Urged by a strong desire to seek knowledge and improvement in foreign countries, he first settled a brother and sister in a situation, which would afford them a comfortable subsistence, and then, with a very scanty stock of money, set out on a pedestrian tour to Rome. In passing through Holland and France, he occasionally stopped in order to recruit his exhausted purse by the exercise of his talents. Having arrived at Rome, he formed an intimate acquaintance with Mr. Nicholas Revett, a skilful architect. These two friends studied together for several years, and in 1748 concerted a plan for visiting Athens; and having obtained requisite encouragement, they quitted Rome in 1750, and first visited Venice; and hence they took their course to Pola, in Istria; and when they had examined the interesting remains of antiquity in this place, they returned to Venice. In the beginning of the year 1751 they sailed for Zante, and thence to Corinth, and in the month of March reached Athens. Here they employed themselves, till the latter part of the year 1753, in making drawings and taking measures of the architectural remains to which they had access. At Athens Mr. Stuart

Stuart became acquainted with Sir Jacob Bouverie and Mr. Dawkins; and the latter, in particular, took pleasure in affording him and his companion patronage and encouragement. From Athens the two artists went to Salonica, where they copied the remains of a fine Corinthian colouade. Having visited several islands in the Ægean sea, on their way to Smyrna, they returned to England in the beginning of the year 1755. In the year 1762, the first volume of the result of their labours was published under the title of "The Antiquities of Athens measured and delineated, by James Stuart, F.R.S. and S.A., and Nicholas Revett, Painters and Architects," fol. This work was received with great applause by the lovers of art and antiquity; and though it had been anticipated by the publication of M. Le Roy, which surpassed it in picturesque beauty, yet its superior truth and depth of research gave it a more solid and permanent value. Mr. Stuart, after his return, obtained distinguished patronage in his profession as architect. Lord Anson, who was at the head of the Admiralty, conferred upon him the office of surveyor of Greenwich Hospital, which he occupied till his death. He was twice married: the second time, at the age of 67 years, to a very young lady, by whom he had four children. The death of one of these, who resembled himself both in mind and body, and who manifested an extraordinary talent for drawing at the age of three years, was followed by the rapid decline of the father's health, who died in 1788, in the 76th year of his age. Two additional volumes of the "Antiquities of Athens," were published after his decease; the second, in 1790, by Mr. Newton; and the third, in 1794, by Mr. Ravelly. *Gen. Biog.*

STUART (Gilbert), LL.D., the son of a professor in the University of Edinburgh, where he was born either in 1742, or 1745; the date of his birth being uncertain. He was originally intended for the profession of the law; but having acquired reputation, and the degree of LL.D., by an "Historical Dissertation concerning the Antiquity of the British Constitution," he cast his lot among those who are, professedly, writers. With these views he came to London, and for some time contributed to the Monthly Review; but disappointed in his expectations, he returned to Edinburgh in 1774, and commenced a magazine and review bearing the name of that city. Soon after he gained an increase of reputation by publishing "A View of Society in Europe, in its Progress from Rudeness to Refinement," of which an enlarged edition in 4to., appeared in 1778. His "Observations concerning the Public Law and Constitution in Scotland," were published in 1779. In this work he introduced a somewhat invidious reflection on Dr. Robertson, characterising him as being "no-where profound;" and indeed he seems to have been jealous of this distinguished historian's literary fame. Disappointed as candidate for the professorship of public law in the University of Edinburgh, his feelings were farther irritated; and from that time his leading object appears to have been to set himself in opposition to Robertson, and to depreciate his merits. In 1780 he published "The History of the Establishment of the Reformation of Religion in Scotland," which has been regarded as a spirited and tolerably impartial view of the important events which it details. This was followed, in 1782, by "The History of Scotland, from the Establishment of the Reformation till the Death of Queen Mary," 2 vols. 4to.

As the rival of Robertson, he enlists himself in this work among the warmest partisans of Queen Mary. How far he succeeded in his attempt for vindicating this unfortunate queen, it is not our province to determine; but his work was less popular than its opponent; and one of his biographers says, that though "he was not deficient either in acuteness or in diligence, he appears to have been wanting in the moral qualities essential to a writer of history." From this time, and after his removal to London, where he was employed in some periodical publications, his conduct subjected him to censure and reproach, and terminated in an incurable disease, under which, after his return to his native country, he sunk

in 1786. "He possessed," says the writer of his life already cited, "strong, if not brilliant talents: but his principles were lax, and his temper such as procured him many more enemies than friends." *Gen. Biog.*

STUARTIA. [This genus was named by Linnæus in honour of the late Lord Bute], in Botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order polyandria, natural order of columniferæ. tiliaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, half-five-cleft, spreading; segments ovate, concave, permanent. Corolla: petals five, obovate, spreading, equal, large. Stamina: filaments numerous, filiform, united into a cylinder below, shorter than the corolla, connecting the petals at the base. Anthers roundish, incumbent. Pistil: germ roundish, hirsute. Style simple, filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma five-cleft. Pericarp: pome juiceless, five-lobed, five-celled, soluble into five closed parts. Seeds solitary, ovate, compressed.—*Essential Character.* Calyx simple. Style simple, with a five-cleft stigma. Pome juiceless, five-lobed, one-seeded, opening five ways.

1. *Stuartia malacodendron*.—Flowers lateral, subnate; calyxes ovate, obtuse; styles conjoined. This shrub grows naturally in Virginia, where it rises with strong ligneous stalks, to the height of ten or twelve feet, sending out branches on every side covered with a brown bark, and garnished with oval spear-shaped leaves, about two inches and a half broad: they are sawed on the edges, are pretty much veined, and stand alternately.

2. *Stuartia pentagyna*.—Flowers solitary, axillary; calyxes calyculate and lanceolate; styles distinct. This is an elegant shrub, rising to the height of about nine or ten feet: the root is woody and branching: the stem erect, branched, and covered with a chinky ash-coloured bark. The flowers are axillary, solitary, scarcely peduncled, of a snow-white colour, tinged on the outside with a reddish and greenish cast: they are very sweet scented, and consist of seven or eight unequal petals.—Native of Virginia: appears to have been formerly confounded by Linnæus with the preceding species.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds, which frequently fail when brought to England, either from not being properly impregnated, or duly ripened. When the plants come up, they are very difficult to maintain while young; for if they are exposed to too much sun, they will soon be destroyed, nor do they thrive when exposed to the open air. The seeds therefore should be sown under glasses, and the surface of the ground between the plants should be covered with moss to keep it moist, and the glasses should be constantly shaded when the sun is bright. With this management the plants will grow, but not make any great progress.

STUART'S ISLAND, an island near the north-western shore of America, about six or seven leagues in circuit. It is in general low, though some parts rise to a tolerable height. Lat. 63. 35. N. long. 162. 30. W.

STUART'S ISLAND, an island near the west coast of North America, at the entrance of Bute's canal, in the gulf of Georgia. Lat. 50. 24. N. long. 236. 9. E.

STUARTSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Westmoreland county, Pennsylvania.

STUB, *s.* [ʃteb, ʃtɔb, Saxon; *stubbe*, Sueth, from *stýbba*, (or *stubby*) to lop, to cut off. *Serenius.* *Stobbe* is the Teut. and also our word in some parts of the north.] A thick short stock left when the rest is cut off.

We here
Live on tough roots and *stubs*, to thirst inur'd,—
Men to much misery and hardship born. *Milton.*

A log; a block.—You shall have more ado to drive our dullest and laziest youth, our stocks and *stubs*, from the infinite desire of such a happy nurture, than we have now to haul our choicest wits to that asinine feast of sow-thistles and brambles. *Milton.*

To STUB, *v. a.* To force up; to extirpate.

The

The other tree was griev'd,
Grew scrubby, dry'd a-top, was stunted;
So the next parson *stubb'd* and burnt it.

Swift.

STUBBED, *adj.* Truncated; short and thick.

A pain he in his head-piece feels,
Against a *stubb'd* tree he reels,
And up went poor Hobgoblin's heels.

Drayton.

Hardy; not delicate; not nice.—The hardness of *stubb'd* vulgar constitutions renders them insensible of a thousand things, that fret and gall those delicate people, who, as if their skin was peeled off, feel to the quick every thing that touches them. *Bp. Berkeley.*

STUBBEDNESS, *s.* The state of being short, thick, and truncated.

STUBBEKIOBING, a small sea-port of Denmark, in the island of Laaland. It carries on some trade with Copenhagen, Norway, and Lubeck; 10 miles north-east of Nyekiobing.

STUBBENKAMMAR, a promontory of the island of Rugen, in the peninsula of Jasmund.

STUBBLE, *s.* [*estouble*, French; *stoppel*, Dutch; *stipula*, Latin. Serenius here recommends the derivation assigned to *stub*; which see. Chaucer's word is *stoble*.] The stalks of corn left in the field by the reaper.

This suggested

At some time, when his soaring insolence
Shall reach the people, will be the fire
To kindle their dry *stubble*, and their blaze
Shall darken him for ever.

Shakespeare.

STUBBLEGOOSE, *s.* A goose fed on the stubbles.—I'll make you a *stubble-goose*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

STUBBORN, *adj.* [This word, of which no obvious etymology appears, is derived by Minshew from *stoutborn*, referred by Junius to *στειβαρος*, and deduced better by Lye, from *stub*; perhaps from *stub-born*.] Obstinate; inflexible; contumacious.

The queen is obstinate,
Stubborn to justice, apt t' accuse it, and
Disdainful to be tried by't.

Shakespeare.

Persisting; persevering; steady.—All this is to be had only from the epistles themselves, with *stubborn* attention, and more than common application. *Locke*.—Stiff; not pliable; inflexible; not easily admitting impression.

Love softens me, and blows up fires which pass
Through my tough heart, and melt the *stubborn* mass.

Dryden.

Hardy; firm.

Patience under torturing pain,
Where *stubborn* stoicks would complain.

Swift.

Harsh; rough; rugged.—We will not oppose any thing that is hard and *stubborn*, but by a soft answer deaden their force. *Burnet*.—In all its uses it commonly implies something of a bad quality, though *Locke* has used it in a sense of praise.

STUBBORNLY, *adv.* Obstinate; contumaciously; inflexibly.

Stubbornly he did repugn the truth,
About a certain question in the law.

Shakespeare.

He wilfully neglects his book, and *stubbornly* refuses any thing he can do. *Locke*.

So close they cling, so *stubbornly* retire,
Their love's more violent than the chymist's fire.

Garth.

STUBBORNNESS, *s.* Obstinacy; vicious stoutness; contumacy; inflexibility. *Dryden* has used it in commendation.

Happy is your grace,
That can translate the *stubbornness* of fortune
Into so quiet and so sweet a style.

Shakespeare.

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STUBBS (George), an eminent painter of animals, was born at Liverpool, in 1724. He particularly excelled in the knowledge of the anatomy of animals, for which he took great pains in dissection, as well as design. It is unfortunate, that the exercise of his talents was confined to animal painting, and particularly of race-horses, as he was capable of much higher productions: witness his picture of Phaton with the horses of the sun, and those of the horse and lion. His knowledge of the nature and actions of various animals, inspire his pictures with peculiar interest. Sometimes his colouring was very good, though never excellent; and he was defective in the execution of back-grounds. His long life was most laboriously and usefully employed. In 1766 he published his *Anatomy of the Horse*, the most perfect work upon the subject; which he drew, and etched himself, from a natural figure which he dissected for the purpose. He died in 1806, at the age of 82. He was an associate of the Royal Academy.

STUBBS, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-west of Doncaster.

STUBBY, *adj.* Short and thick; short and strong.—The base is surrounded with a garland of black and *stubby* bristles. *Grew*.

STUBBY-LANE, a township of England, in Staffordshire; 4 miles south-east of Uttoxeter.

STUBHAMPTON, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire, near the source of the river Tarent, a little north of Tarent-Gunvil.

STUBHILL, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Arthuret, Cumberland.

STUBLACH, a township of England, in Cheshire; 3 miles north of Middlewich.

STUBLEY, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Dronfield, Derbyshire.

STUBNA and STUBNYA, two villages in the north-west of Hungary; 8 miles north of Cremnitz. They have in the vicinity warm mineral springs; also iron and copper mines.

STUBNAIL, *s.* A nail broken off; a short thick nail.

STUBTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10 miles north-by-west of Grantham.

STUCCO, *s.* [Italian; *stuc*, Fr.] A kind of fine plaster for walls.

Palladian walls, Venetian doors,
Grottesco roofs, and *stucco* floors.

Pope.

To STUCCO, *v. a.* To plaster walls with stucco.—Palaces, as adorned with tapestry, are here contrasted with lowly sheds and smoky rafters. A modern poet would have written *stuccoed* halls. *Warton*.

STUCK. The preterite and participle passive of *stick*.

Stuck o'er with titles, and hung round with strings,
That thou may'st be by kings, or whores of kings.

Pope.

STUCK, *s.* A thrust.—I had a pass with rapier, scabbard and all, and he gives me the *stuck* in which such a mortal motion, that it is inevitable. *Shakespeare*.

STUCKLE, *s.* A number of sheaves laid together in the field to dry. *Ainsworth*.

STUD, *s.* [ʃtʊd, Saxon.] A post; a stake. A prop.

Seest not thilke same hawthorne *studd*,
How bragly it begins to budde,
And utter his tender head?

Spenser.

A nail with a large head driven for ornament; any ornamental knob or protuberance.

Crystal and myrrhine cups emboss'd with gems,
And *studs* of pearl.

Milton.

[ʃtʊd, Sax.; *stod*, Icel., is a stallion.] A collection of breeding horses and mares.—In the *studs* of Ireland, where care is taken, we see horses bred of excellent shape, vigour and size. *Temple*.

To *STUD*, *v. a.* To adorn with studs or shining knobs. Thy horses shall be trapp'd,
Their harness *studded* all with gold and pearl. *Shakspeare.*

STUDENT, *s.* [*studens*, Lat.] A man given to books; a scholar; a bookish man.—Keep a gamester from dice, and a good *student* from his book. *Shakspeare.*

STUDHAM, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Market Street.

STUDHAM, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Kirkhampton, Cumberland.

STUDIED, *adj.* Learned; versed in any study; qualified by study.

He died
As one that had been *studied* in his death,
To throw away the dearest thing he ow'd,
As 'twere a careless trifle. *Shakspeare.*

Having any particular inclination. *Out of use.*—A prince should not be so loosely *studied* as to remember so weak a composition. *Shakspeare.*

STUDIER, *s.* One who studied.—Lipsius was a great *studier* of the stoical philosophy; upon his death-bed his friend told him, that he needed not use arguments to persuade him to patience, the philosophy which he had studied would furnish him; he answers him, Lord Jesus, give me christian patience. *Tillotson.*—There is a law of nature, as intelligible to a rational creature and *studier* of that law, as the positive laws of commonwealths. *Locke.*

STUDIOUS, *adj.* [*studieux*, Fr.; *studiosus*, Lat.] Given to books and contemplation; given to learning.—A proper remedy for wandering thoughts, he that shall propose would do great service to the *studious* and contemplative part of mankind. *Locke.*—Diligent; busy.—*Studious* to find new friends, and new allies. *Tickell.*—Attentive to; careful: with *of.*—Divines must become *studious of* pious and venerable antiquity. *White.*

The people made
Stout for the war, and *studious* of their trade. *Dryden.*

Contemplative; suitable to meditation.

Let my due feet never fail
To walk the *studious* cloisters pale. *Milton.*

STUDIOUSLY, *adv.* Contemplatively; with close application to literature; diligently; carefully; attentively.

On a short pruning hook his head reclines,
And *studiously* surveys his generous vines. *Dryden.*

STUDIOUSNESS, *s.* Addiction to study.—Men are sometimes addicted to *studiousness* and learning, sometimes to ease and ignorance. *Hakewill.*

STUDLAND, a hamlet of England, in Hertfordshire, adjoining Kinsworth.

STUDLAND, a parish of England, in the county of Dorset, at the extremity of the isle of Purbeck. The church is an ancient building. In the neighbourhood are some curious barrows, the most remarkable of which is the Agglestone or Stone Barrow, which covers about an acre of ground. It is 90 feet high, and 50 feet in diameter at the top. Population 306; 6 miles east-by-north of Corfe Castle, and 118 south-west of London.

STUDLAND BAY, a bay in England, on the Dorsetshire coast, seven leagues north-west-by-west from the Isle of Wight. It extends about a league north-by-east, and affords good anchorage ground for vessels not drawing more than 14 feet water. Although an open road, ships ride here as safely as in a harbour, and may get out easily when the wind blows right in; there being about nine hours outset, and only three inset. The ground is all clear, and good for cables.

STUDLEY, a hamlet of England, partly in Buckinghamshire, and partly in Oxfordshire; 7 miles north-by-east of Oxford.

STUDLEY, a parish of England, in Warwickshire, on

the river Arrow; 4 miles north by west of Alcester. Population 1083.

STUDLEY, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3 miles south-west of Bampton.

STUDLEY, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles west-south-west of Rippon.

STUDY, *s.* [*studium*, Lat.; *estude*, Fr.] Application of mind to books and learning.—*Study* gives strength to the mind; conversation, grace. *Temple.*—Perplexity; deep cogitation.

Th' idea of her life shall sweetly creep
Into his *study* of imagination. *Shakspeare.*

The king of Castile, a little confused, and in a *study*, said that can I not do with my honour. *Bacon.*—Attention; meditation; contrivance.

What can happen
To me above this wretchedness? All your *studies*
Make me a curse like this. *Shakspeare.*

Any particular kind of learning.—*Studies* serve for delight in privateness and retiring, for ornament in discourse, and for ability in the judgment and disposition of business. *Bacon.*—Subject of attention.—The holy Scriptures, especially the New Testament, are her daily *study*. *Law.*—Apartment appropriated to literary employment.—Get me a taper in my *study*, Lucius. *Shakspeare.*—The sketched ideas of a painter, not wrought into a whole. *Gilpin.*—Notwithstanding all his faults, such is his [Tempesta's] merit, that, as *studies* at least, his prints deserve a much higher rank in the cabinets of connoisseurs, than they generally find; you can scarce pick out one of them, which does not furnish materials for an excellent composition. *Gilpin.*

To *STUDY*, *v. n.* [*studeo*, Lat.; *estudier*, Fr.] To think with very close application; to muse.—I found a moral first, and then *studied* for a fable. *Swift.*—To endeavour diligently.—*Study* to be quiet, and do your own business. *1 Thess.*

To *STUDY*, *v. a.* To apply the mind to.

Nothing lovelier can be found
In woman, than to *study* household good. *Milton.*

To consider attentively.—He hath *studied* her well, and translated her out of honesty into English. *Shakspeare.*—To learn by application.—You could, for a need *study* a speech of some dozen lines, which I would set down. *Shakspeare.*

STUDZIANA, a small town in the interior of Poland, near the river Pilica; 52 miles south-south-west of Warsaw.

STUFF, *s.* [*stoff*, Dutch; *estoffe*, Fr.] Any matter or body.

Of brick, and of that *stuff*, they cast to build
A city and tower. *Milton.*

Materials out of which any thing is made.

Cæsar hath wept;
Ambition should be made of sterner *stuff*. *Shakspeare.*

Furniture; goods.—Fair away to get out *stuff* aboard.
Shakspeare.—That which fills any thing.

With some sweet oblivious antidote
Cleanse the stuff'd bosom of that perilous *stuff*
Which weighs upon the heart. *Shakspeare.*

Essence; elemental part.

Though in the trade of war I have slain men,
Yet do I hold it very *stuff* o' th' conscience
To do no contriv'd murder. *Shakspeare.*

Any mixture or medicine.

I did compound for her
A certain *stuff*, which being ta'en, would seize
The present power of life. *Shakspeare.*

Cloth or texture of any kind; textures of wool thinner and slighter than cloth.—Let us turn the wools of the land into cloaths and *stuffs* of our own growth, and the hemp and flax growing

growing here into linen cloth and cordage. *Bacon*.—
Matter or thing. In contempt.

O proper *stuff*!
This is the very painting of your fear. *Shakspeare*.
To-morrow will be time enough
To hear such mortifying *stuff*. *Swift*.

It is now seldom used in any sense but in contempt or dislike.

To *stuff*, *v. a.* To fill very full with any thing.
Though plenteous, all too little seems
To *stuff* this maw, this vast unhide-bound corps. *Milton*.
To fill to uneasiness.

With some oblivious antidote
Cleanse the *stuff*'d bosom of that perilous *stuff*
Which weighs upon the heart. *Shakspeare*.

To thrust into any thing.—Put roses into a glass with a narrow mouth, *stuffing* them close together, but without bruising, and they retain smell and colour fresh a year. *Bacon*.—To fill by being put into any thing.

Grief fills the room up of my absent child,
Lies in his bed, walks up and down with me,
Stuffs out his vacant garments with his form. *Shakspeare*.

To swell out by putting something in.—I will be the man that shall make you great.—I cannot perceive how, unless you give me your doublet, and *stuff* me out with straw. *Shakspeare*.—To fill with something improper or superfluous.

For thee I dim these eyes, and *stuff* this head
With all such reading as was never read. *Pope*.

To obstruct the organs of scent or respiration.—These gloves the count sent me; they are an excellent perfume.—I am *stuffed*, cousin, I cannot smell. *Shakspeare*.—To fill meat with something of high relish.—She went for parly to *meat* a rabbit. *Shakspeare*.—To form by *stuffing*.—An eastern king put a judge to death for an iniquitous sentence, and ordered his hide to be *stuffed* into a cushion, and placed upon the tribunal. *Swift*.

To *stuff*, *v. n.* To feed gluttonously.
Wedg'd in a spacious elbow-chair,
And on her plate a treble share,
As if she ne'er could have enough,
Taught harmless man to cram and *stuff*. *Swift*.

STUFFING, *s.* That by which any thing is filled.—Rome was a farrago out of the neighbouring nations; and Greece, though one monarchy under Alexander, yet the people that were the *stuffing* and materials thereof, existed before. *Hale*.—Relishing ingredients put into meat—Arrach leaves are very good in pottage and *stuffings*. *Mortimer*.

STUHLINGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden; 9 miles west-by-north of Schaffhausen. Population 1000. It is the chief place of a lordship belonging to the prince of Furstenberg.

STUHL-WEISSENBURG, a county in the west of Hungary, lying between the counties of Veszprim and Pest, from which last it is separated by the Danube. Its territorial extent is 1600 square miles; its population 120,000, descended partly from Slavonians, partly from Magyars and German settlers. Except in the north, where it has a few hills, it is in general level, and in many places has lakes and marshes. Besides the Danube, flowing along its eastern boundary, it is watered by the Sarvitz, which having a slow motion, is formed into a canal for a considerable part of its course. The principal products are wheat, wine, and tobacco.

STUHL-WEISSENBURG, or SZEPES-FEJARVAR, a considerable town of the south-west of Hungary, the capital of a palatinate, and a bishop's see. This town was built by king Stephen in the 11th century, and was during five centuries the place where the kings of Hungary were crowned and buried. It was called on that account *Alba Regalis*,

and the ruins of its ancient establishment show that it must have been a place of note. Three large moles or causeways proceeded from it; and between these were churches, houses, and gardens, the whole forming extensive suburbs. The removal of the court, and still more the misfortunes occasioned by repeated sieges in wars with the Turks, have greatly altered it; and though it still contains several respectable buildings, it is, on the whole, a mean place. It was formerly traversed by several canals, but these having been neglected during the agitated state of the country, are choaked up, and the waters have formed marshes, which render the town to a certain degree unhealthy. At present it has about 13,000 inhabitants, with a gymnasium or high school, and barracks for soldiers; but its fortifications were demolished in 1702. As to religion, the inhabitants are either Catholics, or of the Greek church. Here are some woollen manufactures, such as coarse cloth and flannel; but gardening and tillage form in this, as in other parts of Hungary, a main occupation even of those who live in the town. The environs are very fertile, and produce wine. In the neighbourhood is a saltpetre work, and at a greater distance one of spirits distilled partly from grain; partly from potatoes and plums; Stuhl-Weissenburgh is 36 miles south-west of Buda, and 116 east-south-east of Vienna. Lat. 47. 11. 34. N. long. 18. 24. 45. E.

STUKE, or STUCK, *s.* [*stuc*, Fr., *stucco*, Italian.] A composition of lime and marble, powdered very fine, commonly called plaster of Paris, with which figures and other ornaments resembling sculpture are made. *Unused*.

STUKELEY (William), a physician of eminence, and a distinguished antiquary, descended from an ancient family in Lincolnshire, was born at Holbeach, in that county, in the year 1687. He received his early education at the free-school of his native town, and was entered of Bennet College, Cambridge, in 1793; and while an under-graduate, evinced a strong propensity to drawing, and to the study of antiquities. Being intended for the medical profession, however, his principal attention was directed to botany, and the other collateral studies, which he could pursue at the university, until he took the degree of M. B. in 1709. He then went to London, where he studied anatomy, and acquired a knowledge of the practice of medicine under Dr. Mead, at St. Thomas's Hospital. He first settled as a physician at Boston, in his native county; but in 1717, he removed to London. On the recommendation of Dr. Mead, he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society; and he was one of the revivers of the Society of Antiquaries in 1718, to which he acted as secretary for several years. He took the degree of M. D. at Cambridge in 1719, and in the following year was admitted a fellow of the College of Physicians in London. At this time he published his first antiquarian essay, containing a description of "Arthur's Oon," and "Graham's Dyke," in Scotland, with plates. In the year 1722, being appointed by the College of Physicians to read the Gulstonian lectures, he chose the structure and history of *the spleen* for his subject; and in the following year he published the substance of his lectures, in one volume, folio, with plates, under the title of "The Spleen, its Description, Uses, and Diseases;" to which he also subjoined, "Some anatomical Observations, made in the Dissection of an Elephant." In this work, however, he had not the credit of much originality; for Haller affirms, that the plates were copied, without acknowledgment, from Vesalius, and contained several errors. Conceiving that there were some remains of the Eleusinian mysteries among the secrets of freemasonry, he became a member of that fraternity, and was constituted master of a lodge. To this society he presented an account of a Roman amphitheatre at Dorchester. His propensity to the investigation of antiquities, indeed, continued to influence his pursuits; and being greatly afflicted with the gout, which generally attacked him during the winter months, he was accustomed to take various journeys in the spring for the recovery of his health, which afforded him many opportunities of gratifying his curiosity. He generally therefore directed his excursions to those places, where

where the indications of the progress of Cæsar's expedition in this island may be traced; and the collections which he made during these travels, were published in 1724, in folio, with numerous plates, under the title of "Itinerarium Curiosum;" and a second volume, containing his description of the Brill, or Cæsar's camp at Pancras, in 1725.

In the following year, 1726, Dr. Stukeley quitted London, and settled at Grantham, where he speedily acquired an extensive reputation, and was consulted by the nobility and principal families in that neighbouring country. In 1728 he married a lady of good family and fortune. The fatigues of the profession, however, and the repeated attacks of gout, which still harassed him, became at length too great for his strength, and he determined to enter the church. He was ordained at Croydon, in 1720, by archbishop Wake; and in the same year was presented, by Lord Chancellor King, to the living of All-Saints in Stamford. About the time of his entering on his parochial cure, in 1730, Dr. Rogers of that place had just invented his *oleum aritheticum*, which Dr. Stukeley was induced to try, and having experienced great relief from its use, both in his own person and in others, he was induced to publish an account of its effects, in a letter to Sir Hans Sloane, in 1733; and in the year following, he printed "A Treatise on the Cause and Cure of Gout, from a new Rationale." Besides some tracts of minor importance relative to antiquities, he published, in 1736, the first number of his "Palæographia Sacra; or Discourses on the Monuments of Antiquity that relate to Sacred History." In this work, which he intended to continue, he maintains that the heathen mythology is derived from sacred history, and that the Bacchus of the poets, for example, is the Jehovah of scripture, the conductor of the Israelites through the wilderness. During his residence at Stamford, he arranged his collection of Greek and Roman coins according to the order of the scripture history; and from this time his publications were very numerous.

In 1737 he lost his wife, and afterwards married the only daughter of the learned antiquary, Dr. Gale, dean of York, and sister of his intimate friends Roger and Samuel Gale, from which period he often spent his winters in London. In 1740, he published an account of Stonehenge, which he regarded as a druidical monument. This was followed by his account of the remains of Abury, in the same county; and into these works he incorporated a great part of a "History of the ancient Celts, particularly the first Inhabitants of Great Britain," which he had announced as a separate work. In his "History of Carausius," in two volumes 4to. published in 1757 and 1759, he has displayed much erudition and ingenuity in settling the principal events of that emperor's government in Britain. He published, besides, many interesting and valuable tracts, especially three numbers of "Palæographia Britannica;" some papers respecting earthquakes, &c.: but the last labours of his life were dedicated to the completion of an elaborate work on ancient British coins, particularly those of Cunobelin, in which he felicitated himself on having discovered many new and curious anecdotes relative to the reigns of the British kings.

Dr. Stukeley was one of the founders of the Egyptian Society in the year 1741, in which he became acquainted with the benevolent duke of Montague, who prevailed upon him, in 1747, to vacate his preferments in the country, and accept the rectory of St. George's, Queen-square. He therefore moved his residence again to London, and had a retreat at Kentish Town. In February, 1765, he was seized with a stroke of the palsy, which terminated his valuable life in the March following, in the 78th year of his age. He was interred in the church-yard of East Ham, in Essex, in a spot which he had chosen when on a visit to the vicar a short time previous to his death. All his works evince a profound knowledge of ancient history, tinged indeed with that propensity common to his fraternity, of magnifying the importance of his subjects by the assumptions of a lively fancy, and some credulity.

STUKELY, GREAT, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 2½ miles north-north-west of Huntingdon.

STUKELY, LITTLE, another parish in the above county; one mile distant from the foregoing.

STUKELY, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Richlieu. Population 250.

STULM, *s.* A shaft to draw water out of a mine.

STULTILOQUENCE, *s.* Foolish talk.

STULTILOQUY, *s.* [*stultiloquium*, Lat.] Foolish babbling or discourse.—What they call facetiousness and pleasant wit, is indeed to wise persons a meer *stultiloquy*, or talking like a fool. *Bp. Taylor.*

To STULTIFY, *v. a.* [*stultus* and *facio*, Lat.] To prove foolish or void of understanding.—In England no man is allowed to *stultify* himself. *Johnson.*

STUM, *s.* Wine yet unfermented: must.—An unctious clammy vapour, that arises from the *stum* of grapes, when they lie mashed in the vat, puts out a light when dipped into it. *Addison.*—New wine used to raise fermentation in dead and vapid wines.

Let our wines without mixture or *stum* be all fine,
Or call up the master, and break his dull noddle. *B. Jonson.*

Wine revived by a new fermentation.

Drink ev'ry letter on't in *stum*,
And make it brisk champaigne become. *Hudibras.*

To STUM, *v. a.* To renew wine by mixing fresh wine and raising a new fermentation.—Vapid wines are put upon the lees of noble wines to give them spirit, and we *stum* our wines to renew their spirits. *Floyer.*

STUM, a small town of West Prussia; 33 miles south-east of Dantzic. It contains 900 inhabitants.

To STUMBLE, *v. n.* [This word Junius derives from *stump*, and says the original meaning is to *strike*, or *trip against a stump*. Todd supposes it may come from *tumble*.] To trip in walking.

As we pac'd along
Upon the giddy footing of the hatches,
Methought that Glo'ster *stumbled*; and, in falling,
Struck me, that sought to stay him, overboard. *Shakspeare.*

To slip; to err; to slide into crimes or blunders.

This my day of grace
They who neglect and scorn, shall never taste;
But hard be harden'd, blind be blinded more,
That they may *stumble* on and deeper fall. *Milton.*

To strike against by chance; to fight on by chance: with *upon*.

What man art thou, that, thus bescreen'd in night,
So *stumblest* on my counsel. *Shakspeare.*

To STUMBLE, *v. a.* To obstruct in progress; to make to trip or stop.—It holds out false and dazzling fires to *stumble* men. *Milton.*—To make to boggle; to offend.

This *stumbles* me: art sure for me, wench,
This preparation is? *Beaum. and Fl.*

STUMBLE, *s.* A trip in walking; a blunder; a failure.—One *stumble* is enough to deface the character of an honourable life. *L'Estrange.*

STUMBLER, *s.* One that stumbles.

Be sweet to all: is thy complexion sour?
Then keep such company; make them thy ally:
Get a sharp wife, a servant that will low'r;
A *stumbler* stumbles least in rugged way. *Herbert.*

STUMBLINGBLOCK, or STUMBLINGSTONE, *s.* Cause of stumbling; cause of error; cause of offence.—Shakspeare is a *stumblingblock* to these rigid critics. *Spectator.*

STUMBLINGLY, *adv.* With failure; with blunder.—I know not whether to marvel more, either that he [Chaucer] in that misty time could see so clearly, or that we in this clear age go so *stumblingly* after him. *Sidney.*

STUMP, *s.* [*stumpe*, Danish; *stompe*, Dutch; *stompen*, Dan. *to lop*.] The part of any solid body remaining after the rest is taken away.—Your colt's tooth is not cast yet.—Not while I have a *stump*. *Shakspeare.*—Worn to the *stumps*

stumps in the service of the maids, 'tis thrown out of doors, or condemned to kindle a fire. *Swift.*

To STUMP, *v. a.* [*stompen*, Dan.] To lop.—Around the *stumped* top soft moss did grow. *More.*

To STUMP, *v. n.* To walk about heavily, or clumsily, like a clown: a *low colloquial term.*

Cymon, a clown, who never dreamt of love,
By chance was *stumping* to the neighbouring grove.

Song of Cym.

STUMPSTOWN, a township of the United States, in Dauphin county, Pennsylvania, on a branch of the Little Swatara; 24 miles east-north-east of Harrisburg.

STUMPY, *adj.* Full of stumps; hard; stiff; strong. *A bad word.*—They burn the stubble, which, being so *stumpy*, they seldom plow in. *Mortimer.*—[*stumpig*, Swedish.] Short; stubby; sometimes applied to a short but stout person: a *low expression.*

STUMPY INLET, a channel between two small islands on the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 34. 24. N. long. 77. 43. W.

To STUN, *v. a.* [*stunian*, *zerstun*, Saxon, *noise.*] To confound or dizzy with noise.

An universal hubbub wild
Of *stunning* sounds, and voices all confus'd,
Assaults his ear.

Milton.

Still shall I hear, and never quit the score,
Stun'd with hoarse Codrus' Theseid o'er and o'er.

Dryden.

To make senseless or dizzy with a blow.
One hung a pole-ax at his saddle bow,
And one a heavy mace to *stun* the foe.

Dryden.

STUNG. The preterite and participle passive of *sting*.
To both these sisters have I sworn my love:
Each jealous of the other, as the *stung*
Are of the adder.

Shakspeare.

STUNK. The preterite of *stink*.

To STUNT, *v. a.* To hinder from growth.
There he stopt short, nor since has writ a title,
But has the wit to make the most of little;
Like *stunted* hide-bound trees, that just have got
Sufficient sap at once to bear and rot.

Pope.

STUNTLEY, a hamlet of England, in the isle of Ely, Cambridgeshire; 1½ mile east-south-east of Ely.

STUPE, *s.* [*stupa*, Lat.] Cloth or flax dipped in warm medicaments, and applied to a hurt or sore.—A fomentation was by some pretender to surgery applied with coarse woollen *stupes*, one of which was bound upon his leg. *Wiseman.*

To STUPE, *v. a.* To foment; to dress with *stupes*.—The *escar* divide, and *stupe* the part affected with wine. *Wiseman.*

STUPE, *s.* A term in derision for a stupid or foolish person. The Scotch also use it.—Brother, he does not look like a music-master.—He does not look! was ever such a poor *stupe*! well, and what does he look like then? *Bickerstaff.*

STUPEFACTION, *s.* [*stupefaction*, Fr.; *stupefactus*, Lat.] Insensibility; dullness; stupidity; sluggishness of mind; heavy folly.

She sent to every child
Firm impudence, or *stupefaction* mild;
And straight succeeded, leaving shame no room,
Cibberian forehead, or Cimberian gloom.

Pope.

STUPEFACTIVE, *adj.* [from *stupefactus*, Lat., *stupefactif*, Fr.] Causing insensibility; dulling; obstructing the senses; narcotic: opiate.—Opium hath a *stupefactive* part, and a heating part; the one moving sleep, the other a heat. *Bacon.*

STUPEFACTIVE, *s.* An opiate.—It is a gentle fomentation, and hath a very little mixture of some *stupefactive*. *Bacon.*

STUPE'NDOUS, or STUPENDIOUS, *adj.* [*stupendus*, Lat. This word was at first *stupend.*] Wonderful; amazing;
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astonishing.—All those *stupendous* acts deservedly are the subject of a history, excellently written in Latin by a learned prelate. *Clarendon.*

Great joy was at their meeting, and at sight
Of that *stupendous* bridge his joy increas'd.

Milton.

STUPE'NDOUSLY, *adv.* In a wonderful manner.

Without a friend
Stupendously she fell.

Sandys.

STUPE'NDOUSNESS, *s.* Wonderfulness.—Those very works, which, from their *stupendousness*, should have taught them the greatness of the former, were the occasion of their paying that homage to the thing made, which could be due to the worker only. *Ellis.*

STU'PID, *adj.* [*stupidus*, Fr., *stupidus*, Lat.] Dull; wanting sensibility; wanting apprehension; heavy; sluggish of understanding.

O that men should be so *stupid* grown
As to forsake the living God.

Milton.

Performed without skill or genius.
Wit, as the chief of virtue's friends,
Disdains to serve ignoble ends;
Observe what loads of *stupid* rhimes
Oppress us in corrupted times.

Swift.

STU'PIDITY, *s.* [*stupidité*, Fr.; *stupiditas*, Lat.] Dulness; heaviness of mind; sluggishness of understanding.

Shadwell alone, of all my sons, is he
Who stands confirm'd in full *stupidity*.

Dryden.

STU'PIDLY, *adv.* With suspension or inactivity of understanding.

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

Milton.

Dully; without apprehension.—On the shield there was engraven maps of countries, which Ajax could not comprehend, but looked on as *stupidly* as his fellow-beast the lion. *Dryden.*

STU'PIDNESS, *s.* Dulness; stupidity.—He so applies himself to his pillow, as a man that meant not to be drowned in sleep, but refreshed; not limiting his rest by the insatiable lust of a sluggish and drowsy *stupidness*. *Bp. Hall.*

STU'PIFIER, *s.* That which causes stupidity.—Whether the natural phlegm of this island needs any additional *stupifier*. *Bp. Berkeley.*

To STU'PIFY, *v. a.* [*stupefacio*, Lat. This word should therefore be spelled *stupefy*; but the authorities are against it.] To make stupid; to deprive of sensibility; to dull.

Those

Will *stupify* and dull the sense a while.

Shakspeare.

STU'POR, *s.* [Lat.; *stupeur*, Fr.] Suspension or diminution of sensibility.—A pungent pain in the region of the kidneys, a *stupor*, or dull pain in the thigh, and colic, are symptoms of an inflammation of the kidneys. *Arbutnot.*—Astonishment.—To the *stupour* and amaze of the whole world. *Parth.*

To STU'PRATE, *v. a.* [*stupro*, Lat.] To ravish; to violate.

STU'PRATION, *s.* [*stupratio*, from *stupro*, Lat.] Rape; violation.—*Stupration* must not be drawn into practice. *Brown.*

STURA, a considerable river of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, which takes its rise in Mount Argentera, on the borders of France, and after a course of 80 miles, discharges itself into the Tanaro near Cherasco. It gave name to a department of the French empire.

STURA, another river of the Sardinian states, in the duchy of Monterrat, which falls into the Po at the small town of Ponte di Stura.

STURA, a third river of the Sardinian states, which rises in the mountains on the borders of Savoy, and falls into the Po a little above Turin.

STURBRIDGE, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts. It is watered by the

Quinebaug, and the turnpike from Worcester to Hertford passes through the town. Population 1927; 58 miles south-west of Boston.

STURDILY, *adv.* Stoutly; hardily.—Obstinately; resolutely.

Then withdraw
From Cambridge, thy old nurse: and, as the rest,
Here toughly chew and *sturdily* digest
Th' immense vast volumes of our common law. *Donne.*

STURDINESS, *s.* Stoutness; hardness.—Sacrifice not his innocency to the attaining some little skill of bustling for himself, by his conversation with vicious boys, when the chief use of that *sturdiness*, and standing upon his own legs, is only for the preservation of his virtue. *Locke.*—Brutal strength.

STURDY, *adj.* [*estourdi*, Fr. *Johnson.*—From the Icel. *stýrd*, rigidus. *Serenius.* Or from *stuer*, Teut. *torvus*, trux, horridus, ferox; dicitur *stuer* q. d. *stier*, i. e. taurus. *Kilian.* “By the accustomed addition of *z*, or *y*, to *stour*, or *τρυμ* (tumult), we have *sturdy*, and the Fr. *estourdi.*” *H. Tooke.*] Hardy; stout; obstinate.—It is always used of men with some disagreeable idea of coarseness or rudeness.

Aw'd by that house accusom'd to command,
The *sturdy* kerns in due subjection stand,
Nor bear the reins in any foreign hand. *Dryden.*

The ill-appareled knight now had gotten the reputation
of some *sturdy* lout, he had so well defended himself.
Sidney.

Sturdiest oaks
Bow'd their stiff necks, loaden with stormy blasts,
Or torn up sheer. *Milton.*

STURGEON, *s.* [*sturgeon*, old Fr.; *sturio*, *tursio*, Lat.] A sea-fish. See **ACCIPENSER STURIO**.—It is part of the scutellated bone of a *sturgeon*, being flat, of a porous or cellular constitution on one side, the cells being worn down and smooth on the other. *Woodward.*

STURGEON LAKE, a lake of North America, which is connected with Pine Island lake, by the river Saskatchewan, and which also communicates with the lake Winnipic by means of Sturgeon Weir river. It forms an irregular horse-shoe, one side of which runs to the north-west, and bears the name of Pine Island lake; and the other, known by the name of Sturgeon lake, runs to the east of north, and is the largest. Its length is about 27 miles, and its greatest breadth about 6 miles.

STURGEON WEIR RIVER, a river of North America, which discharges itself into Sturgeon lake. It is almost one continual rapid; and its course, including its windings, may be about 30 miles.

STURK, *s.* [τρυπε, Sax.] A young ox or heifer. *Obsolete.*

STURLESON (Snorro), a celebrated Icelandic writer, styled the Herodotus of the north, was born in the district of Dale, in the year 1178. At three years of age he was put to school under the learned John Loptson, a distinguished character at that period, with whom he remained till the time of his death, in 1197. Though of noble descent he was poor, till by marriage he so much increased his property, as to become the richest man in the island, excepting the son of his deceased preceptor. He was remarkably fond of parade; and when he went to the courts of justice, was usually attended with several hundred armed men. He possessed six large farms, and several on a smaller scale. After the death of his father-in-law, in 1202, he removed to Borg, the inheritance of his wife; but in 1209 he went to reside at the farm of Reikholt, in the improvements of which he spared neither time nor expense. He surrounded his mansion and church with a very high rampart, to serve as a security in time of danger; and by means of a subterraneous channel, constructed of stone, conveyed water from the neighbouring warm springs of Skribla, to a bath, still denominated after the founder, Snorrolaug, which was paved with hewn stone, and bor-

dered by seats of the same material. This building has survived the depredations of 600 years. In 1213, Snorro was chosen supreme judge over the whole island. About the same period he acquired great reputation abroad by his poetical talents. He composed a poem in honour of the powerful northern earl, Haco Galin, which he sent to him the same year from Iceland, and in return for the civility he received many valuable presents. In 1218 he proceeded to Norway, where he was in great favour with the king, Haco, and several of the nobility. Under the government of this sovereign, he was appointed to various offices, and went several times to Iceland, in order to promote his patron's views in regard to that island. It having been determined to send troops thither from Norway, either for the purpose of conquering the country, or for obtaining satisfaction on account of some acts of violence committed by the inhabitants against Norwegian merchants, Snorro prevented this expedition, by his remonstrances to one of the king's friends; but he engaged, on the other hand, with the assistance of his brother, to bring the island under the king's authority without bloodshed, and promised to send his son to Norway, as a pledge of what he had undertaken. When Snorro set out on this mission, he received, besides other presents, a ship completely equipped. Having returned to Iceland in 1220, nothing farther was done: either Snorro found it impossible to carry his designs into execution, in consequence of disturbances which agitated the island, and in which he himself had a share, or he endeavoured, through a view to private advantage, to deceive both the king and his own countrymen. He was at enmity with his relations, among whom were his brother, his nephew, and his three sons-in-law, who had all repudiated their wives. Finding himself too weak to contend with his numerous enemies, he quitted Iceland in 1237, and went again to Norway, where he arrived at the moment when duke Skule was preparing to deprive his son-in-law, king Haco, of the crown, and to place himself on the throne in his stead. Snorro espoused the party of the duke, but returned to Iceland in 1239. Gissur Thorraldsen, a relation of king Haco, by whom he had been raised to the rank of earl, was one of Snorro's sons-in-law, but had now become his bitter enemy. In 1240, king Haco sent him a message, after he had got rid of duke Skule, either to bring Snorro a prisoner to Norway, or to put him to death. At first, Gissur intended to execute his murderous designs at the place where justice, as it was called, was usually administered; but finding this inconvenient, he fell upon him at his residence, where he was assassinated, in the 63d year of his age. Snorro was unquestionably a great and learned man; his “*Heimskringla*, or *Chronicle of the Norwegian Kings*,” has been printed at various times, and under different forms. A Danish translation of it by Clausen, with Worm's preface, was published at Copenhagen in 1633 and 1657. It was printed at Stockholm in Icelandic, Swedish, and Latin, in 1697, 2 vols. fol. But the most elegant edition is said to be that of Schoning, published in Icelandic, Danish, and Latin, which was printed at Copenhagen in 1777 and 1783. This was printed at the expence of the crown-prince: the Latin translation and notes were by Schoning; but the Danish is that of Clausen, revised by J. Olafsen. By this important work, which throws so much light on the earliest history of Norway, Snorro rendered much service to posterity. But his merit does not rest on this alone, since he is commonly considered as the author of the prose Edda, edited by Resenius in 1665, which is founded on those old poems said to have been collected by Sæmund, and on that account called “*Edda Sæmundi*.” The Edda of Snorro is a poetic manual, or the Scandinavian art of poetry, consisting of three parts. In the first, which may be compared to Ovid's *Metamorphoses*, or Hesiod's *Theogony*, are related all those fables contained in the works of Skalda. The second part is a treatise on poetical phraseology or synonymy, which shews in what manner the Skalda gave names to different things: and the third, called *Skalda*, treats of alphabetical characters, their division, and the relation

relation they bear to musical tones; of poetical licences, metre, &c. The last part has never been published. Notwithstanding the general merit of Snorro, he is described as a cunning and deceitful man; unsteady in his friendship, fond of money, as well as ambitious, and of a violent and quarrelsome disposition. *Gen. Biog.*

STURM (James), was born of a family of eminence at Strasburgh, in 1489, and elected at the age of twenty-five into the senate of his native place. He was an active promoter of the Reformation, and deputed to the imperial diet, assembled on that occasion. When the deputies of the reformed were excluded, in 1529, from the diet at Spire, Sturm boldly entered his protest against the measure, and on behalf of his constituents and the other confederates, declared, that if good citizens were thus divested of their privileges, contrary to the customs of the empire, it could not be expected that they should contribute to the public expenses. This protestation on his part gave rise to the appellation of "Protestants." Amongst other offices of important trust, which were committed to him, he was one of the ambassadors sent in 1536 from the states of Germany to Henry VIII. of England. By his influence a college was established at Strasburgh in 1538, and at his death he left to its support a considerable legacy. Sleidan, in his "History of the Reformation," availed himself of much valuable information communicated by Sturm, of whom it is recorded, that being scandalized by the violent disputes among the Reformers concerning the Lord's Supper, he abstained for many years from receiving it. After having several times served his state as mayor, and having been ninety-one times delegated from it on public business, he died in high esteem, at the age of sixty-four. *Gen. Biog.*

STURM (John), was born at Sleida, near Cologne, in 1507, and studied at Liege and Louvain, in which last city he set up a press, and joined Rescius, the Greek professor, in printing several Greek books. In 1529 he transferred his printing-press to Paris, where he delivered lectures on the classics and on logic. He married there; but being suspected of an attachment to the new opinions, he removed to Strasburgh, where he was appointed first rector of the newly appointed college, which flourished greatly under his care, as he was well versed in the learned languages, wrote Latin, with purity, and had a good method of teaching. By his influence the college was raised, in 1566, by the emperor Maximilian II., to the rank of an university. The benefactions of Sturm to refugees from France and other parts, on account of their religion, injured his own circumstances; and his life was disquieted by the persecutions of the Lutheran ministers. His own sentiments were those of Zuinglius, though he conformed to the mitigated Lutheranism which he found at Strasburgh. However, in process of time, as the ministers became rigid on the subject of consubstantiation, he withdrew from the religious services, and at length, when he was obliged to declare his opinion, he was deprived of his office at the age of 67 years. Before his death he became blind, and terminated his life in 1689, in his 82d year. Sturm was the editor of many works, which gave him reputation in the learned world. From the Greek he translated Aristotle's books on Rhetoric, and the works of Hermogenes concerning oratory; and he composed some original treatises on the method of teaching those arts. Several of his letters are contained in the Latin correspondence of Roger Ascham, printed at Oxford. *Bayle. Moreri.*

STURM, or STURMIUS, (John-Christopher,) born at Hippelstein in 1635, was a professor of philosophy and mathematics at Altdorf, where he died in 1703. In 1670 he published a German translation of the works of Archimedes, and afterwards many books of his own composition. The titles and dates of several of them are as follow: "Collegium experimentale curiosum," 4to. Nuremberg, 1676; "Physica electiva et hypothetica," 2 vols. 4to. Nuremberg, 1675, reprinted at Altdorf, 1730; "Scientia Cosmica," fol. Altdorf, 1670; "Architecturæ Militaris Tyrocinia,"

fol. 1682; "Epistola de Veritate propositionum Borelli de Motu Animalium," 4to. Nuremberg, 1684; "Physicæ Conciatrix Conamina," 8vo. Altdorf, 1684; "Mathesis enucleata," 8vo. Nuremberg, 1695; "Mathesis Juvenilis," Nuremberg, 2 vols. 8vo. 1699; "Physicæ modernæ Compendium," 8vo. Nuremberg, 1704; "Tyrocinia Mathematica," fol. Leipsic, 1707; "Prælectiones Academicæ," 4to. 1722; "Prælectiones Academicæ," Strasburg, 12mo.

STURMERE, a parish of England, in Essex; 9½ miles north-west of Castle Hedingham.

STURMHAUBE, a mountain of Bohemia, in the Riesengebirge chain, about 4500 feet in height.

STURMINSTER MARSHAL, a parish, formerly a market town, of England, situated on the river Stour; 8½ miles south-west of Shaftsbury. Population 588.

STURMINSTER NEWTON CASTLE, or more generally STURMINSTER NEWTON, a market town of England, in the county of Dorset, situated on the river Stour. It consists of two townships that stretch along each side of the river, and communicate with each other by means of a causeway, and a bridge consisting of six arches. The buildings are rather low, and mostly covered with thatch. In the market-place, however, are some good houses covered with tiles. The market-house is a lofty oblong building, the upper part of which is used as a warehouse, and the under part serves for butchers' shambles. The church is a very lofty spacious piece of architecture. Baxter conjectures this place to be the *Anicetis* of Ravennas. It was undoubtedly known in the early ages of the Saxons; for the castle boasts of very remote antiquity. Its ruins are in the form of a Roman D, and stands on a high hill, surrounded by a high vallum and deep ditch on the south-west, and part on the east. Near the centre is a small artificial mount or keep. The manor was held by the abbey of Glastonbury, by a grant from king Edgar, having formerly been bequeathed by Alfred the Great to his son Ethelwald. Market on Thursday, and two annual fairs. In 1811 Sturminster contained 1461 inhabitants; 20 miles north-north-east of Dorchester, and 111 west-south of London.

STURNUS, the STARE, or STARLING, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order passeræ, of which the Generic Character is as follows: Bill subulate, angular, depressed, bluntish; the upper mandible is entire, somewhat open at the edges; the nostrils are surrounded with a prominent rim; tongue notched and pointed. There are seventeen species.

1. *Sturnus vulgaris*, or common starling.—Bill yellowish; body black, with white dots.—This is very common in our own country, and is found in other parts of Europe, Asia, and America. It is about nine inches long, and builds its nest in the hollows of trees, eaves of houses, towers, or rocky cliffs; it lays from four to five eggs, which are of a palish-green colour. In the winter season, starlings assemble in vast flocks in marshy places; feed on worms and insects; are very docile, and may easily be taught to speak. The flesh is bitter, and scarcely eatable. The other characteristics of this species are, that their quill-feathers and tail are of a dusky hue; the former are edged with yellow on the outer side, the latter with a dirty-green; lesser coverts edged with yellow, and slightly glossed with green; the legs are of a reddish-brown. Male is shining, with purple, green, and gold.

During the winter months, starlings crowd together in such close and well-arranged battalions, that no bird of prey dare to penetrate their ranks. This manner of flight, which is extremely useful in defending them against rapacious birds, renders them a more easy prey to the wiles of the bird-catcher, who dispatches among them a number of birds of their own kind, each having a glued thread tied to its leg, by which some of them are entangled and brought to the ground. Their love of society not only prompts them to associate with birds of their own species, but with others in no way allied to their tribe. In the spring and summer they are frequently seen with crows and choughs, and even with pigeons. It is, however, principally towards night that the starlings unite

unite in large companies, as if to put themselves in sufficient force to brave its dangers. Then they assemble in a flock, and after various evolutions, rush with much impetuosity into the midst of the thicket, where they spend the evening in chattering, till darkness puts an end to their conversation. In the morning, at day-break, the noisy conference is resumed, till they depart or separate in search of food. Starlings seldom take the trouble of building nests for themselves, but generally take possession of the deserted abodes of some other birds.

Their docility, and the beauty of their plumage, have rendered starlings great favourites. They are frequently taught to speak, and sing song-tunes. Their vocal powers are, however, acquired by education, and in the domestic state, they support a musical character much better than in the wild.

There is in the productions of Nature a continual tendency to variety, which is clearly exemplified in most of the tribes of birds, and which the distinct, and almost insulated characters of the starling, have not been able to defeat. Hence naturalists have enumerated five varieties of the common starling, of which the first (independently of that already described) has a white body; the second is white; the crown, neck, wings, and tail, are black; the third is white, but above the eyes and near the bill are two black spots; and the fourth is cinereous, with black bill and legs.

2. *Sturnus Capensis*, or Cape starling.—Blackish beneath; the sides of the head are white.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, and is the size of the last. The black and the white, which are the only colours of this bird, are distributed very like those of our pies. The bill is thicker and longer than that of the European starling, and its distinguishing marks are two large white spots of a round form on each side of the head. In the middle of these are placed the two ears.

3. *Sturnus Ludovicianus*, or Louisiana starling.—The specific characters of these are, that they are spotted with grey and brown, beneath they are yellow: the head and eye-brows are marked with a white line; the chin is black. A variety is varied with brown, reddish, and blackish, beneath yellow; breast with a curved black band; the three lateral tail-feathers are white. The starlings of Louisiana are observed in great flocks in the interior regions of North America. By their manner of flight, as well as their shape, they indicate a near approach to our European kinds.

4. *Sturnus contra*, or Indian starling.—Brown; eye-spot, bar on the wings, and belly, white. The body of this species is blackish; the ring on the upper part of the neck white; the upper wing-coverts are marked with white spots: the legs are of a pale yellow.—It inhabits India, and is thought to be a variety of the *Sturnus Capensis*.

5. *Sturnus cinclus*, or water-ouzel; crane.—Black with a white breast. It is about seven or eight inches long; frequents waters, and feeds on aquatic insects and small fish; it is a very solitary bird, and breeds in the holes of banks; makes a curious nest of hay and fibres of roots, lined with dead leaves, and having an entrance of green moss. The chin is white; the tail black; belly ferruginous; in the young bird it is white; the legs are of a pale blue before, and black behind.—This species is common to our own country, other parts of Europe, and northern Persia.

6. *Sturnus Milibaris*, or Magellanic starling.—Grey; breast and chin red. Behind and under the eyes is a white spot; the lores are red; on each side the neck is a black blotch; the vent and sub-forked tail are black.—It inhabits the Falkland Islands, and is eleven and a half inches long.

7. *Sturnus Moritanus*.—Cinereous; lower part of the head and chin varied with cinereous and white; belly spotted with reddish, hoary; the bill is tipped with black.—This species inhabits the Alpine parts of Persia; it is the size of a common lark, builds in hollow rocks, and feeds on insects.

8. *Sturnus loyca*.—Spotted with brown and white, chin and breast scarlet.—It inhabits Chili, and is larger than *Sturnus vulgaris*; it builds in holes on the ground, and lays three

cinereous eggs, varied with brown: it sings well, and is easily tamed.

9. *Sturnus Mexicanus*, or Mexican starling.—Blue varied with black. The bill and eyes are black; irids pale-yellow; the head is small.—It inhabits South America, and is about the size of the *Sturnus vulgaris*.

10. *Sturnus obscurus*, or brown-headed starling.—Black, but the head is brown, whence its trivial name.—It inhabits New Spain.

11. *Sturnus Zeylanicus*, or Ceylonese starling.—Line over the eyes and one on the sides of the head black; body grey, varied with ochrey and white spots and crescents; quill-feathers green; tail marked with green and black lines. The bill is black, the head yellowish; the legs are of a blueish-grey.—It inhabits Ceylon, and imitates the notes of other birds.

12. *Sturnus fuscus*, or brown starling.—Olive; eye-band blueish; bill and legs reddish. The belly is yellowish; the tail long.—This is found chiefly in China.

13. *Sturnus viridis*, or green starling.—Green, beneath blueish; a tuft of black and white feathers on the front and chin. Above the front, and behind the eyes, a white spot, and two on the shoulders: quill-feathers and shafts of the tail-feathers white, legs blue-ash.—This inhabits China.

14. *Sturnus sericeus*, or silk starling.—Pale-grey; wings and tail black; the former with a transverse white bar; head ochre-yellow. Bill and legs orange or red; the plumage is silky.—It inhabits China, and is the size of the *Sturnus vulgaris*.

15. *Sturnus carunculatus*.—Bill and legs black; at each angle of the mouth a pendant orange wattle. The female is of a rusty-brown, with very small wattles. The male is black; the back and wing-coverts ferruginous.—It inhabits New Zealand, and is ten inches long.

16. *Sturnus collaris*, or collared starling.—Blackish-brown, spotted with brown; the flanks are rufous, the chin is white spotted with brown. The upper mandible is brown, lower yellowish, tipped with brown; breast brown-ash; the belly is rufous; quill-feathers blackish, the edge at the tip and inner side reddish; tail brown; legs of a horn-colour.—This species is found chiefly in Switzerland and Italy; size of a field-fare; it is a solitary bird; wags its tail, feeds on seeds, sings with a very weak voice, and builds on the ground, or in the clefts of rocks.

17. *Sturnus Dauricus*.—Body above violet-black; beneath ashy-white; the head and neck blueish-ash; crown with a violet-black streak; but in the female it is brown. The bill is black, and more convex than in others of its tribe; the tongue is blackish; the irids brown; down eyelids and lores white. The head of the female is cinereous; the back is of a grey-brown; the wing-coverts of the male are black; silky-green; the secondaries tipped with white; the quill-feathers are black; the two inner ones tipped with white; the primary ones are tipped with green; the tail is sub-forked, greenish-black; the covert violet; legs blueish-black.—This species is found chiefly among the ozier plantations of Dauria; it is above six inches long, and feeds on vegetables and insects.

STURRY, a parish of England, in Kent, on the river Stour, over which there is here an elegant stone bridge. Population 709; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Canterbury.

STURSTON. 1. A township of England, in Derbyshire; 1 mile east of Ashborne.—2. A parish in Norfolk; 5 miles south-west-by-west of Watton.—3. A parish in Suffolk; 3 miles north-by-west of Wye.—4. A hamlet in the parish of Bagden, Huntingdonshire.

STURTON. 1. A parish in Lincolnshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west-by-north of Horncastle.—2. A township in Lincolnshire; $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Gainsborough.—3. Another township in the above county; 3 miles south-west of Glandford Bridge.—4. A hamlet in Staffordshire, situated on the river Stour; 3 miles from Stourbridge.—5. A hamlet in the West Riding of Yorkshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile north-west of Skipton.—6. STURTON, or *Stretton*, a parish in Nottinghamshire; 6 miles east-north-east of East Retford. Population

STURNUS AND TANAGRA.



1. *S. militaris*. 2. *S. carunculatus*. 3. *T. tatar.* 4. *T. albirostris*. 5. *T. jayappa.*

lation 526.—7. STURTON, *Grange*, a township in the parish of Aberford, West Riding of Yorkshire.—Also a township in the parish of Warkworth, Northumberland.

To STUT, or To STU'TTER, *v. n.* [*stottern*, Germ., *the same.*] To speak with hesitation; to stammer.

She spake somewhat thicke,
Her felowe did stammer and *stut*,
But she was a foule slut.

Skelton.

STU'TTER, or STU'TTERER, *s.* One that speaks with hesitation; a stammerer.—Many *stutters* are very choleric, choleric inducing a dryness in the tongue. *Bacon.*—*Stutterers* use to stammer more when the wind is in that hole. *Howell.*

STUTTERTON, a parish in Lincolnshire; 9 miles from Spalding. Population 860.

STUTTESBURY, or STOTESBURY, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 5 miles north-by-west of Brackley.

STUTTGARD, a city in the south-west of Germany, the capital of the kingdom of Wirtemberg. It stands on the small river Nisselbach, in a valley, and is only 2 miles from the Neckar, over which there is an elegant bridge. It may be considered as divided into three parts, the town proper, two suburbs adjacent to each other, with the separate suburb called Esslingen. The town proper is badly built, the streets being narrow, the houses frequently of wood. The suburbs being less antique, are somewhat better, particularly that of Esslingen, in which are the royal palace, the gymnasium, the barracks, and several public buildings. The palace is a noble structure, situated near an extensive park. Its interior contains a good collection of paintings and statues, while its windows command a delightful view of the environs. Around the palace are several public establishments, a spacious opera-house, a small theatre, a museum, a garden, and an academy for painting, sculpture, and architecture. The royal library is said to contain 100,000 volumes, new and old, among which is an unique collection of bibles, comprising editions of every age and every country. The gymnasium has an observatory, and a good collection of mathematical instruments. The town has also a public library; and though it can boast of no handsome streets, except King's-street, which adjoins the palace, it has several pleasant walks, particularly that which leads to the royal villa of Monrepos. Its public buildings are an old palace, now converted into government offices, a mint, a town-house, a great church, and the royal stables. Though surrounded by a wall and ditch, Stuttgart is a place of no strength; and though repeatedly entered by the armies on both sides, between the years 1796 and 1815, it escaped altogether those calamities which pressed so severely on it in the wars of the 16th and 17th centuries. Here, as in other towns of Wirtemberg, manufactures are carried on on a small scale; they consist of leather, hats, cotton, silk, plated goods, and snuff. The expenditure of the court and nobility forms the chief support of the inhabitants. Provisions are abundant and reasonable, the surrounding country being equally fertile and beautiful, consisting chiefly of eminences covered with vineyards, and of valleys laid out in corn culture; 37 miles east-south-east of Carlsruhe, and 116 west-north-west of Munich. Lat. 48. 46. 15. N. long. 9. 11. 0. E.

STU'TTINGLY, or STU'TTERINGLY, *adv.* With stammering or hesitating speech.

STUTTON, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Tadcaster.

STUTTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 6 miles south-by-west of Ipswich.

STY, *s.* [*stige*, Sax.; *stia*, Icel.] A cabin to keep hogs in.

Tell Richmond,
That in the *sty* of this most bloody boar,
My son George Stanley is frank'd up in hold. *Shakspeare.*

Any place of bestial debauchery.

[They] all their friends and native home forget,
To roll with pleasure in a sensual *sty*.

Milton.

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[*stige*nd, Sax.; probably from *stigan*, to grow up. See *Etym. Dict.* 1691.] A humour in the eyelid: sometimes written *stian*.

To STY, *v. a.* [*stigean*, Sax.] To shut up in a sty.

Here you *sty* me
In this hard rock, while you do keep from me
The rest of the island. *Shakspeare.*

To STY, *v. n.* [*stigan*, Sax.; *steigan*, Goth., to climb.] To soar; to ascend; to climb.

To climbe aloft, and others to excell;
That was ambition, rash desire to *sty*. *Spenser.*

From this lower tract he dar'd to *stie*
Up to the clowdes. *Spenser.*

STY'CA, *s.* [*stica*, *stýca*, Sax.; from *stíce*, a small part.] A copper Saxon coin of the lowest value.—They had copper *stycas* also smaller than the penny, having the king's name on one side, and coiner's on the other, eight of which made a penny. *Leake.*

STYDD, or STEDE, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Ashborne.

STYFORD, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 7 miles east-by-south of Hexham.

STY'GIAN, *adj.* [*stygius*, Lat.] Hellish; infernal; pertaining to Styx, one of the poetical rivers of hell.

At that so sudden blaze the *Stygian* throng
Bent their aspect. *Milton.*

STYLE, *s.* [*stylus*, Lat.] Manner of writing with regard to language.

Happy
That can translate the stubbornness of fortune
Into so quiet, and so sweet a *style*. *Shakspeare.*

Manner of speaking appropriate to particular characters.—No *style* is held for base, where love well named is. *Sidney.*

There was never yet philosopher,
That could endure the toothach patiently,
However they have writ the *style* of gods,
And make a pish at chance and sufferance. *Shakspeare.*

Mode of painting.—The great *stile* stands alone, and does not require, perhaps does not as well admit, any addition from inferior beauties. The ornamental *stile* also possesses its own peculiar merit: however, though the union of the two may make a sort of composite *stile*, yet that *stile* is likely to be more imperfect than either of those which go to its composition. *Reynolds.*—It is likewise applied to music.—Title; appellation.—Ford's a knave, and I will aggravate his *stile*; thou shalt know him for knave and cuckold. *Shakspeare.*

O virgin! or what other name you bear
Above that *style*; O more than mortal fair!
Let not an humble suppliant sue in vain. *Dryden.*

Course of writing. *Unusual.*
While his thoughts the ling'ring day beguile,
To gentle Arcite let us turn our *style*. *Dryden.*

STYLE of Court, is properly the practice observed by any court in its way of proceeding. *Ayliffe.*—A pointed iron used anciently in writing on tables of wax.—When writing began to be common on tables of wood, covered over with coloured wax, men made use of a sort of bodkin, made of iron, or brass, or bone; which in Latin is called *stylus*:—As to the form of the *style*, it was made sharp like a pointed needle at one end, to write withal; and the other end blunt and broad, to scratch out what was written, and not approved of, to be amended; so that "vertere stylum," i. e. to turn the *style*, signifies, in Latin, to blot out. *Massey.*—Any thing with a sharp point, as a graver; the pin of a dial.—Placing two *stiles* or needles of the same steel, touched with the same loadstone, when the one is removed but half a span, the other would stand like Hercules's pillars. *Brown.*—The stalk which rises from amid the leaves of a flower.

flower.—*Style* is the middle prominent part of the flower of a plant, which adheres to the fruit or seed: 'tis usually slender and long, whence it has its name. *Quincey*.

To *STYLE*, *v. a.* To call; to term; to name.—The Chancellor of the Exchequer they had no mind should be *style* a knight. *Clarendon*.

STYLE, in Chronology, denotes a particular manner of accounting time, with regard to the retrenchment of ten days from the calendar, in the reformation made of it under Pope Gregory XIII. See *CALENDAR*.

STYLE is either *old* or *new*.

STYLE, Old, is the Julian manner of computing, which obtains in some Protestant states, who refused to admit of the reformation.

STYLE, New, is the Gregorian manner, followed by the Catholics, and others, in consequence of that reformation.

The Julian, or old style, agrees with the Julian year, which contains 365^d 6^h.

The Gregorian, or new style, agrees with the true solar year, which contains only 365^d 5^h 48^m 45^s.

STYLEMAN POINT, the north-west point of Port Snerdisham, on the west coast of North America. Lat. 57. 53. N. long. 226. 22. E.

STYLEPHORUS, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order Apodes. The Generic Character is as follows: The eyes are pedunculated, standing on a short, thick cylinder; the snout is lengthened, directed upwards, retractile towards the head by means of a membrane; the mouth is without teeth; it has three pair of gills beneath the throat; the pectoral fins are small; dorsal as long as the back; the caudal short, with spinous rays; the body is very long, and compressed.

This very singular genus, which consists of a single species, was first described in the year 1788, from a specimen at that time introduced into the Leverian museum, and figured in the first volume of the Linnæan Transactions.

Stylephorus chordatus, or silvery stylephorus.—The head of this extraordinary animal bears a distant resemblance to that of the genus *SYNGNATHUS*; which see. The rostrum or narrow part, which is terminated by the mouth, is connected to the back of the head by a flexible leathery duplicature, which permits it to be either extended in such a manner that the mouth points directly upwards, or to fall back, so as to be received into a sort of case formed by the upper part of the head. The eyes are placed at the top of the head: these are of a form very nearly approaching to those of the genus *Cancer*, except that the columns or parts on which each eye is placed are much broader or thicker than in that genus; they are also placed close together, and the outward surface of the eye, when magnified, does not show the least appearance of a reticulated structure. The colour of the eyes, as well as of the columns on which they stand, is a clear chestnut-brown, with a sort of coppery gloss. Below the head, on each side, is a considerable compressed semicircular space, the fore-part of which is bounded by the covering of the gills, which covering seems to consist of a single membrane, of a moderately strong nature. Beneath, on each side, are three small pair of branchiæ. The body is extremely long, and compressed very much, and gradually diminishes as it approaches to the tail, which terminates in a string or process of an enormous length, and finishes in a very fine point. This string, or caudal process, is strengthened throughout its whole length, or at least as far as the eye can trace it, by a sort of double fibre or internal part. The pectoral fins are very small, and situated almost immediately behind the cavity, on each side the thorax. The dorsal fin, which is thin and soft, runs from the head to within about an inch and a half of the tail, when it seems suddenly to terminate; perhaps, in the living animal, it may proceed quite to the tail. From this point commences a smaller fin, which constitutes part of the caudal one. The caudal fin is furnished with five remarkable spines, the roots or originations of which may be traced to some depth in the thin part of the tail. The general colour of this fish is a

rich silver, except on the flexible part belonging to the rostrum, which is of a deep brown: the fins and caudal process are also brown, but not so deep as the part just mentioned. There is no appearance of scales on this fish. It was from the singular figure and situation of the eyes, that it was named the *Stylephorus*; the name *chordatus* was taken from the extraordinary thread-like process of the tail. It is a native of the West Indian seas, and was taken between Cuba and Martinico, near a small cluster of little islands about nine leagues from shore, where it was observed swimming near the surface. The whole length of this uncommon fish, from the head to the extremity of the caudal process, is about thirty-two inches, of which the process itself measures twenty-two.

STYLIDÆ, in Botany, a natural order, established by Mr. R. Brown, Prodr. Nov. Holl. and named from its principal genus. See *STYLIDIUM*.

STYLIDIUM [so called by Sir J. E. Smith], in Botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order diandria, natural order campanulaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth superior, of one leaf, in two deeply separated lips, one divided, the other three-cleft, permanent. Corolla, of one petal; tube cylindrical, various in length, often crowned with glands; limb in five unequal, ovate-oblong, spreading segments, one of them a kind of lip, much smaller than the rest, and usually deflexed, mostly accompanied with a small appendage, on each side, at the base. Stamina: column linear, longer than the limb, approximated to the lip, curved and recurved, irritable underneath, flying over to the other side of the flower when touched, its summit then becoming deflexed; anthers sessile at the top, of two vertical lobes, subsequently greatly divaricated, bursting longitudinally. Pistil: germen inferior, roundish-ovate; style none, except the column; stigma between the anthers, and at first covered by them, afterwards rather prominent, obtuse, undivided. Pericarp: capsule ovate-oblong, or linear, of two cells and two valves, with a parallel incomplete partition. Seeds: numerous, small.—*Essential Character*. Calyx two-lipped, superior. Corolla tubular, five-cleft. Stigma undivided, between the anthers. Capsule incompletely two-celled.

This is chiefly a New Holland genus, and highly remarkable for the irritability of the column in every species, as far as has been observed. That part, when touched underneath, at its outer curvature, flies over, by a sudden spring, to the opposite side of the flower, thus scattering the pollen, with force, upon the stigma. No flower can be more truly gynandrous, than *Stylidium*.

1. *Stylidium pilosum*, or hairy-stalked stylidium.—Stalk somewhat branched, clothed with glandular hairs. Leaves flat, lanceolate-swordshaped.—Native of the south part of New Holland.

2. *Stylidium armeria*, or thrift-leaved stylidium.—Leaves linear-sword-shaped, entire. Stalk smooth. Cluster simple, downy. Lip without an appendage.—Found by Labillardiere at Cape Van Diemen.

3. *Stylidium graminifolium*, or grass-leaved stylidium.—Leaves linear, finely toothed. Flowers nearly spiked. Whole flower-stalk hairy. Lip with appendages at the base.—Native of the neighbourhood of Port Jackson, New Holland.

4. *Stylidium lineare*, or linear stylidium.—Leaves thread-shaped, compressed, minutely toothed. Cluster simple. Partial flower-stalks nearly as long as the germen. Common stalk smooth, slender. Lip with appendages at the base.—Found near Port Jackson.

5. *Stylidium luteum*, or yellow stylidium.—Stalk smooth, without a joint. Bractees whorled below; scattered and distant above.—Leaves radical, linear. Calyx-lips rather gibbous at the base. Mouth of the corolla crowned; its lip without appendages.—Gathered by Mr. Brown, on the south coast of New Holland.

6. *Stylidium scandens*, or climbing stylidium.—Stem climbing. Leaves linear, tipped with a spiral tendril. Mouth of the corolla crowned; lip with appendages. Column

lumn downy in the upper part.—Found on the south-west coast of New Holland.

7. *Stylidium tenuifolium*, or slender-leaved stylidium.—Leaves linear, almost setaceous, sessile, slightly hairy. Mouth of the corolla naked; lip with appendages.—Found at Port Jackson.

8. *Stylidium calcaratum*, or spurred stylidium.—Stem with few flowers. Leaves oval. Mouth of the corolla naked; segments somewhat toothed; lip without appendages.—Discovered on the south coast of New Holland.

9. *Stylidium alsinoides*, or chickweed stylidium.—Stem erect. Leaves ovate; the floral ones opposite. Flowers axillary, sessile, solitary, without bracteas.—Gathered in the tropical part of New Holland.

STYLIFORM, in Anatomy, a process of the temporal bone. See **ANATOMY**.

STYLITES, [*στυλιτης*, Gr. *Sancti Columnares*, or *Pillar Saints*,] in Ecclesiastical History, an appellation given to a kind of solitaries, who stood motionless upon the tops of pillars, raised for this exercise of their patience, and remained there for several years, amidst the admiration and applause of the stupid populace.

STYLOBATION, or **STYLOBATA**, in Architecture, the same with the pedestal of a column.

STYLOCORYNA [so named by Cavanilles, from *στυλος*, a style, and *κερυνη*, a club, because of the club-shaped figure of that organ], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order rubiaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth superior, of one leaf, tubular, with five teeth, permanent. Corolla, of one petal, funnel-shaped; tube thrice as long as the calyx; limb in five segments. Stamina: filaments five. Pistil: germen inferior, globose; style club-shaped, as long as the stamens; stigma simple, acute. Pericarp: berry spherical, pulpy, of two cells; seeds numerous.—*Essential Character*. Corolla funnel-shaped. Berry of two cells. Stigma simple.

Stylocoryna racemosa, or clustered stylocoryna.—This is a small tree, whose trunk is twelve feet, or more, in height, with a grey bark, and an ample tuft of branches. Leaves opposite, stalked, elliptic-lanceolate, pointed entire. Footstalks about half an inch in length, combined and clasping the stem at their base. Calyx smooth. Corolla yellowish-white, hairy in the throat. Berry smooth, the size of a small pea.

STYLOID, from the Latin *stylus*, an instrument employed by the ancients in writing on their tablets, a name applied to some bony processes, and parts connected with them. The styloid process of the temporal bone is the most remarkable of these: there is also such a process belonging to the radius and ulna. The styloid ligament is the slender thread passing from the styloid process of the temporal bone to the os hyoides.

STYLO-GLOSSUS, a muscle of the tongue. See **DEGLUTITION**.

STYLOSANTHES [a name composed of *στυλος*, a column, and *ανθος*, a flower, and applied by Professor Swartz to the present genus, because the style, inclosed in the tube of the calyx, elevates the corolla above the bracteas], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ leguminosæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf; tube very long, bearing the corolla and stamens: limb small, in five deep unequal segments; the two hinder ones converging; two lateral ones obtuse; the foremost lanceolate, pointed, longer than the rest. Corolla, papilionaceous. Stamina: filaments ten, all combined in the lower part, separate above; anthers oblong. Pistil: germen oblong; style vertical, very long, running through the tube into the corolla, inclosed in the keel with the stamens; stigma lobed, downy. Pericarp: legume rather compressed. Seeds oblong.—*Essential Character*. Calyx tubular, very long, bearing the papilionaceous corolla. Germen below the corolla. Legume of one or two joints, hooked at the point.

1. *Stylosanthes procumbens*, or procumbent stylosanthes.—The **HEDYSARUM HAMATUM** of Linnæus; which see.

2. *Stylosanthes viscosa*, or clammy stylosanthes. A variety of **HEDYSARUM HAMATUM**; which see.

3. *Stylosanthes mucronata*, or pointed downy stylosanthes.—Leaflets elliptic-oblong, fringed; rather hairy beneath. Spikes many-flowered. Bracteas fringed. Stem finely downy.—Native of dry situations in Ceylon and Tranquebar.

4. *Stylosanthes elatior*, or taller stylosanthes.—The **TRIFOLIUM BIFLORUM** of Linnæus; which see.

5. *Stylosanthes Guianensis*, or Guiana stylosanthes.—Leaves lanceolate, pointed. Spikes capitate, many-flowered, villous. Stem erect, branched, hairy all round.—Found by Aublet, in Guiana: flowering in June.

STYLUS, the style of flowers, is the part serving to elevate the stigma above the Germen. See the article **BOTANY**.

STYMMATA [*στυμφω*, Gr., *I thicken*], a word used by some of the ancients, to express the stiff ointments.

STYMPHALIA [*στυμφαλια*, Gr.], in Antiquity, a festival at Stymphalus in Arcadia, in honour of Diana, called from that place *Stymphalia*.

STYMPHALIDES AVES, birds of an extraordinary size, which, in their flight, are said to have obscured the sun, and fed on human flesh.

STYNSFORD, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 1 mile east-north-east of Dorchester.

STYPANDRA, in Botany. [A New Holland genus of Mr. Brown's, named from *στυπη*, low, or any similar substance, and *ανηρ*, a man, because the filaments are densely bearded or tufted on their upper part.] It is of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order coronariæ, asphodeli (*Juss.*)

Mr. Brown thinks this genus may possibly hereafter be divided; its first section being most akin to *dianella*, the second to *anthericum*.

STYPHELIA [so named by Dr. Solander, from *στυφελος*, hard and rigid, alluding to the habit of all the species], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order epacridæ (*Brown.*)—Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth inferior, of five, equal, erect, lanceolate leaves, with four, or more, smaller, imbricated scales at the base, permanent. Corolla of one petal, tubular, elongated; tube nearly cylindrical, with five tufts of hairs near the base withinside; limb in five deep, revolute, equal segments, bearded on the upper side. Nectary of five glands at the base of the germen. Stamina: filaments five, thread-shaped, equal, inserted into the tube, and projecting beyond its orifice; anthers incumbent, oblong, of one cell, bursting lengthwise. Pistil: germen superior, roundish, furrowed, style thread-shaped, longer than the stamens; stigma obtuse, notched. Pericarp: drupa but slightly succulent, oval or globular. Seed: nut hard and solid, of five cells, with a pendulous kernel in each.—*Essential Character*. Outer calyx of four, or more, imbricated scales. Corolla tubular, elongated, with five internal tufts of hairs near the bottom; limb revolute, bearded. Filaments prominent. Drupa rather dry, of five cells.

Mr. Brown; in consideration of the vast extent of the original genus *stypheia* in New Holland, has separated therefrom several genera. The only real *Stypheia*'s that remain to be described are therefore

1. *Stypheia longifolia*, or long-leaved stypheia.—Leaves lanceolate, elongated, taper-pointed, smooth-edged; rather concave on the upper side. Branches downy.—A native of the country near Port Jackson.

2. *Stypheia læta*, or gay stypheia.—Leaves elliptic-oblong, imbricated, glaucous, rough-edged, nearly flat, shorter than the flowers. Branches downy. Stem erect.—Gathered near Port Jackson.

3. *Stypheia adscendens*, or diffuse stypheia.—Leaves lanceolate, flat; glaucous and manifestly striated beneath; rough, with a tooth-like fringe at the margin. Stem diffuse, with ascending branches.—Gathered in Van Dieman's island.

4. *Stypheia latifolia*, or broad-leaved stypheia.—Leaves broad-ovate,

broad-ovate, acute, imbricated, rough-edged; rather concave above. Flowers almost erect.—Found near Port Jackson.

5. *Styphelia viridiflora*, or green-flowered styphelia.—Leaves obovate-oblong, flat, obtuse, with a spinous point; smooth and even above; minutely roughish at the margin; spreading widely as well as the solitary flowers.—Found near Port Jackson.

6. *Styphelia triflora*, or three-flowered styphelia.—Leaves elliptic-lanceolate, flat, smooth in every part, rather glaucous. Branches smooth. Flowers approximated, from one to three on each stalk.—Native of the country near Port Jackson.

7. *Styphelia tubiflora*, or crimson styphelia.—Leaves linear-obovate, slightly revolute; convex and roughish above. Flowers drooping.—Communicated in a dry state, with coloured drawings, from the neighbourhood of Port Jackson.

STYPTIC, or STYPTICAL, *adj.* [*στυπτικός*, Gr.; *styptique*, Fr. This is erroneously written *stiptic*.] The same as astringent; but generally it expresses the most efficacious sort of astringents, or those which are applied to stop hæmorrhages.—Fruits of trees and shrubs contain plegm, oil, and an essential salt, by which they are sharp, sweet, sour, or *styptick*. *Arbutinot*.

STYPTICITY, *s.* [*stypticité*, old Fr.] The power of staunching blood.—Catharticks of mercurials precipitate the viscidities by their *stypticity*, and mix with all animal acids. *Floyer*.

STYPTICK, *s.* An astringent medicine; a medicine applied to stop hæmorrhages.—In an effusion of blood, having dossils ready dipt in the royal *stiptick*, we applied them. *Wiseman*.

STYRAP, or STYRRUP, a township of England, in Nottinghamshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-south-west of Bawtry.

STYRAX [*Στυραξ* of Theophrastus and Dioscorides.] in Botany, a genus of the class *decandria*, order *monogynia*, natural order of *bicornes*, *guaicanae* (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, cylindric, erect, short, five-toothed. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form; tube short, cylindric, length of the calyx; border five-parted, large, spreading; segments lanceolate, obtuse. Stamina: filaments ten, erect, in a ring, scarcely united at the base, awl-shaped, inserted into the corolla; anthers oblong, straight. Pistil: germ superior, three-celled, many-seeded; style simple, length of the stamens; stigma truncate. Pericarp: drupe roundish, one-celled. Seeds: nuts one or two, roundish, acuminate, convex on one side, flat on the other; number of stamens varies, but the natural number is ten.—*Essential Character*. Calyx inferior. Corolla funnel-form. Drupe two-seeded.

1. *Styrax officinale*, or officinal storax.—The officinal Storax-tree rises twelve or fourteen feet high: the trunk is covered with a smooth grayish bark, and sends out many slender branches on every side. Leaves about two inches long, and an inch and half broad, of a bright green on their upper side, but hoary on their under; they are entire, and placed alternately on short footstalks. The flowers come out from the side of the branches, upon peduncles sustaining five or six flowers in a bunch; they are white, and appear in June.—Native of Italy and the Levant.

Although the Storax-tree is indigenous to many of the southern parts of Europe, yet the resinous drug which it produces is only to be obtained in perfection from Asiatic Turkey.

2. *Styrax grandifolium*, or large-leaved storax.—Leaves obovate, villous beneath; lower peduncles, axillary, solitary, one-flowered.—Native of South Carolina.

3. *Styrax benzoin*, benzoin storax, or Benjamin-tree.—Leaves oblong, acuminate, tomentose beneath; racemes compound length of the leaves.—The Benzoin, or as it is corruptly called, the Benjamin-tree, is of quick growth, and rises to a considerable height: it sends off many strong round branches, which are covered with a tomentose or whitish downy bark.

This tree is deemed in Sumatra, which is its native country,

to be of sufficient age in six years, or when the trunk is about seven or eight inches in diameter, to afford the Benzoin: the bark is then cut through longitudinally, or somewhat obliquely, at the origin of the principal lower branches, from which the drug exudes in a liquid state, and by exposure to the sun and air soon concretes, when it is scraped off from the bark with a knife or chissel. The quantity which one tree affords never exceeds three pounds; nor are the trees found to sustain the effects of these annual incisions longer than ten or twelve years. The Benzoin which issues first from the wounded bark is the purest, being soft, extremely fragrant, and very white; that which is less esteemed, is of a brownish colour, very hard, and mixed with various impurities.—In Arabia, Persia, and other parts of the East the coarser sort is consumed in fumigating and perfuming the temples, and in destroying insects.

4. *Styrax lavigatum*, or smooth storax.—Leaves oblong, smooth on both sides; peduncles axillary, one-flowered, solitary, or two together.—Native of South Carolina.

Propagation and Culture.—It may be propagated by sowing the seeds in pots filled with fresh light earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed. This should be done as soon as possible when the seeds are procured, for if they are sown the latter end of summer, and the pots kept in a moderate hot-bed of tanner's bark all the winter, the plants will come up the succeeding spring; whereas those sown in the spring, often remain in the ground a whole year before the plants come up.

STYRIA, a large province of the Austrian empire, situated between Austria proper and Illyria, and extending from 45. 54. to 47. 50. N. lat. Its form would be nearly square, did it comprize Carinthia, a province situated to the south-west. Its extent, equal to about one-fourth of Scotland, is computed at 8500 square miles; its population, which, without being dense, is less thinly scattered than that of the northern part of Britain, is about 840,000. Its divisions are into Upper Styria towards the north, and Lower Styria towards the south. The former is subdivided into the circles of Judenburg and Bruck; the latter into those of Gratz, Marburg, and Cillej. Upper Styria is very mountainous, consisting in a great measure of a continuation of a branch of the Alps, which, after extending eastward through Switzerland, Tyrol, and Saltzburg, enter Styria at its western boundary, and continue their eastward direction throughout its whole extent. This range rises in various parts to the height of 7000, 8000, and 9000 feet, presenting several points covered with perpetual snow. A number of lateral ramifications extend into Lower Styria, but become gradually lower as they remove from the main chain, till they present nothing but small elevations, on the sides of which the vine is cultivated with success. The plains, however, even here, are not extensive, if we except that of Pettau, lying along the banks of the Drave.

Styria abounds in physical phenomena. Natural excavations, sometimes of great extent, are found in the elevated districts; and some naturalists have imagined that one or two mountains presented volcanic appearances. The rivers are numerous, but seldom navigable: the principal are the Enns, the Muhr, the Drave, and the Save. The climate of Styria, presents great discrepancies, arising chiefly from the greater or less elevation of the soil. In Upper Styria the air is elastic and pure, but cold. Winter commonly begins in November, and the snow lies on the hills till May. In Lower Styria the climate is much more temperate; the mountains shelter it from the north winds, but leave it open to the west. But though the air is in general of great purity, endemic fevers prevail in particular situations, and the constitutional imbecility or idiocy, called Cretinism, is very common in the mountains. The quantity of rain is less than might be expected, not exceeding 15 inches in the year. The soil of Styria is, with the exception of the higher mountains, in general fertile, and produces wheat, barley, oats, rye, and in the warmer situations, maize. The potatoe, though introduced so lately as the middle of the 18th century, is now become general. Agriculture is extremely backward, though irrigation

tion is practised extensively; a course necessary in a country of great summer heat, and facilitated by the command of water from the high grounds.

Styria has long been remarkable for the care bestowed on its cattle. They are in general of middle size, but well shaped. They are driven in summer to the highest parts of the mountains, where after passing the warm season, they return to the plains in autumn. Stall feeding is practised here, as in Bavaria and the rest of the south of Germany. In sheep, at least in the improvement of wool, the Styrians have not yet succeeded, and their horses are fitter for draught than for the saddle. Poultry is abundant, and is sent in quantities to Vienna.

Minerals.—Styria produces abundance of minerals. Coal is found in many places, and mines of it are wrought in several; but it is at present less used in mines and forges than it is likely to be when the forests shall be diminished. Almost all the metals are found in Styria, but in very different quantities; gold, silver, and copper, hardly defray the expense of mining; lead is less scarce; but the great produce is of iron. The mountain of Erzberg, situated in the north of Styria, was well known to the Romans. Instead of veins and strata, it presents a solid mass of ore, which has been wrought without intermission for eleven centuries; and although nearly 13,000 tons of pure iron have been obtained annually from it for a number of years, it hardly appears diminished, and the restriction in the quantity made, arises chiefly from the limited supply of fuel. At the small town of Turroch is a mine producing the celebrated Prescian steel used by the Romans for making sword blades. The other mines, though less rich, are not inconsiderable; and the total annual produce of iron in Styria is from 16,000 to 20,000 tons. Salt is still more abundant, particularly at Ausse, on the borders of Austria proper, from which almost any quantity might be produced, were the demand greater, and were the supply of fuel increased. Cobalt, arsenic, and molybdena, occur in Styria; but zinc, antimony, and bismuth, are rare.

Manufactures and Trade.—Of the manufactures of Styria, the principal are derived from the mines. The country contains in all 200 forges, and about 30 manufacturing establishments, in which it is computed that 300,000 sickles, and a still larger quantity of scythes, are made annually. Next to these come the copper forges, and the various preparations of sulphate of iron, alum, saltpetre, earthenware, gunpowder, and sulphur. These, however, almost complete the list of Styrian manufactures. The flax raised in this country is either made into coarse linen, or exported unwrought. The women are much employed in the fields, and little in spinning. The exports from Styria consist of metals, corn, wine, flax, clover seed, cattle; the imports, less bulky, but not less varied, comprise woollens, linens, silks, tobacco, oil, and groceries of all kinds.

The Styrians have the hospitality, the frankness, the simple habits of an agricultural people, but they are as yet very imperfectly educated, though parish schools have been established in the principal villages. As to religion, the great majority are Roman Catholics; the Protestants enjoy a full, the Jews but a limited toleration. In regard to government, like almost all nations of northern origin, the Styrians have a parliament under the name of States, composed of four orders—the higher clergy, the nobility, the deputies from the landholders, and the deputies from the towns.

History.—Our first accounts of this province are from Pliny and Strabo, who considered its inhabitants as descended from the Boii and Taurisci. They are described as completely uncivilized, and as harassing the adjoining provinces by their incursions, till the reign of Tiberius, (A.D. 8.) when Styria was subdued, and included in the extensive province of Noricum. During the period of its remaining in the hands of the Romans, considerable improvements took place, towns being built at the more important stations, tillage diffused throughout the country, and in the 4th century Christianity introduced. But this pleasing prospect was overcast by the irruption of the northern hordes; and Styria

was almost as unfortunate in repeated invasions as the adjoining provinces of Illyria and Pannonia. In the reign of Charlemagne, a tribe of barbarians submitting to his arms, fixed themselves on the banks of the Drave, the Save, and the Muhr; and from these are descended the Wends, now found in these districts. History records an invasion of southern Germany by the Magyars, the conquerors of Hungary and their expulsion from the limits of empire by Otho I. in 933. The reconquered territory was divided into a number of principalities, one of which called the county of Steyr, rose by gradual and successive augmentations to its present extent; its rulers obtaining the title of Margraves, and afterwards of Dukes. In 1172 it was annexed to Austria, and has since been governed either by the sovereign of that country, or by a member of his family.

STYRUM, a village and castle in the Prussian states, near the Rhine, on the Roer; 4 miles east-north-east of Duisburg. It gives title to a family which has borne a conspicuous part in the history of the Netherlands, and whose representative was active in the counter-revolution of Holland in 1814.

To STY' THY, *v. a.* See To STITHY.

STYX, in Mythology, a river of Hell, or Aëthra, over which was the passage called the hateful passage, from the previous region or suburbs of the realms of death into Erebus.

The Styx is properly a fountain in Arcadia, which flows from a rock, and then forms a stream, that continues for a long time buried under ground; its water was mortal, and this circumstance, according to Pausanias, gave occasion to the poets to make it a river or lake in hell.

SUABIA, the former name of one of the ten circles or great divisions of Germany. This country, situated in the south-west of the empire, was bounded on the west by France, on the south by Switzerland, the Rhine forming the limit between it and both. The population of Suabia has long exceeded 2,500,000; and its soil, with the exception of the rugged and mountainous track called the Black Forest, is in general fertile, yielding wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, and, in warm situations, vines. The pasturages also are extensive and good. Of the mountainous parts, the wealth consists in mines and timber, which is floated down the Neckar and Rhine to Holland.

Suabia is supposed to have derived its name from the Suevi, a German tribe who settled here about the time of Julius Cæsar. It was erected into a dukedom by the Franks in the fifth century, and continued to be thus governed until the thirteenth, when the reigning family became extinct. After the extinction of the ducal title, Suabia did not constitute, like Saxony or Bavaria, a single state, but was divided among a number of petty princes. Austria possessed here a territory, or rather several separate districts, containing in all a population of 170,000; but these have been renounced or exchanged. The Bavarian dominions at present extend over a part of the east of Suabia, but the chief part of the circle forms the kingdom of Wirtemberg and the grand duchy of Baden. A smaller portion is subject to the princes of Hohenzollern. See under their respective heads these territories, which now form the only independent governments in Suabia.

SUACHA, a settlement of New Granada, in South America; 9 miles south of Santa Fé, containing 100 houses.

To SUADE, *v. a.* [*suader*, old Fr.; *suadeo*, Lat.] To persuade. *Not in use.*—Flee then ill-swading Pleasure's baits untrue. *Grimoald.*

To SUAGE, *v. a.* To assuage. See To SWAGE.—*Suage* the tempestes. *Bp. Fisher.*

SUAITA, a settlement of New Granada, in South America, in the province of Velez.

SUAKIN, a sea-port town of Nubia, on the western coast of the Red Sea. The Turks obtained possession of it at the same time that they occupied the opposite coast of Arabia. They still retain it, but their power is circumscribed within the limits of the island on which the town is situated, and they dare not even set foot on the mainland. In the 15th century Suakin was a place of great wealth and importance,

the emporium of the Red sea, and one of the richest cities of the east. De Castro at that time considered it superior to every other city he had seen, except Lisbon. Since that time it has suffered an extreme decline, and is now almost in ruins. Instead of numerous ships unloading their cargoes on every side of the island into the houses of the merchants, only a few wretched Arabian vessels called dows, are seen at anchor by the side of some miserable houses. The port, however, still retains all its excellence, and is capable of containing two hundred large vessels, which can anchor close to the island in seven fathoms water. There might also be room for a prodigious number of smaller vessels. The approach, however, is rendered extremely dangerous by the rocks and shoals which lie off it in every direction; and the mouth is so narrow, as to render it impracticable to enter with any but the most favourable wind. It appears singular, that this narrow passage between coral rocks should have remained open for so long a period, amid the action of a sea continually breaking upon it, after having passed over sand-banks, and notwithstanding the clouds of sand which at one season were borne towards it from the desert. Two minarets give the town a handsome appearance at a distance; and the buildings being white washed, and on an elevated site, look much better than they really are. Suakin is supposed to be the Soter Limen of Diodorus, the Theon Soter of Ptolemy, though the difficulty of the entrance scarcely corresponds to these terms, which signify "the safe harbour." Its importance in the middle ages was derived from its being the maritime capital of the Turks in the Red Sea, where that empire maintained then a powerful navy. Since their power on the Arabian coasts has sunk into insignificance, Suakin has lost all political importance. It is supported only by being still the channel by which communication is maintained between Arabia and the interior of Africa. Pilgrims, slave dealers, or persons combining both these characters, quit the Nile at Shendi, and proceed through Taka and other districts of Nubia, to this port, where they embark for Jidda. They bring chiefly slaves, with a little ivory and gold, and take Indian goods in return. The natives have fine figures, and a good expression of countenance. They are of a dark copper colour, their hair is somewhat woolly, drawn out into points, and dressed with fat, occasionally powdered with red; a piece of wood is stuck through it nearly horizontally, which they frequently use to disturb any animalcules that bite too hard. They also employ it to separate the hair into ringlets, and turn it round the finger. They are on the whole a well looking race of people, and their skins are perfectly free from any eruption. There appears a striking resemblance between them and the South Sea islanders, as drawn in Captain Cook's voyages. They have a species of wood, with which they constantly clean their teeth, which are beautifully white and regular. Their head is uncovered, being only protected by the mass of greased woolly hair, and they wear a piece of white cloth wrapped round the middle, and thrown over the shoulder. The country round, and the coast to a considerable extent, are occupied by a hardy race of Bedouin Arabs, called Suakini. The water here is abundant and good, being preserved both in wells and tanks. Fish is cheap and plentiful; the mullets are particularly fine. Sheep may be had for a dollar each, but fowls are scarce and dear. There is no grain except that coarse species called dhourra or jowarry. Lat. 19. 48. N. long. 37. 33. E.

SUAN, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, and district of Rotas. Lat. 25. 15. N. long. 86. 25. E.

SVANEHOLM, a large village in the south of Sweden, province of Malmohus, with 1100 inhabitants.

SUAN-YANG, a town of Corea; 35 miles west of Tsin-tchuen,

SUAPURE, a river of Guiana, which collecting the waters of many other rivers, enters the Orinoco, opposite the rapid stream of the Marumarota.

SUAREZ (Francis), a Spanish theologian, was born at Granada in the year 1548. He was at an early age distinguished by an extraordinary memory, though his other

faculties arrived very gradually at maturity. Having been admitted into the society of Jesuits, he became a professor in the society's schools at Alcalá, Salamanca, and Rome, and at length was appointed first professor of theology at Coimbra. He died at Lisbon in 1617. His indefatigable industry may be inferred from the twenty-three folio volumes of his works, which have been printed at Lyons, at Mentz, and in the year 1748, at Venice. The principal subject of these voluminous publications, is theology. Suarez is accounted the principal author of the system denominated "Congruism," fundamentally that of Molina; by which he attempts to explain, from a simultaneous concurrence of the divine and human being, how grace infallibly produces its effect, without destroying man's free will. Suarez, being a well-known master of controversy, was desired by pope Paul V. to undertake the defence of the Catholic faith in England, where many of that communion took the oath of allegiance required by James I. His book was entitled, "A Defence of the Catholic Faith against the Errors of the English Sect." In discussing the legality of the oath demanded, the principles which he maintained were those of the civil as well as the ecclesiastical supremacy of the papal see. These gave such offence to James, that he ordered the book to be burnt in front of St. Paul's church, and prohibited it to be read in his dominions. The parliament of Paris also caused the book to be burnt, as containing seditious tenets.

SUA'SIBLE, *adj.* [from *suadeo*, Lat.] Easy to be persuaded.

SUA'SION, *s.* [*suasion*, old Fr., *suasio*, Lat.] Persuasion; enticement.—But it [temptation] is devilish, when it is either by *suasion* unto that which is evil; — or with a design to entrap or draw any into danger. *Bp. Hopkins.*—Mere petition, or precarious *suasion*. *South.*

SUA'SIVE, *adj.* [from *suadco*, Lat.] Having power to persuade.—It had the passions in perfect subjection; and though its command over them was but *suasive* and political, yet it had the force of absolute and despotic. *South.*

SUA'SORY, *adj.* [*suasorius*, Lat., *suasoire*, Fr.] Having tendency to persuade.—There is a *suasory* or enticing temptation, that inclines the will and affections to close with what is represented to them. *Bp. Hopkins.*

SUA'VITY, *s.* [*suavitè*, Fr., *suavitas*, Lat.] Sweetness to the senses.—She desired them for rarity, pulchritude, and *suavity*. *Brown.*

Mild-smiling Cupid's there,
With lively looks, and amorous *suavity*. *Morc.*

Sweetness to the mind.—That goes no farther than to some *suavities* and pleasant fancies within ourselves. *Glanville.*

SUATA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, which contains 1000 houses; 70 miles north of Tunja.

SUAZA, a river of New Granada, in the province of Neiva, which runs west, and enters the Magdalena, opposite the city of La Plata.

SUAZO, one of the large villages, or rather towns, which adjoin the city of Cadiz, in Spain. It stands on the east-side of the river St. Peter, at the extremity of the bridge of Suazo, which joins the isle of Leon to the mainland.

SUB, in composition, signifies a subordinate degree.

SUBA'CID, *adj.* [*sub* and *acidus*, Lat.] Sour in a small degree.—The juice of the stem is like the chyle in the animal body, not sufficiently concocted by circulation, and is commonly *subacid* in all plants. *Arbutnot.*

SUBA'CRID, *adj.* Sharp and pungent in a small degree.—The green choler of a cow tasted sweet, bitter, *subacid*, or a little pungent, and turned syrup of violets green. *Floyer.*

To SUBA'CT *v. a.* [*subactus*, Lat.] To reduce; to subdue.—Tangible bodies have no pleasure in the consort of air, but endeavour to *subact* it into a more dense body. *Bacon.*

SUBA'CTION, *s.* [*subactus*, Lat.] The act of reducing

ducing to any state, as of mixing two bodies completely, or beating any thing to a small powder.—There are of concoction two periods: the one assimilation, or absolute conversion and *subaction*; the other maturation; whereof the former is most conspicuous in living creatures, in which there is an absolute conversion and assimilation of the nourishment into the body. *Bacon*.

SUB'ALTERN, *adj.* [*subalterne*, Fr.] Inferior; subordinate; what in different respects is both superior and inferior. It is used in the army of all officers below a captain.—One, while a *subaltern* officer, was every day complaining against the pride of colonels towards their officers; yet, after he received his commission for a regiment, he confessed the spirit of colonelship was coming fast upon him, and it daily increased to his death. *Swift*.

SUB'ALTERN, *s.* A subaltern officer.

Love's *subalterns*, a duteous band,
Like watchmen round their chief appear;

Each had his lantern in his hand,
And Venus, mask'd, brought up the rear.

Prior.

SUBALTE'RNATE, *adj.* [*subalternus*, Lat.] Succeding by turns. *Dict.*—Subordinate. *Mason*.—Together with all their *subalternate* and several kinds. *Evelyn*.

SUBALTERNA'TION, *s.* Act of succeeding by course. *Bullock*.—State of inferiority; state of being in subjection to another.—Woman was created for man's sake to be his helper, in regard to the having and bringing up of children, whereunto it was not possible they could concur, unless there were *subalternation* between them, which *subalternation* is naturally grounded upon inequality, because things equal in every respect are never willingly directed one by another. *Hooker*.

SUBA'QUEOUS, *adj.* [*sub* and *aqua*, Lat.] Lying under water.—All plants, except the *subaqueous*, grow in a mixed earth, moistened with rain and dew, and exposed to the atmosphere. *Kirwan*.

SUBARKAN, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey, on the Euphrates; 75 miles east-south-east of Kerkesieh.

SUBARRA'TION, *s.* [low Lat. *subarrare*, "arrhabone uxorem sibi desponsare." *Du Cange*.] The ancient custom of betrothing.—In the old manual for the use of Salisbury, before the minister proceeds to the marriage, he is directed to ask for the woman's dowry, viz., the tokens of spousage: and by these tokens of spousage are to be understood rings, or money, or some other things to be given to the woman by the man; which said giving is called *subarration*, (i. e. wedding or covenanting), especially when it is done by the giving of a ring. *Wheatly*.

SUBASTRI'NGENT, *adj.* Astringent in a small degree.

SUBBE'ADLE, *s.* An under beadle.—They ought not to execute those precepts by simple messengers, or *subbeadles*, but in their own persons. *Ayliffe*.

SUBBULGHUR, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Agra, district of Gohd, but subject to the Mahrattas. It is surrounded by a good stone wall, with a number of bastions, but has very few cannon mounted. The country in the vicinity is well cultivated. Lat. 26. 22. N. long. 75. 25. N.

SUBBULGHUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, situated on the eastern side of the Ganges, and now included in the district of Moradabad. It formerly possessed a stone fort, which is now in a ruinous state; but the town is improving since it came under the British authority. Lat. 29. 48. N. long. 78. 10. E.

SUBCELE'STIAL, *adj.* Placed beneath the heavens.—The most refined glories of *subcelestial* excellencies are but more faint resemblances of these. *Glanville*.

SUBCHA'NTER, *s.* [*succentor*, Lat.] The deputy of the precentor in a cathedral.

That Holy, Holy, Holy, which they cry,

That are *sub-chanters* of heaven's harmony.

Davies.

SUBCLA'VIAN, *adj.* [Lat.] Applied to any thing

under the armpit or shoulder, whether artery, nerve, vein, or muscle. *Quincy*.—The liver, though seated on the right side, yet, by the *subclavian* division, doth equi-distantly communicate its activity unto either arm. *Brown*.

SUBCOMMITTEE, *s.* A subordinate committee.—Their sequestrators and *subcommittees* [were] men for the most part of insatiable hands. *Milton*.

SUBCONSTELLA'TION, *s.* A subordinate or secondary constellation.—As to the picture of the seven stars, if thereby be meant the Pleiades, or *subconstellations* upon the back of Taurus, with what congruity they are described in a clear night an ordinary eye may discover. *Brown*.

SUBCONTRACTED, *part. adj.* Contracted after a former contract.

Your claim,

I bar it in the interest of my wife;

'Tis she is *subcontracted* to this lord,

And I her husband contradict your banns.

Shakspear.

SUBCONTRARY, *adj.* Contrary in an inferior degree.—If two particular propositions differ in quality, they are *subcontraries*: as, some vine is a tree; some vine is not a tree. These may be both true together, but they can never be both false. *Watts*.

SUBCUTA'NEOUS, *adj.* Lying under the skin.

SUBDE'ACON, *s.* [*subdiaconus*, Lat.] In the Romish church they have a *subdeacon*, who is the deacon's servant. *Ayliffe*.

SUBDE'ACONRY, or SUBDE'ACONSHIP, *s.* The Romish order and office of a subdeacon.—Ye come to be promoted here to the holy order of *subdeconrie*. *Martin*.

SUBDE'AN, *s.* [*subdecanus*, Lat.] The vicegerent of a dean.—Whenever the dean and chapter confirm any act, that such confirmation may be valid, the dean must join in person, and not in the person of a deputy or *subdean* only. *Ayliffe*.

SUBDE'ANERY, *s.* The rank and office of subdean.—The *subdeanery* of York, founded anno 1229, has the impropriation of Preston in Holderness. *Bacon*.

SUBDE'UPLE, *adj.* [*sub* and *decuplus*, Lat.] Containing one part of ten.

SUBDERISO'RIOUS, *adj.* [*sub* and *derisor*, Lat.] Scoffing or ridiculing with tenderness and delicacy. *Not used*.—This *subderisorous* mirth is far from giving any offence to us: it is rather a pleasant condiment of our conversation. *More*.

SUBDITI'TIOUS, *adj.* [*subditiuus*, Lat.] Put secretly in the place of something else.

To SUBDIVE'RSIFY, *v. a.* To diversify again what is already diversified.—The same wool one man felts into a hat, another weaves it into cloth, another into arras; and these variously *subdiversified* according to the fancy of the artificer. *Hale*.

To SUBDIVI'DE, *v. a.* [*subdiviser*, Fr.] To divide a part into yet more parts.—When Brutus and Cassius were overthrown, soon after Antonius and Octavianus brake and *subdivided*. *Bacon*.

SUBDIVI'SION, *s.* [*subdivision*, Fr.] The act of subdividing.—When any of the parts of any idea are farther divided, in order to a clear explication of the whole, this is called a *subdivision*; as when a year is divided into months, each month into days, and each day into hours, which may be farther subdivided into minutes and seconds. *Watts*.—The parts distinguished by a second division.—How can we see such a multitude of souls cast under so many *subdivisions* of misery, without reflecting on the absurdity of a government that sacrifices the happiness of so many reasonable beings to the glory of one? *Addison*.

SUBDO'LOUS, *adj.* [*subdolos*, Lat.] Cunning; subtle; sly.—*Subdulous* and dishonest actions. *Bp. Reynolds*.

SUBDU'ABLE, *adj.* That may be subdued. *Sherwood*.—He hath indeed confessed in a certain place, that he had a natural touch of enthusiasm in his complexion; but such as (he thanks God) was ever governable enough; and which

which he had found at length perfectly *subduable*. *Dr. Ward.*

SUBDU'AL, *s.* The act of subduing.—Good is not only produced by the *subdual* of the passions, but by the turbulent exercise of them. *Warburton.*

To **SUBDU'CE**, or to **SUBDU'CT**, *v. a.* [*subduco, subductus*, Lat.] To withdraw; to take away.

Or nature fail'd me, and left some part
Not proof enough such object to sustain;
Or from my side *subducting*, took perhaps
More than enough.

Milton.

To subtract by arithmetical operation.—Take the other operation of arithmetic, subduction: if out of that supposed infinite multitude of antecedent generations we should *subduce* ten, the residue must be less by ten than it was before, and yet still the quotient must be infinite. *Hale.*

SUBDU'CTION, *s.* The act of taking away. O God, thine arm is strong and mighty; all thy creatures rest themselves upon that, and are comfortably sustained. O that we were not more capable of distrust, than thine omnipotent hand is of weariness and *subduction*! *Bp. Hall.*—Arithmetical subtraction.—Suppose we take the other operation of arithmetick, *subduction*; if out of that infinite multitude of antecedent generations we should subduce ten, the residue must be less by ten than it was before that *subduction*, and yet still the quotient be infinite. *Hale.*

To **SUBDU'E**, *v. a.* [from *subdo*, or *subjugo*, Lat.] To crush; to oppress; to sink; to overpower.

Nothing could have *subdu'd* nature
To such a lowness, but his unkind daughters. *Shakspeare.*

Them that rose up against thee, hast thou *subdu'd* under me. *2 Sam.*

If aught were worthy to *subduc*
The soul of man.

Milton.

To conquer; to reduce under a new dominion.—Be fruitful, and replenish the earth, and *subdue* it. *Gen.*—Augustus Cæsar *subdu'd* Egypt to the Roman empire. *Peacham.*—To tame; to subact; to break.

Nor is't unwholesome to *subdue* the land
By often exercise; and where before
You broke the earth, again to plow.

May.

SUBDU'EMENT, *s.* Conquest. *Not uscd.*

I have seen thee,
As hot as Perseus, spur thy Phrygian steed,
Bravely despising forfeits and *subduements*. *Shakspeare.*

SUBDU'ER, *s.* Conqueror; tamer.
Great God of might, that reigneth in the mind,
And all the body to thy hest dost frame;
Victor of gods, *subducer* of mankind,
That dost the lions and fell tygers tame,
Who can express the glory of thy might?

Spenser.

SUBDU'PLE, or **SUBDU'PLICATE**, *adj.* [*subduplex*, Fr., *sub* and *duplex*, Lat.] Containing one part of two.—The motion generated by the forces in the whole passage of the body or thing through that space, shall be in a *subduplicate* proportion of the forces. *Newton.*

SUBER, in Botany, the ancient Latin name of the Cork Tree, of obscure and doubtful derivation. See **QUERCUS**.

SUBERTHWAITE, or **SOWBERTHWAITE**, a township of England, in Lancashire; 6½ miles north-north-west of Ulveston.

SUBFU'SK, *adj.* [*subfuscus*, Lat.] Of a dark brown colour.—The Portuguese's complexion was a little upon the *subfusk*. *Tatler.*

SUBJA'CENT, *adj.* [*subjacent*, old French; *subjacens*, Lat.] Lying under.—The superficial parts of mountains are washed away by rains, and borne down upon the *subjacent* plains. *Woodward.*

SUBIACO, a small town of the Ecclesiastical State, the capital of a district in the Campagna di Roma. It is situated

on an eminence near the river Teverone, and its early buildings are supposed to have been erected out of the ruins of a villa of Nero; 12 miles north-west of Alatri, and 28 east of Rome.

SUBIBA, CAPE, a cape in the south-east of Spain, on the coast of Murcia. Lat. 37. 30. N. long. 1. 20. W.

To **SUBJE'CT**, *v. a.* [*subjectus*, Latin.] To put under.

The medal bears each form and name:
In one short view, *subjected* to our eye,
Gods, emperors, heroes, sages, beauties lie.

Popc.

To reduce to submission; to make subordinate; to make submissive.

Think not, young warriors, your diminish'd name
Shall lose of lustre, by *subjecting* rage
To the cool dictates of experienc'd age.

Dryden.

To enslave; to make obnoxious.

I see thee, in that fatal hour,
Subjected to the victor's cruel power,
Led hence a slave.

Dryden.

To expose; to make liable.—If the vessels yield, it *subjects* the person to all the inconveniencies of an erroneous circulation. *Arbutnot.*—To submit; to make accountable.—God is not bound to *subject* his ways of operation to the scrutiny of our thoughts, and confine himself to do nothing but what we must comprehend. *Locke.*—To make subservient.—[He] *subjected* to man's service angel-wings. *Milton.*

SUBJECT, *adj.* [*subject*, old Fr., *subjectus*, Lat.] Placed or situated under.

Th' eastern tower,
Whose height commands, as *subject*, all the vale
To see the fight.

Shakspeare.

Living under the dominion of another. Exposed; liable; obnoxious.—Most *subject* is the fittest soil to weeds; *Shakspeare.*—Being that on which any action operates, whether intellectual or material.—I enter into the *subject* matter of my discourse. *Dryden.*

SUBJECT, *s.* [from the old Fr. *subject*, *subgect*, *subgit*. In the 23 Edw. III., and throughout the Rolls of Parliament, we may observe Fr. *subgits*.] One who lives under the dominion of another: opposed to *governor*.

Never *subject* long'd to be a king,
As I do long and wish to be a *subject*. *Shakspeare.*

That on which any operation, either mental or material, is performed.—This *subject* for heroic song pleas'd me. *Milton.*—That in which any thing inheres or exists.—Anger is certainly a kind of baseness, as it appears well in the weakness of those *subjects* in whom it reigns, children, women, old folks, sick folks. *Bacon.*—In Grammar. The nominative case to a verb is called the *subject* of the verb.

SUBJE'CTION, *s.* The act of subduing.—After the conquest of the kingdom and *subjection* of the rebels, enquiry was made who there were that fighting against the king had saved themselves by flight. *Hale.*—[*subjection*, old Fr.] The state of being under government.—Both in *subjection* now to sensual appetite. *Milton.*

SUBJE'CTIVE, *adj.* Relating not to the object, but the subject.—Certainty, according to the schools, is distinguished into objective and *subjective*: objective is when the proposition is certainly true in itself; and *subjective*, when we are certain of the truth of it. *Watts.*

SUBJE'CTIVELY, *adv.* In relation to the subject.—The name of God, taken *subjectively*, is to be understood of Christ. *Pearson.*

SUBINDICA'TION, *s.* [*subindico*, low Lat.] Signification; the act of making known by signs. *Unused.*—The types of Christ served to the *subindication* and shadowing of heavenly things. *Barrow.*

SUBINFEDUATION, in Law, was where the inferior lords, in imitation of their superiors, began to carve out and grant to other minuter estates than their own, to be held of themselves,

themselves, and were so proceeding downwards *in infinitum*, till the superior lords observed, that by this method of subinfeudation they lost all their feodal profits of wardships, marriages, and estreats, which fell into the hands of these mesne or middle lords, who were the immediate superiors of the terre-tenant, or him who occupied the land. This occasioned the statute of *quia emptores*. *Bl. Com.* vol. ii.

SUBINGRESSION, *s.* [*ingressus*, Lat.] Secret entrance. *Unused*.—The pressure of the ambient air is strengthened upon the accession of the air sucked out; which forceth the neighbouring air to a violent *subingression* of its parts. *Boyle*.

To **SUBJOIN**, *v. a.* [*subjungo*, Lat.] To add at the end; to add afterwards.—He makes an excuse from ignorance, the only thing that could take away the fault; namely, that he knew not that he was the high-priest, and *subjoins* a reason. *South*.

SUBITANEOUS, *adj.* [*subitaneus*, Lat.] Sudden; hasty. *Unused*.

SUBITANY, *adj.* [*subitaneus*, Lat.] Hasty; subitaneous. *Unused*.

To **SUBJUGATE**, *v. a.* [*subjuguer*, Fr., *subjugo*, Lat.] To conquer; to subdue; to bring under dominion by force. O fav'rite virgin, that hast warm'd the breast,
Whose sov'reign dictates *subjugate* the east! *Prior*.

SUBJUGATION, *s.* [*subjugation*, Fr. *Cotgrave*.] The act of subduing.—This was the condition of the learned part of the world, after their *subjugation* by the Turks. *Hale*.

SUBJUNCTION, *s.* [from *subjungo*, Lat.] The state of being subjoined; the act of subjoining.—The verb undergoes in Greek a different formation; and in dependence upon, or *subjunction* to some other verb. *Clarke*.

SUBJUNCTIVE, *adj.* [*subjunctivus*, Latin; *subjonctif*, French.] Subjoined to something else. In Grammar. The verb undergoes a different formation, to signify the same intentions as the indicative, yet not absolutely but relatively to some other verb, which is called the *subjunctive* mood. *Clarke*.

SUBLAPSARIAN, or **SUBLAPSARY**, *adj.* [*sub* and *lapsus*, Lat.] According to **SUBLAPSARIANS**.

SUBLAPSARIAN, *s.* One who maintains the following doctrine. The *sublapsarians* say, that Adam having sinned freely, and his sin being imputed to all his posterity, God did consider mankind, thus lost, with an eye of pity; and having designed to rescue a great number out of this lost state, he decreed to send his Son to die for them, to accept of his death on their account, and to give them such assistances as should be effectual both to convert them to him, and to make them persevere to the end; but for the rest, he framed no positive act about them, only he left them in that lapsed state, without intending that they should have the benefit of Christ's death, or of efficacious and persevering assistances. *Burnet*.

SUBLATION, *s.* [*sublatio*, Lat.] The act of taking away.—He could not be forsaken by a *sublation* of union. *Bp. Hall*.

SUBLEVATION, *s.* [*sublevo*, Lat.] The act of raising on high.

SUB-LIEUTENANT, an officer in the royal regiment of artillery and fusileers, in which are no ensigns, who is the same as second lieutenant. See **LIEUTENANT**.

SUBLIMABLE, *adj.* Possible to be sublimed.

SUBLIMABLENESS, *s.* Quality of admitting sublimation.—He obtained another concrete as to taste and smell, and easy *sublimableness*, as common sal ammoniack. *Boyle*.

To **SUBLIMATE**, *v. a.* To raise by the force of chemical fire. To exalt; to heighten; to elevate.

And as his actions rose, so raise they still their vein
In words, whose weight best suit a *sublimated* strain. *Drayton*.

SUBLIMATE, *s.* Any thing raised by fire in the retort.—Enquire the manner of subliming, and what metals

endure subliming, and what body the *sublimate* makes. *Dacon*.—Quicksilver raised in the retort.

SUBLIMATE, *adj.* Raised by fire in the vessel.—The particles of mercury uniting with the acid particles of spirit of salt compose mercury *sublimate*, and with the particles of sulphur, cinnaber. *Newton*.

SUBLIMATION, *s.* [*sublimation*, Fr.] A chemical operation which raises bodies in the vessel by the force of fire.—Exaltation; elevation; act of heightening or improving.

She turns
Bodies to spirits, by *sublimation* strange. *Davies*.

SUBLIME, *adj.* [*sublimis*, Latin.] High in place; exalted aloft.

They summ'd their pens, and soaring th' air *sublime*
With clang despis'd the ground. *Milton*.

High in excellence; exalted by nature.

Can it be, that souls *sublime*
Return to visit our terrestrial clime;
And that the generous mind, releas'd by death,
Can covet lazy limb? *Dryden*.

High in style or sentiment; lofty; grand.—Easy in stile thy work, in sense *sublime*. *Prior*.—Elevated by joy.

Their hearts were jocund and *sublime*,
Drunk with idolatry, drunk with wine. *Milton*.

Lofty of mien; elevated in manner.
His fair large front and eye *sublime* declar'd
Absolute rule. *Milton*.

SUBLIME, *s.* The grand or lofty style.
Longinus strengthens all his laws,
And is himself the great *sublime* he draws. *Pope*.

To **SUBLIME**, *v. a.* [*sublimer*, Fr. from the adjective.] To raise by a chemical fire.

Study our manuscripts, those myriads
Of letters, which have past 'twixt thee and me,
Thence write our annals, and in them lessons be
To all, whom love's *subliming* fire invades. *Donne*.

To raise on high.
Although thy trunk be neither large nor strong,
Nor can thy head, not help'd, itself *sublime*,
Yet, like a serpent, a tall tree can climb. *Denham*.

To exalt; to heighten; to improve.
Flowers, and then fruit,
Man's nourishment, by gradual scale *sublim'd*
To vital spirits aspire. *Milton*.

The fancies of most are moved by the inward springs of the corporeal machine, which even in the most *sublimed* intellectuals is dangerously influential. *Glanville*.—Art being strengthened by the knowledge of things, may pass into nature by slow degrees, and so be *sublimed* into a pure genius, which is capable of distinguishing betwixt the beauties of nature and that which is low in her. *Dryden*.

Meanly they seek the blessing to confine,
And force that sun but on a part to shine;
Which not alone the southern wit *sublimes*,
But ripens spirits in cold northern climes. *Pope*.

To **SUBLIME**, *v. n.* To rise in the chemical vessel by the force of fire.

SUBLIMELY, *adv.* Loftily; grandly.
In English lays, and all *sublimely* great,
Thy Homer charms with all his ancient heat. *Parnel*.

SUBLIMENESS, *s.* [*sublimitas*, Lat.] The same as sublimity; *but unused*.

SUBLIMIFICATION, *s.* [*sublimis* and *facio*, Latin.] The act of making sublime. *Unused*.

SUBLIMITY, *s.* [*sublimité*, Fr., *sublimitas*, Latin.] Height of place; local elevation. *Little used*.—Height of nature; excellence.—In respect of God's incomprehensible *sublimity* and purity, this is also true, that God is neither a mind

mind nor a spirit like other spirits, nor a light such as can be discerned. *Raleigh*.—Loftiness of style or sentiment.—Milton's distinguishing excellence lies in the *sublimity* of his thoughts. *Addison*.

SUBLINGUAL, *adj.* [*sublingual*, French; *sub* and *lingua*, Lat.] Placed under the tongue, as the sublingual glands.

SUBLITZ, a village of Prussian Saxony; 2 miles west of Torgau, near which was fought, on 3d November 1760, an obstinate and sanguinary battle between the Prussians and Austrians, commonly called the battle of Torgau. It ended to the advantage of the Prussians. See **TORGAU**.

SUBLUNAR, or **SUBLUNARY**, *adj.* [*sublunaire*, Fr., *sub* and *luna*, Lat.] Situated beneath the moon; earthly; terrestrial; of this world.

Night measur'd, with her shadowy cone,
Half way up hill this vast *sublunar* vault. *Milton*.

SUBLUNARY, *s.* Any worldly thing.—Whatever temporal felicity we apprehend, we cull out the pleasures, and overprize them:—And that these *sublunaries* have their greatest freshness placed only in hope, it is a conviction undeniable, [as] that, upon enjoyment, all our joys do vanish. *Feltham*.

SUBLUXATION, *s.* A partial luxation; a sprain.

SUBMARINE, *adj.* Lying under the sea.—Not only the herbaceous and woody *submarine* plants, but also the lithophyta, affect this manner of growing, as I observed in corals. *Ray*.

To **SUBMERGE**, *v. a.* [*submerger*, Fr., *submergo*, Lat.] To drown; to put under water.

So half my Egypt were *submerg'd* and made
A cistern for scald snakes. *Shakspeare*.

To **SUBMERGE**, *v. n.* To be under water; to lie under water; spoken of swallows.—Some say, swallows *submerge* in ponds. *Gent. Mag.*

To **SUBMERSE**, *v. a.* [*submersus*, Lat.] To put under water. *Unused. Scott*.

SUBMERSION, *s.* [*submersion*, Fr., from *submersus*, Latin.] The act of drowning; state of being drowned.—State of lying under water.—The *submersion* of swallows appears by no means ascertained. *Transl. of Buffon*.

To **SUBMINISTER**, or To **SUBMINISTRATE**, *v. a.* [*subministro*, Lat.] To supply; to afford. *A word not much in use*.—Nothing *subministrates* apter matter to be converted into pestilent seminaries, than steams of nasty folks. *Harvey*.

To **SUBMINISTER**, *v. n.* To subserv; to be useful to.—Passions, as fire and water, are good servants, but bad masters, and *subminister* to the best and worst purposes. *L'Estrange*.

SUBMINISTRANT, *adj.* [*subministrans*, Lat.] Subservient: serving in subordination.—For that which is most principal, and final, to be left undone for the attending of that which is subservient, and *subministrant*, seemeth to be against proportion of reason. *Bacon*.

SUBMINISTRATION, *s.* Act of supplying.—Which [league] the electors have broken—by *subministration* of commodities to his army. *Wotton*.

SUBMISS, *adj.* [from *submissus*, Lat.] Humble; submissive; obsequious.

Nearer his presence, Adam, though not aw'd,
Yet with *submiss* approach, and reverence meek,
As to a superior nature, bowed low. *Milton*.

SUBMISSION, *s.* [*soumission*, Fr., from *submissus*, Lat.] Delivery of one to the power of another.

Submission, Dauphin! 'tis a mere French word,
We English warriors wot not what it means. *Shakspeare*.

Acknowledgment of inferiority or dependance; humble or suppliant behaviour.

In all *submission* and humility,
York doth present himself unto your highness. *Shakspeare*.

Acknowledgment of a fault: confession of error.—Be not

as extreme in *submission* as in offence. *Shakspeare*.—Obsequiousness; resignation; obedience.

SUBMISSIVE, *adj.* [*submissus*, Lat.] Humble; testifying submission or inferiority.

Her at his feet *submissive* in distress
He thus with peaceful words uprais'd. *Milton*.

SUBMISSIVELY, *adv.* Humbly; with confession of inferiority.

The goddess,
Soft in her tone, *submissively* replies. *Dryden*.

SUBMISSIVENESS, *s.* Humility; confession of fault, or inferiority.

SUBMISSLY, *adv.* Humbly; with submission.—Humility consists, not in wearing mean clothes, and going softly and *submissly*, but in mean opinion of thyself. *Bp. Taylor*.

SUBMISSNESS, *s.* Humility; lowliness of mind; resignation; obedience.—Whensoever she namcd God, though it were in common discourse, she would, for the most part, add the title of Maker; saying, God my Maker: and compose both her eyes and countenance to a *submissness* and reverence. *Rawley*.

To **SUBMIT**, *v. a.* [*soumettre*, Fr., *submitto*, Lat.] To let down; to sink.

Sometimes the hill *submits* itself a while
In small descents, which do its height beguile,
And sometimes mounts, but so as billows play,
Whose rise not hinders, but makes short our way. *Dryden*.

To subject; to resign without resistance to authority.—Return to thy mistress, and *submit* thyself under her hands. *Gen. xvi*.—To leave to discretion; to refer to judgment.—Whether the condition of the clergy be able to bear a heavy burden, is *submitted* to the house. *Swift*.

To **SUBMIT**, *v. n.* To be subject; to acquiesce in the authority of another; to yield.

To thy husband's will
Thine shall *submit*: he over thee shall rule. *Milton*.

SUBMITTER, *s.* One who submits.
SUBMULTIPLE, *s.* A *submultiple* number or quantity is that which is contained in another number, a certain number of times exactly: thus 3 is *submultiple* of 21.

SUBNASCENT, *adj.* [*subnascent*, Lat.] Growing beneath something else. *Mason*.—There is nothing more prejudicial to *subnascent* young trees, than, when newly trimmed and pruned, to have their wound poisoned with continual dripping. *Evelyn*.

SUBOBSCURELY, *adv.* Somewhat darkly.—The booke of Nature, where, though *subobscurely* and in shadows, thou, [God] hast expressed thine own image. *Donne*.

SUBOCTAVE, or **SUBOCTUPLE**, *adj.* [*sub* and *octavus*, Lat., and *octuple*.] Containing one part of eight.

SUBORDINACY, or **SUBORDINANCY**, *s.* The state of being subject.—Pursuing the imagination through all its extravagancies, is no improper method of correcting and bringing it to act in *subordinacy* to reason. *Spectator*.—Series of subordination.—The *subordinacy* of the government changing hands so often, makes an unsteadiness in the pursuit of the public interests. *Temple*.

SUBORDINATE, *adj.* [*sub* and *ordinatus*, Lat.] Inferior in order, in nature, in dignity or power.—It was *subordinate*, not enslaved to the understanding: not as a servant to a master, but as a queen to her king, who acknowledges a subjection, yet retains a majesty. *South*.—Descending in a regular series.—The two armies were assigned to the leading of two generals, rather courtiers than martial men, yet assisted with *subordinate* commanders of great experience. *Bacon*.

SUBORDINATE, *s.* An inferior person.
His next *subordinate*
Awakening, thus to him in secret spake. *Milton*.

To **SUBORDINATE**, *v. a.* [*sub* and *ordino*, Lat.] To range under another; to make subordinate. *Not in use*.

I that

I hate and highly scorn that kestrel brood
Of bastard scholars, that *subordinate*
The precious choice induements of the mind
To wealth or worldly good.

More.

SUBORDINATELY, *adv.* In a series regularly descending.

SUBORDINATION, *s.* [*subordination*, Fr.] The state of being inferior to another.

Nor can a council national decide,
But with *subordination* to her guide.

Dryden.

A series regularly descending.—The natural creatures having a local *subordination*, the rational having a political, and sometimes a sacred. *Holiday*.—Place of rank.—If we would suppose a ministry, where every single person was of distinguished piety, and all great officers of state and law diligent in chusing persons, who in their several *subordinations* would be obliged to follow the examples of their superiors, the empire of irreligion would be soon destroyed.

Swift.

To SUBORN, *v. a.* [*suborner*, Fr., *suborno*, Lat.] To procure privately; to procure by secret collusion.

Fond wretch! thou know'st not what thou speak'st,
Or else thou art *suborn'd* against his honour
In hateful practice.

Shakespeare.

To procure by indirect means.

Behold

Those who by lingering sickness lose their breath,
And those who by despair *suborn* their death.

Dryden.

SUBORNATION, *s.* [*subornation*, Fr.] The crime of procuring any to do a bad action.

You set the crown

Upon the head of this forgetful man,
And for his sake wear the detested blot
Of murder's *subornation*.

Shakespeare.

SUBORNER, *s.* [*suborneur*, Fr.] One that procures a bad action to be done.—You are to enquire of wilful and corrupt perjury; — as well of the actors, as of the procurers and *suborners* of it. *Bacon*.

SUBPŒNA, *s.* [*sub* and *pœna*, Lat.] A writ commanding attendance in a court under a penalty.

Your meetings, call'd the ball; to which appear,
As to the court of pleasure, all your gallants
And ladies, thither bound by a *subpœna*
Of Venus' and small Cupid's high displeasure.

Shirley.

To SUBPŒNA, *v. a.* To serve with a subpœna.—I was lately *subpœnaed* by a card to a general assembly. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

SUBPRIOR, *s.* The vicegerent of a prior.—The bishop ordered that the prior for the time being should pay £100 a year for seven years ensuing; and the *subprior* and convent 100 marks, in like manner, for this service. *Lowth*.

SUBQUADRUPLE, *adj.* Containing one part of four.

SUBQUINTUPLE, *adj.* Containing one part of five.

SUBRECTOR, *s.* The rector's vicegerent.—He was chosen *subrector* of the college. *Walton*.

SUBREPTION, *s.* [*subreption*, Fr., *subreptus*, Lat.] The act of obtaining a favour by surprise or unfair representation. *Dict*.—Lest there should be any *subreption* in this sacred business, it is ordered, that these ordinations should be no other than solemn both in respect of time and place.

Bp. Hall.

SUBREPTIOUS, *adj.* [*surreptice*, Fr., *surreptitius*, Lat.] Falsely crept in; fraudulently foisted; fraudulently obtained.

SUBREPTIOUSLY, *adv.* By falsehood; by stealth.

SUBREPTIVE, *adj.* [*subreptif*, Fr.] Subreptitious. *Not in use.*
To SUBROGATE, *v. a.* [*subrogo*, Lat.] To put in the place of another. A sumptuary law against excess of apparel was repealed; and a new one, a little more decent, *subrogated*. *Ld. Herbert*.

SUBROY, a town of Hindostan, province of Cutch, situated on the road from Luckput Bunder to Mandavie. It is defended by a citadel, and is a populous and flourishing place. Lat. not ascertained.

SUB-SALTS, in Chemistry, salts with less acid than is sufficient to neutralize their bases.

To SUBSCRIBE, *v. a.* [*souscrire*, Fr., *scribo*, Lat.] To give consent to, by underwriting the name.—The reader sees the names of those persons by whom this letter is *subscribed*. *Addison*.—To attest by writing the name.—Their particular testimony ought to be better credited, than some other *subscribed* with an hundred hands. *Whitgift*.—To submit. *Not used.*

The king gone to night! *subscrib'd* his pow'r!
Confin'd to exhibition! all is gone.

Shakespeare.

To SUBSCRIBE, *v. n.* To give consent.

Advise thee what is to be done,
And we will all *subscribe* to thy advice.

Shakespeare.

To promise a stipulated sum for the promotion of any undertaking.

SUBSCRIBER, *s.* [from *scriptio*, Lat.] One who subscribes, or contributes.—Let a pamphlet come out upon a demand in a proper juncture, every one of the party who can spare a shilling shall be a *subscriber*. *Swift*.

SUBSCRIPT, *s.* [*scriptum*, Lat.] Any thing underwritten.—Be they postscripts or *subscripts*, your translators neither made them, nor recommended them, for *Scripture*. *Bentley*.

SUBSCRIPTION, [from *scriptio*, Lat.] Any thing underwritten.—The man asked, Are ye Christians? We answered we were; fearing the less because of the cross we had seen in the *subscription*. *Bacon*.—Consent or attestation given by underwriting the name.—The act or state of contributing to any undertaking.

The work he ply'd;

Stocks and *subscriptions* pour on ev'ry side.

Pope.

Submission; obedience. *Not in use.*

I tax not you, you elements, with unkindness;
I never gave you kingdom, call'd you children,
You owe me no *subscription*.

Shakespeare.

SUBSECTION, *s.* [*sub* and *sectio*, Lat.] A subdivision of a larger section into a lesser; a section of a section.

SUBSECUTIVE, *adj.* [*subsecutif*, Fr. from *subsequor*, Lat.] Following in train.

SUBSEPTUPLE, *adj.* [*sub* and *septuplus*, Lat.] Containing one of seven parts.

SUBSEQUENCE, or SUBSEQUENCY, *s.* [from *subsequor*, Lat.] The state of following; not precedence.—By this faculty we can take notice of the order of precedence and *subsequence* in which they are past. *Grew*.

SUBSEQUENT, *adj.* [*subsequent*, Fr., *subsequens*, Lat. This word is pronounced long in the second syllable by Shakspeare.] Following in train; not preceding.

In such indexes, although small pricks
To their *subsequent* volumes, there is seen
The baby figure of the giant mass

Of things to come at large.

Shakespeare.

Why does each consenting sign
With prudent harmony combine

In turns to move, and *subsequent* appear

To gird the globe and regulate the year?

Prior.

SUBSEQUENTLY, *adv.* Not so as to go before; so as to follow in train.

To SUBSERVE, *v. a.* [*subservio*, Lat.] To serve in subordination; to serve instrumentally.—The memory hath no special part of the brain devoted to its own service, but uses all those parts which *subserve* our sensations, as well as our thinking powers. *Walsk*.

SUBSERVIENCE, or SUBSERVIENCY, *s.* Instrumental fitness, use, or operation.—There is an immediate and agile *subservience* of the spirits to the empire of the soul. *Hale*.

SUBSERVIENT, *adj.* [*subserviens*, Lat.] Subordinate; instrumentally

instrumentally useful. Sense is *subservient* unto fancy, fancy unto intellect. *Grew*.

SUBSEXTUPLE, *adj.* [*sub* and *sextuplus*, Lat.] Containing one part of six.

To SUBSIDE, *v. n.* [*subsido*, Lat.] To sink; to tend downwards. It is commonly used of one part of a compound, sinking in the whole.

He shook the sacred honours of his head:

With terror trembled heaven's *subsiding* hill,

And from his shaken curls ambrosial dews distill. *Dryden*.

SUBSIDENCE, or SUBSIDENCY, *s.* The act of sinking; tendency downward.—This gradual *subsidiency* of the abyss would take up a considerable time. *Burnet*.

SUBSIDARILY, *adv.* In an assisting way. *Sherwood*.

SUBSIDIARY, *adj.* [*subsidiare*, Fr., *subsidiarius*, Lat.] Assistant; brought in aid.—Bitter substances burn the blood, and are a sort of *subsidiary* gall. *Arbutnot*.

SUBSIDIARY, *s.* An assistant.—Which deceitful consideration drew on Pelagius himself, that was first only for nature, at last to take in, one after another, five *subsidiaries* more. *Hammond*.

To SUBSIDIZE, *v. a.* To furnish with a subsidy.

SUBSIDY, *s.* [*subsidi*, Fr., *subsidium*, Lat.] Aid, commonly such as is given in money.—They advised the king to send speedy aids, and with much alacrity granted a rate of *subsidy*. *Bacon*.

To SUBSIGN, *v. a.* [*subsigno*, Lat., *sousigner*, Fr.] To sign under.—Neither have they seen any deed before the conquest, but *subsigned* with crosses and single names without surnames. *Camden*.

SUBSIGNATION, *s.* [*subsignatio*, Lat.] Attestation given by underwriting the name.—The epistle with *subsignation* of the scribe and notary. *Sheldon*.

To SUBSIST *v. n.* [*subsister*, Fr., *subsisto*, Lat.] To be; to have existence. To continue; to retain the present state or condition.—The very foundation was removed, and it was a moral impossibility that the republic could *subsist* any longer. *Swift*.—To have means of living; to be maintained.—He shone so powerfully upon me, that like the heat of a Russian summer, he ripened the fruits of poetry in a cold climate; and gave me wherewithal to *subsist* in the long winter which succeeded. *Dryden*.—To inhere; to have existence by means of something else.—Though the general natures of these qualities are sufficiently distant from one another, yet when they come to *subsist* in particulars, and to be clothed with several accidents, then the discernment is not so easy. *South*.

To SUBSIST, *v. a.* To feed; to maintain.—We decry millions of species *subsisted* on a green leaf, which your glasses represent only in crowds and swarms. *Addison*.

SUBSISTENCE, or SUBSISTENCY, *s.* [*subsistence*, Fr.] Real being.—Not only the things had *subsistence*, but the very images were of some creatures existing. *Stillingfleet*.—Competence; means of supporting life.—His viceroy could only propose to himself a comfortable *subsistence* out of the plunder of his province. *Addison*.—Inherence in something else.

SUBSISTENT, *adj.* [*subsistens*, Lat.] Having real being.—Such as deny spirits *subsistent* without bodies, will with difficulty affirm the separate existence of their own. *Brown*.—Inherent.—These qualities are not *subsistent* in those bodies, but are operations of fancy begotten in something else. *Bentley*.

SUBSTANCE, *s.* [*substantia*, Fr., *substantia*, Lat.] Being; something existing; something of which we can say that it is.

The strength of gods,
And this empyreal *substance* cannot fail.

Milton.

That which supports accidents.—Every being is considered as *subsisting* in and by itself, and then it is called a *substance*; or it *subsists* in and by another, and then it is called a mode or manner of being. *Watts*.—The essential

part.—It will serve our turn to comprehend the *substance*, without confining ourselves to scrupulous exactness in] form. *Digby*.—Something real, not imaginary; something solid, not empty.

He the future evil shall no less

In apprehension than in *substance* feel.

Milton.

Body; corporeal nature.—Between the parts of opaque and coloured bodies are many spaces, either empty or replenished with mediums of other densities; as water between the tinging corpuscles wherewith any liquor is impregnated, air between the aqueous globules that constitute clouds or mists, and for the most part spaces void of both air and water; but yet perhaps not wholly void of all *substance* between the parts of hard bodies. *Newton*.—Wealth; means of life.—He hath eaten me out of house and home, and hath put all my *substance* into that fat belly of his, but I will have some of it out again. *Shakspeare*.

SUBSTANTIAL, *adj.* [*substantielle*, Fr.] Real; actually existing.—If this atheist would have his chance to be a real and *substantial* agent, he his more stupid than the vulgar. *Bentley*.—True; solid; real; not merely seeming.

O blessed! blessed night! I am afraid,

Being in night, all this is but a dream;

Too flattering sweet to be *substantial*.

Shakspeare.

Corporeal; material.—The sun appears flat like a plate of silver, the moon as big as the sun, and the rainbow a large *substantial* arch in the sky, all which are gross falsehoods. *Watts*.—Responsible; moderately wealthy; possessed of substance.—The merchants and *substantial* citizens cannot make up more than a hundred thousand families. *Addison*.

SUBSTANTIALS, *s.* Essential parts. *Unused*.—Although a custom introduced against the *substantial*s of an appeal be not valid.

SUBSTANTIALITY, *s.* The state of real existence.—Corporeity; materiality.—Body cannot act on any thing but by motion; motion cannot be received but by quantity and matter: the soul is a stranger to such gross *substantiality*, and owns nothing of these. *Glanville*.

SUBSTANTIALLY, *adv.* In manner of a substance; with reality of existence.—In him his father shone—*substantially* express'd. *Milton*.—Strongly; solidly.—Having so *substantially* provided for the North, they promised themselves they should end the war that summer. *Clarendon*.—Truly; solidly; really; with fixed purpose.—The laws of this religion would make men, if they would truly observe them, *substantially* religious towards God, chaste and temperate. *Tillotson*.—With competent wealth.

SUBSTANTIALNESS, *s.* The state of being substantial.—Firmness; strength; power of holding or lasting.—When *substantialness* combineth with delightfulness, fulness, with fineness, how can the language which consisteth of these sound other than most full of sweetness? *Camden*.

To SUBSTANTIATE, *v. a.* To make to exist.—The accidental of any act is said to be whatever advenes to the act itself already *substantiated*. *Ayliffe*.

SUBSTANTIVE, *s.* [*substantif*, Fr., *substantivum*, Lat.] A noun; the name of every mental conception that is perfect in itself.—Claudian perpetually closes his sense at the end of a verse, commonly called golden, or two *substantives* and two adjectives with a verb betwixt them to keep the peace. *Dryden*.

SUBSTANTIVE, *adj.* [*substantivus*, Lat.] Solid; depending only on itself. *Not in use*.—He considered how sufficient and *substantive* this land was to maintain itself, without any aid of the foreigner. *Bacon*.—Betokening existence.—One is obliged to join many particulars in one proposition, because the repetition of the *substantive* verb would be tedious. *Arbutnot*.

SUBSTANTIVELY, *adv.* As a substantive.

To SUBSTITUTE, *v. a.* [*substituer*, Fr., *substitutus*, from *sub* and *statuo*, Lat.] To put in the place of another.—In the original designs of speaking, a man can *substitute* none for them that can equally conduce to his honour. *Gov. of the Tongue*.

SUBSTITUTE,

SUBSTITUTE, *s.* [*substitut*, Fr.] One placed by another to act with delegated power.

Were you sworn to the duke, or to the deputy?

— To him and his *substitutes*. *Shakspcare.*

It is used likewise for things; as, one medicine is a *substitute* for another.

SUBSTITUTION, *s.* [*substitution*, Fr.] The act of placing any person or thing in the room of another; the state of being placed in the room of another.

He did believe

He was the duke, from *substitution*,

And executing th' outward face of royalty,

With all prerogative. *Shakspcare.*

To SUBSTRACT, *v. a.* [*subtrah*, Lat., *soustraire*, French.] To take away part from the whole. See To SUBTRACT.—To take one number from another.

SUBSTRACTION, *s.* [*soustraction*, Fr.] The act of taking away part from the whole.—I cannot call this piece Tully's nor my own, being much altered not only by the change of the style, but by addition and *subtraction*. *Denham.*

SUBSTRATUM, *s.* [Latin.] A layer of earth, or any other substance lying under another.—A half-finished phantom of a *substratum*. *Baxter.*

SUBSTRUCTION, *s.* [*substructio*, from *sub* and *struo*, Lat.] Underbuilding.—Vaults and *substructions* that serve as foundations to the ponderous mass of buildings which compose the palace. *Swinburne.*

SUBSTRUCTURE, *s.* [*sub* and *structura*, Lat.] A foundation.—A *substructure* of their chronology, geography, and history. *Harris.*

SUBSTYLAR, *adj.* [*sub* and *stylus*, Lat.] *Substylar* line is, in dialing, a right line, whereon the gnomon or style of a dial is erected at right angles with the plane.—Erect the style perpendicularly over the *substylar* line, so as to make an angle with the dial-plane equal to the elevation of the pole of your place. *Moron.*

SUBSULTIVE, or SUBSULTORY, *adj.* [*subsultus*, Lat.] Bounding; moving by starts.—I am levelling this rule against that *subsultory* way of delivery that rises like a storm in one part of the period, and presently sinks into a dead calm that will scarce reach the ear. *Abp. Hort.*

SUBSULTORILY, *adv.* In a bounding manner; by fits; by starts.—The spirits spread even, and move not *subsultorily*; for that will make the parts close and pliant. *Bacon.*

To SUBSUME, *v. n.* [*sub* and *sumo*, Lat.] To assume a position by consequence.—St. Paul cannot name that word, "sinners," but must straight *subsume* in a parenthesis, "of whom I am the chief." *Hammond.*

SUBTANGENT, *s.* In any curve, is the line which determines the intersection of the tangent in the axis prolonged.

To SUBTEND, *v. a.* [*sub* and *tendo*, Lat.] To be extended under.—In rectangles and triangles the square, which is made of the side that *subtendeth* the right angle, is equal to the squares which are made of the sides containing the right angle. *Brown.*

SUBTENISE, *s.* [*sub* and *tensus*, Lat.] The chord of an arch.

SUBTER. [Latin.] In composition, signifies *under*.

SUBTERFLUENT, or SUBTERFLUOUS, *adj.* [*subterfluo*, Latin.] Running under.

SUBTERFUGE, *s.* [*subterfuge*, Fr., *subter* and *fugio*, Lat.] A shift; an evasion; a trick.—Affect not little shifts and *subterfuges* to avoid the force of an argument. *Watts.*

SUBTERMOOKY, a river of Bengal, which forms one of the innumerable streams of the Delta of the Ganges.

SUBTERRANE, *s.* [*soubterrain*, Fr., *sub* and *terra*, Lat.] A subterraneous structure; a room under ground.—Josephus mentions vast *subterraneas* in some of the hills in the part of Canaan called Galilee, and in Trachonites. *Bryant.*

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SUBTERRANEAL, SUBTERRANEAN, SUBTERRANEOUS, or SUBTERRANY, *adj.* [*sub* and *terra*, Lat., *soubterrain*, Fr. *Subterranean* or *subterraneous* is the word now used.] Lying under the earth; placed below the surface.

Tell by what paths, what *subterranean* ways,

Back to the fountain's head the sea conveys

The reflux rivers. *Blackmore,*

SUBTERRANY, *s.* What lies under the earth or below the surface.—In *subterranyas*, as the fathers of their tribes, are brimstone and mercury. *Bacon.*

SUBTERRANITY, *s.* [*sub* and *terra*, Lat.] A place under ground. *Not in use.*—We commonly consider *subterranyities* not in contemplations sufficiently respective unto the creation. *Brown.*

SUBTILE, *adj.* [*subtile*, Fr., *subtilis*, Lat., from *sub* and *tela*. This word is often written *subtle*; it has been proposed to restrict the latter orthoepy to the metaphorical, and *subtile* to the material senses of the word.—Thin; not dense; not gross.

From his eyes the fleeting fair

Retir'd, like *subtle* smoke dissolv'd in air.

Dryden.

Nice; fine; delicate; not coarse.

But of the clock which in our breasts we bear,

The *subtile* motions we forget the while.

Davies.

Piercing; acute.

Pass we the slow disease and *subtile* pain,

Which our weak frame is destin'd to sustain;

The cruel stone, the cold catarrh.

Prior.

Cunning; artful; sly; subdulous.

Think you this York

Was not incensed by his *subtile* mother,

To taunt and scorn you?

Shakspcare.

O *subtile* love, a thousand wiles thou hast

By humble suit, by service, or by hire,

To win a maiden's hold.

Fairfax.

Deceitful.

Like a bowl upon a *subtile* ground,

I've tumbled past the throw.

Shakspcare.

Refined; acute beyond necessity.—Things remote from use, obscure and *subtile*. *Milton.*

SUBTILELY, *adv.* In a *subtile* manner; thinly; not densely.—The opakest bodies, if *subtilely* divided, as metals dissolved in acid menstruums, become perfectly transparent. *Newton.*—Artfully; cunningly.—By granting this, add the reputation of loving the truth sincerely to that of having been able to oppose it *subtilely*. *Boyle.*

SUBTILENESS, *s.* Fineness; rareness. *Cunning*; artfulness.

To SUBTILIATE, *v. a.* To make thin.—A very dry and warm or *subtilating* air opens the surface of the earth.

Harvey.

SUBTILIA'TION, *s.* [*subtiliation*, Fr.] The act of making thin.

SUBTILIZA'TION, *s.* Subtilization is making any thing so volatile as to rise readily in steam or vapour.—Fluids have their resistances proportional to their densities, so that no *subtilization*, division of parts, or refining can alter these resistances. *Cheyne.*—Refinement; superfluous acuteness.

To SUBTILIZE, *v. a.* [*subtilizer*, Fr.] To make thin; to make less gross or coarse.—Chyle, being mixed with the choler and pancreatic juices, is further *subtilized*, and rendered so fluid and penetrant, that the thinner and finer part easily finds way in at the straight orifices of the lacteous veins. *Ray.*—To refine; to spin into useless niceties.—The most obvious verity is *subtilized* into niceties, and spun into a thread indiscernable by common optics. *Glanville.*

To SUBTILIZE, *v. n.* To talk with too much refinement.—Qualities and moods some modern philosophers have *subtilized* on. *Digby.*

SU'BTILITY, *s.* [*subtilité*, Fr.] Thinness; fineness; exility of parts.

How shall we this union well express?

Nought ties the soul, her *subtily* is such.

Davies.

Nicety; exility.—Whatever is invisible, in respect of the fineness of the body, or *subtily* of the motion, is little enquired. *Bacon*.—Refinement; too much acuteness.—You prefer the reputation of candour before that of *subtily*. *Boyle*.—Cunning; artifice; slyness.

Sleights proceeding

As from his wit and native *subtlety*.

Milton.

SU'BTLE, *adj.* Sly; artful; cunning.—The serpent, *subtlest* beast of all the field. *Milton.*

SU'BTLY, *adv.* Slyly; artfully; cunningly.

Thou see'st how *subtly* to detain thee I devise;
Inviting thee to hear while I relate.

Milton.

Nicely; delicately.

In the nice bee, what sense so *subtly* true,

From poisonous herbs extracts the healing dew!

Pope.

To SUBTRACT, *v. a.* [*subtractus*, Lat.] To withdraw part from the rest.—Reducing many things unto charge, which, by confusion, became concealed and *subtracted* from the crown. *Davies.*

SUBTRACTIO, *s.* Subtraction: *which see*. In law.—*Subtraction* happens, when any person who owes any suit, duty, custom, or service to another, withdraws or neglects to perform it. *Blackstone.*

SUBTRACTER, or **SU'BTRAHEND**, *s.* [*subtrahere*, Lat.] The number to be taken out of a larger number.

SUBTRIPLE, *adj.* [*subtriple*, Fr.; *sub* and *tripulus*, Lat.] Containing a third or one part of three.—The power will be in a *subtriple* proportion to the weight. *Wilkins.*

SUBTUTOR, *s.* A subordinate tutor.—He [bishop Earl] had been his *subtutor*. *Burnet.*

SUBVENTANEOUS, *adj.* [*subventaneus*, Lat.] Adle; windy.—*Subventaneous* eggs. *Medic. Ess.*

SUBVENTION, *s.* [*subvention*, old Fr.] The act of coming under; the act of supporting; aid. *Cotgrave*.—The manner in which our Saviour is said to have been carried up, was, by the *subvention* of a cloud. *Stackhouse.*

To SUBVERSE, *v. a.* [*subversus*, Lat.] To subvert; to overthrow.

Returning back, these goodly rowmes, which erst

She saw so rich and royally array'd,

Now vanish't utterly and cleane *subverst*

She found, and all their glory quite decay'd.

Spenser.

SUBVERSION, *s.* [*subversion*, Fr.; *subversus*, Lat.] Overthrow; ruin; destruction.—These seek *subversion* of thy harmless life. *Shakspeare.*

SUBVERSIVE, *adj.* Having tendency to overturn: with *of*.—Lying is a vice *subversive* of the very ends and design of conversation. *Rogers.*

To SUBVERT, *v. a.* [*subvertir*, Fr.; *subverto*, Lat.] To overthrow; to overturn; to destroy; to turn upside down.

God, by things deem'd weak,

Subverts the worldly strong and worldly wise.

Milton.

To corrupt; to confound.—Strive not about words to no purpose, but to the *subverting* of the hearers. *2 Tim.*

SUBVERTER, *s.* Overthrower; destroyer.

O traitor; worse than Simon was to Troy;

O vile *subverter* of the Gallic reign,

More false than Gano was to Charlemagne.

Dryden.

SUBULARIA [so named from its awl-shaped leaves], in Botany, a genus of the class tetradynamia, order siliculosa, natural order of siliquosæ or cruciformes, cruciferae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved; leaflets ovate, concave, spreading a little, deciduous. Corolla, four-petalled, cruciform. Petals obovate, entire, a little bigger than the calyx. Stamina: filaments six, shorter than the

corolla: two of which are opposite and still shorter, anthers simple. Pistil: germ ovate; style shorter than the silicle; stigma obtuse. Pericarp: silicle ovate, subcompressed, entire, with a very short style, two-celled: partition contrary to the valves: valves ovate, concave; seeds some, very minute, roundish.—*Essential Character*. Silicle entire, ovate: valves ovate, concave, contrary to the partition. Style shorter than the silicle.

1. *Subularia aquatica*, or awl-wort.—The root is annual, and consists of many long simple white fibres. Leaves all radical, smooth, awl-shaped with a recurved point. Stalk seldom more than two inches high, simple, smooth, bearing a simple spike of small white flowers, always immersed in the water, and so closed that the impregnation is accomplished in safety under the protection of the calyx and petals. Seeds ovate, compressed, about three on each side.—Native of many parts of Europe.

SUBUNDATION, *s.* [*sub* and *unda*, Lat.] Flood; deluge. *Not in use*.—Banks defensive against *subundation*, called sea-banks. *Huloet.*

SUBUNREEKA, a river of Hindostan, which divides the provinces of Orissa and Bengal; and, till the year 1803, formed the boundary between the British and the Nagpore Mahrattas. It rises in the province of Bahar, and is about 250 miles long. It is fordable, except in the rainy season, and falls into the bay of Bengal, at Pipy pagoda. It was the first river of Bengal into which Europeans were allowed to enter; but the channel is much choaked up since that period.

SUBURB, *s.* [*suburbium*, Lat.] Building without the walls of a city.—There's a trim rabble let in: are all these your faithful friends o' th' *suburbs*? *Shakspeare*.—The confines; the outpart.

The *suburbs* of my jacket are so gone,

I have not left one skirt to sit upon.

Cleveland.

SUBURBAN, **SUBURBIAL**, or **SUBURBIAN**, *adj.* [*suburbanus*, Lat.] Inhabiting the suburb.

Athens the eye of Greece, mother of arts

And eloquence, native to famous wits

City or *suburban*, studious walks and shades.

Milton.

SUBURBED, *adj.* Bordering upon a suburb; having a suburb on its outpart.—The first place, which here offereth itself to sight is Bottreaux Castle, seated on a bad harbour of the north sea, and *suburbed* with a poor market town. *Cartew.*

SUBURBICARIAN, *adj.* [*suburbicarius*, Lat.] Applied to those provinces of Italy, which composed the ancient diocese of Rome.—The pope having stretched his authority beyond the *suburbicarian* precincts. *Barrow.*

SUBWORKER. *s.* Underworker; subordinate helper.—He that governs well leads the blind; but he that teaches gives him eyes: and it is glorious to be a *subworker* to grace, in freeing it from some of the inconveniences of original sin. *South.*

SUBZOW, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Tver, on the Wolga, with 1100 inhabitants.

SUCAIFE, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 25 miles south-east of Yambo.

SUCCA, a small sea-port of Tripoli, in the gulph of Sidra; 45 miles south-east of Mesurada.

SUCCADANA, a town of the island of Borneo, on the west coast. It is situated on the principal or southern outlet of a large river, which is navigable 150 miles for prows. It is celebrated for very large diamonds, as also for the best camphire. It is also a considerable mart for opium, the sale of which is monopolized by the rajah and his family. Gold dust, tin, and pepper, are also to be procured. Lat. 1. 30. S.

SUCCEDANEOUS, *adj.* [*succedaneus*, Lat.] Supplying the place of something else.—Nor is Ætius perhaps too strictly to be observed, when he prescribeth the stones of the otter as *succedaneous* unto castoreum. *Brown.*

SUCCEDA'NEUM, *s.* That which is put to serve for something

something else.—They did not need a *succedaneum* to that inward conscious persuasion. *Warburton*.

To SUCCE'ED, *v. n.* [*succeder*, Fr.; *succedo*, Lat.] To follow in order.—Those of all ages to *succeed*—will curse my head. *Milton*.—To come into the place of one who has quitted or died.

Enjoy till I return
Short pleasures; for long woes are to *succeed*. *Milton*.

To obtain one's wish; to terminate an undertaking in the desired effect.—'Tis almost impossible for poets to *succeed* without ambition: imagination must be raised by a desire of fame to a desire of pleasing. *Dryden*.—To terminate according to wish; to have a good effect.—This was impossible for Virgil to imitate, because of the severity of the Roman language: Spenser endeavoured it in Shepherd's Kalendar; but neither will it *succeed* in English. *Dryden*.—To go under cover. *Unused*.

Please that silvan scene to take,
Where whistling winds uncertain shadows make;
Or will you to the cooler cave *succeed*,
Whose mouth the curling vines have overspread. *Dryden*.

To SUCCEED, *v. a.* To follow; to be subsequent or consequent to.—In that place no creature was hurtful unto man, and those destructive effects they now discover *succeeded* the curse, and came in with thorns and briars. *Brown*.—To prosper; to make successful. *Succeed* my wish, and second my design,
The fairest Deiopea shall be thine,
And make thee father of a happy line. *Dryden*.

SUCCE'EDER, *s.* One who follows; one who comes into the place of another.—Nature has so far imprinted it in us, that should the envy of predecessors deny the secret to *succeeders*, they yet would find it out. *Suckling*.

SUCCE'SS, *s.* The termination of any affair happy or unhappy. *Success* without any epithet is commonly taken for good success.
Perplex'd and troubled at his bad *success*
The tempter stood. *Milton*.

Succession. *Obsolete*.
All the sons of these five brethren reigned
By due *success*, and all their nephews late,
Even thrice eleven descents, the crown retained. *Spenser*.

SUCCESS, a township of the United States, in Coos county, New Hampshire, east of the Androscoggen; 23 miles east of Lancaster.

SUCCESS BAY, or GOOD SUCCESS BAY, a bay on the south-east coast of Terra del Fuego, in the straits of Le Maire. On the mountains inland of this bay, Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander found many new Alpine plants, unknown in Europe; but the cold was so intense, that the latter had well nigh fallen a sacrifice to its severity in the midst of summer. Dr. Solander, who had more than once crossed the mountains which divide Sweden from Norway, well knew that extreme cold, especially when joined with fatigue, produces a torpor and sleepiness that are almost irresistible; he therefore conjured the company to keep moving, whatever pain it might cost them, and whatever relief they might be promised by an inclination to rest. Whoever sits down, says he, will sleep; and whosoever sleeps will wake no more. Dr. Solander himself was the first who found the inclination, against which he had warned others, irresistible; and insisted upon being suffered to lie down. Mr. Banks intreated and remonstrated in vain; down he lay upon the ground, though it was covered with snow, and it was with great difficulty that his friend kept him from sleeping. Richmond also, one of the black servants, began to linger, having suffered from the cold in the same manner as the doctor. Mr. Banks therefore, sent five of the company, among whom was Mr. Buchan, forward to get a fire ready at the first convenient place they could find, and himself and four others remained with the doctor and Richmond, whom, partly by persuasion and intreaty, and partly by force, they brought on, till they

both declared they could go no farther. Mr. Banks had recourse to intreaty and expostulation, but they produced no effect. When Richmond was told that if he did not go now he would in a short time be frozen to death, he answered, that he desired nothing but to lie down and die. The doctor did not so explicitly renounce his life; he said he was willing to go on, but that he must first take some sleep, though he had before told the company that to sleep was to perish. Mr. Banks and the rest found it impossible to carry them, and there being no remedy, they were suffered to sit down, being partly supported by the bushes, and in a few minutes they fell into a profound sleep. Soon after, some of the people who had been sent forward returned with the welcome news that a fire was kindled about a quarter of a mile farther on the way. Mr. Banks then endeavoured to wake Dr. Solander, and happily succeeded; but though he had not slept five minutes, he had almost lost the use of his limbs, and the muscles were so shrunk that his shoes fell from his feet; he consented to go forward, with such assistance as could be given him, but no attempts to relieve poor Richmond were successful. Richmond, and a seaman sent to his relief, died. Lat. 54. 50. S. long. 65. 27. W.

SUCCESS CAPE, or CAPE GOOD SUCCESS, a cape on the south coast of Terra del Fuego, which forms the south-west entrance of the straits of Le Maire. Lat. 54. 58. S. long. 66. 14. W.

SUCCE'SSFUL, *adj.* Prosperous; happy; fortunate.
He observ'd the illustrious throng,
Their names, their fates, their conduct and their care
In peaceful senates and *successful* war. *Dryden*.

The early hunter
Blesses Diana's hand, who leads him safe
O'er hanging cliffs; who spreads his net *successful*,
And guides the arrow through the panther's heart. *Prior*.

SUCCE'SSFULLY, *adv.* Prosperously; luckily; fortunately.—He is too young, yet he looks *successfully*. *Shakspeare*.

SUCCE'SSFULNESS, *s.* Happy conclusion; desired event; series of good fortune.—An opinion of the *successfulness* of the work is as necessary to found a purpose of undertaking it, as the authority of commands, or the persuasiveness of promises. *Hammond*.

SUCCE'SSION, *s.* [*successio*, Lat.] Consecution; series of one thing or person following another.—Reflection on appearances of several ideas, one after another, in our minds, furnishes us with the idea of *succession*. *Locke*.—A series of things or persons following one another.—These decays in Spain have been occasioned by so long a war with Holland; but most by two *successions* of inactive princes. *Bacon*.—A lineage; an order of descendants.

Cassibelan
And his *succession*, granted Rome a tribute. *Shakspeare*.

The power or right of coming to the inheritance of ancestors.

What people is so void of common sense,
To vote *succession* from a native prince? *Dryden*.

SUCCE'SSIVE, *adj.* [*successif*, Fr.] Following in order; continuing a course or consecution uninterrupted.

God hath set
Labour and rest, as day and night to men
Successive. *Milton*.

Inherited by succession. *Not in use*.
Countrymen,
Plead my *successive* title with your swords. *Titus*.

SUCCE'SSIVELY, *adv.* [*successivement*, Fr.] In uninterrupted order; one after another.

Three sons he left,
All which *successively* by turns did reign. *Spenser*.

SUCCE'SSIVENESS, *s.* The state of being successive.—All the notion we have of duration is partly by the *successiveness*, of its own operations, and partly by those external measures that it finds in motion. *Hale*.

SUCCE'SSLESS,

SUCCE/SSLESS, *adj.* Unlucky; unfortunate; failing of the event desired.

Successless all her soft caresses prove,
To banish from his breast his country's love. *Popc.*

SUCCE/SSLESSNESS, *s.* Not prosperous conclusion; unsuccessfulness. Boyle has somewhere used this word.

SU'CCESSOR, *s.* One that follows in the place or character of another.

The surly savage offspring disappear,
And curse the bright *successor* of the year;
Yet crafty kind with daylight can dispense. *Dryden.*

SUCCI/NCT, *adj.* Tucked or girded up; having the clothes drawn up to disengage the legs.—His habit fit for speed *succinct*. *Miltou.*—Short; concise; brief.—A strict and *succinct* stile is that where you can take nothing away without loss, and that loss manifest. *B. Jonson.*

SUCCI/NCTLY, *adv.* Briefly; concisely; without superfluity of diction.

I'll recant, when France can shew me wit
As strong as ours, and as *succinctly* writ. *Roscommon.*

SUCCI/NCTNESS, *s.* Brevity; conciseness.—We have designed this in such a method, as that—the *succinctness* and brevity thereof may not make it the more obscure. *Hartlib.*

SUCCONDEE, a sea-port on the Gold coast of Africa, in the country of Ahanta, where some trade is carried on. The Dutch have here a respectable fort; and the English, till of late, had a settlement, which however, they have now withdrawn.

SUCCOOT, a town of Nubia, on the Nile, near the frontier of Dongola, and a little above the great cataract; 160 miles north of Dongola.

SU'CCORY, *s.* A plant. *Cichorium.*

A garden-sallad
Of endive, radishes, and *succory*. *Dryden.*

To SU'CCOUR, *v. a.* To help; to assist in difficulty or distress; to relieve.

As that famous queen
Of Amazons, whom Pyrrhus did destroy,
Did shew herself in great triumphant joy,
To *succour* the weak state of sad afflicted Troy. *Spenser.*

SU'CCOUR, *s.* Aid; assistance; relief of any kind; help in distress.

My father,
Flying for *succour* to his servant Banister,
Being distress'd, was by that wretch betray'd. *Shakspeare.*

The person or things that bring help.

Our watchful general hath discern'd from far
The mighty *succour* which made glad the foe. *Dryden.*

SU'CCOURER, *s.* Helper; assistant; reliever.—She hath been a *succourer* of many. *Romans.*

SU'CCOURLESS, *adj.* Wanting relief; void of friends or help.—Leave them slaves, and *succourless*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SU'CCUBA, or SU'CCUBUS, *s.* A pretended kind of demon.

His ancient grandame,
Though seeming in shape a woman natural,
Was a fiend of the kind that *succubæ* some call. *Mir.*

SU'CCULENCE, or SU'CCULENCY, *s.* Juiciness.

SU'CCULENT, *adj.* [*succulentus*, Lat.] Juicy; moist.—These plants have a strong, dense, and *succulent* moisture, which is not apt to exhale. *Bacon.*

To SUCCU'MB, *v. n.* [*succumbo*, Lat., *succomber*, Fr.] To yield; to sink under any difficulty. *Not in use.* *Johnson.*

To their wills we must *succumb*,
Quocunque trahunt, 'tis our doom. *Hudibras.*

Wisdom *succumbing* under the bauble of folly. *Warburton.*

SUCCUMI, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 25 miles south-west of Fumai.

SUCCUSSATION, *s.* [*succussatio*, low Lat.] A trot.—They move two legs of one side together, which is totulation or ambling, or lift one foot before and the cross foot behind, which is *succussation* or trotting. *Brown.*

SUCCUSSION, *s.* [*succussio*, Lat.] The act of shaking or trembling.—When any of that risible species were brought to the doctor, and when he considered the spasms of the diaphragm, and all the muscles of respiration, with the tremulous *succussion* of the whole human body, he gave such patients over. *Arbuthnot.*

SUCH, *adj.* [*swaleik*, Goth. i. e. *swa*, so, and *leik*, like; *sulck*, *solck*, Teut. i. e. so-lick; *yplic*, Saxon. *Wicliffe* uses *swilke* for *such*.] Of that kind; of the like kind. With *as* before the thing to which it relates, when the thing follows: as, *such* a power as a king's; *such* a gift as a kingdom.—'Tis *such* another fitchew! marry, a perfum'd one. *Shakspeare.*—Can we find *such* a one as this, in whom the spirit of God is? *Gen.*—The works of the flesh are manifest, *such* are drunkenness, revellings and *such* like. *Gal.*

Such are the cold Riphean race, and *such*
The savage Scythian. *Dryden.*

The same that: with *as*.—This was the state of the kingdom of Tunis at *such* time as Barbarossa, with Solymans great fleet, landed in Africk. *Knolles.*—Comprehended under the term premised, like what has been said.

That thou art happy, owe to God;
That thou continu'st *such*, owe to thyself. *Milton.*

A manner of expressing a particular person or thing.

I saw him yesterday
With *such* and *such*. *Shakspeare.*

Those artists who propose only the imitation of *such* or *such* a particular person, without election of those ideas before mentioned have been reproached for that omission. *Dryden.*

SUCHITEPEQUE, a district of Guatimala, to the south of the province of Soconusco. It is throughout of a very hot temperature, and subject to continual rains, with tempests of thunder and lightning.

SUCHITEPEQUE, SAN ANTONIO DE, the capital of the above province, situated on a river of the same name, running into the Pacific Ocean. It contains 1480 Indians, occupied in the cultivation of cochineal and indigo; 72 miles north-west of Guatimala. Lat. 14. 47. N. long. 92. 14. W.

SUCHONA, a large river of the north of European Russia, which issues from Lake Kubenskoi, in the government of Vologda, flows southward till it reaches Usting, then turns north, receives the Jug, and afterwards takes the name of Dwina.

SUCHOVOLKA, a small town in the west of European Russia, in the province of Bialystok. Population 1000.

SUCHTELN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the duchy of Juliers. It contains 3600 inhabitants, whose chief employment as manufacturers, is the weaving of velvet; 15 miles west-by-north of Dusseldorf, and 17 east-north-east of Ruremond.

To SUCK, *v. a.* [*ycan*, Saxon; *sugo*, *suctum*, Latin; *succer*, French.] To draw by making a rarefaction of the air.—To draw in with the mouth.—The cup of astonishment thou shalt drink, and *suck* it out. *Ezek.*

We'll hand in hand to the dark mansions go,
Where, *sucking* in each other's latest breath,
We may transfuse our souls. *Dryden.*

To draw with the milk.

Thy valiantness was mine, thou *suck'dst* it from me;
But own thy pride thyself. *Shakspeare.*

To empty by sucking.—A fox lay with whole swarms of flies *sucking* and galling of him. *L'Estrange.*

Bees on tops of lilies feed,
And creep within their bells to *suck* the balmy seed.

Dryden.

To draw or drain.—I can *suck* melancholy out of a song,
as a weazel *sucks* eggs. *Shakspeare.*

To *SUCK*, *v. n.* To draw by removing the air.—Continual repairs, the least defects in *sucking* pumps are constantly requiring. *Mortimer.*—To draw the breast.—Such as are nourished with milk find the paps, and *suck* at them; whereas none of those that are not designed for that nourishment ever offer to *suck*. *Ray.*—To draw; imbibe.—The crown had *sucked* too hard, and now, being full, was like to draw less. *Bacon.*

SUCK, *s.* The act of sucking.—I hoped, from the descent of the quicksilver in the tube, upon the first *suck*, that I should be able to give a nearer guess at the proportion of force betwixt the pressure of the air and the gravity of quicksilver. *Boyle.*—Milk given by females.—They draw with their *suck* the disposition of nurses. *Spenser.*—[*Succus*, Lat.] Juice. *Not in use.*—Take the *sucke* or juice of a radish root, and anoint your hands with it. *Ward.*

SUCK, a river of Ireland, which runs into the Shannon; about 6 miles south-east from Balinasloe, separating the counties of Galway and Roscommon during a course of 30 miles.

SUCK CREEK, a river of the United States, in Tennessee, which runs into the Tennessee, at the Whirl.

SUCKASUNNY, a pleasant village of the United States, in Morris county, New Jersey, containing a Presbyterian meeting-house.

SUCKER, *s.* [*suceur*, French.] Any thing that draws.—The embolus of a pump.—Oil must be poured into the cylinder, that the *sucker* may slip up and down in it more smoothly. *Boyle.*—A round piece of leather, laid wet on a stone, and drawn up in the middle, there being no air within, is pressed by the circumambient atmosphere down to the stone.—One of the round leathers wherewith boys play, called *suckers*, not above an inch and half diameter, being well soaked in water, will stick and pluck a stone of twelve pounds up from the ground. *Grew.*—A pipe through which any thing is sucked.

Mariners aye ply the pump,
So they, but cheerful, unfatigu'd, still move
The draining *sucker*.

Philips.

A young twig shooting from the stock. This word was perhaps originally *surcle*. [*surculus*, Latin.] The cutting away of *suckers* at the root and body doth make trees grow high. *Bacon.*

SU'CKET, *s.* A sweetmeat, to be dissolved in the mouth.—Here are *suckets* and sweet dishes. *Beaumont and Fl.*

SU'CKINGBOTTLE, *s.* A bottle which to children supplies the want of a pap.—He that will say, children join these general abstract speculations with their *suckingbottles*, has more zeal for his opinion, but less sincerity. *Locke.*

To *SU'CKLE*, *v. a.* To nurse at the breast.

The breast of Hecuba,
When she did *suckle* Hector, look'd not lovelier.

Shakspeare.

She nurses me up and *suckles* me. *L'Estrange.*—Two thriving calves she *suckles* twice a-day. *Dryden.*—The Roman soldiers bare on their helmets the first history of Romulus, who was begot by the god of war, and *sucked* by a wolf. *Addison.*

SU'CKLE, *s.* A teat; a dug.—The body of this fish [the manatee or cowfish] is three yards long, and one broad, thick-skinn'd, without scales, narrow towards the tail which is nervous, slow in swimming, wanting fins; in place whereof, she is aided with two paps, which are not only *suckles*, but serve for stilts to creep ashore upon. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SUCKLEY, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 10 miles west-south-west of Worcester. Population 555.

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SU'CKLING, *s.* A young creature yet fed by the teat.

I provide a *suckling*,
That ne'er had nourishment but from the teat. *Dryden.*

Young animals participate of the nature of their tender aliment, as *sucklings* of milk. *Arbutnot.*

SUCKLING (Sir John), an English poet, was born at Witham, Essex, in 1613, and is said to have possessed such natural talents, that he spoke Latin at the age of five years, and wrote it at nine. He chiefly devoted himself to music and poetry. Having finished his studies at home, he travelled abroad for farther improvement, and made a campaign under Gustavus Adolphus, in which he is said to have been present at five sieges, three battles, and some skirmishes. Upon his return to England, he appeared the accomplished gentleman and courtier, and excited admiration by his sprightliness and gallantry. Associating with wits and poets, he composed some dramatic pieces for the amusement of the court: and such was his prodigality, that when he brought his tragedy of "Aglaura," on the stage, he expended four or five hundred pounds. Whilst he drew attention in the gay period of that reign by his poetical effusions and courtly manners, he affected to be indifferent to literary fame. When the troubles of this reign began, he evinced his loyalty by raising a troop of horse at the expense of 12,000*l.*, and placing himself at their head. On this occasion he incurred a disgrace which was trumpeted in ballads and squibs by his brother poets, and which is supposed to have hastened his death in 1641, when he had arrived only at the 28th year of his age. *Suckling* has no claim to distinction among the British poets; though, if he had bestowed greater care and correctness on some of his songs and ballads, they might have served as models of that class of compositions. His "Wedding Ballad" has always been popular; and the fancy and wit that sparkle in some of his amatory pieces attract notice. His plays, which are four in number, have long disappeared from the stage. His collected works, in prose and verse, have passed through several editions: the last appeared in 1774, 2 vols. 12mo. Life of *Suckling*, prefixed to his Works.

SUCKLING, CAPE, a cape on the west coast of North America. Lat. 60. N. long. 216. 19. E.

SUCTASGUR, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Allahabad. The fortifications were formerly of considerable extent, and defended the passes into the western hills. They were erected nearly 500 years ago; but are now quite neglected. This place is the capital of a small district of the same name, which is now included in the collectorship of Benares. It is situated 14 miles south of the fortress of Chunar.

SU'CTION, *s.* [*suction*, Fr.] The act of sucking.—Sounds exterior and interior may be made by *suction*, as by emission of the breath. *Bacon.*—Though the valve were not above an inch and a half in diameter, yet the weight kept up by *suction*, or supported by the air, and what was cast out of it weighed ten pounds. *Boyle.*—Cornelius regulated the *suction* of his child. *Arbutnot.*

SUCUBITI, a river of South America, in the province of Darien, which enters the Chucunaqui.

SUCURIU, a river of Brazil, in the province of Cuiaba, which enters the Pardo, a tributary of the Parana. There is another river of this name, mentioned by Mr. Mawe, which falls directly into the Parana, with a mouth fifty fathoms wide.

SUCURY, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Cuiaba, which falls into the Tiete, a tributary of the Parana.

SUCUT, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore, intersected by the Beyah river, belonging to the Seiks. Lat. 32. 41. N. long. 75. 45. E.

SUCZAVA, an ancient town of Austrian Galicia, in the Bukowine, at the confluence of the rivers Suczava and Sereth. It is situated beyond the southern boundary of Poland, is surrounded with a wall and ditch, and contains

about 4000 inhabitants, but is only a shadow of what it once was, having been the residence of the Princess of Moldavia, the ruins of whose palace, with those of seventeen large churches, bear testimony to its former population. The ravages of the Tartars and other invaders, the removal of the court, and the opening of new channels for trade, have reduced the town to a state of insignificance, from which the Austrian government has laboured in vain to raise it. At present it contains hardly any establishment worth notice, except a manufactory of Russian leather by some Armenian settlers, and a school for training teachers for the adjacent country; 70 miles west of Jassay, and 97 south-south-east of Lemberg.

SUD, RIVIERE DE, a beautifully winding stream of Lower Canada, which has its source in the high grounds about 20 miles to the southward of the St. Lawrence. Another principal branch descends from heights much farther, into the interior. It forms a large basin before it falls into the St. Lawrence. Its course being much impeded by shoals, it is not navigable except for canoes. The level of its bed is 20 feet above the St. Lawrence, which occasions a fall that produces a beautiful effect.

SUDA, a small town situated on a bay of the island of Candia, in the Levant. It has a good harbour, and is defended by a castle.

SUDAK, a small town in the south of European Russia, in the Crimea, situated on a hill, with a good but small harbour. The environs produce wine, nearly of the same colour and quality with that of Champagne. This town formerly belonged to Genoa, and in the flourishing days of that state was considerable, but is now dwindled into insignificance; 22 miles south-west of Theodosia.

SU'DARY, *s.* [*sudarium*, Lat.] A napkin or handkerchief. *Prompt. Parv.*—Lo, thi besaunt that I hadde put up in a *sudarye*. *Wicliffe*.

SUDASHYGUR, a fortress of Hindostan, on the western shore of the province of Canara. It is situated on a high point of land, and being remarkably white, is very conspicuous at sea. It commands the entrance of the Aliga river, and may be considered as the citadel of the town of Carwar.

SUDATION, *s.* [*sudo*, Latin.] Sweat.

SU'DATORY, *s.* [*sudo*, Lat.] Hot-house; sweating-bath—Shiraz is—defended by nature, enriched by trade, and by art made lovely; the vineyards, gardens, cypresses, *sudatories* and temples ravishing the eye and smell, so as in every part she appears delightful and beautiful. *Sir T. Herbert*.

SUDBOROUGH, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 3½ miles north-west-by-north of Threapston.

SUDBOURN, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 1½ mile north-by-east of Orford. Population 436.

SUDBROOK, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4½ miles north-east of Lincoln.

SUDBURY, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Suffolk, situated on the north eastern side of the river Stour, which is here navigable for barges, and over which there is a well-built wooden-bridge. It was originally termed Southburgh, to distinguish it from Norwich, then Northburgh, and was anciently a place of much greater importance than at present. It was one of the first places at which King Edward III. settled the Flemings, whom he invited to England to instruct his subjects in the woollen manufacture. This business accordingly flourished here for some centuries, and afforded employment to many of the inhabitants of the town, in the weaving of says, crape, and ships' flags; but the trade has long since declined here, and fixed its seat in other districts of the kingdom, though the town has still a manufacture of says, and also an extensive and increasing silk manufactory, established some years ago by the London merchants, on account of the dearth of labour in Spitalfields. Sudbury comprehends three parishes, and has the same number of churches, which are large and handsome structures, *viz.*, St. Gregory's, St. Peter's, and All Saints.

The houses in the town are tolerably good buildings, but the streets are dirty, especially in bad weather. Sudbury is an ancient corporation, and is governed by a mayor and seven aldermen. It has sent members to parliament ever since the reign of Edward IV. The right of election is in the whole body of freemen, the number of whom is about 725; the mayor of the town is the returning officer. In this town was born Simon de Sudbury, Archbishop of Canterbury, in 1375, who was beheaded by the populace in the rebellion of Wat Tyler. He erected a part of St. Gregory's church, where he is interred, and also founded and endowed a college on the site of his father's house, Lelaud observes, that this prelate, in conjunction with John de Chertsey, founded here a priory of the order of St. Augustine, part of which building, converted into a dwelling-house, is yet standing. Amica, Countess of Clare, in the reign of King John, also founded in this town an hospital, dedicated to Christ and the Virgin. Sudbury was the birth-place of Thomas Gainsborough, one of the most eminent English painters of the 18th century. Population in 1831, 3371. Houses 876. Market on Saturday, and two annual fairs; 14 miles south-south-east of St. Edmondsbury, and 56 north-east of London. Lat. 52. 3. N. long. 1. 14. E.

SUDBURY, a parish of England, in Derbyshire, on the river Dove; 14 miles west-by-south of Derby. Population 525.

SUDBURY, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Tiddensham, Gloucester.

SUDBURY, a post township of the United States, in Rutland county, Vermont. Population 754.

SUDBURY, a township of the United States, in Middlesex county, Massachusetts; 22 miles west of Boston. Population 1287.

SUDBURY, EAST, a post township of the United States, in Middlesex county, Massachusetts; 18 miles west of Boston. Population 824.

SU'DDEN, *adj.* [*soudain*, French; *roben*, Saxon.] Happening without previous notice; coming without the common preparatives; coming unexpectedly.

We have not yet set down this day of triumph;
To-morrow, in my judgment, is too *sudden*. *Shakspeare*.

Hasty; violent; rash; passionate; precipitate. *Not now in use*.

I grant him
Sudden, malicious, smacking of ev'ry sin. *Shakspeare*

SU'DDEN, *s.* Any unexpected occurrence; surprise. *Not in use*.—Parents should mark the witty excuses of their children at *suddains* and surprisals, rather than pamper them. *Wotton*.

On or of a SUDDEN, or upon a SUDDEN. Sooner than was expected; without the natural or commonly accustomed preparatives.

Following the flyers at the very heels,
With them he enters, who *upon the sudden*
Clapt to their gates. *Shakspeare*.

SU'DDENLY, *adv.* In an unexpected manner; without preparation; hastily.

You shall find three of your Argosies
Are richly come to harbour *suddenly*. *Shakspeare*.

Without premeditation.
If thou can'st accuse,
Do it without invention *suddenly*. *Shakspeare*.

SU'DDENNESS, *s.* State of being sudden; unexpected presence; manner of coming or happening unexpectedly.
All in the open hall amazed stood,
At *suddenness* of that unwary sight,
And wonder'd at his breathless hasty mood. *Spenser*.

SUDDY, a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, united to Kilmuir Wester.

SUDELY, a hamlet of England, in Gloucestershire; 1 mile south-south-east of Winchcombe.

SUDENBERG,

SUDENBURG, a small town of Prussian Saxony, on the south side of the city of Magdeburg, of which it is properly a suburb, though governed in all respects as a separate town. In the reign of Jerome Buonaparte, a great part of it was demolished, to facilitate the defence of Magdeburg; but since the cession of the latter to Prussia (in 1814) it has been rebuilt.

SUDERMANIA, or **SODERMANLAND**, a province of Middle Sweden, situated to the west of Stockholm. Its greatest length from east to west is about 100 miles; its breadth from north to south 55; its territorial extent is 3470 square miles; its population about 156,000. The face of the greatest part of the province is hilly, and finely variegated with lakes. The climate, though cold, is not intemperate; the air is pure and healthy. The inhabitants raise corn in sufficiency for their consumption, and a small quantity for export. The pasturage is good, the forests extensive. In the mountains, which are almost all of primitive formation, are found mines of lead, copper, iron; and from Tunaberg, a large quantity of cobalt ore is sent to England, for the use of the potteries. The Baltic and the Lake Malar, promote greatly the conveyance of commodities.

SUDEROE, one of the Faroe islands, belonging to Denmark. Its area is 42 square miles, and its population 700.

SUDERSHAUSEN, a neat village of Germany, in the south of Hanover, province of Gottingen.

SUDETES, a large mountain chain of Germany, which separates the states of Austria from those of Saxony and Prussia, and is distinguished by the names of the Erzgebirge and the Riesengebirge, viz., the Mining and the Giant's Mountains. Besides this great chain, it sends off on both sides a number of branches into Bohemia, Moravia, Lusatia, and Silesia. These are known by a variety of names, such as the mountains of Glatz, the forest of Bohemia, the Isargebirge, the Wohlische Kamme, the Eulengebirge, &c. The great mountains are primitive, and abound in metallic ores; those of the middle rank consist chiefly of clay, slate, limestone and trap, and in some places of pit coal. The side branches and lowest mountains contain floetz trap and freestone, wack and basalt. For a more particular description of different parts of the Sudetes, see **SAXONY**, **BOHEMIA**, **ERZGEBIRGE**, **RIESENGBIRGE**, and other names mentioned above.

SUDGROVE, a hamlet of England, within a mile of the city of Gloucester.

SUDIS, the *ESOX MURÆNA*; which see.

SUDISLAVI, a small town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Kostroma; 26 miles east-by-north of Kostroma.

SUDOGDA, a small town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Vladimir, on the Sudogd; 32 miles south-east of Vladimir.

SUDORIFIC, *adj.* [*sudorifique*, Fr., *sudor* and *facio*, Lat.] Provoking or causing sweat.—Exhaling the most liquid parts of the blood by *sudorific* or watery evaporations, brings it into a morbid state. *Arbuthnot*.

SUDORIFIC, *s.* A medicine promoting sweat.—As to *sudorifics*, consider that the liquid which goes off by sweat is often the most subtle part of the blood. *Arbuthnot*.

SUDOROUS, *adj.* [*sudor*, Lat.] Consisting of sweat. *Not used*.—Beside the strigments and *sudorous* adhesions from men's hands, nothing proceedeth from gold in the usual decoction thereof. *Brown*.

SUDS, *s.* [From *soeben*, to *seeth*; whence *soeben*, Saxon.]—A lixivium of soap and water.

To be in the SUDS. A familiar phrase for being in any difficulty.—Will ye forsake me now and leave me *i' the suds*? *Beaum. and Fl.*

SUDSHA, a town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Kursk, containing 5700 inhabitants. In the middle of the town is a marsh, which renders it unhealthy, and part of the streets almost impassable; an instance, among many others, of the miserable want of attention in this country to the comfort and even the safety of the people. The environs are, however, fertile, and contain a

number of orchards. The town has a salt manufacture, and a petty traffic with the adjacent country; 47 miles south-west of Kursk.

To SUE, v. a. [*suiver*, French.] To prosecute by law.—If any *sue* thee at the law, and take away thy coat, let him have thy cloak also.—To gain by legal procedure.

I am denied to *sue* my livery here,
And yet my letters patent give me leave. *Shakspeare*.

To follow; to ensue.—Léchery that *sueth* always glut-tony.—[In falconry.] To clean the beak, as a hawk.

To SUE, v. n. To beg; to entreat; to petition.

Full little knowest thou that hast not try'd,
What hell it is in *suing* long to bide. *Spenser*.

If me thou deign to serve and *sue*,
At thy command lo all these mountains be. *Spenser*.

To SUE, v. a. To obtain by intreaty; with *out*. The expression is borrowed from the *law*.—Nor was our blessed Saviour only our propitiation to die for us, but he is still our advocate, continually interceding with his Father in the behalf of all true penitents, and *suing* out a pardon for them in the court of heaven. *Calamy*.

SUE, a river of Africa, in Benguela, one of the branches of the larger river called Bembarogue.

SVEABORG, a sea-port and fortress situated on the gulf of Finland; 4½ miles south of Helsingfors. The harbour of this place is capable of containing 70 men of war, and easily defended by batteries which sweep the channel forming the only entrance for large ships. It is formed by several small islands, of which the principal, called Wargoe, contains the arsenal, docks, basins, and magazines for fitting out or repairing men of war. The inhabitants of the place do not exceed 3500, but the garrison is generally more numerous, and the fortifications are likely, when completed, to stand a comparison with Gibraltar. They were begun in 1788, and continued by the Swedish government, with more or less activity, from that date to 1808, when the place falling into the hands of the Russians, they have been farther continued on the plan of making this the principal naval station in Finland. The walls are chiefly of granite, covered with earth from 6 to 10 feet in thickness, and in some places 40 feet in height. In 1790, Gustavus III. of Sweden defeated the Russians in a naval engagement near this place.

SUECA, a town in the south-east of Spain, in the province of Valencia, not far from the mouth of the Xucar, which is joined here by a small stream flowing from the lake of Albufera. It stands on the great road along the coast, contains 4800 inhabitants, and belonged formerly to the grand master of the knights of Montesa; 21 miles south of Valencia. Lat. 39. 16. N. long. 1. 10. W.

SUEIRA DA CASTA, a small river of Western Africa, which falls into the Atlantic, in Lat. 5. 5. N.

SVELMOE, a small island of Denmark, near the south coast of the island of Funen. Lat. 55. 8. N. long. 10 20. E.

SUEMEZ, ISLAND OF, an island in the Pacific ocean, at the entrance of Puerto de Baylio Bucareli; about 25 miles in circumference. Lat. 55. 16. N. long. 236. 50. E.

SVENDBORG, a small town of Denmark, on the south-east coast of the island of Funen. It is fortified, and has a safe and spacious harbour. Population 2000; 25 miles east-south-east of Odensee.

SUEN-HOA, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Pe-che-lee, situated among mountains in the immediate vicinity of the great wall. It is considerably distinguished by the number of its inhabitants, the beauty of its streets, and its triumphal arches. The mountains afford fine crystal, marble, and porphyry. Its district includes a considerable number of forts, destined to defend the great northern barrier of the empire; 77 miles north-west of Peking.

SVENINGOROD, a small town in the interior of European Russia; 38 miles west of Moscow, situated on a hill near the river Moskva. Population 1000.

SVENIGORODKA, a small town in the south-west of European

European Russia, the chief place of a circle; 93 miles south of Kiev.

SVENZIANY, a small town of Russian Lithuania, the chief town of a circle; 33 miles north-north-east of Wilna.

SUESCA, formerly a large and rich city of New Granada, in the province of Ubates, but now reduced to a small village, containing about 100 inhabitants, and as many Indians: 29 miles north-north-east of Santa Fe.

SU'ET, *s.* [*suet*, an old French word according to Skinner.] A hard fat, particularly that about the kidneys.—The steatoma being *suet*, yields not to escaroticks. *Wiseman.*

SUETI, a river of New Granada, in the province of Choco, which runs west, and enters the mouth of the river Atrato.

SUETI, a river of South America, in the province of Darien, which enters the Chucmaqui.

SU'ETY, *adj.* Consisting of suet; resembling suet.—If the matter forming a wen resembles fat or a *suet* substance, it is called steatoma. *Sharp.*

SUEVRE, a town near the central part of France, in the department of the Loire and Cher, with 1300 inhabitants; 9 miles north-east of Blois.

SUETONIUS TRANQUILLUS (Caius), was the son of Suetonius Lenis, tribune of a legion in the time of Otho, and born about the beginning of the reign of Vespasian, and died after A. D. 117. He is designated by Pliny the younger, as one of the "Scholastici." He was probably a teacher of grammar and rhetoric, composed fictitious pleadings, and perhaps sometimes pleaded real causes. With Pliny he was intimate, and was indebted to him for several favours. By his interest he obtained the dignity of military tribune, and also the "jus trium liberorum," granted to him by the emperor Trajan, though he was childless. He was afterwards secretary to the emperor Adrian, though he lost this office by his indiscreet familiarity with the empress Sabina; an incident which occurred about the year 121, but how long, or in what condition he afterwards lived, no records inform us.

Suidas calls him a "grammarian," and ascribes to him several works: but all are lost, except his Lives of the Cæsars, his Lives of eminent grammarians, and a small part of those of eminent rhetoricians. His work of the Lives of the first twelve emperors, down to Domitian inclusively, is one of the most interesting remains of ancient history; for without being distinguished by style or sentiment, it abounds with anecdotes relating to the manners, characters, and incidents of those times, which no where else occur. Some of the facts which he relates have been doubted; but his general character and mode of writing narratives, acquit him of any intentional misrepresentation; though he indicates a propensity to pay undue attention to vulgar tales and surmises.

SUEUR (Eustachius Le), was born at Paris in 1617, the son of an obscure sculptor; who, upon discovering his son's inclination for painting, placed him as a pupil with Simon Vouet.

He appears to have drawn his taste from prints after the compositions of Raphael, as he never was out of his native country; and there were not many pictures of the Roman school at that time in France. It may be fairly said, that a portion of the spirit of Raphael had taken up its abode with him. The same kind of subjects interested him, and above all he was actuated by the same devotedness to the subject, of whatever nature it were. With him, as with Raphael, it led to the composition, and controlled his imagination in the execution of it: as is fully exemplified in his series of pictures on the life of St. Bruno.

The brilliancy of Le Sueur's talents soon caused their employment; and at the age of 23 (in 1640), he was clected a member of the Royal Academy at Paris, and painted upon his admission a picture of St. Paul casting out a Devil. In 1649, he was engaged upon the great work in which his fame principally reposes, viz., the Life of St. Bruno, which he painted in 22 pictures, for the convent of the Chartreux in Paris: they were afterwards purchased by the king of

France, and now form part of the gallery at the Luxembourg. This celebrated series of compositions has suffered exceedingly by the hand of time; and still more, have so severely endured the unhallowed touch of picture-cleaners and restorers, that we cannot now form a perfect judgment of their original beauty. The compositions remain, but most of the faces of the figures have been re-touched, so that expression is weakened or destroyed: the original colouring, which happily of necessity simple, has been disturbed; and it would be harsh to attach to Le Sueur the defects of their present condition in this respect. There is, however, sufficient evidence in them of this ingenious artist's superior feeling and acquirements. He was only three years employed upon them; and when his youth is considered, they must be regarded as emanating from a mind of no common mould. His largest work is the Condemnation of St. Gervaise and St. Protais, now in the gallery of the Louvre; it was painted soon after the series above-mentioned; but is an attempt to combine somewhat of the taste of his master with his own, as if he were controlled by his employers. It is more confused in forms, and stronger and more varied in colour, than his pictures usually are; and is not the better for it. His picture of the Burning of the Magic Books at Ephesus, has infinitely more character and pathos; but is eminently defective in colour: in which quality the pictures of the Muses, painted by him, and in the Gallery also, are by far his most perfect productions. He died at the early age of 38, in 1655.

SUEZ, a city of Egypt, on the borders of Arabia, and remarkable by its situation at the head of the Red Sea. Although there must always have been a place of trade in this vicinity, the actual city of Suez appears to have been of modern origin. According to D'Anville, it occupies the site of the ancient *Arsinoe*; but in the opinion of Volney, that place was situated farther north, towards the bottom of the gulf. The celebrated Arabian city called Kolzum, which among that people gave its name to the Red Sea, was also placed farther to the north. Its ruins may still be traced; but the sea has so far retired, that ships could no longer enter its harbour. This circumstance enforced the removal to Suez, which appears to have taken place about the beginning of the 16th century. It soon became a flourishing mart, being at once the emporium of the trade with India, and the rendezvous of the numberless pilgrims, who from every part of the Turkish empire, repaired to the holy shrine of Mecca. The assemblage of these, though the stationary population was never large, produced often an immense crowd. When Niebuhr was there, Suez appeared to him as populous as Cairo. Since that time it has greatly declined, in consequence of the diminution both of the general trade of the Red Sea, and of the concourse to Mecca. It sustained, also, irreparable injury from the wanton devastations committed by the French. Great part of the trade of Suez being carried on by the Bey, or Mameluke chiefs, each of whom had a factor stationed at that place, the French, in revenge for the spirited resistance made by that race, demolished a great part of Suez; and the disturbed state of the country ever since has afforded little opportunity for repairing these injuries.

Suez, though a maritime place, is so situated, that vessels cannot approach nearer than two miles and a half from the town. From this point the water is divided into three channels, which unite into one before reaching the town, and through which the Arab boats, called dows, and other small vessels, can pass. The surrounding country is a complete desert, composed of a mere bed of rock, slightly covered with sand. Trees, gardens, and meadows, are entirely unknown, and scarcely a plant is to be seen. All provisions and necessaries of life must be brought from Cairo. There is also an entire deficiency of water, unless of the most offensive and noxious description. It is clear indeed to the eye, but most disgusting to the smell and taste; so that in strangers it even occasions vomiting. By long keeping it loses some of its bad qualities; but it is then sold at a very high price. This bad water also is brought from the distance of about two leagues, at the opposite side of an arm of the gulf. The town

town contains about 500 stone houses, of which more than half were destroyed by the French, and still continue in ruins. The numerous pilgrims reside entirely in tents, confusedly scattered about the town. Suez has no walls; but the houses are built so close together, that it can be entered from the land side only at one point. This is defended by three cannon; and eight are placed on the side towards sea; but these defences are of no use, unless against the wandering Arabs, and could not withstand the attack of 50 regular troops for half an hour. Upon the whole, Mr. Turner conceives Suez to be indisputably the most miserable place in the Levant, and that only the settled passion for money which characterises the Levantines, could induce any man to make it his residence. Its trade lies under many disadvantages, particularly from the difficult navigation of this upper part of the Red Sea, where vessels can only pass through a narrow channel, amid rocks often sunk beneath the surface. Danger also arises from the north winds, which blow with great violence for nine months in the year. Cosseir, which is less liable to these disadvantages, is now, notwithstanding the inconvenience of a longer and more difficult land journey often preferred for the trade to Egypt. Suez, however, still carries on much of the communication of Arabia and India with Cairo, and almost the whole of that with Syria and Palestine. Frequent caravans come from Gaza, Jaffa, and Jerusalem, bringing soap, oil, tobacco, and other goods. The staple import consists of coffee, an article of universal consumption throughout the east. Vessels bring also tea, pickled ginger, and a great quantity of tamarinds. There are eight considerable mercantile houses in Suez, of which six are Greek, and two are French. The charges of conveyance by the caravan are moderate. The pacha is said to pay very little attention to the accommodation of pilgrims, and involves them in long delays, which, causing the exhaustion of their funds, reduces many to perish with hunger. Lat. 30. 1. N. long. 32. 28. E.

SUFANGI UL BAHRI, a narrow island in the Red Sea, near the coast of Egypt: about 7 miles long. Lat. 27. N. long. 33. 56. E.

SUFFELNHEIM, a large village of France, in Alsace, containing 1600 inhabitants.

To SUFFER, *v. a.* [*suffer*, old French; to which Lacombe assigns the date of the eleventh century; *souffrir*, modern; *suffero*, Latin.]—To bear; to undergo; to feel with sense of pain.—A woman *suffered* many things of physicians, and spent all she had. *St. Mark.*

Obedience impos'd,

On penalty of death, and *suffering* death. *Milton.*

To endure; to support; not to sink under.

Our spirit and strength entire

Strongly to *suffer* and support our pains. *Milton.*

To allow; to permit; not to hinder.

He wonder'd that your lordship

Would *suffer* him to spend his youth at home. *Shakspeare.*

To pass through; to be affected by; to be acted upon.—The air now must *suffer* change. *Milton.*

To SUFFER, *v. n.* To undergo pain or inconvenience.—My breast I arm, to overcome by *suffering*. *Milton.*—Prudence and good-breeding are in all stations necessary; and most young men *suffer* in the want of them. *Locke.*—To undergo punishment.—The father was first condemned to *suffer* upon a day appointed, and the son afterwards the day following. *Clarendon.*

He thus

Was forc'd to *suffer* for himself and us!
Heir to his father's sorrows and his crown. *Dryden.*

To be injured.—Public business *suffers* by private infirmities, and kingdoms fall into weaknesses by the diseases or decays of those that manage them. *Temple.*

SUFFERABLE, *adj.* [*suffrable*, old Fr.] Tolerable; such as may be endured.

Thy rages be

Now no more *sufferable*. *Chapman.*

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SUFFERABLENESS, *s.* Tolerableness. *Scott.*

SUFFERABLY, *adv.* Tolerably; so as to be endured.

An infant Titan held she in her arms;

Yet *sufferably* bright, the eye might bear

The ungrown glories of his beamy hair. *Addison.*

SUFFERANCE, *s.* [*souffrance*, French.] Pain; inconvenience; misery.

He must not only die,

But thy unkindness shall the death draw out

To ling'ring *sufferance*. *Shakspeare.*

Patience; moderation.

He thought t' have slain her in his fierce despight;

But, hasty heat tempering with *sufferance* wise,

He had his hand. *Spenser.*

Some villains of my court

Are in consent and *sufferance* in this. *Shakspeare.*

Both gloried to have 'scap'd the Stygian flood,

As gods, and by their own recover'd strength;

Not by the *suff'rance* of supernal power. *Milton.*

SUFFERER, *s.* One who endures or undergoes pain or inconvenience.

This evil on the Philistines is fall'n,

The *sufferers* then will scarce molest us here,

From other hands we need not much to fear. *Milton.*

One who allows; one who permits.

SUFFERING, *s.* Pain suffered.—Rejoice in my *sufferings* for you.

SUFFERINGLY, *adv.* With pain.

To SUFFICE, *v. n.* [*suffire*, French; *sufficio*, Latin.]

To be enough; to be sufficient; to be equal to the end or purpose.

To recount almighty works

What words or tongue of seraph can *suffice*,

Or heart of man *suffice* to comprehend? *Milton.*

To SUFFICE *v. a.* To afford; to supply.

The pow'r appeas'd, with winds *suffic'd* the sail;

The bellying canvas strutted with the gale. *Dryden.*

To satisfy; to be equal to want or demand.—Parched corn she did eat, and was *sufficed*, and left. *Ruth.*—Let it *suffice* thee that thou know'st us happy. *Milton.*

SUFFICIENCY, *s.* [*suffisance*, Fr.] State of being adequate to the end proposed.—His *sufficiency* is such, that he bestows and possesses, his plenty being unexhausted. *Boyle.*—Qualification for any purpose.—I am not so confident of my own *sufficiency*, as not willingly to admit the counsel of others.—Competence; enough.—An elegant *sufficiency*, content. *Thomson.*—Supply equal to want.—It is used by Temple for that conceit which makes a man think himself equal to things above him; and is commonly compounded with *self*.—*Sufficiency* is a compound of vanity and ignorance. *Temple.*

SUFFICIENT, *adj.* [*suffisant*, Fr., *sufficiens*, Latin.] Equal to any end or purpose; enough; competent; not deficient.—*Sufficient* unto the day is the evil thereof. *St. Matt.*

Heaven yet retains

Number *sufficient* to possess her realms. *Milton.*

Qualified for any thing by fortune or otherwise.—In saying he is a good man, understand me, that he is *sufficient*. *Shakspeare.*

SUFFICIENTLY, *adv.* To a sufficient degree; enough.—If religion did possess sincerely and *sufficiently* the hearts of all men, there would need be no other restraint from evil. *Hooker.*

Seem I to thee *sufficiently* possess'd
Of happiness?

Milton.

All to whom they are proposed, are by his grace *sufficiently* moved to attend and assent to them; *sufficiently*, but not irresistibly; for if all were irresistibly moved, all would embrace them; and if none were *sufficiently* moved, none would

would embrace them. *Rogers*.—In a few days, or hours, if I am to leave this carcase to be buried in the earth, and to find myself either for ever happy in the favour of God, or eternally separated from all light and peace; can any words sufficiently express the littleness of every thing else? *Law*.

SUFFIELD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3½ miles west-by-north of north Walsham.

SUFFIELD, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles west-north-west of Scarborough.

SUFFIELD, a post township of the United States, in Hartford county, Connecticut. It is a pleasant and considerable town, and contains four houses of public worship, two for Congregationalists, and two for Baptists. Here is a mineral spring considerably resorted to. Population 2680; 11 miles south of Springfield. Lat. 41. 59. N. long. 72. 40. W.

SUFFISANCE, *s.* [Fr.] Excess; plenty. *Obsolete*.

There him rests in riotous *suffisance*

Of all gladfulness and kingly joyance.

Spenser.

To SUFFLA'MINATE, *v. a.* [*sufflamino*, Lat.] To stop; to stay; to impede.—God could any where *sufflaminate* and subvert the beginnings of wicked designs. *Barrow*.

To SUFFLA'TE, *v. a.* [*sufflo*, Lat.] To blow up. *Not used*.

SUFFLATION, *s.* [*sufflatio*, Lat.] The act of blowing up. *Unused*.

To SUFFOCATE, *v. a.* [*suffoquer*, Fr., *suffoco*, Lat.] To choke by exclusion or interception of air.

Let galls gape for dog, let man go free,

And let not hemp his windpipe *suffocate*.

Shakespeare.

A swelling discontent is apt to *suffocate* and strangle without passage. *Collier*.

SUFFOCATE, *part. adj.* Choaked.

This chaos, when degree is *suffocate*,

Follows the choking;

Shakespeare,

SUFFOCATION, *s.* [*suffocation*, Fr.] The act of choking; the state of being choaked.—Diseases of stoppings and *suffocations* are dangerous. *Bacon*.

SUFFOCATIVE, *adj.* Having the power to choak.—From rain, after great frosts in the winter, glandulous tumours and *suffocative* catarrhs proceed. *Arbutnot*.

SUFFOLK, a maritime county of England, bounded on the north by the county of Norfolk, on the west by Cambridge, on the south by Essex, and on the east by the German ocean. The river Stour divides it from Essex, the Little Ouse and Waveney from Norfolk, and the Great Ouse and one of its branches from Cambridge. It lies within 0. 19. and 1. 45. east long., and 51. 56. and 52. 36. north lat. Its figure somewhat resembles a crescent, with the concavity towards the north, and the two horns projecting, the one along the coast towards Yarmouth, and the other along the Ouse on the west; but an oblong of almost unindented form may be measured on its surface from east to west, 47 miles long, and 30 broad. Its area has been variously stated. Mr. Young, in his agricultural survey, estimates it at 1269 square miles, or upwards of 800,000 acres. According to Arrowsmith's map, it contains about 1450 square miles; and some measurements make it as high as 1520 or 1560. It contains from 150 to 160 inhabitants to each mile. It has two grand divisions, viz., the liberty of Bury St. Edmund's, and what is termed the body of the county, for each of which there is a separate grand jury. It is subdivided into 21 hundreds and 75 parishes, which contain 7 boroughs, viz., Aldborough, Dunwich, Eye, Ipswich, Orford, Sudbury, and Bury St. Bury's, and 21 other market towns, viz., Beccles, Bildeston, Brandon, Botesdale, Bungay, Clare, Debenham, Framlingham, Hadleigh, Haverhill, Ixworth, Lavenham, Lowestoff, Mendlesham, Mildenhall, Needham, Neyland, Saxmundham, Southwold, Stow Market, and Woodbridge. It sends 16 members to parliament, two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs.

Suffolk is, in general, a level county, without any considerable eminences. The highest land in the county is in

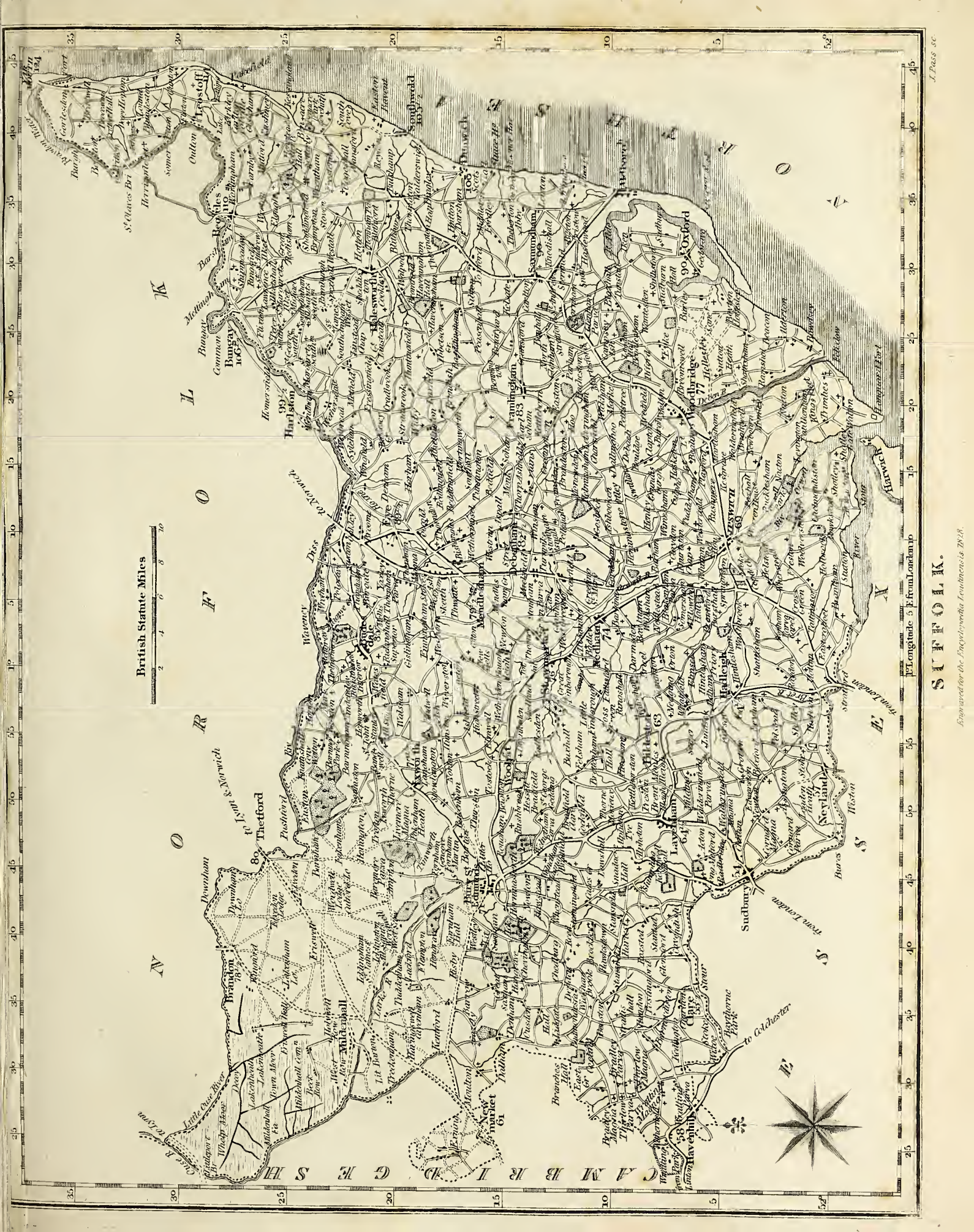
the west, where the great chalk ridge of this part of England extends from Haverhill, by Bury, to Thetford, in Norfolk. The rivers of the county, besides the Stour, the Waveney, and the Ouse, on the borders, are none of them of any great magnitude, except the Orwell, which rises above Stow Market, and, under the name of Gipping, descends by Needham to Ipswich, where it becomes navigable, widens into a kind of estuary, and then joins the Stour at Harwich. The other rivers are the Deben, the Ald, and the Blyth, along the coast, and the Lark on the west. The climate of Suffolk is reckoned the driest in the kingdom. In winter the frosts are severe, and the north-east winds in the spring sharp and prevalent.

The soil of this county is various, but very distinctly marked. 1st. A strong loam or a clay marl bottom predominates through the centre and greatest part of the county, extending from Haverhill to Beccles on the one hand, and from near Ipswich to beyond Ixworth on the other. 2d. On the east of this, and between it and the coast, extends northwards of the river Orwell, a district of sandy soil, and southwards a much smaller one of rich loam. 3d. To the west again occurs another considerable district of sand, which extends to the north-west corner of the county, where a fourth track of fen land is included between the Great and Little Ouse. The strong loam in the middle of the county is of a clayey nature, and highly productive in all the objects of husbandry, but varies in different places, more particularly along the banks of the rivers and streams, where it becomes a rich friable loam of superior quality. The sandy district along the coast varies from pure sand to loamy sand and sandy loam. It rests on a substratum of sand chalk or a shell marl, termed here *crag*, which is found in great masses in various parts of the county, particularly near Woodbridge, and is much used as a manure. This is one of the best cultivated districts in England, and abounds with wealthy farmers. Besides its arable land, it contains heaths, which afford extensive sheep walks, and marshes which feed numbers of cattle. The sea shore is composed of long cliffs, which are continually falling down by the action of the waves, which have almost washed away several towns, once considerable. The rich loam district extends with a small breadth across the Orwell, along the coast to the Deben; and here is a friable putrid vegetable mould, inclining to clay, and of extraordinary fertility. The rest of the district is more sandy. The sandy district on the west is of a much poorer quality than along the coast. The country is less cultivated, and abounds largely in warrens and sheep-walks. The soil of the fens is composed, from one to six feet under the surface, of common peat bog. Part of the land is under water, but a good deal has been drained. Suffolk is almost solely a farming county; and agriculture is practised to a great extent, with great skill, and after the most approved systems. The largest estate in the county is supposed not to exceed 9000*l.* a-year; and of the smaller estates, which are very numerous, many are occupied by the proprietors themselves, by whom they are farmed to great advantage. The size of farms is in general large. The farm houses, though much improved of late years, are still too often built of lath and plaster. Many of the cottages have undergone improvement. Mr. Young has made the following estimate of the extent of the different kinds of land, and of the rental of the county:—

Acres.	£.
30,000 fens, at 4 <i>s.</i>	6,000
46,667 rich loam, at 18 <i>s.</i>	42,000
156,667 sand, at 12 <i>s.</i>	93,999
113,333 sand, at 6 <i>s.</i>	33,999
453,333 strong loam, at 16 <i>s.</i>	362,666
800,000	£538,664

This estimate was made in 1796, since which period the value of the several kinds of land has improved, at an average, from 20 to 30 per cent.

The raising of crops is the principal object of the Suffolk husbandry, although the management of the dairy is also much attended to, as well as the rearing of sheep. The crops



British Statute Miles



Longitude 5 E from London

SUFFOLK.

Prepared for the Encyclopaedia Britannica in 1888.

A. Pass sc

crops commonly cultivated are wheat, barley, oats, rye, beans, pease, buck-wheat, cole-seed, turnips, clover, trefoil, white clover, and sainfoin. Buck-wheat forms a very valuable crop on sandy soils, and is more common on these, even on the poorest, than in many other parts of England. Cole-seed is one of the principal productions of the fen district, and, as food for sheep, is said to exceed turnips, both as to fattening and milk. The culture of turnips prevails in this county, almost as much as in Norfolk. Various other crops are raised in particular spots. A district called the Sandlands, lying between Woodbridge, Saxmundham, and Orford, is famous for its carrots, which have been raised here in great quantities for upwards of two centuries. Formerly they used to supply the London market, but they are now principally used as food for draught horses, for which purpose they are peculiarly adapted. Hops are raised in small quantity at Stow Market and neighbourhood, and cabbages for cows generally in the heavier land. Hemp is raised in a district about 10 miles in breadth, extending from Eye to Beccles, and is superior to that of Prussia. It is woven on the spot, into cloth of various degrees of fineness. Lucerne and chicory are also raised in the county. The cultivation of potatoes is little attended to. The management of the arable land, and the courses of crops, vary considerably in different districts. In strong soils, where manure is plenty, the best rotation is, first fallow, second wheat, third beans, fourth barley, fifth clover, and sixth wheat. On the rich loam and sand, the most usual course is, first turnip, second barley, third clover, and fourth wheat. On the said districts, turnips are every where the preparative, both for corn and grass. In the fenny district, cole-seed is usually sown after paring and burning; and after two successive oat crops, the land is laid down in grass for six years. Several new agricultural implements have been introduced into this county, and the use of threshing machines is extending. Suffolk is by no means remarkable for its grass lands, either in point of fertility or management; and this branch of husbandry is, on the whole, rather neglected here. Irrigation is very little practised. The district which was more peculiarly the seat of the dairies, lies near Framlingham, and extends about 20 miles by 12; but the late high price of corn induced the ploughing up of a great quantity of pasture. The butter made here is chiefly used in this and the adjoining county of Essex, and is annually about 10,000 firkins. Much cheese is also made; but being only supplementary to the butter, it is of an inferior quality. The Suffolk cows have long been celebrated for their abundance of milk, which, in proportion to the quantity of food, and size of the animal, exceeds that of any other kind in the kingdom. They are all of the hornless or polled breed, are of a small size, few rising, when fatted, to 50 stone, at 14 pounds each. The best milkers are in general red brindled, or of a yellowish cream colour. They yield of milk from four to six gallons a-day. The practice of feeding them on cabbages, formerly universal, is now on the decline. In some parts of the county black cattle are bought from north country drovers, to eat up the turnips. Some of these are Irish, others Welch, but most of them Scotch, of different breeds. After being fattened, they are sent to the metropolis. The sheep, of which large flocks are kept in the county, were, till of late years, almost entirely of the Norfolk breed. The South Down, however, which were introduced by Mr. Young, are now very prevalent, and, from their superior qualities, have superseded the former. Mr. Young calculates the number of sheep kept in the whole county at 240,000. Suffolk is no less noted for its breed of horses, than for its cows. These are found in the highest perfection in the maritime districts, extending to Woodbridge, Debenham, Eye, and Lowestoff. Of hogs, the short white breed in the cow district has great merit. Poultry is kept here in abundance, especially turkeys, for which the county is nearly as much celebrated as Norfolk. Great quantities of pigeons are reared in the open fields, in that part of the county bordering on Cambridgeshire. Suffolk contains many rabbit warrens, especially in the western sand district. One near

Brandon is reckoned to return above 40,000 rabbits in a year. Of late years, however, considerable tracts occupied by them, have been converted into arable and pasture land. The waste lands in this county Mr. Young estimates at 100,000 acres, comprehending sheep-walk, commons, warrens, &c.; most of which are capable of improvement. Though this is one of the earliest inclosed counties, it still contains very large tracts of open field land. It contains few woods or plantations of consequence. The commerce and manufactures of Suffolk have been long on the decline, and are now inconsiderable. Corn and malt are the principal exports, and the imports are chiefly for the supply of the county with the articles of ordinary consumption. Lowestoff is noted for its herring fishery. The spinning and carding of wool was formerly carried on to a great extent all over this county; but this has been in a great measure transferred to Yorkshire. At Sudbury there is a manufactory of serges, and also a small silk manufactory. This town was one of the first seats of the Flemings. Some calimancoes are still made at Lavenham. At the time of the Roman invasion, Suffolk belonged to the Tiene, and afterwards formed part of the province of Flavia Cæsariensis. At the conquest it was divided by the conqueror among his principal officers.

Population returns :—

Houses	37,851
Inhabitants	234,211
Families employed in agriculture	26,406
in trade and manufactures .	15,180
Other families	6,048

SUFFOLK, a county of the United States, in Massachusetts, comprising only two towns, Boston and Chelsea. Population 34,381.

SUFFOLK, a county of the United States, in New York, on the east part of Long Island, bounded north by Long Island sound, east and south by the Atlantic, and west by King's county. It comprises about two-thirds of the island. This county is much indented by its numerous creeks and bays, from many of which other small ones extend in arms, which have local names, and these form coves, points, heads, and necks, which are almost innumerable. The land on the north side, or next the sound, is considerably broken and hilly, though the soil is better than in the interior, where there is more woody plains; on the south side more loamy and level. Deer still abound in the extensive forests of pine in the interior; and Long Island is justly celebrated for the great variety of its wild fowl and game for sportsmen. Population 21,113. The chief towns are River-head, Sag-harbour, Satauket, and Huntington.

SUFFOLK, a post township of the United States, and capital of Nansemond county, Virginia, on the river Nansemond. It contains a court-house and a jail. The river is navigable to this place for vessels of 250 tons; 85 miles south-east of Richmond. Population 350.

SUFFOSSION, *s.* [*suffossio*, Lat.] The act of digging under.—Those conspiracies against maligned sovereignty, those *suffossions* of walls, those powder-trains. *Bp. Hall.*

SUFFRAGAN, *s.* [*suffragant*, Fr., *suffraganeus*, Lat.] A bishop considered as subject to his metropolitan.—The four archbishops of Mexico, Lima, S. Foy, and Dominico, have under them twenty-five *suffragan*-bishops, all liberally endowed and provided for. *Heylin.*—*Suffragan*-bishops shall have more than one riding apparitor. *Ayliffe.*—An assistant bishop: this is the more proper sense of the word. By an act, 26 Hen. VIII. *suffragans* were to be denominated from some principal place in the diocese of the prelate, whom they were to assist.—For a bishop to have a coadjutor, or, as the statute calls him, a *suffragan* to assist him, was no new thing, but of ancient use in England before Henry the Eighth.—Such *suffragan*, or coadjutor, was to have no revenue or jurisdiction in his diocese, whose *suffragan* he was; save what the bishop should by commission under his seal allow him. *Bp. Barlow.*

SUFFRAGANT, *adj.* [*suffragans*, Lat.] Assisting; concurring

concurring with.—Heavenly doctrine ought to be chief ruler and principal head every where, and not *suffragant* and subsidiary. *Florio*.

SUFFRAGANT, *s.* An assistant; a favourer; one who concurs with.—Hoping to find them more friends and *suffragants* to the virtues and modesty of sober women, than enemies to their beauty. *Bp. Taylor*.

To SUFFRAGATE, *v. n.* [*suffragor*, Lat.] To vote with; to agree in voice with.—No tradition could universally prevail, unless there were some common congruity of somewhat inherent in nature, which suits and *suffragates* with it, and closeth with it. *Hale*.

SUFFRAGATOR, *s.* [*suffragator*, Lat.] A favourer; one that helps with his vote.—The Synod in the Low Countries is held at Dort; the most of their *suffragators* are already assembled. *Bp. of Chester to Abp. Usher*.

SUFFRAGE, *s.* [*suffrage*, Fr., *suffragium*, Lat.] Vote; voice given in a controverted point.—The fairest of our island dare not commit their cause to the *suffrage* of those who most partially adore them. *Addison*.—United voice of persons in public prayer.—The *suffrages* next after the Creed shall stand thus. *Comm. Pr.*—Aid; assistance: a Latinism.—They make little account of indulgences, especially of those which are to be applied to the souls in purgatory by way of *suffrage*. *Dorrington*.

SUFFRAGINOUS, *adj.* [*suffrago*, Lat.] Belonging to the knee-joint of beasts.—In elephants, the bought of the forelegs is not directly backward, but laterally, and somewhat inward; but the hough or *suffraginous* flexure behind, rather outward. *Brown*.

SUFFRUTICOUS, *adj.* Being of a structure partly woody and partly herbaceous: as thyme.

SUFFUMIGATION, *s.* [*suffumigation*, Fr., *suffumigo*, Lat.] Operation of fumes raised by fire.—If the matter be so gross as it yields not to remedies, it may be attempted by *suffumigation*. *Wiseman*.

SUFFUMIGE, *s.* [*suffumigo*, Lat.] A medical fume. *Not used*.—For external means, drying *suffumiges* or smokes are prescribed with good success; they are usually composed out of frankincense, myrrh, and pitch. *Harvey*.

To SUFFUSE, *v. a.* [*suffusus*, Lat.] To spread over with something expansible, as with a vapour or a tincture.

Suspicious, and fantastical surmise,
And jealousy *suffus'd* with jaundice in her eyes. *Dryden*.

SUFFUSION, *s.* [*suffusion*, Fr.] The act of over-spreading with any thing. That which is suffused or spread. A drop serene hath quench'd their orbs,
Or dim *suffusion* veil'd. *Milton*.

The disk of Phœbus, when he climbs on high,
Appears at first but as a bloodshot eye;
And when his chariot downward draws to bed,
His ball is with the same *suffusion* red. *Dryden*.

SUG, *s.* [from *sugo*, Lat. to suck.] A small kind of worm.—Many have sticking on them *sugs*, or trout-lice, which is a kind of worm like a clove or pin, with a big head, and sticks close to him, and sucks his moisture. *Walton*.

SUGACHI, a river of Quito, in the province of Mainas, which runs south-south-east, and enters the Pastaza.

SUGAR, *s.* [*succe*, Fr. It has been traced to the Arabic *succar*, which is formed from the Pers. *schachar*.] The native salt of the *sugar*-cane, obtained by the expression and evaporation of its juice. *Quincy*.—All the blood of Zelman's body stirred in her, as wine will do when *sugar* is hastily put into it. *Sidney*.—Any thing proverbially sweet.

Your fair discourse has been as *sugar*,
Making the hard way sweet and delectable. *Shakspeare*.

A chymical dry crystallization.—*Sugar* of lead, though made of that insipid metal, and sour salt of vinegar, has in it a sweetness surpassing that of common *sugar*. *Boyle*.

To SUGAR, *v. a.* To impregnate or season with *sugar*.

Short thick sobs
In panting murmurs, still'd out of her breast,
That ever-bubbling spring, the *sugar'd* nest
Of her delicious soul, that there does lie,
Bathing in streams of liquid melody. *Crashaw*.

To sweeten.

His glosing sire his errand gaily said,
And *sugar'd* speeches whisper'd in mine ear. *Fairfax*.

SUGAR CREEK, a river of the United States, in Pennsylvania, which runs east into the east branch of the Susquehanna, about 6 miles above Tawandee Creek.

SUGAR CREEK, a township of the United States, in Armstrong county, Pennsylvania. Population 1113.

SUGAR CREEK, a township of the United States, in Venango county, Pennsylvania. Population 461.

SUGAR CREEK, a township of the United States, in Greene county, Ohio. Population 1826.

SUGAR CREEK, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which joins the Little Miami above Waynesville.

SUGAR HILL, a ragged eminence which overlooks and commands the old fortifications of Ticonderoga, in the United States, where the waters of Lake George flow into Lake Champlain, opposite Mount Independence.

SUGAR ISLAND, an island in the strait of St. Mary, which connects lakes Superior and Huron. It is long and narrow, bending towards the north in the form of a crescent, and causing an enlargement of waters between it and the continental coast.

SUGAR LOAF, a cape of Benguela, on the western coast of Africa. Lat 12. 5. S.

SUGAR LOAF, a township of the United States, in Luzerne county, Pennsylvania. Population 282.

SUGAR LOAF, a mountain of the island of Cuba; 55 miles north-east of St. Jago.

SUGAR LOAF BAY, a bay on the north-east coast of the island of Juan Fernandez.

SUGAR LOAF HILL, an eminence which serves as a landmark, on the north coast of Lake Erie.

SUGAR LOAF POINT, a projection on the east coast of New Holland, in Lat. 32. 29. S.

SUGAR RIVER, a river of the United States, in the territory of Michigan, which runs into Saganaum bay.

SUGAR RIVER, a river of the United States, in New Hampshire, which runs from the Sunapee lake into the Connecticut, in Clermont.

SUGAR RIVER, a river of Veragua, which runs into the Bay of Honduras.

SUGARCA'NDY, *s.* Sugar candied, or crystallized.—One poor pennyworth of *sugar-candy*. *Shakspeare*.

SU'GARY, *adj.* Sweet; tasting of sugar.

With the *sugary* sweet thereof allure
Chaste ladies' ears to phantasies impure. *Spenser*.

Fond of sugar or sweet things.—*Sugary* palates. *Hist. R. S.*

SUGAT, a town of Asia Minor, in the pachalic of Bursa, supposed to occupy the position of the ancient Tottarium. The houses, like most of those in the Turkish towns, are built of wood and mud, in general two stories high, with projecting verandahs, and roofed with a common red tile, which almost always admits the rain. It is remarkable for the tomb of Ali Osman, held in high respect by the natives.

SUGER, Abbot of St. Denis, and prime minister of France under Louis the Young, was born in the year 1082. He was employed by Louis le Gros, who conferred on him the abbey of St. Denis, and employed him in a variety of concerns. When Louis the Young, successor to Louis le Gros, set out on a crusade to the Holy Land in 1147, he nominated Suger regent of the kingdom. In this high station he acted with wisdom and integrity, and adopted measures for supplying the king with money, without burdening his subjects. His works were a "Life of Louis le Gros," "Memoirs of his Administration at the Abbey of St. Denis," &c. "Epistles,"

"Epistles," &c., which Du Chesne has published in the collection of French historians. *Moreri*.

SUGE/SCENT, *adj.* [from *sugeo*, Lat.] Relating to sucking.—The *sugescent* parts of animals are fitted for their use, and the knowledge of that use put into them. *Paley*.

To SUGGEST, *v. a.* [*suggero*, *suggestum*, Latin; *suggerer*, Fr.] To hint; to intimate; to insinuate good or ill; to tell privately.

Are you not ashamed?

What spirit *suggests* this imagination? *Shakspeare*.

Some ideas make themselves way, and are *suggested* to the mind by all the ways of sensation and reflexion. *Locke*.—To seduce; to draw to ill by insinuation. *Out of use*.

When devils will their blackest sins put on, They do *suggest* at first with heavenly shows. *Shakspeare*.

To inform secretly. *Out of use*.—We must *suggest* the people. *Shakspeare*.

SUGGESTER, *s.* One that remindeth another.

Some suborn'd *suggester* of these treasons. Believ'd in him by you. *Beaum.*

SUGGESTION, *s.* Private hint; intimation; insinuation; secret notification.

He was a man

Of an unbounded stomach, ever ranking Himself with princes: one that by *suggestion* Tied all the kingdom. *Shakspeare*.

Native and untaught *suggestions* of inquisitive children. *Locke*.—Secret incitement.

Arthur, they say, is kill'd to-night On your *suggestion*. *Shakspeare*.

SUGGESTUS, among the Romans, a place in the Campus Martius raised higher than the rest, where every magistrate, according to his rank, was allowed to harangue the people; but private persons could not, unless they first obtained leave from some magistrate to do it.

To SUGGIL, *v. a.* [*suggillo*, Lat.] To defame: the Latin word has the same figurative meaning.—They will not shrink to offer their blood for the defence of Christ's verity if it be openly impugned, or secretly *suggilled*. *Abp. Parke*.

To SUGGILATE, *v. a.* [*suggillo*, Lat.] To beat black and blue; to make livid by a bruise.—The head of the os humeri was bruised, and remained *suggilated* long after. *Wiseman*.

SUGGILLATION, *s.* [*suggilation*, Fr. Cotgrave.] A black and blue mark; a blow; a bruise.

SUGGOWLY, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, district of Bettiah. It is situated on the south side of the Boora Gunduck river, and carries on a considerable trade in timber, floated down from the northern hills. Lat. 26. 43. N. long 85. 5. E.

SUGGRUNDARIUM, among the Romans, a place where infants, not exceeding forty days old, were buried; it being unlawful to burn them.

SUGGSVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Clark county, Alabama; 12 miles from Clairborne.

SUGILLATIO, in Surgery, an ECCHYMOISIS; which see.

SUGTIVA, a term used by some authors to express medicines which suck up and absorb the serosities in dropsical persons.

SUGLEY, a township of England, in the parish of Newburn, Northumberland.

SUGUACHI, a large and abundant river of South America, which runs through unknown territories to the south-east, and enters the Pastaza, in Lat. 3. 35. S.

SUGULMESSA, or SIGILMESSA, which, according to Mr. Jackson, ought more properly to be called Segin Messa, a district of Africa, to the south-west of Morocco, situated beyond the Atlas. It forms part of that immense plain which, through the greater part of the breadth of Africa, intervenes between Barbary and the desert of the

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Sahara. Aridity is the prevailing character of the soil, though it still retains moisture sufficient for the production of dates. At an early period Sugulmessa was a city of great importance, being the rendezvous of the caravans from Morocco to Soudan; but since these have been in the habit of passing by Akka and Jaffa, Sugulmessa has lost its former importance, and the district is now included in the kingdom of Tafilet.

SUHLA, a town of Prussian Saxony, and the chief place of the circle of the Henneberg, is situated in the hilly track called the Forest of Thuringia. It contains 4 churches, 4 hospitals, and 6000 inhabitants, who are employed in two manufactures of a very different description, viz., fire-arms and cotton goods, particularly dimity. From the 15th to the 17th century, this was the principal place in Germany for making fire-arms. At present this manufacture, though shared with a number of other towns, is still sufficient to consume the metals prepared at six forges in the neighbourhood. The cotton manufactures were introduced in the latter part of the 18th century, and occupy between 500 and 600 looms; 8 miles north-by-west of Schleussingen, and 28 south-south-west of Erfurt.

SUIATOI NOS, or the HOLY CAPE, a cape of Asiatic Russia, in the province of Irkoutsk, between the rivers Yana Indigirka. It is situated on the coast of the Frozen Ocean, but points to the west. Lat. 68. 30. N. long. 39. 30. E.

SVIATOI NOSS, the name of two capes on the north coast of European Russia, in the Frozen Ocean. The one in Lat. 67. 30. N. long 49. 44. E. on the eastern side of the gulf called Tscheskaia Guba; the other at the north-east extremity of Lapland. Lat. 68. 56. N. long. 41. 25. E.

SVJATOI PAUL, a small fortress of Russia, in the Crimea, opposite to the promontory of Ortasch, in the island of Taman.

SUI/CIDE, *s.* [*suicidium*, Lat.] Self-murder; the horrid crime of destroying one's self.—Child of despair, and *suicide* my name. *Savage*.—A self-murderer.

If fate forbears us, fancy strikes the blow, We make misfortune, *suicides* in woe. *Young*.

SUIEN-PIN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tchekiang.

SVIJASK, a small town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Kasan, on the river Sviaja. Its situation is picturesque. It has a manufactory of potash, and some traffic in corn, and contains 3100 inhabitants; 20 miles west-by-south of Kasan.

SUIKEON, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si.

SU/LLAGE, *s.* [*souillage*, Fr.] Drain of filth. *Obsolec.*—When they have chosen the plot, and laid out the limits of the work, some Italians dig wells and cisterns, and other conveyances for the *suillage* of the house. *Wotton*.

SU/ING, *s.* [This word seems to come from *suer*, to sweat, Fr. It is perhaps peculiar to Bacon.] The act of soaking through any thing.—Note the percolation or *suing* of the verjuice through the wood; for verjuice of itself would never have passed through the wood. *Bacon*.

SVINOE, one of the Faroe islands, in the Atlantic, belonging to Denmark. Lat. 61. 56. N. long. 6. 0. W.

SUIPPE, a small town of France, in Champagne, department of the Marne, containing 2200 inhabitants. It has manufactures of leather and woollens, and is 15 miles west of St. Menehould, and 12 north of Chalons sur Marne.

SUIPPE, a small river of France, in Champagne, which runs into the Aisne; 6 miles north-east of Roncy.

SVIR, a river of European Russia, which unites the lakes Ladoga and Onega. It is navigable for small boats.

SUIRE, a river of Ireland, which rises in the county of Tipperary, and runs into the sea in Waterford harbour.

SUIT, *s.* [*suite*, Fr.] A set; a number of things correspondent one to the other.

We, ere the day, two *suites* of armour sought, Which borne before him, on his steed he brought. *Dryden*.
Clothes made one part to answer another.

Him all repute

For his advice in handsoming a *suit*;
To judge of lace, pink, panes, print, cut, and plait,
Of all the court to have the best conceit. *Donne.*

[From *To sue.*] A petition; an address of entreaty.

She gallops o'er a courtier's nose;
And then dreams he of smelling out a *suit*. *Shakspeare.*

Many shall make *suit* unto thee. *Job.*—Courtship.

He that hath the steerage of my course,
Direct my *suit*. *Shakspeare.*

In Spenser it seems to signify pursuit; prosecution.—A keeper, whiche I knewe, [was] requyred to folow a *sute* with hys hounde after one that hadde stolen a decree. *Abp. Cranmer.*

High amongst all knights hast hung thy shield,
Thenceforth the *suit* of earthly conquest shoone,
And wash thy hands from guilt of bloody field. *Spenser.*

[In Law.] *Suit* is sometimes put, for the instance of a cause, and sometimes for the cause itself deduced in judgment. *Ayliffe.*—All that had any suits in law came unto them. *Susanna.*—John Bull was flattered by the lawyers that his *suit* would not last above a year, and that before that time he would be in quiet possession of his business. *Arbutnot.*—[In Law also, from the old Fr. *suit*, “l'obligation de suivre les plaids de son seigneur. Les Anglois se servent encore de ce mot depuis Guillaume le Batard. 960.” *Lacombe.*] *Suit* of court; suit-service; attendance of tenants at the court of their lord.

Then found he many missing of his crew,
Which wont doe *suit* and service to his might. *Spenser.*

SUIT Covenant, s. [In Law.] Is where the ancestor of one man covenanted with the ancestor of another to sue at his court. *Bailey.*

SUIT Court, s. [In Law.] The court in which tenants owe attendance to their lord. *Bailey.* See the last sense of *SUIT*.

SUIT Service, s. [In Law.] Attendance which tenants owe to the court of their lord. *Bailey.* See the last sense of *SUIT*.

To *SUIT, v. a.* To fit; to adapt to something else—*Suit* the action to the word, the word to the action, with this special observance, that you o'erstep not the modesty of nature. *Shakspeare.*—To be fitted to; to become.

Compute the gains of his ungovern'd zeal,
Ill *suits* his cloth the praise of railing well. *Dryden.*

To dress; to clothe.

Be better *suit*ed;

These weeds are memories of those worsor hours.

Shakspeare.

To *SUIT, v. n.* To agree; to accord. *Dryden* uses it both with *to* and *with*.

The one intense, the other still remiss,
Cannot well *suit with* either; but soon prove
Tedious alike *Milton.*

The place itself was *suiting* to his care,
Uncouth and savage as the cruel fair. *Dryden.*

SUITABLE, adj. Fitting; according with; agreeable to; with *to.*—fo solemn acts of royalty and justice, their *suitable* ornaments are a beauty; are they only in religion a stain? *Hooker.*

SUITABLENESS, s. Fitness; agreeableness.—With ordinary minds, it is the *suitableness*, not the evidence of a truth that makes it to be yielded to; and it is seldom that any thing practically convinces a man that does not please him first. *South.*

SUITABLY, adv. Agreeably; according to.—Whosoever speaks upon an occasion may take any text suitable thereto; and ought to speak *suitably* to that text. *South.*

SUITE, s. [Fr.] Order, series; regular order.—Every five-and-thirty years the same kind and *suite* of weather come about again; as great frost, great wet, great droughts, warm winters, summers with little heat; and they call it the prime.

Bacon.—Retinue; company.—Plexirtus's ill-led life, and worse-gotten honour, should have tumbled together to destruction, had there not come in Tydeus and Telenor, with fifty in their *suite* to his defence. *Sydney.*

SUITER, or SUI'TOR, s. One that sues; a petitioner, a supplicant.

She hath been a suitor to me for her brother,
Cut off by course of justice. *Shakspeare.*

My piteous soul began the wretchedness
Of suitors at court to mourn. *Donne.*

A wooer; one who courts a mistress.

By many *suitors* sought, she mocks their pains,
And still her vow'd virginity maintains. *Dryden.*

SUITRESS, s. A female supplicant.

'Twere pity

That could refuse a boon to such a *suitress*;
Y' have got a noble friend to be your advocate. *Rowe.*

SUK EL HARF, a town of Yemen, in Arabia; 28 miles south-south-east of Saade.

SUKANA, or SUKNA, a village of the Syrian desert, near which is a warm sulphurous spring; 140 miles south-south-east of Aleppo.

SUKERRABA, a town of Yemen, in Arabia; 4 miles south-south-east of Otuma.

SUKI, a town of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey, governed by an Aga; 12 miles north-north-east of Milets.

SUKOTYRO, in Zoology, a genus of the class and order Mammalia Bruta. Horn on each side near the eyes. There is only one species:—

Sukotyro Indicus.—This species has an upright mane, which is short, narrow, reaching from the top of the head to the rump. This animal is described by Dr. Shaw. “This,” according to Niewhoff, its only describer, and who has figured it in his Travels to the East Indies, “is a quadruped of a very singular shape. Its size is that of a large ox; the snout like that of a hog; the ears long and rough, and the tail thick and bushy; the eyes are placed upright in the head, quite differently from those of other quadrupeds. On each side the head, next to the eyes, stand the horns, or rather the teeth, not quite so thick as those of an elephant. This animal feeds on herbage, and is seldom taken. It is a native of Java, and is called by the Chinese Sukotyro.” Niewhoff was a Dutch traveller, who visited the East Indies about the year 1563, and continued his peregrinations for several years.

SUKSUNSK, a large village of the east of European Russia, in the government of Perm, circle of Krasnu-fimsk, on the borders of Asia. It has 1800 inhabitants, and near it are large iron-works.

SULAU, or ZULAU, a small town of Prussian Silesia; 27 miles north of Breslau, and 7 west-south-west of Militsch. Population 1200.

SULBY, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 6 miles south-west of Market Harborough.

SULCATED, adj. [sulcus, Lat.] Furrowed.—All are much chopped and *suleated* by having lain exposed on the top of the clay to the weather, and to the erosion of the vitriolic matter mixed amongst the clay. *Woodward.*

SULETI. See *SURTI.*

SULGRAVE, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire. Near it is Barrow hill, on which is a tumulus, from whence may be seen nine counties, namely, Northampton, Warwick, Worcester, Oxford, Gloucester, Berks, Bucks, Bedford and Hertfordshires, and in very clear weather part of Hampshire and Wiltshire. Population 437; 6 miles north-by-west of Brackley.

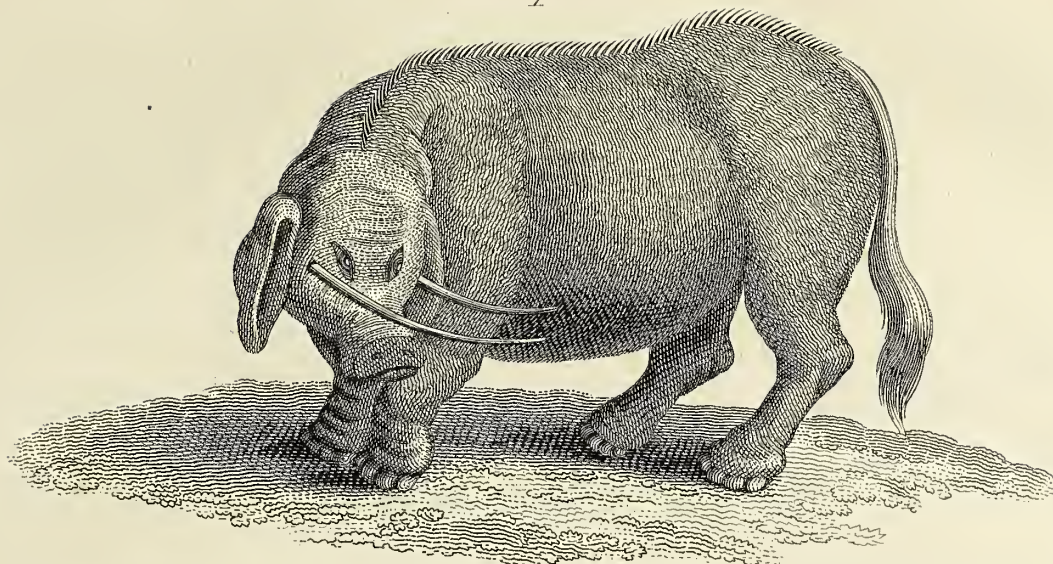
SULHAM, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 5 miles west-north-west of Reading.

SULHAMPSTEAD, ABBOTS, and SULHAMPSTEAD, BANNISTER, two united parishes of England, in Berkshire; 5 miles south-west-by-west of Reading.

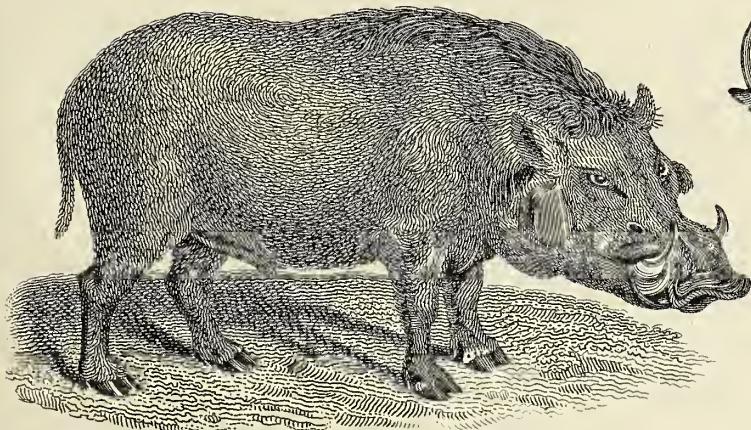
SULLI, SOULLI, or SULLI, a district of European Turkey, in Albania, formerly called Cassiopœa. It lies to the north of Porto Phanari, nearly 40 miles from Joannina, and about

SUKOTYRO. SUS.

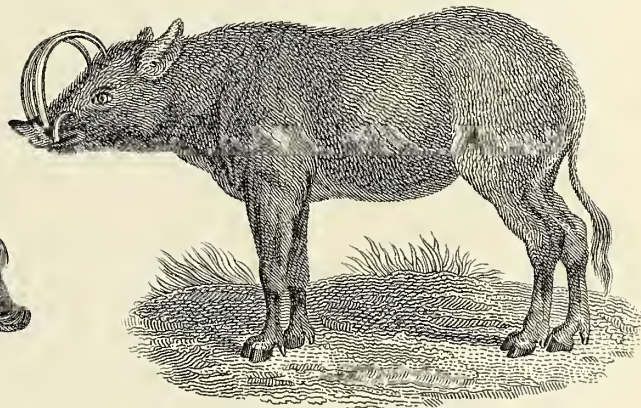
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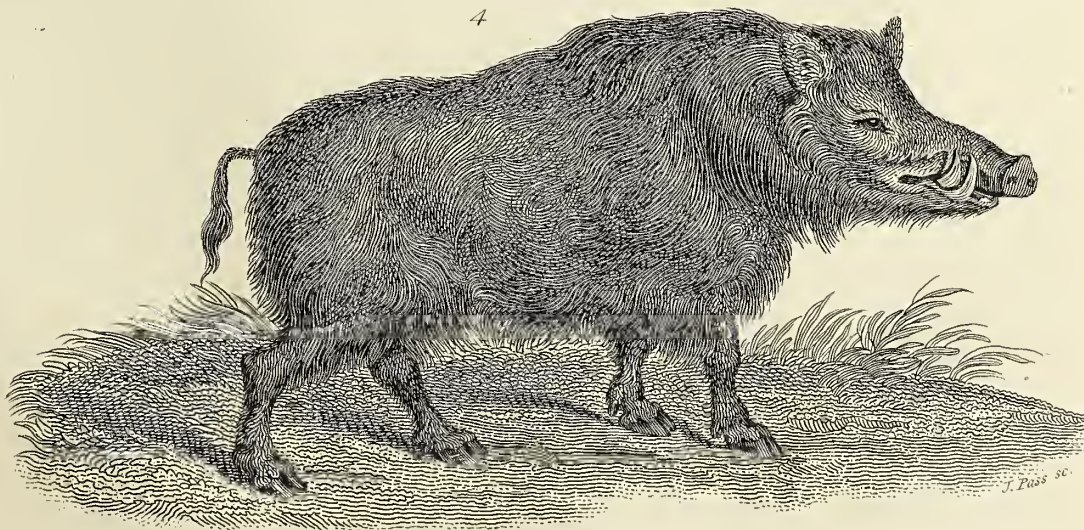
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1. Suk. Indicus. 2. Sus. Aethiopicus 3. Sus Babyrussa. 4. Sus Scrofa.

20 from Santa Maura. It consists of a large valley, inclosed by almost inaccessible mountains. This territory, about 26 miles long from north to south, and 8 in breadth, has been long inhabited by a memorable race of Greeks, who maintain themselves in the form of an independent republic. It contained formerly 18 villages, of which 5 were situated in the southern and less difficult part of the valley towards Louro, and 13 in the Upper part, more rugged and inaccessible. The principal villages were Mega Souli, the capital, Navarikos, and Kiapha. On the east, at the foot of the mountain, is a fine plain, of about 6 square leagues, which is very fertile. In it the Suliotes settled for the purpose of cultivating the land, but in times of danger retired with their property to the mountains. On the south Suli is bounded by the Chimæra mountains. Their wars, particularly between 1786 and 1803, were remarkable for the courage and pertinacity which they displayed. In vain did Ali Pacha attack them in 1792, with a powerful army. He was repulsed, as well in that year as subsequently; and it was not until 1803 that he definitively succeeded. On the loss of their independence, a part of the Suliotes left their country, and took service in Russia and France. But in the last war, (for the particulars of which see TURKEY); they have been nearly exterminated. The population of this tribe in 1821, was about 10,000.

SULIA, a large and abundant river of New Granada, in the province of Pamplona. It rises in the vicinity of this province, runs constantly north, and collecting the waters of many other rivers, unites itself with the Catacumbo, and again separating itself, after a little space, it forms three mouths, whereby to enter the lake Maracaibo. Its mouth is in Lat. 8. 35. N.

SULIA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Pamplona, situated at a small distance from the city of Pamplona.

SULIAGO, or SURIAGO, a chain of small islands in the Pacific Ocean, extending about 90 miles in length, and 12 in breadth. Lat. 9. 24. to 10. 32. N. long. 125. 27. to 128. 30. E.

SULIAGO, an island in the Pacific Ocean, about 20 miles in circumference, and 20 miles distance from the north-east coast of Mindanao. It gives name to a cluster. Lat. 9. 27. N. long. 126. 27. E.

SULIAGO, or SURIAGO, a town of the north coast of the island of Mindanao, in a bay between two projecting capes. Lat. 9. 45. N. long. 125. 31. E.

SULINGEN, a small town of the north-west of Germany, in Hanover; 28 miles south of Bremen. Population 1000.

SULISKER, a small insulated rock in the northern district of the Hebrides, about a quarter of a mile in circuit, lying 4 leagues east of the island of Rona, and 13 leagues north-west of the Butt of Lewis. It is noted for its great abundance and variety of sea fowl. Lat. 58. 44. N. long. 5. 53. W.

To SULK, *v. n.* [jolcen, Sax. deses, desidiosus, *sulky*. Lye, edit. Manning.] To be sluggishly discontented; to be silently sullen; to be morose or obstinate.

SULKHOLME, or SOUCAM, a township of England, in Nottinghamshire; 4 miles north-by east of Mansfield.

SULKILY, *adv.* In the sulks; morosely.—He stands *sulkily* before me. *Iron Chest*.

SULKINESS, *s.* [Sax. jolceneþe, *desidia*. Lye, edit. Manning.] State of silent sullenness; moroseness; gloominess.—I am come to my resting-place, and find it very necessary, after living for a month in a house with three women that laughed from morning till night, and would allow nothing to the *sulkiness* of my disposition. *Gray*.

SULKY, *adj.* [jolcen, Sax.] Sluggishly discontented; silently sullen; morose.—During the time he was in the house, he seemed *sulky*, or rather stupid. He never asked any questions; and, if spoken to, either replied shortly, or turned away without giving any answer. *Haslam*.

SULL, *s.* [rulh, Sax. idein; *suola*, Icel. lignum crassum et nodosum. *Serenius*.] A plough. *Ainsworth*.

SULLEN, *adj.* [from the Icel. *sollin*, tumidus, livescens, or the Lat. *solus*, solitary; whence our old word *solein*,

used in that sense, and afterwards, by an easy application from place to person, transferred to a gloomy disposition, to persons morosely shunning the company of others.] Solitary.

It maketh me drawe out of the waie,
In *soleyn* place by myselfe.

Gower.

Gloomily angry; sluggishly discontented.

He loveth none heviness,
But mirth and play and all gladnesse;
He hateth eke alle trechours,
And *soleine* folke and enviours.

Chaucer.

Wilmot continued still *sullen* and perverse, and every day grew more insolent. *Clarendon*.—Mischievous; malignant.

The *sullen* fiend her sounding wings display'd,
Unwilling left the night, and sought the nether shade.

Dryden.

Intractable; obstinate.—Things are as *sullen* as we are, and will be what they are, whatever we think of them. *Tillotson*.—Gloomy; dark; cloudy; dismal.

Night with her *sullen* wings to double shade
The desert; fowls in their clay nests were couch'd,
And now wild beasts came forth the woods to roam. *Milton*.

Heavy; dull; sorrowful.

Be thou the trumpet of our wrath,
And *sullen* presage of your own decay.

Shakspeare.

To SULLEN, *v. a.* To make sullen.—In the body of the world, when members are *sullen'd*, and snarl one at another, down falls the frame of all. *Feltham*.

SULLENLY, *adv.* Gloomily; malignantly; intractably.—To say they are framed without the assistance of some principle that has wisdom in it, and come to pass from chance, is *sullenly* to assert a thing because we will assert it. *More*.

SULLENNESS, *s.* Gloominess; moroseness; sluggish anger; malignity; intractability.—Speech being as rare as precious, her silence without *sullenness*, her modesty without affectation, and her shamefacedness without ignorance. *Sidney*.

SULLENS, *s. pl.* Morose temper; gloominess of mind. *A burlesque word*.—Let them die that age and *sullens* have. *Shakspeare*.—My pretty mistress Livia—is fallen sick o'the sudden.—How, o'the *sullens*? *Beaum. and Fl.*

SULLIAGE, *s.* [*souillage*, Fr.] Pollution; filth; stain of dirt; foulness. *Not in use*.—Calumniate stoutly; for though we wipe away with never so much care the dirt thrown at us, there will be left some *sulliage* behind. *Dec. of Chr. Piety*.

SULLINGTON, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5½ miles west-north-west of Steyning.

SULLIVAN, a post township of the United States, in Hancock county, Maine, at the head of Frenchman's bay; 280 miles north-east of Boston. Population 711.

SULLIVAN, a township of the United States, in Cheshire county, New Hampshire. Population 516.

SULLIVAN, a post township of the United States, in Madison county, New York, on the south side of Oneida lake. Gypsum and iron-ore are found here. Population 1974.

SULLIVAN, a county of the United States, in New York, bounded north-west by Delaware county, north-east by Ulster county, south by Orange county, and south-west by the Delaware, which separates it from Pennsylvania. It contains a pretty large proportion of mountainous country, with fertile plains, however, intervening. Thompson is the chief town. Population 6108.

SULLIVAN COVE, a harbour about 9 miles from the mouth of Derwent river, in Van Diemen's river, where a settlement was established in 1804.

SULLIVAN ISLAND, an island of the United States, at the mouth of Ashley and Cooper rivers; 6 miles below Charleston, South Carolina. This island is much resorted to by the people of Charleston during the summer months.

SULLIVAN

SULLIVAN MOUNTAINS, mountains of the United States, in New Hampshire, extending from Cockburne to the White mountains; about 2000 feet high.

SULLIVAN, POINT, a cape on the west coast of an island in Chatham's strait, on the west coast of North America. Lat. 56. 38. N. long. 225. 51½. E.

To SULLY, *v. a.* [*souiller*, Fr.] To soil; to tarnish; to dirt; to spot.

He's dead, whose love had *sully'd* all your reign,
And made you empress of the world in vain. *Dryden.*

Lab'ring years shall weep their destin'd race,
Charg'd with ill omens, *sully'd* with disgrace. *Prior.*

SULLY, *s.* Soil; tarnish; spot.—A noble and triumphant merit breaks through little spots and *sullies* in his reputation. *Addison.*

SULLY (Maximilian de Bethune), Duke of, marshal of France, and prime minister under Henry IV., was born at Rosni in 1559, and educated by his father, who had sprung from an illustrious family of the ancient counts of Flanders, in the reformed religion, to which he steadily adhered, even in some trying circumstances, through life. At the age of eleven he was presented to the Queen of Navarre, and her son Henry, whom he followed to Paris, where he pursued his studies. Here he lay concealed for three days, during the horrible massacre of St. Bartholomew's, in 1572, and thus, by favour of the principal of the college of Burgundy, he escaped the fate to which all the Hugonots were destined. At this time Sully entered into the service of the King of Navarre; taking lessons in history and mathematics from the young king's preceptor, and habituating himself to military exercises. After the death of Charles IX., Henry of Navarre quitted the court, and placed himself at the head of the Hugonot party; and on this occasion Sully entered into the infantry as a volunteer. In his youth he manifested more valour than military skill; but he possessed another very important and useful quality, which was economy, and which enabled him to maintain at his own expense a company of cavaliers; and it was by the exhibition of this quality that he gained the friendship and confidence of Henry. In 1580, the king conferred upon him the office of counsellor of Navarre, and that of his own chamberlain. During the time which he spent in the service of the Duke of Anjou, brother to Henry III., and into which he entered for the purpose of regaining some property that belonged to his family, he attended that prince in his visit to the English court; but when he found that the bigotry of the duke led him to treat his Protestant followers with coldness and indifference, he abandoned his service, and returned to that of the King of Navarre. Henry wishing at this time for a confidential person, whom he could employ at the court of France to watch and penetrate the designs of the League, sent Rosni thither for this purpose in 1583. During his residence there he married, at the beginning of 1584, Anne de Courtenay, descended from an illustrious family of that name. In the following year he was summoned by Henry to assist in the approaching war with the League; and having joined him without hesitation, he presented him with a sum of money which he had amassed, and was honourably employed in various sieges and battles. In 1586 he concluded a treaty with the deputies of Switzerland, by which they stipulated to furnish 20,000 men for the royal cause. In the battles of Coutras and Ivry he acquitted himself so well, that his fidelity and bravery were signally distinguished by the approbation and applause of Henry. Having lost his wife, he married again in 1592, and for some time lived in retirement. But being neglected by Henry, who was now lawful King of France, his zeal in his service was somewhat abated; however, when his presence and assistance became necessary, his affection for his master induced him to forget any apparent or real slight with which he had been treated, and to aid him again with his counsel. Henry, being a Protestant, found it difficult to maintain, without very hazardous struggles, his tenure of the throne; and began seriously to think of reconciling himself to the Catholic faith. But one

of his chief objections was an apprehension that he should thus offend his former faithful friends, and reduce himself to the necessity of fighting against them. Rosni, more consonantly perhaps to principles of policy than to those of truth and integrity, persuaded him to adopt the measure, to which his interest more than the conviction of his judgment led him to incline. His arguments prevailed; and Sully himself was employed to negotiate with the Catholic chiefs on the ground of Henry's abjuration of Protestantism. Sully, however, never sacrificed his own principles or profession; but he acted in this instance with a persuasion, that religion was a matter of little importance to Henry himself, and that the question, whether he was to be denominated Calvinist or Catholic, was of trivial consideration compared to that, whether there were to be peace or war in France. Such temporizing measures, however, did not immediately produce the effect which might have been expected. The League, supported by Spain, continued to oppose Henry's tranquil possession of his crown; and for this purpose the talents of Sully, both in the cabinet and the field, were found to be very important and useful. Accordingly they were called forth into vigorous exertion; and in the progress of his promotions, he was made secretary of state in 1594, member of the council of finance in 1596, and superintendant of the finances in 1598; and, moreover, he was employed in many interesting negociations, one of which was for that of the king's second marriage to Mary de Medicis. Another of Sully's diplomatic missions was that which produced a confidential interview, in 1601, with Queen Elizabeth at Dover. The accession of James I. to the throne of England, in 1603, afforded occasion to another mission of Sully to this island, where, by his reputation and dexterity of management, he succeeded in renewing the treaties subsisting between the courts France and Great Britain. As a finance minister, Sully contrived to improve the royal revenues, and to lighten the burdens of the people. The spirit of his administration was that of order, regularity, and economy, joined with that sobriety of manners which he derived from the reformed religion.

The picture of Sully's own life is thus exhibited by one of his biographers, and it is curious and interesting. "He rose every day at four in the morning, and employed his two first hours in reading and dispatching the memorials which lay upon his desk. At seven he went to the council; and he passed the rest of the morning with the king, who gave him orders relative to the different offices which he held. He dined at noon, and afterwards gave a regular audience, to which persons of all ranks were admitted. When this was concluded, he usually resumed his labours till supper-time, when he caused his doors to be shut, and laying aside all business, indulged himself in society with a few friends. He commonly went to rest at ten; but if any thing extraordinary had deranged the operation of the day, he borrowed some hours of the night. His table was simple and frugal; and when he was reproached with its plainness, he would reply with Socrates, "that if his guests were wise, they would be satisfied; if not, he did not wish their company." Sully was firmly attached to his religion, nor was any temptation that could be presented sufficient to pervert his mind, and seduce him from it. The Pope even addressed him with a letter of eulogy on his administration, and closed it by expressing a wish, that he would enter into the right faith. In his reply he said, that "on his part he would not cease to pray God for his holiness' conversion." The faithful services of this excellent minister were further rewarded by the posts of governor of Poitou, and grand-master of the ports and havens in France; and also, in 1606, by the dignity of a duke and peer, on which occasion he chose to take his title from his estate of Sully-sur-Loire. He continued at the head of affairs till the assassination of Henry, in 1610. He was then dismissed from court, with a gratuity of 100,000 crowns, and afterwards lived chiefly in retirement. He died in 1641, at the age of 82 years. A statue was erected to this great man by Louis XVI., and his eulogy was made a prize-subject by the French Academy. The "Mémoires de Sully,"

Sully," entitled by the author, "Oeconomies Royales," were written without order or connexion, and in a very simple style. They have been several times printed; and the Abbé de l'Écluse gave an edition of them in 1745, which were arranged in better order, and the language was rendered more correct. They have always been held in high estimation, on account of their historical and political information, and the interesting anecdotes of the person and court of Henry IV., which they afford. *Gen. Biog.*

SULLY, a parish of Wales, in Glamorganshire; 5 miles from Cardiff.

SULLY, a small town near the central part of France, in the department of the Loiret, on the Loire, with 2100 inhabitants; 21 miles south-east of Orleans.

SULMETINGEN, UPPER, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, and the chief place of a domain belonging to the prince of Tour and Taxis. Population 1000. Near it is the large village of Lower Sulmetingen.

SULMIERSZYCE, a small town of Prussian Poland; 25 miles west-south-west of Kalisch, and 62 south-south-east of Posen. Population 1400.

SULMONA, a town of Italy, in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the Abruzzo Citra. It is a place of antiquity, having been the birth-place of Ovid. In 1709 it was greatly injured by an earthquake. At present it contains 4000 inhabitants, and is the see of a bishop; 21 miles south of Civita di Chieti, and 72 north of Naples. Lat. 42. 3. N. long. 13. 59. E.

SULPHATE, *s.* A salt formed by the combination of sulphuric acid with any base.

SULPHITE, *s.* A salt formed by the combination of sulphurous acid with any base.

SULPHUR, *s.* [Lat.] Brimstone.

In his womb was hid metallic ore,
The work of sulphur.

Milton.

SULPHUR CREEK, a branch of Green river, in the United States, Kentucky.

SULPHUR ISLAND, an island in the North Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Gore, in the year 1779; about five miles long, in a north-north-east and south-south-west direction. The south point is a high barren hill, flattish at top, and when seen from the west-south-west, presents an evident volcanic crater, conjectured to be filled with sulphur, both from its appearance to the eye, and the strong sulphureous smell. Lat. 24. 48. N. long. 141. 12. E.

SULPHUR MOUNTAIN, a noted mountain in the island of Guadaloupe, famous for exhalations of sulphur, and eruptions of ashes. On the east side are two mouths of an enormous sulphur pit. One of these mouths is 100 feet in diameter; the depth is unknown.

SULPHURATE, *adj.* [*sulphuratus*, Lat.] Of or belonging to sulphur; of the colour of sulphur.—He interprets their breastplates of fire, and of jacinth and brimstone, of the colour of their horsemen's coats, as if they were made of thread of either colour "de feu," violet colour, or a pale sulphurate colour. *More.*

SULPHURATION, *s.* [*sulphuratio*, Lat.] Act of dressing or anointing with sulphur.

SULPHUROUS, or SULPHUROUS, *adj.* [*sulphureus*, Lat.] Made of brimstone; having the qualities of brimstone; containing sulphur; impregnated with sulphur.

My hour is almost come,
When I to sulphurous and tormenting flames
Must render up myself.

Shakspeare.

No sulphurous glooms
Swell'd in the sky, and sent the lightning forth.

Thomson.

SULPHUROUSLY, *adv.* In a sulphureous manner.

SULPHUROUSNESS, *s.* The state of being sulphurous.

SULPHURET, *s.* Any substance of which sulphur forms a component part.

SULPHURWORT, *s.* The same with HOGSFENNEL. See PEUCEDANUM.

SULPHURY, *adj.* Partaking of sulphur.

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That Bathonian spring,

Which from the sulphury mines her medicinal force doth bring.

Drayton.

SULPICE, ST., a village in the east of France, in the department of the Cote d'Or. A fire in the summer of 1818 destroyed no less than 80 houses here.

SULPICE DE LEZAT, ST., a small town in the south of France, department of the Upper Garonne, near the river Agout, with 1000 inhabitants; 18 miles south of Toulouse.

SULPICE DE LA POINTE, ST., a small town in the south of France, department of the Tarn, with 1100 inhabitants; 25 miles south-west of Alby.

SULPICE DES CHAMPS, ST., a small town near the central part of France, in the department of La Creuse, with 1100 inhabitants; 9 miles north-west of Aubusson.

SULPICE LES FEUILLES, ST., a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Upper Vienne, with 1250 inhabitants; 13 miles east-north-east of Le Dorat.

SULPICE, ST., a seigniory of Lower Canada, on the north side of the St. Lawrence, in the county of Leicester.

SULPICIA, a Roman lady, wife of Calenus, lived in the reign of Domitian, and distinguished herself by her poetical talents. At the close of some editions of Juvenal, we have the fragment of a satire written by her, in easy and elegant language, against Domitian, when he expelled the philosophers from Rome; it is also to be found in the "Poetæ Latini Minores," Leyd. 1731, and in Mattaire's "Corpus Poetarum Latinum." Her poem on conjugal love, addressed to her husband, and pronounced by Martial in one of his epigrams to be equally chaste and nervous, is still more celebrated. *Gen. Biog.*

SULPICIOUS-SEVERUS, an ecclesiastical historian and presbyter of the fifth century, who is placed by Cave about the year 401, and who is supposed to have died about the year 420. He was a native of Aquitain in Gaul, educated for the bar, and became eminent for his eloquence. He acquired wealth and married. After the death of his wife, he took orders, and devoted himself to a religious life, first under the discipline of Phebadius, bishop of Agen, and afterwards under that of St. Martin, bishop of Tours. Paulinus, bishop of Nola, with whom he was intimate, makes honourable mention of him in his letters. He resided for some time at Toulouse, and afterwards at Eause, in Gallia Narbonnensis. Gennadius says, that in his old age he embraced Pelagianism; but being convinced of his error, manifested his repentance by perpetual silence afterwards; that is, as some suppose, by writing no more books. He was the author of many works, the principal of which is his "Sacred History," in two books, written in a neat and elegant Latin style, bearing a comparison with that of the best classical writers, and containing a summary account of the affairs of the Jews, and of the church, from the beginning of the world to the consulship of Stilicho and Aurelian, A.D. 400. His most entertaining work is one of his dialogues, which relates the mode of life of the eastern monks, and affords an instructive delineation of the state of monachism at that period. Some epistles to his sisters and other persons are also preserved. His works have been several times republished. The best editions are those of Le Clerc, Lips. 1709, 8vo., and of Hieron, a Prato, Veron. 4to., 2 vols., 1741, 1754. *Dupin. Lardner.*

SULTAN, *s.* [a Tartarian word, probably appropriated only to Mohammedan princes; from the Heb. *shelton*, signifying sovereign power or command.] A Turkish emperor.

By this scimitar,

That won three fields of sultan Solyman.

Shakspeare.

SULTANA, or SULTANESS, *s.* The queen of an Eastern emperor.—Turn the *sultana's* chambermaid. *Cleaveland.*—Lay the towering *sultaness* aside. *Irene.*

SULTANABAD, an old city of Persia, called now TUR-SHEEZ, which see.

SULTANGUNGE, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude, district of Lucknow. Lat. 26. 59. N. long. 80. 15. E.

SULTANHISSAR, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey.

key, situated near the remains of the ancient Greek city of Tralles. On the top of a neighbouring hill appear the traces of some very grand buildings, particularly a temple and a theatre, with fifty rows of seats. There are also remains of a very magnificent portico, with two rows of pillars; 23 miles east of Scalanova.

SULTANIA, an ancient city of Persia, in the northern part of the province of Irak. It was anciently large and magnificent, and under one of the Tartar dynasties, formed the capital of the empire. A series of political vicissitudes, however, have entirely destroyed this early prosperity. It is now an entire mass of ruins, being only inhabited by about twenty poor families, who occupy wretched hovels in the vicinity of the tomb of Sultan Hodabunda, the founder. This is a large and beautiful structure, built of brick, and covered with a cupola, 90 feet in height, that would do honour to the most scientific architect in Europe. Lat. 36. 32. N. long. 48. 26. E.

SULTANPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore, belonging to the Seiks. It is the capital of the Doabeh Jallinder district. Lat. 31. 18. N. long. 74. 45. E.

SULTANPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude. It is pleasantly situated on the eastern bank of the Goompty river, and is the station of a British detachment. It was at this place that the first British brigade employed by the Nabob Shuja Addowlah, was cantoned in the years 1773 and 1774. Lat. 26. 18. N. long. 82. 3. E.—There are several other places of this name in Hindostan, founded by different sultans or monarchs, but none other of consequence.

SULTANRY, *s.* An Eastern empire.—I affirm the same of the *sultanry* of the Mamalukes, where slaves, bought for money, and of unknown descent, reigned over families of freemen. *Bacon.*

SULTRINESS, *s.* The state of being sultry; close and cloudy heat.

SULTRY, *adj.* [*ſwɛltən*, Sax. signifies *to die*. Chaucer uses *swelte* to signify the effect of a great oppression of spirits. Hence our word *sultry*, i. e. *sweltry*, to express a suffocating heat. Hence, also, the verb *sulter* or *soulter*, was used for *swelter*, i. e. to overpower with heat. "Horse and asses tired, and *soulter'd* with the heat of the day." *Gayton, Notes on Don Quix.*] Hot without ventilation; hot and close; hot and cloudy.—It is very *sultry* and hot. *Shakspeare.*

The *sultry* breath

Of tainted air had cloy'd the jaws of death. *Sandys.*

SULZ, a small town in the north of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg Schwerin, on the Reckenitz. Population 1400; 20 miles east of Rostock, and 21 south-west of Stralsund.

SULZ, a small town in the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the Neckar. It is remarkable for its productive salt springs. Population 2100; 14 miles south-east of Freudenberg, and 14 north of Rothweil.

SULZ, or **UPPER SULZ**, a small town of Lower Austria, on the small river Sulz. Population 1500; 20 miles north-east of Vienna.

SULZ, or **SULZ BELOW THE FOREST**, a large village in the east of France, department of the Lower Rhine. Here are salt and mineral springs. Population 1300.

SULZ, a small river of Franconia, which rises near Neumark, and falls into the Altmuhl.

SULZ, **UPPER**, a small town of the east of France, in Alsace, department of the Upper Rhine. It has 4,000 inhabitants, and some manufactures, but is known in history for little except having been a commandery of the order of St. John; 14 miles south-south-west of Colmar.

SULZA, or **STADT SULZA**, a small town of the interior of Germany, in the grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar, on the Ilm, near its confluence with the Saale. Population 1100; 14 miles north-east of Weimar, and 8 west-by-south of Naumburg.

SULZA, **NEW**, another small town of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, near Stadt-Sulza, in Saxe-Weimar, remarkable for its salt-works.

SULBACH, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria. It contains 2200 inhabitants, who are partly Catholics, partly Lutherans; and the town, small as it is, is divided into Upper and Lower; 6 miles west-by-north of Amberg, and 36 north-by-west of Ratisbon.

SULZBACH, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, county of Lowenstein-Wertheim, on the Muhr, with 1100 inhabitants.

SULZBERG, a small town of Bavaria; 64 miles west-south-west of Munich, and 5 south of Kempten. Population 1700.

SULZBURG, a small town in the west of Germany, in Baden, situated in a well wooded valley. It has mineral springs, and mines of lead and cobalt, but only 1000 inhabitants.

SULZER (John-George), was born in 1720, at Winterthur, in the canton of Zurich, and being the youngest of twenty-five children, and having lost both his parents in the same day in the year 1734, his patrimony was scarcely sufficient for defraying the expense of his education. In 1736, however, he was sent to the gymnasium of Zurich, where he was principally indebted for instruction to John Gesner, and also to Bodmer and Breitinger, who formed and directed his taste. At this time his attention was divided between the study of the Hebrew language, Wolf's philosophy, and the system of Linnæus. In 1739 he was licensed to preach by the synod of Zurich. His first publication was entitled "Moral Considerations on the Works of Nature;" and his account of a tour which he made in 1742 into the neighbouring part of the Alps was printed in 1745. He now visited Berlin, and there gained the friendship of Euler and Maupertius; but during his previous residence at Magdeburg, he edited a translation of "Scheuchzer's Itinera Alpina," and wrote his "Treatise on the Education and Instruction of Youth." In the year 1760, he had the misfortune to lose his wife. In order to dissipate his grief, he employed his time in completing his "Theory of the Fine Arts." In 1768 he published, for the use of schools, "Exercises to excite Attention and Reflection," and "Observations on the reciprocal Influence of Reason on Language, and of Language on Reason." In the next year he committed to the press his excellent "Dictionary of the Fine Arts:" the first part of this work appeared in 1771. In the same year, Sulzer made an attempt in dramatic writing, but his talents did not appear suited to this kind of composition. He expired, as if falling asleep, in the month of February 1779. *Gen. Biog.*

SULZERTOWN, a village of the United States, in the territory of the Mississippi, situated on the Mississippi, about 10 miles above Natchez.

SULZFELD, a small town of Bavarian Franconia, with 800 inhabitants; 9 miles south-east of Wurzburg.

SUM, *s.* [*summa*, Lat.; *somme*, Fr.] The whole of any thing; many particulars aggregated to a total.

Weighing the *sum* of things with wise forecast,
Solicitous of public good.

Philips.

Quantity of money.

I did send to you
For certain *sums* of gold, which you deny'd me.

Shakspeare.

[*Somme*, Fr.] Compendium; abridgement; the whole abstracted.—This, in effect, is the *sum* and substance of that which they bring by way of opposition against those orders, which we have common with the church of Rome. *Hooker.*—The amount; the result of reasoning or computation.—I appeal to the readers, whether the *sum* of what I have said be not this. *Tillotson.*—Height; completion.

Thus I have told thee all my state, and brought
My story to the *sum* of earthly bliss,
Which I enjoy.

Milton.

To SUM, *v. a.* [*sommer*, Fr.] To compute; to collect particulars into a total; to cast up. It has *up* emphatical.

You cast the event of war,
And *summ'd* th' account of chance.

Shakspeare.

The

The high priest may *sum* the silver brought in. 2 *Kings*.—To comprise; to comprehend; to collect into a narrow compass.

So lovely fair!

That what seem'd fair in all the world, seem'd now
Mean, or in her *summ'd up*, in her contain'd. *Milton*.

[In Falconry.] To have feathers full grown.—With prosperous wing full *summ'd*. *Milton*.

SUMA, a small river of Guiana, which rises in the country of the Carab Indians, and enters the Caroni.

SUMACH-TREE, *s.* [*sumach*, Fr.] A plant. The flowers are used in dyeing.

SUMAGE, SUMAGIUM, or SUMMAGIUM, in our Old Writers, toll for carriage on horseback. "Pro uno equo portante summagium per dimidium ann. obolum. *Chart. de Forest. c. 14.*

SUMANYSTOWN, a post village of the United States, in Montgomery county, Pennsylvania; 33 miles north-north-west of Philadelphia.

SUMAPAMPA, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman, on the shore of the Rio Doce.

SUMAPAZ, a large and abundant river of New Granada, which rises in the interior mountains, and running north, unites itself with the Pasca, and their united stream enters the Magdalena.

SUMARA, in Music, a sort of flute with two pipes, one of which, the shorter, is used for playing airs, and the longer, in a continued bass; just like the long pipe in the Bulgarian bagpipe.

SUMARA, a mountain of Yemen, in Arabia; 6 miles south-west of Jerim.

SUMAREIN, SOMEREIN, or SOMORJA, a large market town in the west of Hungary; 12 miles south-east of Presburg, in the isle of Schutt. It has a monastery of Paulinists, the only one in Hungary, and extensive manufactures of stone-ware. The village called Waste-Sumarein, is in the palatinate of Wicselburg.

SUMASINTLA, a river of Mexico, which rises in the mountains of Chiapa; 20 miles south of Sacatulan, and which falls into the gulf of Mexico, near the isthmus of Yucatan.

SUMATRA, a large island in the Eastern seas, the most western of that immense collection of islands which are so thickly scattered over the ocean from the coasts of New Holland and New Guinea to the coast of China on the east, and westward to the Malayan peninsula. It is divided obliquely by the equator into almost equal parts, and its general direction is north-west and south-east. The one extremity is in Lat. 5. 56. north, and the other 5. 56. south. In respect to relative position, its northern point stretches into the bay of Bengal; its south-west coast is exposed to the great Indian ocean; towards the south it is separated by the straits of Sunda from the island of Java; on the east, by the commencement of the Eastern and China seas, from Borneo and other islands; and on the north-east by the straits of Malacca, from the Malayan peninsula. Its length may be estimated at 1050 miles, by 165 miles the average breadth. Among the eastern people generally and the better informed of the natives, this island is known by the names of Pulo Purichu and Indalas; the origin of the term Sumatra is uncertain. By Marco Polo it is called Java Minor.

A chain of mountains runs through the whole extent of this island, and the ranges are in many parts double and treble. The height of these mountains has never been accurately ascertained. Mount Ophir, situated immediately under the equinoctial line, is supposed to be the highest visible from the sea, its summit being elevated 13,842 feet above that level. These mountains, though of great height, do not reach the limit of perpetual snow under the equator; and there is no positive account of snow having ever been seen among them. Among these ridges of mountains are extensive plains of great elevation, and of a temperate climate; and from this advantage they are esteemed the most eligible portion of the country, are consequently the best inhabited, and

the most cleared from woods, which elsewhere in general throughout Sumatra, cover both hills and valleys with an eternal shade. Here too are found many large and beautiful lakes, that extend, at intervals, through the heart of the country, and facilitate the communication between its different parts.

The mountains which run through the whole extent of the island of Sumatra, are much nearer the western than the opposite coast, being, on the former, seldom so much as 20 miles from the sea, while, on the eastern side, the extent of the level country cannot be less than 150 miles. In consequence of this position of the mountains, all the greatest rivers are found on the eastern side of the island. These are Siak, Indragiri, Jambi, and Palembang. These rivers roll a large body of water into the ocean, and having a large space for the formation of their respective streams, they generally flow with an even and steady course. They labour, however, under this inconvenience, that scarcely any, except the largest, run out to sea in a direct course. The continual action of the surf, more powerful than the ordinary course of the stream, throws up at their mouths a bank of sand, which, in many instances, has the effect of diverting their course to a direction parallel with the shore, between the cliffs and the beach, until the accumulated waters at length force their way wherever there is found the weakest resistance. In the southerly monsoon, when the surfs are usually highest, and the streams, from the dryness of the weather, least rapid, this parallel course is of the greatest extent. As the rivers swell with the rain, they gradually remove obstructions, and recover their natural channel. The rivers on the western coast having a shorter course, are not so large; though the Kataun, Indrapura, Tabuyong, and Sinkel, are considerable streams. They derive also a material advantage from the shelter given to them by the peninsula of Malacca and Borneo, Banca, and the other islands of the archipelago, which, breaking the force of the sea, prevent the surf from forming those bars that choke the entrance of the south-western rivers, and render them impracticable to boats of any considerable draught of water.

The climate of Sumatra varies, of course, with the height of the ground. Even on the plains, however, the heat is not so intense as might be expected in a country situated immediately under the line; the thermometer, even at the most sultry heat, which is about two in the afternoon, generally fluctuating between 82 and 85 degrees in the shade. At Fort Marlborough, Mr. Marsden mentions that he never observed it, in any case, rise higher than 86 degrees in the shade, although at Natal, in Lat. 0. 34. north, it is not unfrequently at 87 and 88 degrees; at sun-rise it is usually as low as 70. The sensation of cold, however, is much greater than this would seem to indicate, as it occasions shivering and a chattering of the teeth; doubtless from the greater relaxation of the body and openness of the pores in that climate; since the same temperature in England would be esteemed a considerable degree of warmth. These observations on the state of the air apply only to the districts near the sea-coast, where, from their comparatively low situation, and the greater compression of the atmosphere, the sun's rays operate more powerfully. Inland, as the country ascends, the degree of heat decreases rapidly, insomuch, that beyond the first range of hills, the inhabitants find it expedient to light fires in the morning, and continue them till the day is advanced, for the purpose of warming themselves; a practice unknown in the other parts of the island; and in the journal of Lieutenant Dare's expedition it appears, that during one night's halt on the summit of a mountain, in the rainy season, he lost several of his party from the severity of the weather, whilst the thermometer was not lower than 40 degrees. Frost, snow, or hail, are unknown to the inhabitants in any quarter. The hill people in the country of Lampong speak of a peculiar kind of rain which falls there, which some have supposed to be sleet; but the fact is not sufficiently established. The atmosphere is in general more cloudy than in Europe. The fog, called Kabut by the natives, which is observed to rise every morning among the distant hills, is denser

dense to a surprising degree; the extremities of it, even when near at hand, being perfectly defined; and it seldom is observed to disperse till about three hours after sunrise. On the west coast of Sumatra, southward of the equinoctial, the south-east monsoon, or dry season, begins about May, and slackens in September: the north-west monsoon begins about November, and the hard rains cease about March. The monsoons for the most part commence and leave off gradually there; the months of April and May, October and November, generally affording weather and winds variable and uncertain. It thus appears that this island is for one half the year deluged with constant rains.

In this island, as well as all other countries between the tropics, of any considerable extent, the wind uniformly blows from the sea to the land for a certain number of hours in the four and twenty, and then changes and blows for about as many from the land to the sea; excepting only when the monsoon rages with remarkable violence, and even at such time the wind rarely fails to incline a few points, in compliance with the efforts of the subordinate cause, which has not power, under these circumstances, to produce an entire change. On the west coast of Sumatra, the sea-breeze usually sets in after an hour or two of calm, about ten in the forenoon, and continues till near six in the evening. About seven the land breeze comes off, and prevails through the night till towards eight in the morning, when it gradually dies away. The land wind in Sumatra is cold, chilly, and damp; an exposure to it is, consequently, dangerous to health, and sleeping in it is almost certain death. Thunder and lightning are very frequent, especially during the north-west monsoon, when the explosions are extremely violent, the forked lightning shoots in all directions, and the whole sky seems on fire, whilst the ground is agitated in a degree little inferior to the motion of a slight earthquake.

The soil of the western side of Sumatra may be spoken of generally as a stiff, reddish clay, covered with a stratum or layer of black mould, of no considerable depth. From this there springs a strong and perpetual verdure of rank grass, brush-wood, or timber trees, according as the country has remained a longer or shorter time uncultivated; and the population being in most places extremely thin, a great proportion of the island, and especially to the southward, is in consequence an impervious forest. Along the western coast of the island, the low country, or space of land which extends from the sea shore to the foot of the mountains, is intersected and rendered uneven to a surprising degree by swamps.

The earth in Sumatra is rich in minerals, and other fossil productions; and the island has, in all ages been famous for gold, which still continues to be procured in considerable quantities, and might be greatly increased if the gatherers had a competent knowledge of mineralogy. There are also mines of copper, iron, and tin. Sulphur is collected in large quantities among the numerous volcanoes. The natives extract saltpetre from the impregnated earth, which is chiefly found in extensive caves that have been long frequented by birds and bats, from whose dung the soil is formed, and acquires its nitrous properties. Coal, mostly washed down by the floods, is procured in many parts, particularly at Kutaun, Ayer, Rami, and Bencoolen; but it is light, and not considered of a good quality. Mineral and hot springs, in taste resembling those of Harrowgate, are found in many districts. Earth oil, used chiefly as a preservative against the destructive ravages of the white ant, is collected at Ipu and elsewhere. There is scarcely any species of hard rock to be met with in the low parts of the island, near the sea-shore, in the cliffs along which various petrifications and sea shells are discovered. Copper is found on the hills of Mucky, near the sea, between Analaboo and Soosoo, to the north of the English settlement at Tappanooly. The space affording the ore is considerable, extending above a degree in length, and farther east into the country than has been yet ascertained. A considerable quantity of rich copper ore is found on the surface of the hills, to which the natives at present limit their researches. On analyzation it is found to contain a considerable

portion of gold. Here are also found various species of earths, which might serve for colours to the painter, and might be converted to other valuable purposes. The most common are the yellow, red, and white ochres.

The most important article of cultivation in Sumatra, as indeed generally throughout the east, is rice, of which there are many different species, distinct in shape, size, and colour of grain, modes of growth, and delicacy of flavour. All those different sorts, however, may be ranged under the two comprehensive classes of upland rice, from its growing on high and dry grounds, and lowland or marshy rice, from its growing in the low and marshy grounds. For the cultivation of upland rice, the site of woods is universally preferred, and the more ancient the woods the better, on account of the superior richness of the soil; the continual fall and rotting of the leaves forming there a bed of vegetable mould, which the open plains do not afford, being exhausted by the powerful operation of the sun's rays, and the constant production of a rank grass. The husbandman makes choice of a spot for the plantation of upland rice, on the approach of the dry season in April or May, and he proceeds to clear it of wood, which is a very laborious task. The plantations of low ground rice are for the most part overflowed in the rainy season between the months of October and March, to the depth of six inches or a foot. The produce varies according to circumstances. In very favourable circumstances it rises as high as 140 for one; but the common produce is only 30 for one. Mr. Marsden is of opinion that the soil of Sumatra is far from being fertile, being for the most part a stiff red clay, burned nearly to the state of a brick, under the influence of a tropical sun. There are many parts of the island, however, which he states are entirely unknown to us; and the luxuriant woods with which the country is every where covered, do not certainly indicate a barren soil. The upland rice will not keep above six months, and the lowland rice not above twelve. The cocoa-nut tree may be esteemed the most important object of cultivation. Its value consists principally in its kernel, which is in universal consumption, being an essential ingredient in most dishes. The oil of the nut is also employed for anointing the hair, and for burning in lamps. There are also large plantations of the betel-nut tree and the bamboo. The latter is used in the fortification of villages, as it grows so thick that it forms an impenetrable mass. There is also the sago tree, and a great variety of palms. The sugar cane is very generally cultivated, but not in large quantities, and more frequently for the purpose of chewing the juicy reed, than for the manufacture of sugar, which is usually imported from Java. Maize, chilly pepper, turmeric, ginger, coriander and cumin seed, are raised in the gardens of the natives. There are various other shrubs and plants, some of which are converted by the inhabitants to various useful purposes. Hemp is extensively cultivated, not for the purpose of making rope, to which they never apply it, but to make an intoxicating preparation called bang, which they smoke in pipes along with tobacco. In other parts of India a drink is prepared by bruising the blossoms, young leaves, and tender parts of the stalk. Small plantations of tobacco, which the natives call *tambaku*, are met with in every part of the country. There are other creeping plants which are manufactured into twine, sowing thread, &c.

No region of the earth can boast of greater variety and abundance of indigenous fruits than Sumatra; though the natives never appear to bestow the smallest labour in improving them. They are planted for the most part in a careless irregular manner, about their villages. We cannot, within the limits to which we are confined, give a full description of all the various fruits and shrubs of this luxuriant island. The following, however, are the most remarkable:—The mangustin, which holds the pre-eminence among all the Indian fruits, is produced in great abundance. Its characteristic quality is extreme delicacy of flavour, without being rich or luscious. It is a drupe of a brownish red colour, and the size of a common apple, consisting of a thick rind, somewhat hard on the outside, but soft and succulent within

within, encompassing kernels which are covered with a juicy and perfectly white pulp, which is the part eaten, or, more properly, sucked, for it dissolves in the mouth. Its qualities are as innocent as they are grateful, and the fruit may be eaten in any moderate quantity without danger of surfeit, or other injurious effects. The returns of its season appear to be irregular, and the periods short. The pine-apple, though not indigenous, grows here in great plenty with ordinary culture. Oranges of many sorts are in the highest perfection. The shaddock of the West Indies is here very fine, and distinguished into the white and red sorts. Limes and lemons are in abundance, as is also the bread-fruit; the jack-fruit; the mango, a rich high flavoured fruit of the plumb kind; the papaw, a large, substantial, and wholesome fruit, in appearance not unlike a smooth sort of melon, but not very highly flavoured; the pomegranate, the tamarind, nuts and almonds of different sorts, besides various other fruits, of which the names are not known in Europe. Grape vines are cultivated with success by Europeans for their tables, but not by the people of the country. There is found in the woods a species of wild grape, besides various other wild fruits, some of which possess a fine flavour, but others are little superior to common berries, though they might be improved by culture.

Of shrubs and flowers, there is an innumerable variety and a perpetual succession throughout the year. They diffuse a delightful fragrance all around, and many of them are medicinal, while from others dyes are extracted. The castor-oil plant grows wild in abundance, especially near the sea shore; and the elastic gum vine, or caoutchouc, is also found. From the indigo plant the dye is extracted, and generally used in a liquid state. Brazil wood is common in the Malay countries, as is also ubar, a red wood resembling log-wood in its properties. The upas, or poison tree, is found in the woods.

Sumatra, from the shelter afforded by its vast woods, abounds in wild animals, some of them most ferocious and destructive. The tyger grows in this island to a prodigious size and strength. Marsden mentions that he saw the head of one which had been killed, and which measured across the forehead 18 inches. Such is their strength, that with a stroke of their fore-paw, they will break the leg of a horse or buffalo, and the largest prey is without the least difficulty dragged by them into the woods. The number of inhabitants who are killed by these animals exceeds belief, whole villages being sometimes depopulated by them. Yet such is the superstitious prejudice of the natives, that it is with difficulty they are prevailed upon, by rewards from the East India Company, to use any methods for their extirpation. The traps, however, which they make for this purpose are ingeniously contrived. Sometimes they are in the nature of strong cages, with falling doors, into which the beast is enticed by a goat or dog inclosed as a bait; sometimes they manage that a large timber shall fall in a grove, across his back; he is noosed about the loins with strong rattans, or he is led to ascend a plank, nearly balanced, which, turning when he is past the centre, lets him fall upon sharp stakes prepared below. Instances have occurred of a tiger being caught by one of the former modes, which had many marks in his body of the partial success of this last expedient. The escapes, at times, made from them by the natives are surprising. In addition to the other methods of destroying them, besides shooting them, the natives sometimes place water in their way, impregnated with arsenic, by drinking of which the animal perishes. They subsist chiefly, it is supposed, on the monkeys and other animals with which the woods abound. Elephants are common. They traverse the country in large troops, and prove highly destructive to the plantations of the inhabitants. The hippopotamus haunts most of the rivers. The rhinoceros, both the single and double horned species, is a native of the woods; also the bear, which is small and black, and climbs the cocoa-nut trees in order to devour the tender part or cabbage. There are many species of the deer kind, and the varieties of the monkey tribes are innumerable; here are also sloths, squir-

rels, teleggos or stinkards, civet cats, tiger cats, porcupines, hedgehogs, pangolins, bats of all kinds, alligators, guanos, cameleons, flying lizards, tortoises, and, turtle. The house lizards are in length from four inches down to one, and are the largest reptiles that can walk in an inverted position; one of these, large enough to devour a cochroach, runs along the ceiling of a room, and in that situation seizes its prey. The tail of these reptiles, when broken off, renews itself.

Among the domestic animals is the buffalo, which supplies milk, butter, and beef. It is not to be found in a wild state, being too much exposed to the attacks of the tyger. The cow, called Sapi and Jawi, is obviously a stranger to the country, and does not appear to be yet naturalized. The breed of horses is small, well made, and hardy, and are brought down by the country people nearly in a wild state. In the Batta country they are eaten, which is a custom also in Celebes. The sheep are a small breed, probably imported from Bengal; the other animals are the goat and hog, both domestic and wild; the otter, the cat, the rat, and the dog. Of the latter, those brought from Europe degenerate, in the course of time, to curs, with erect ears.

With animals of the frog kind the swamps everywhere teem; and their noise upon the approach of rain is tremendous. They furnish prey to the snakes, which are found here of all sizes and in great variety of species; the larger proportion harmless, but of some, and those generally small and dark coloured, the bite is mortal. The boa constrictor is found in marshy places, and sometimes grows to the length of 30 feet, and of proportionate bulk and strength. Among the poisonous serpents is the viper.

On the coast is found great variety of shell-fish. The cray-fish is as large as the lobster, but wants its biting claws. The small fresh water cray-fish, the prawns and shrimps are in great perfection. The crab is not equally fine, but exhibits many extraordinary varieties. There is also the *kima*, or gigantic cockle. The oysters are by no means so good as those of Europe. The smaller kind are generally found adhering to the roots of the mangrove, in the wash of the tide. Among the fish are the dugong, a large sea animal of the mammalia order, with two strong pectoral fins serving for the purposes of feet; the grampus whale; violiers, so called from the peculiarity of its dorsal fin resembling a sail; sharks, skates, the muræna, gymnotus, rock cod, pomfret, mullet, the flying fish, and many others.

Birds are in great variety, and consist chiefly of the Sumatran pheasant, a bird of uncommon magnificence and beauty; of peacocks, eagles, vultures, kites, and crows, jackdaws, king's fishers, the rhinoceros bird, chiefly remarkable for what is termed the horn, which, in the most common species, extends half way down the upper mandible of its large beak, and then turns up; the stork, the common fowl domestic and wild, the snipe, coot, plover, pigeons, quails, starlings, swallows, minas, parrots and paroquets, geese, ducks, teal, &c. The bird of paradise is not found here, and the cassowary is brought from Java. The loory is brought from the islands still further east.

The whole island swarms with insects, amongst which are cockroaches, crickets, bees, flies of all sorts, mosquitoes, scorpions, centipedes, and water and land leeches. The fire fly is larger than the common fly, and emits light as if by respiration, which is so great, that words on paper may be distinguished by holding one in the hand. Ants exist in immense numbers and varieties, which differ in taste from each other when put into the mouth. Some are hot and acrid, some bitter, and some sour. The large red ant bites severely, and usually leaves its head, as the bee its sting, in the wound. The Chinese dainty, named indiscriminately biche de mer, swallow, tripan or sea slug, (holothurion) is collected from the rocks, and dried in the sun for the China market.

Of the productions which are regarded as articles of commerce, the most abundant is pepper, of which large quantities used formerly to be exported by the East India Company. But this trade is now reduced to one solitary cargo

of the annual value of about £15,000. The pepper vine is a hardy plant, growing readily from cuttings or layers rising in several small knotted stems, and twining round any neighbouring support. If suffered to run along the ground, its fibres become roots, in which case, like the ivy, it would never exhibit any marks of fructification. It begins to bear in its third, and attains its prime in its seventh year, after which it declines. The white pepper is made by bleaching the grains of the common sort, by which it is deprived of its exterior pellicle. This article takes little damage by submersion in sea water.

The jealousy of the Batavian government in rigorously confining the cultivation of spices to its own islands, is well known; and for a long time, all attempts to procure those valuable plants were in vain. After the conquest of the Dutch islands, however, by the British in 1796, the nutmeg and clove plants were brought over, and placed under careful management. Among the valuable productions of the island as articles of commerce, a conspicuous place belongs to the camphor. This peculiar substance is a drug for which Sumatra and Borneo have been celebrated from the earliest times, and with the virtues of which the Arabian physicians appear to have been acquainted. The tree is a native of the northern parts of the island only, not being found to the southward of the line, nor yet beyond the third degree of north latitude. It grows, without cultivation, in the woods lying near to the sea coast, and is equal in height and bulk to the largest timber trees, being frequently found upwards of fifteen feet in circumference. The camphor is found in the concrete state in which we see it, in natural fissures or crevices of the wood, but does not exhibit any exterior appearance by which its existence can be previously ascertained; and the persons whose employment it is to collect it, usually cut down a number of trees, almost at random, before they find one that contains a sufficient quantity to repay their labour. It is said, that not a tenth part of the number felled is productive either of camphor or of camphor-oil, although the latter is less rare; and that parties of men are sometimes engaged for two or three months together in the forests, with very precarious success. The oil is procured from the same tree, frequently gushing out copiously when the tree is cut.

Benzoin or benjamin is, like the camphor, found almost exclusively in the batta country, to the northward of the equator, but not to the Acheenese dominions immediately beyond that district. It is also met with, though rarely, to the south of the line. When the trees have attained the age of about seven years, and are six or eight inches in diameter, incisions are made in the bark, from whence the balsam or gum exudes. The finest of the gum is that which comes from these incisions during the first three years, and is white, inclining to yellow, soft, and fragrant. The finest sort is sent to Europe; and the inferior sorts are sent to Arabia, Persia, and some parts of India, when it is burned, to perfume with its smoke their temples and private houses, expel troublesome insects, and obviate the pernicious effects of unwholesome air or noxious exhalations. The greater part of what is brought to England, is re-exported to countries where the Roman Catholic and Mahometan religions prevail, to be there burnt as incense in the churches and temples. The remainder is chiefly employed in medicine. Cassia is produced in the inland parts of the country, and is exported in considerable quantities. Rattans also furnish annually many large cargoes; and walking canes are found near the rivers which open to the straits of Malacca. The annual and the shrub cotton are cultivated by the natives, but only in sufficient quantities to supply their own wants. The silk cotton is a most beautiful raw material, but owing to the shortness and brittleness of the staple, is unfit for the reel and the loom, and is only applied to the unworthy purposes of stuffing pillows and mattresses. The coffee tree is universally planted, but the berry is not of a good quality, probably owing to the want of skill in the management. Among other articles of commerce is the dammar, a species of turpentine or resin procured from a species of pine, which

is exported in large quantities to Bengal and elsewhere, and which exudes from the tree so copiously, that there is no need of incisions to obtain it. A drug named dragon's blood is procured from a large species of rattan, which grows abundantly in the countries of Palembang and Jambi, where it is manufactured and exported, first to Batavia, and afterwards to China, where it is highly esteemed. Gambir juice is extracted from the leaves of a plant of that name, and is eaten by the natives, being supposed to have the property of cleaning and sweetening the mouth. The agila wood or lignum aloes is highly prized in all parts for the fragrant scent it emits when burning. The forests contain an inexhaustible store and endless variety of timber trees, many sorts of which are capable of being applied to ship-building; but the teak does not appear to be indigenous to the island, although it flourishes to the northward and southward, in Pegu and Java. The other remarkable trees are the poon, so named from a Malay word, which signifies wood in general, and is preferred for masts and spars; the camphor wood, used for carpenters' purposes; the iron wood, so named on account of its hardness; the marbau, used as beams for ships and houses; the pinaga, valuable as crooked timber for frames and knees; the ebony; the kayn gadis, a wood possessing the flavour and qualities of sassafras; the rangi, supposed to be the manchineel tree of the West Indies, has a resemblance to mahogany. Of the various sorts of trees producing dammar, some are also valuable as timber; and here also is found the spreading banyan tree of Hindostan.

Gold is found chiefly in the interior of the island, none being observed to the southward of Limun, a branch of Jambi river, nor to the northward of Nalabu, from which port Acheen is principally supplied. Menancabow has always been esteemed the richest seat of it; and this consideration probably induced the Dutch to establish their head factory at Padang, in the immediate neighbourhood of that kingdom. Colonies of Malays from thence have settled themselves in almost all the districts where gold is procured, and appear to be the only persons who dig for it in mines, or collect it in streams; the proper inhabitants or villagers confining their attention to the raising of provisions, with which they supply those who search for the metal. The metal is sometimes found imbedded in the rock, when it is called rock-gold. It consists of pieces of quartz, more or less intermixed with veins of gold, generally of fine quality, running through it in all directions, and forming beautiful masses, which being admired for their beauty, are sometimes sold by weight as if they were all solid metal. The mines yielding this sort of gold are commonly situated at the foot of the mountain, and the shafts are driven horizontally to the extent of from 8 to 20 fathoms. Gold is also found in the state of smooth, solid lumps, in shape like gravel, and of various sizes, one of which, seen by Mr. Marsden, weighed 9 ounces 15 grains. Gold-dust is collected either in the channels of brooks running over ground rich in the metal, in standing pools of water occasioned by heavy rains, or in a number of holes dug in a situation to which a small rapid stream can be directed. Their instruments for working the mines are not, as may be supposed, the most perfect. They have for digging an iron crow three feet long; and for beating the lumps of rock to a powder, a heavy iron hammer is used. The pulverized mass is thence carried to the nearest place where there is a supply of water, by which the gold is separated from the quartz. In the horizontal mines, the shaft is supported by timbers, and the water is drawn off by means of a drain. In the perpendicular mines it is drawn out by means of buckets. The mines of gold are very numerous, amounting to no fewer than 1200 in the dominions of Menancabow. Probably only one half of all the gold procured reaches the hands of Europeans; yet it is asserted, on good authority, that from 10,000 to 12,000 ounces have been annually received at Padang alone, at Nalaboo 2000, at Natal 800, and at Mocomoco 600. The merchants carry the gold from the interior to the sea coast, where they barter it for iron and iron working tools, opium, and the fine piece goods

goods of Madras and Bengal. When bought at the settlements, it used formerly to be purchased at the rate of 3*l.* 5*s.* per ounce, but afterwards rose to 3*l.* 18*s.* which would yield no profit on exportation to Europe. In many parts of the country it is employed instead of coin, every man carrying a small pair of scales about with him. At Acheen small thin gold coins were formerly struck, but the coinage has been abandoned in modern times. Silver is not produced in Sumatra. Tin, which is found in the neighbouring island of Banca, is a very considerable article of trade; and a rich mine of copper is worked by the Acheenese, the ore of which yields half its original weight in pure metal. Iron ore is dug at a place named Turawang, in the eastern part of Menacabow, and there smelted, but not in large quantities, the consumption of the natives being amply supplied with English and Swedish bar-iron, which they are in the practice of purchasing by measure instead of weight. Sulphur is abundantly procured from the numerous volcanoes, and especially from that very great one which is situated about a day's journey inland from Priaman. Yellow arsenic is also an article of traffic. In the country of Kattaun, near the head of Urei river, there are extensive caves, from the soil of which saltpetre is extracted. M. Whalfeldt, who was employed as a surveyor, visited them in March 1773. Into one he advanced 743 feet, when his lights were extinguished by the damp vapour. Into a second he penetrated 600 feet, when, after getting through a confined passage, about three feet wide and five in height, an opening in the rock led to a spacious place 40 feet high. The edible birds-nest, so much celebrated as a peculiar luxury of the table, especially amongst the Chinese, is found in similar caves in different parts of the island, but chiefly near the sea-coast, and in the greatest abundance at its southern extremity. The birds resemble the common swallow, or rather perhaps the martin. The nests are distinguished into white and black, of which the first sort are by far the most scarce and valuable, and generally sell for nearly their weight in silver. The biche de mer is also an article of trade to Batavia and China, where it is employed in enriching soups and stews. Bees wax is a commodity of great importance in all the eastern islands, from whence it is exported, in large oblong cakes, to China, Bengal, and other parts of the continent. No pains are taken with the bees, which are left to settle where they list, generally on the boughs of trees, and are never collected in hives. Their honey is much inferior to that of Europe, as might be expected from the nature of the vegetation. Gum-lac, called by the natives *ampalu* or *ambalu*, although found upon trees, and adhering strongly to the branches, is known to be the work of insects, as wax is of the bee. It is procured in small quantities from the country inland of Bencoolen; but at Padang is a considerable article of trade. Foreign markets, however, are supplied from the countries of Siam and Cambodia. It is chiefly valued in Sumatra for the animal part, found in the nidus of the insect, which is soluble in water, and yields a very fine purple dye, used for colouring their silks and other webs of domestic manufacture. Like the cochineal, it would probably, with the addition of a solution of tin, become a good scarlet. The forests abounding with elephants, ivory is consequently found in abundance, and is carried both to the China and Europe markets. The animals themselves were formerly the objects of a considerable traffic from Acheen to the coast of Coromandel, or *Kling* country, and vessels were built expressly for their transport; but it has declined, or perhaps ceased altogether, from the change which the system of warfare has undergone, since the European tactics have been imitated by the princes of India. The large roes of a species of fish said to be like the shad, but more probably of the mullet kind, taken in great quantities at the mouth of Siak river, are salted and exported from thence to all the Malayan countries, where they are eaten with boiled rice, and esteemed a delicacy. The most general articles of import trade are the following:—From the coast of Coromandel various cotton goods, as long-cloth, blue and white, chintz and coloured handkerchiefs, of which those manufactured at Pulicat are the most

prized; and salt: from Bengal, muslins, striped and plain, and several other kinds of cotton goods, as cossaes, baftaes, hummums, &c., taffetas and some other silks; and opium in considerable quantities: from the Malabar coast, various cotton goods, mostly of a coarse raw fabric: from Ceina, coarse porcelain *kwalis* or iron pans, in sets of various sizes; tobacco shred very fine; gold thread, fans, and a number of small articles: from Celebes (known here by the names of its chief provinces, Nangkasar, Bugis, and Mandar), Java, Balli, Ceram, and other eastern islands, the rough striped cotton cloth called *kain sarong*, or vulgarly *bugis clouting*, being the universal body dress of the natives; kris-es and other weapons; silken krisbelts, hats, small pieces of ordnance, commonly of brass, called *rantaka*; spices, and also salt of a large grain, and sometimes rice chiefly from Balli; from Europe, silver, iron, steel, lead, cutlery, various sorts of hardware, brass, wire, and broad cloths, especially scarlet.

Generally speaking, the inhabitants have made no great progress in the arts of industry; though there are some particular manufactures in which they excel. In the accounts of ancient writers, great foundries of cannon are mentioned in the district of Acheen; and it is certain that fire arms, as well as knives, are at this day manufactured in the country of Menacabow. In general, however, they do not excel in manufactures of iron. They make nails, though they are not much used in building, wooden pins being generally substituted; also various kinds of tools, such as adzes of different sorts, axes, hoes, &c. In carpenters' work they are equally rude, being ignorant of the use of the saw, excepting where it has been introduced by the British. Trees are felled by chopping at the stems; and in procuring boards, they are confined to those, the direction of whose grain, or other qualities, admit of their being easily split asunder. In this respect the species called maranti and marakuli have the preference. The tree being stripped of its branches and its bark, is cut to the length required, and by the help of wedges split into boards. For cements they chiefly use the curd of the buffalo milk. It is to be observed that butter, which is used by the Europeans only, is made, not as with us, by churning, but by letting the milk stand till the butter forms of itself on the top. It is then taken off with a spoon, stirred about with the same in a flat vessel, and well washed in two or three waters. The thick sour milk left at the bottom, when the butter or cream is removed, is the curd here meant. This must be well squeezed, formed into cakes, and left to dry, when it will grow nearly as hard as flint. For use, you must scrape some of it off, mix it with quicklime, and moisten it with milk. There is no stronger cement in the world, and it is found to hold, particularly in a hot and damp climate, much better than glue; proving also effectual in mending china-ware. Ink is made by mixing lamp-black with the white of egg. To procure the former they suspend over a burning lamp an earthen pot, the bottom of which is moistened, in order to make the soot adhere to it. Painting and drawing they are quite strangers to. In carving, both in wood and ivory, they are curious and fanciful, but their designs are always grotesque and out of nature. The handles of the kris-es are the most common subjects of their ingenuity in this art, which usually exhibit the head and beak of a bird, with the folded arms of a human creature, not unlike the representation of one of the Egyptian deities. In cane and basket work they are particularly neat and expert; as well as in mats, of which some kinds are much prized for their extreme fineness and ornamental borders. Silk and cotton cloths, of varied colours, manufactured by themselves, are worn by the natives in all parts of the country, especially by the women. Some of their work is very fine, and the patterns prettily fancied. Their loom or apparatus for weaving is extremely defective, and renders their progress tedious. The women are expert at embroidery, the gold and silver thread for which is procured from China, as well as their needles. Different kinds of earthenware are manufactured in the island; and they extract the cocoa-nut oil, which is in general use. Gunpowder

is also manufactured in various parts of the island, but less in the southern provinces than among the people of Menancabow, the Battas, and the Acheenese, whose frequent wars demand large supplies. The powder is very imperfectly granulated, being often hastily prepared in small quantities for immediate use. Salt is mostly supplied by cargoes imported, but they also manufacture it themselves by a very tedious process. But of all their manufactures, their work in fine gold and silver filagree has been most admired, and it deserves the greater admiration, considering the coarse tools with which it is made, and which, in the hands of a European, would not be thought fit for the most ordinary purposes, being rudely and inartificially formed by the goldsmith from any old iron he can procure. From a piece of old iron hoop the wire drawing instrument is made; a hammer head stuck in a block serves for an anvil; and a pair of compasses is seen composed of two old nails tied together at one end. The gold is fused in a piece of a rice pot. In general they use no bellows, but blow the fire with their mouths through a joint of bamboo. If the quantity of gold to be melted be considerable, three or four persons sit around their furnace, which is an old iron pot, and blow altogether. By a series of nice operations, the gold is formed into leaves, which are afterwards put together, and being united with a solder of gold filings and borax, moistened with water, and spread over them with a feather, the whole is put into the fire for a short time, until it becomes united. The Chinese also make filagree, mostly of silver, which is very elegant; but it wants the extraordinary delicacy of the Malayan work. The inhabitants of Sumatra are particularly expert in the manufacture of fishing nets, and in making springs for catching birds. They have many of them a remarkably fine aim; but the mode of letting off the matchlocks, which are the pieces most habitual to them, precludes the possibility of shooting flying.

The art of medicine among the Sumatrans consists in the application of simples, which are the juices of certain trees and herbs. These are administered internally, or externally by means of a poultice put on the breast or part affected. In fevers they give a decoction of herbs, or bathe the patient for two or three mornings in warm water. If this does not prove effectual, they pour on him, during the paroxysm, a quantity of cold water, which brings on copious perspiration. Pains and swellings in the limbs are likewise cured by perspiration. There are two sorts of leprosy to which the inhabitants are subject. In the milder species, the skin is covered with a white scurf or scales, which renders them loathsome to the sight. In the more fatal sort, few instances of recovery are known; the skin comes off in flakes, and the flesh is corrupted. The small pox sometimes visits the island, and makes terrible ravages. In cases of insanity, they imagine the patient seized by an evil spirit, which is exorcised in the following manner. He is shut up in a hut, which is set on fire about his ears, and he is allowed to make his escape through the flames in the best manner he can. Their notions of astronomy and geography are extremely imperfect. They are fond of music, and have several instruments, most of which are derived from the Chinese.

The Malayan language is everywhere spoken along the coasts of Sumatra. It prevails also in the inland country of Menancabow and its immediate dependencies, and is understood in almost every part of the island. Their writing is in the Arabic character, and many Arabic words are incorporated with the Malayan. Besides the Malayan, there is a variety of languages spoken in Sumatra, which, however, have not only a manifest affinity among themselves, but also to that general language which is found to prevail in, and to be indigenous to, all the islands of the Eastern sea, from Madagascar to the remotest of Captain Cook's discoveries, comprehending a wider extent than the Roman, or any other tongue, has yet boasted. The other principal languages of Sumatra are the Batta, the Rejang, and the Lampong; the difference between them being chiefly marked by their being expressed in distinct written characters. They

write on the inner bark of a tree, and on bamboos, and form their lines from the left hand towards the right.

Among the modern political divisions of the island, the principal are the empire of Menancabow and the Malays; in the next place, the Acheenese; then the Battas, the Rejangs; and next to them the people of Lampong. The chain of islands which extends in a line nearly parallel to the western coast, at the distance of little more than a degree, are inhabited by a race or races of people, apparently from the same original stock as those of the interior of Sumatra. Their genuineness of character has been preserved to a remarkable degree, whilst the islands on the eastern side are uniformly peopled with Malays. Until about 100 years ago, the southern coast of Sumatra, as far as the Urei river, was dependent on the king of Bantam in Java, whose lieutenant came yearly to Bencoolen or Sillebar, to collect pepper, and fill up the vacancies. Almost all the forms of government throughout Sumatra are a mixture of the feudal and patriarchal; but the system of government among the people near the sea coast is much influenced by the power of the Europeans, who exercise, in fact, the functions of sovereignty, and with great advantage to their subjects. The districts over which the East India Company's influence extends are preserved in a state of uninterrupted peace; and were it not for this coercion, every village would be in a state of perpetual hostility with its neighbour. The form of government among the Kejangs applies generally to the Orangulu, or inhabitants of the interior. Among the hills and woods, property in land depends upon occupancy, unless where fruit trees have been planted; and as there is seldom any determined boundary between neighbouring villages, such marks are rarely disturbed. The laws of the Sumatrans are properly a set of long established customs, handed down to them from their ancestors, the authority for which is founded in usage and general consent. The law which renders all the members of a family reciprocally bound for each others' debts, forms a strong connection among them. When a man dies, his effects descend to his children in equal shares. The Sumatran code admits of a pecuniary compensation for murder, on which account their laws take no cognizance of the distinction between a wilful murder and what we term manslaughter. Corporeal punishment of any kind is rare. All gaming is rigorously prohibited by the laws, though these laws are often broken; and theft is punished by the restoration of double the value of the goods stolen, and a fine, in addition, of 28 dollars. Assaults, violences, and even murders, are all compensated by fines, increasing in proportion to the enormity of the offence. The place of the greatest solemnity for administering an oath, is the burying ground of their ancestors; and they have certain reliques, or swearing apparatus, which they produce, on important occasions. These generally consist of an old broken creese, a broken gun barrel, some copper bullets, or any thing else to which chance or caprice has annexed the idea of extraordinary virtue. These they generally dip in water, which the person who swears drinks off, after pronouncing a form of words. At Manna the relique most venerated is a gun barrel, which, when produced to be sworn on, is carried to the spot wrapt up in silk, and under an umbrella. The Sumatran, impressed with the idea of invisible powers, but not of his own immortality, regards with awe the supposed instruments of their agency, and swears on creeses, bullets, and gun barrels, weapons of personal destruction. The right of slavery is established in Sumatra, as it is throughout the east, and has been all over the world: yet but few instances occur of the country people actually having slaves; though they are common enough in the Malayan or sea-port towns. Their domestics and labourers are either dependent relations, or insolvent debtors. The simple manners of the people require that their servants should live, in a great measure, on a footing of equality with the rest of the family, which is inconsistent with the authority necessary to be maintained over slaves. At Bencoolen, the East India Company have a body of negro slaves, who are said to be humanely treated, to be well clothed and well fed, and not to

be overworked. These hold the natives of the island in great contempt, have an antipathy to them, and enjoy any occasion of doing them mischief: the Sumatrans, on the other hand, consider the negroes merely as devils half humanized.

The inhabitants of Sumatra are rather below the middle size; their limbs are, for the most part, slight, but well shaped, and particularly small at the wrists and ancles. The women follow the preposterous custom of flattening the noses and compressing the skulls of children newly born, and also pull out the ears of the infants to make them stand at an angle with the head. The males destroy their beards, and keep their chins remarkably smooth. Their complexion is properly yellow, wanting the red tinge that constitutes a tawny or copper colour. The females of the upper classes not exposed to the rays of the sun, approach to a degree of fairness. Persons of superior rank encourage the growth of their hand nails to an extraordinary length; the hands of the natives generally, and even those of the half breed, are always cold. The inland natives are superior in size and strength to the Malays on the coast, and possess also fairer complexions. Among the hills, the inhabitants are subject to monstrous wens or goitres on the throat. Both sexes have the extraordinary custom of filing and disfiguring their teeth, which are naturally very white and beautiful, from the simplicity of their food. Many, particularly the women of the Lampong country, have their teeth rubbed down even with their gums; others have them formed into points, while some file off no more than the outer extremities, and then blacken them with the empyreumatic oil of the cocoa-nut shell. The great men set their teeth in gold, by casing with a plate of that metal the under row; which ornament, contrasted with the black dye, has by candle light a very splendid effect. It is sometimes indented to the shape of their teeth, but more usually is quite plain, and it is not removed either to sleep or eat. The original clothing of the Sumatrans is the same with that found by navigators among the South Sea islands, and in Europe generally, called Otahaitan cloth. It is still used among the Rejangs as their working dress, but the country people now, in a great measure, conform to the costume of the Malays.

The dusuns, or villages of the Sumatrans, for the inhabitants are so few that they are not entitled to the name of towns, are always situated on the banks of a river or lake, for the convenience of bathing, and of transporting goods. Their buildings are of wood and bamboos, covered with palm leaves. The frames of the houses rest on stout wooden pillars, about six or eight feet in height, and are ascended to by a piece of stout bamboo cut into notches. Detached buildings in the country are raised 10 or 12 feet from the ground, as security against tigers. The furniture is extremely simple, and neither knives nor forks are required, as in eating they take up the rice and other victuals between the thumb and fingers, and throw it into the mouth by the action of the thumb.

The manners of the Sumatran women are in general pure and unexceptionable. They are brought up in the strictest reserve and chastity. Polygamy is permitted among them; but it is rarely practised, except among the great, the lower classes being debarred by their poverty from all indulgence of their irregular inclinations. Their contracts of marriage are intricate in the extreme; and it is chiefly owing to this circumstance that legal disputes are so common among them. A wife is obtained by various modes of purchase; and when the full sum is paid, the female becomes to all intents and purposes the slave of the husband, who may at any time sell her, making only the first offer to her relations. The debts due for these sales constitute, in fact, the chief part of their riches; and a person is reckoned in good circumstances who has several due to him for his daughters, sisters, aunts, and great aunts. Prostitution is unknown in the interior, being confined to the more polite bazars on the sea coast, where there is usually a concourse of sailors and other strangers. Adultery is punishable by fine, but the crime is rare, and law suits on the subject still less frequent. The husband, it is probable, either conceals his shame, or revenges it with

his own hand. In the Lampong country, which is in the western extreme of the island, the manners are more licentious than those of any other native Sumatrans. An extraordinary liberty of intercourse is allowed between the young people of different sexes, and the loss of female chastity is not a very uncommon consequence. The offence is there, however, more lightly thought of, and instead of punishing the parties, as in Passumah and elsewhere, they prudently endeavour to conclude a legal match between them. The country is best inhabited in the central and mountainous parts, where the people live independent, and in some measure secure from the inroads of their eastern neighbours, the Javans, who, from about Palembang and the straits, frequently attempt to molest them. It is probably within but a very few centuries that the south-west coast of this country has been the habitation of any considerable number of people; and it has been still less visited by strangers, owing to the unsheltered nature of the sea thereabouts, and want of soundings, in general, which renders the navigation dangerous for country vessels; and to the rivers being small and rapid, with shallow bars, and almost ever a high surf. If you ask the people of these parts from whence they originally came, they answer, from the hills, and point out an inland place near the great lake, from whence, they say, their forefathers emigrated; and further than this, it is impossible to trace. They, of all the Sumatrans, have the strongest resemblance to the Chinese, particularly in the roundness of face, and constructure of the eyes. They are also the fairest people of the island, and the women are the tallest, and esteemed the most handsome.

All ranks are most passionately addicted to gaming. Besides the common method of gambling with dice, they have a practice of playing with small shells, which are taken up by handfuls, and being counted out by a given number at a time (generally that of the party engaged), the success is determined by the fractional number remaining, the amount of which is previously guessed at by each of the party. They have also various games on chequered boards or other delineations; and persons of superior rank are in general versed in the game of chess. They are even to a greater degree addicted to cock-fighting; and when they are in affluent circumstances, their propensity to it is so great, that it resembles rather a serious occupation than a sport. A countryman coming down, on any occasion, to the bazar, or settlement at the mouth of the river, if he boast the least degree of spirit, must not be unprovided with this token of it. They often game high at their meetings; particularly when a superstitious faith in the invincibility of their bird has been strengthened by past success. An hundred Spanish dollars is no very uncommon risk; and instances have occurred of a father staking his children or wife, and a son his mother or sisters, on the issue of a battle, when a run of ill luck has stripped him of property, and rendered him desperate. Quarrels, attended with dreadful consequences, have often arisen on these occasions. The Malay breed of cocks is much esteemed by connoisseurs who have had an opportunity of trying them. Great pains is taken in rearing and feeding them. The artificial spur used in Sumatra resembles in shape the blade of a scimitar, and proves a more destructive weapon than the European spur. It has no socket, but is tied to the leg, and in the position of it the nicety of the match is regulated. As in horse-racing, weight is proportioned to inches, so in cocking, a bird of superior weight and size is brought to an equality with his adversary, by fixing the steel spur so many scales of the leg above the natural spur, and thus obliging him to fight with a degree of disadvantage. It rarely happens that both cocks survive the combat. In the northern parts of the island, where gold-dust is the common medium of gambling, as well as of trade, so much is accidentally dropt in weighing and delivering, that at some cock-pits, where the resort of people is great, the sweepings are said, probably with exaggeration, to be worth upwards of a thousand dollars per annum to the owner of the ground, beside his profit of five-pence for each battle. In some places they match quails, in the manner of

cocks. These fight with great inveteracy, and endeavour to seize each other by the tongue. The Acheenese bring also into combat the dial bird, which resembles a small magpie, but has an agreeable, though imperfect note. These sometimes engage one another on the wing, and drop to the ground in the struggle. The Malays have other diversions of a more innocent nature. Matches of fencing, or a species of tournament, are exhibited on particular days; as at the breaking up of their annual fast, or month of *ramadan*, called there the *puasa*. The Sumatrans, and more particularly the Malays, are much attached, in common with the eastern nations, to the practice of smoking opium.

The native Sumatran of the interior differs in some respects from the Malay of the coast, being mild, peaceable, and forbearing, unless when roused by violent provocation. He is temperate and sober, his diet being mostly vegetable, and his only beverage water. Their hospitality is very great, with very simple manners; and they are, in general, except among the chiefs, devoid of the Malay cunning and chicane. On the other hand, they are litigious, indolent, addicted to gaming, dishonest in their dealings with strangers, which they consider as no moral defect, regardless of truth, mean, servile, and though cleanly in their persons, filthy in their apparel, which they never wash. They are careless and improvident of the future, and make no advances in improving their condition. The Macassars and Buggesses who come annually from Celebes in their prows to trade at Sumatra, are looked up to by the Sumatrans and Malays as their superiors in manners. They also derive part of the respect paid to them from the richness of their cargoes, and the spirit with which they spend the produce in gaming, cock-fighting, and smoking opium.

Scarcely any traces now remain of the ancient religion of the Rejangs (the Sumatran race with which we are best acquainted), if they ever had any. There prevails, in general, a gross ignorance on this subject; and though Mahometanism be generally professed, many of its converts give themselves not the least trouble about its injunctions, or even know what it requires. There is no public or private form of worship of any kind, neither prayers, processions, meetings, offerings, images, nor priests. They neither (says Marsden) worshipped God, devil, nor idol. They are not, however, without superstitious beliefs of many kinds, and have certainly a confused notion, though perhaps derived from their intercourse with other people, of some species of superior beings, who have the power of rendering themselves visible or invisible at pleasure. No attempts have been ever made at any time to convert the inhabitants of this island to Christianity.

SUMAÜN, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra, and district of Etawah, belonging to the British. Lat. 27. 6. N. long. 79. 5. E.

SUMAURA, an island formed by a large arm of the river Amazons.

SUMBAWA, a large island in the Eastern seas, extending about 200 miles in the parallel of 9 degrees south lat. and separated from the island of Lombock by the straits of Allas. It is about 40 miles in average breadth.

This island is divided into the different districts of Beema, Dompoo, Tambora, Sangur, Pekat, and Sumbawa, all governed by their respective chiefs, who were formerly all either allies of the Dutch East India Company, or under their protection, with the exception of the one last mentioned. Near the north-east end of the island, on a fine bay, which stretches seven or eight leagues south, is situated the town of Beema, remarkable for its excellent harbour, the sides of which are bold and high, and the approach safe; but the passage through is sometimes attended with inconvenience, from the strong current that generally prevails, and the great depth of water; as a hundred fathom line, though close in shore, will hardly reach the bottom. When, therefore, ships cannot pass through, they are obliged, for the want of anchorage, to return to sea, and there wait for a more favourable wind. The batteries erected on each side of the entrance, and opposite to one another, are no longer capable

of defence, and are, in fact, gone to ruin. The channel, in some places, is only 150 or 200 yards across; but there is no danger whatever in the passage; and a ship of the line may sail along either side within thirty yards of the rocky mountains. These give a grand and picturesque appearance to the channel, which terminates in a safe and commodious basin, presenting one of the finest harbours in the world, both for capaciousness and security; extending a considerable way inland, and encompassed by lofty mountains. On the east side of this bay stands the town of Beema. The landing here is very unfavourable, owing to a mud-bank, which extends three quarters of a mile from the town. The sultan of Beema is named Abdul Ahmed; and the population is computed to be 80,000. The island furnishes sappan wood, rice, horses, saltpetre, sulphur, wax, birds'-nests, tobacco, &c., though there is but little trade carried on now at this place. The island, however, has means of great improvement, and would be highly productive, if the inhabitants could be roused to exertion, and their labour turned to industry and agriculture. The number of horses annually exported under the appellation of Beema horses, is very considerable. The finest of these are procured from the small island of Gonong Api, situated at the north-east end of Beema harbour, about three or four miles from Sumbawa point, and forming the west side of the north entrance of Sapy straits. It is a large volcanic mountain, which terminates in two high peaks, and the soil is of great fertility. Another volcanic mountain on the north coast of Sumbawa, is said to be responsive to that of Gonong Api; an explosion of the latter being immediately answered by an eruption from the former; for which reason the inhabitants of Gonong Api are looked upon with a superstitious veneration by those of Sumbawa. The great depth of water here makes it dangerous for vessels, except prows, to approach the shore sufficiently near to find anchorage. Ships may be plentifully supplied with refreshments, as buffaloes, calves, sheep, fruit, and vegetables, both at Beema and the town of Sumbawa. This last place is situated on a large bay, open to the north and north-west, and a good harbour stretches inland, between the reefs at the west side of the entrance. Sumbawa is about 100 miles to the westward of Beema, and is governed by a chief denominated a rajah, whose name is Mahomed, but subject to the authority of the sultan. Tambora is the place mostly resorted to by the dealers in horses. Gold-dust is found in Sumbawa, particularly in the district of Dompoo, which also supplies teak-timber, and is the best cultivated district in the island. Pearls are fished for in the large bay to the westward of Beema bay, as also at Pekat.

SUMBHOONAUT, a town of Northern Hindostan, province of Nepaul. It owes its prosperity to a very celebrated temple, containing the sacred fire, reported to have been preserved there from time immemorial. It is a very ancient place, and said to have been built at a period when Nepaul was subject to the lama of Thibet. It is situated on the terrace of a lofty hill, and is distinguished at a great distance by the spires or turrets, which are covered with gilt copper. This temple is annually visited by innumerable pilgrims from Bootan and Thibet, and is a source of considerable revenue to the Nepaul government. Lat. 27. 33. N. long. 85. 38. E.

SUMBHULPORE, a district of Hindostan, province of Gundwanah, situated between the 21st and 22d degrees of northern latitude. It is a mountainous and woody country, and the climate very unfavourable to foreigners. The soil in the valleys is a rich loam, which produces sugar, cotton, and all kinds of grain; and in the mountains both gold and diamonds are found. But it is an acknowledged fact, that an equal extent of arable land would be more beneficial to the state. The diamonds are for the most part found in the rivers Hebe and Mahanuddy. As soon as the floods have subsided, the people employed in this business explore the beds of these rivers, for lumps of red earth which have been washed down from the mountains by the rains, and in which diamonds are frequently discovered. The gold is found in
the

the smaller streams, and is discovered by washing the sand. The tracks in which both are found are farmed out annually by the rajah. The inhabitants of this territory are all Hindoos, but are not possessed of those amiable qualities for which, in some other places, they are celebrated.

The district of Sumbhulpore constituted part of the ancient kingdom of Gurrah. It was overrun by the Mogul armies of Aurungzebe, and the rajah compelled to pay tribute; but on the decline of the Mogul empire, it again became independent, and continued so till about the middle of the last century, when it was once more laid waste by the Nagpore Mahrattas, and again reduced to the humiliating condition of a tributary state. During the war between the British and the Mahrattas in 1803, the former took possession of several of the pergunnahs or parishes which adjoined their territories, and still retain them, to the great comfort and satisfaction of the inhabitants.

SUMBHULPORE, the capital of the above mentioned district, and residence of the rajah Jonjar Singh. It is situated on the eastern bank of the Mahanuddy river. Lat. 21. 33. N. long. 83. 47. E.

SUMBUL, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, district of Bareilly, and capital of a small district of the same name. During the period the Rohillas were masters of that country, Sumbul was the residence of one of their chiefs, and a flourishing town. It is situated on the western side of the Yarvufadur river. Lat. 28. 38. N. long. 78. 32. E.

SUMBURGH HEAD, the southern promontory of the mainland of Shetland.

SUMEH, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 24 miles north of Magnesia.

SUMELIBENI, a village of Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 27 miles south of Cairo.

SUMENE, a small town in the south of France, in the department of the Gard. It has 2900 inhabitants, who manufacture silks and cottons; 4 miles east of Le Vigan, and 18 south-west of Alais.

SUMIDOURO, a river of Brazil, in the province of Matto Grosso. Its source is a short distance from that of the Syptotuba, a large western branch of the Paraguay, with which there is a communication. It falls into the Arinos, a western branch of the Tapayos.

SUMLESS, *adj.* Not to be computed.

Above, beneath, around the palace shines,
The *sunless* treasure of exhausted mines.

Pope.

SUMMAH, a village of Algiers, in the province of Constantina; 12 miles south-south-east of Constantina.

SUMMARILY, *adv.* Briefly; the shortest way.—The decalogue of Moses declareth *summarily* those things which we ought to do; the prayer of our Lord, whatsoever we should request or desire. *Hooker.*

SUMMARO, one of the Aland islands, in the Baltic, situated to the south-east of the principal one. Lat. 59. 58. N. long. 20. 5. E.

SUMMARY, *adj.* [*sommaire*, Fr.] Short; brief; compendious.

The judge
Directed them to mind their brief,
Nor spend their time to shew their reading,
She'd have a *summary* proceeding.

Swift.

SUMMARY, *s.* Compendium; abstract; abridgement. We are enforc'd from our most quiet sphere
By the rough torrent of occasion;
And have the *summary* of all our griefs,
When time shall serve, to shew in articles.

Shakspeare.

SUMMER, *s.* One who casts up an account; a reckoner. *Unused.*

SUMMER, *s.* [*jumei*, Saxon; *somer*, Dutch.] The season in which the sun arrives at the hither solstice.

Sometimes hath the brightest day a cloud;
And, after *summer*, evermore succeeds
The barren winter with his nipping cold.

Shakspeare.

[*Trabs summaria.*] The principal beam of a floor.—Oak, and the like true hearty timber, may be better trusted in cross and transverse works for *summers*, or girders, or binding beams. *Wotton.*

To SUMMER, *v. n.* To pass the summer.—The fowls shall *summer* upon them, and all the beasts shall winter upon them. *Isaiah.*

To SUMMER, *v. a.* To keep warm.—Maids well *summer'd*, and warm kept, are like flies at Bartholomew-tide, blind, though they have their eyes. *Shakspeare.*

SUMMERBY, a village of England, in Lincolnshire, near Glandford Bridge.

SUMMERCOTES, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 2 miles south-east-by-south of Alfreton.

SUMMERFIELD, a post village of the United States, in Guilford county, North Carolina.

SUMMERFORD, RADNOR, a village of England, in Cheshire, near Congleton.

SUMMERHOUSE, *s.* An apartment in a garden used in the summer.

With here a fountain, never to be play'd,

And there a *summerhouse*, that knows no shade. *Pope.*

SUMMERHOUSE, a hamlet of England, in Durham; 6½ miles north-west-by-west of Darlington.

SUMMERSAULT, or SUMMERSET, *s.* [See SOMERSET.] A high leap, in which the heels are thrown over the head.

Some do the *summersault*,

And o'er the bar like tumblers vault.

Hudibras.

SUMMERSET. See SOMERSET.

SUMMIST, *s.* One who forms an abridgement. *Unused.*

SUMMISWALD, a village in the west of Switzerland; 12 miles west of Berne.

SUMMIT, *s.* [*summitas*, Lat.] The top; the utmost height.

Ætna's heat, that makes the *summit* glow,

Enriches all the vales below.

Swift.

SUMMITY, *s.* [*summitas*, Lat.] The height or top of any thing.—This quarrel began about a small spot of ground upon one of the two tops of the hill Parnassus:—therefore they offered—that the ancients would please to remove themselves and their effects down to the lower *summit*. *Swift.*

To SUMMON, *v. a.* [*summono*, Lat.] To call with authority; to admonish to appear; to cite.

Catesby, sound lord Hastings,

And *summon* him to-morrow to the Tower. *Shakspeare.*

To excite; to call up; to raise: with *up* emphatical.

When the blast of war blows in our ears,

Stiffen the sinews, *summon up* the blood.

Shakspeare.

SUMMONER, *s.* [See SOMNER. Chaucer writes it *sompnour*, and others *sumner*. See Phillips's Dict.] One who cites; one who summons.

Close pent-up guilts

Rive your concealing continents, and ask

These dreadful *summoners* grace.

Shakspeare.

SUMMONS, *s.* [from the law-writ called a *summonas*. See Pegge's Anecd. of the Engl. Lang., 2d edit. p. 173.] A call of authority; admonition to appear; citation.

The sons of light

Hasted, resorting to the *summons* high,

And took their seats.

Milton.

SUMNAUT, a sea-port town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, and district of Puttun, on which account it is called Puttun Sumnaut, to distinguish it from the Temple of Somnauth, in the island of Diu. It is a place of considerable consequence, is defended by a stone citadel, and possesses a temple held in high estimation by the Hindoos. It has lately been conquered by the Rajpoot chief of Sorut. Lat. 20. 57. N. long. 70. 23. E.

SUMNER, a post township of the United States, in Oxford

ford

ford county, Maine; 170 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 611.

SUMNER, a county of the United States, in the north side of West Tennessee. Population 13,792, including 3734 slaves. The chief town is Gallatin.

SUMNUM, a small town of Persia, in the western part of the province of Korassan. It is the capital of a rich district, containing fifty villages, and bounded on the north by Mount Elbourz, and on the south by the Great Salt desert.

SUMOOKGUR, an ancient fortress of Bengal, situated on the eastern bank of the Hoogly river, about 27 miles north of Calcutta, but now in ruins. There is no tradition by whom it was built.

SUMOROKOF (Alexander), the founder of the Russian theatre, was the son of Peter Sumorokof, a Russian nobleman, and born at Moscow in the year 1727. And under the patronage of count Ivan Shuvelof, he was introduced to the empress Elizabeth. At the age of 29 he composed his first tragedy, intitled "Koref." This was exhibited at the court-theatre, and the applause it gained induced the writer to proceed in the same career, till he had produced nine tragedies, several comedies, and some operas. In his tragedies, Racine was his model; and though he fell short of the perfection of his exemplar, he was in many instances a successful imitator of his excellencies. His comedies possessed humour, but were deficient in purity. Sumorokof, also wrote love songs, idyllia, fables, satires, anacreontics, elegies, versions of the Psalms, and Pindaric odes. He died at Moscow in October, 1777, in the 51st year of his age.

SUMPTER, *s.* [*somnier*, Fr.; *somaro*, Ital.] A horse that carries the clothes or furniture.

Return with her!

Persuade me rather to be a slave and *sumpter*
To this detested groom.

Shakspeare.

SUMPTER, a district of South Carolina, east of the Santee. Population 19,054, including 11,538 slaves.

SUMPTION, *s.* [*sumptus*, Lat.] The act of taking. *Not in use.*—The *sumption* of the mysteries does all in a capable subject. *Bp. Taylor.*

SUMPTUARY, *adj.* [*sumptuarius*, Lat.] Relating to expence; regulating the cost of life.—To remove that material cause of sedition, which is want and poverty in the estate, serveth the opening and well-balancing of trade, the banishing of idleness, the repressing of waste and excess of *sumptuary* laws. *Bacon.*

SUMPTUOSITY, *s.* Expensiveness; costliness. *Not used.*—He added *sumptuosity*, invented jewels of gold and stone, and some engines for the war. *Raleigh.*

SUMPTUOUS, *adj.* [*sumptuosus*, from *sumpsus*, Lat.] Costly; expensive; splendid.—We see how most Christians stood then affected, how joyful they were to behold the *sumptuous* stateliness of houses built unto God's glory. *Hooker.*

SUMPTUOUSLY, *adv.* Expensively; with great cost. This monument five hundred years hath stood,
Which I have *sumptuously* re-edified.

Shakspeare.

Splendidly.—A good employment will make you live tolerably in London, or *sumptuously* here. *Swift.*

SUMPTUOUSNESS, *s.* Expensiveness; costliness.—I will not fall out with those that can reconcile *sumptuousness* and charity. *Boyle.*

SUMRAH, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Tripoli, the ancient *Simusa*; 18 miles north-east of Tripoli.

SUMSKOE-OSTROG, a small town of the north-west of European Russia, in the government of Olonetz, at the mouth of the river Sura; 70 miles south-by-east of Kemi. Population 1100.

SUMTERSVILLE, a post village of the United States in Claremont county, South Carolina.

SUMY, a large town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Charkov, on the river Psol. It is surrounded with a wall and ditch, and farther defended by an old citadel. Like other Russian towns, it is built chiefly of wood, and wretchedly paved; but it contains several chari-

table institutions, and public depôts and warehouses, is the chief place of a circle, and has 11,000 inhabitants. Agriculture, in one shape or another, whether gardening, tillage, or pasturage, forms the chief employment of the inhabitants of this town and neighbourhood, for the only manufacture is the distilling of spirits. The traffic of the place is considerable, but transactions on a large scale are, in a great measure, confined to four annual fairs, where a number both of Greek and Russian merchants attend for the disposal of foreign commodities; 90 miles north-west of Charkov. Lat. 50. 54. N. long. 35. 6. E.

SUN, *s.* [*Junna*, Junne, Sax.] The luminary that makes the day.

Doth beauty keep which never *sun* can burn,
Nor storms do turn?

Sidney.

A sunny place; a place eminently warmed by the sun.—Yonder bank hath choice of *sun* and shade. *Milton.*—Any thing eminently splendid.—I will never consent to put out the *sun* of sovereignty to posterity, and all succeeding kings. *King Charles.*—*Under the SUN.* In the world. *A proverbial expression.*—There is no new thing *under the sun.* *Eccl.*

To SUN, *v. a.* To isolate; to expose to the sun; to warm in the sun.

The cry to shady delve him brought at last,
Where Mammon earst did *sun* his treasury.

Spenser.

SUNAPER, a lake of the United States, in New Hampshire, in the township of Fisherfield, Wendell, and New London. It is 11 miles long, and 1½ broad. Little Sunapee; 2 miles long, lies north-east of it, in New London.

SUNAPEE, a mountain of the United States, in New Hampshire, south of Sunapee lake.

SUNART, LOCH, a navigable inlet of the sea, between the counties of Argyle and Inverness, in Scotland, about 20 miles long, and from 1½ to 2 miles broad. It is also the name given to the district bordering on the loch.

SUN-BEAM, *s.* [*Junnebeam*, Sax.] The old poets have usually placed the accent on the last syllable.] Ray of the sun.

The Roman eagle, wing'd

From the spungy south to this part of the west,
Vanish'd in the *sun-beams*.

Shakspeare.

SUN-BEAT, *part. adj.* Shone on fiercely by the sun.

Its length runs level with the Atlantic main,
And wearies fruitful Nilus to convey
His *sun-beat* waters by so long a way.

Dryden.

SUNBINGEN TARN, or LAKE, a small lake of England, in Westmoreland, which abounds with eels, and in which are bred vast quantities of red trout, like char. The adjoining moors abound with grouse and moor game.

SUN-BRIGHT, *adj.* Resembling the sun in brightness.

Gathering up himself out of the mire,
With his uneven wings did fiercely fall
Upon his *sun-bright* shield.

Spenser.

SUN-BURNING, *s.* The effect of the sun upon the face.—If thou cant love a fellow of this temper, Kate, whose face is not worth *sun-burning*, let thine eye be thy cook. *Shakspeare*

SUN BURNT, *part. adj.* Tanned; discoloured by the sun.

Where such radiant lights have shone,
No wonder if her cheeks be grown
Sun-burnt with lustre of her own.

Cleveland.

Scorched by the sun.

How many nations of the *sun-burnt* soil
Does Niger bless; how many drink the Nile? *Blackmore.*

SUNBURY, a parish of England, in Middlesex, situated on the banks of the Thames; 18 miles west-south-west of St. Paul's, London. Population 1655.

SUNBURY, a borough and post township of the United States, and capital of Northumberland county, Pennsylvania,

on the Susquehanna, 1 mile below the junction of the east and west branches. It is regularly laid out, and contains a court-house, a jail, and a Presbyterian and Lutheran church. Population 790; 122 miles north-west-by-west of Philadelphia.

SUNBURY, a seaport and post township of the United States, in Liberty county, Georgia, at the head of St. Catharine's sound; 42 miles south-south-west of Savannah. The harbour is safe and commodious, and the situation of the town is pleasant and healthy. It contains an academy, and is the resort of planters from the adjacent country during the sickly season.

SUNCHILI, a mountain of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, in the district of Laricaxas, celebrated as having been the situation of a gold mine, which was discovered in 1709, and was worked with immense profit till 1756, when it was inundated by a spring which suddenly burst into it.

SUN-CLAD, *part. adj.* Clothed in radiance; bright.

To him, that dares

Arm his profane tongue with contemptuous words
Against the *sun-clad* power of Chastity,
Fain would I something say.

Milton.

SUNCOOK, a river of the United States, in New Hampshire, which runs south-west into the Merrimack; 7 miles below Concord.

SUNDA, **STRAITS OF**, the arm of the sea which separates the large islands of Sumatra and Java. It is known to Europeans by this name; by the Malays it is termed Sunda Kalapa. The length of this channel taken from the flat point to Varkens or Hog point, is about 70 miles, and on the opposite coast, from Java head to Bantam point, about 90. In the mouth of the straits lies Prince's island, by the situation of which two passages are formed; one between Prince's island and Java, which is made use of, for the most part, by ships which have to pass the straits during the south-east monsoon, in order that, sailing close in with the Java shore, they may soon get within anchoring depth, and escape all danger of being driven to sea with the currents, which at that time of the year set strongly out of the straits to the westward. The other passage, which is called by seamen the Great Channel, sometimes also serves as an entrance to the straits during the south-east monsoon, but it is with the greatest difficulty, and after continual struggling with the south-easterly winds and the current, that this can be effected. In the narrowest part of the straits, and opposite to Hog's point, on Sumatra, lies an island, that, on account of its situation, has been called Thwart the Way, or Middle isle. A strong current runs through the passage on both sides of this island during the whole year, setting with the prevailing easterly or westerly winds, either to the north-east or south-west. The chief islands in the straits of Sunda are Prince's isle, Krakatau, Thwart the Way, and Pulo Baby. The others are very small and insignificant, mostly level, founded on beds of coral, and covered with trees. A few have steep naked sides, and at a little distance resemble old castles, mouldering into ruins, but, on a nearer view, appear to be of volcanic origin. The Dutch East India Company claim an absolute sovereignty over the straits of Sunda, but it never has been, in any respect, enforced. These pretensions originate from the circumstance of their superiority over the land on each side; Bantam on the Java shore, and Lampong on that of Sumatra.

SUN'DAY, *s.* [ˈsʌnˌdaɪ, Sax.; *the day of the sun.*] The day anciently dedicated to the sun; the first day of the week; the sabbath.—If thou wilt needs thrust thy neck into a yoke, wear the print of it, and sigh away *Sundays*. *Shakespeare.*

SUNDAY ISLAND, a small island on the east coast of New Holland, discovered by Captain Bligh in 1789. Lat. 11. 58. S.

SUNDBURG, a fortress in the south-west of Sweden, in the province of Bahus, on the Swynesund, a bay to the north of Gottenburg.

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SUNDEELA, a town of Hindoostan, province of Oude, and district of Lucknow. Lat. 27. 5. N. long. 80. 30. E.

SUNDEEP, an island of Bengal, situated at the mouth of the eastern or great branch of the river Ganges. It is about 20 miles in length by 10 in breadth. The soil is fertile, and affords excellent pasture for cattle, and might easily be rendered of much more value than it is at present; but the same reasons which have hitherto induced the British not to cultivate Sagur, apply equally to this island, and it is chiefly used as the station of one of the government factories in the manufacture of sea salt, being an appendage of the Chittagong agency. Ships may safely approach it on all sides but the north, where the passage between it and Boming is reckoned dangerous. The town is situated on the north bank of a river or creek called Sittal, and stands about a mile from the western shore. The entrance to the river is safe, and at the distance of a mile inland has four fathoms water even at ebb tide. It possesses also good anchorage where ships might remain in safety during the adverse monsoon; but the climate is unfavourable to Europeans. Towards the end of the sixteenth century, a number of Portuguese were settled on the coasts of Arracan and Chittagong. Many of these had entered into the service of the native princes, and from their knowledge of maritime affairs, and desperate bravery, had risen to considerable commands, and had obtained extensive grants of land both on the continent and adjacent islands. Turbulent or treacherous conduct of these adventurers having, in the year 1607, given offence to the rajah of Arracan, he determined to extirpate them from his dominions. Many were in consequence put to death, but a number of them escaped in their vessels, to the islands at the mouth of the Ganges, where for some time they lived by piracy, and having elected a person named Sebastian Gonzales to be their chief, took possession of the island of Sundeep. His countryman, and some converts to Christianity joined his standard, and in a few years he had collected an army of 3000 men, and 80 small vessels of war, with which force he took possession of all the neighbouring islands. After a turbulent career of nine years, he was defeated by the rajah of Arracan, who took possession of the island, and retained it till the year 1666, when it was conquered by a Mogul army sent from Dacca by the nabob Shaista Khan, and, with the rest of the province, came into possession of the British. The town is situated in Lat. 22. 25. N. long. 91. 36. E.

To **SUN'DER**, *v. a.* [ˈsʌndə, Sax.] To part; to separate; to divide.—It is *sundered* from the main land by a sandy plain. *Carew.*

SUN'DER, *s.* [ˈsʌndə, Sax.] Two; two parts.—He breaketh the bow, and cutteth the spear in *sunder*. *Psalms.*

SUNDERBERG, or **SONDERBORG**, a small town of Denmark, in the island of Alsen. It has a castle and an hospital, and contains a population of 2700. Its harbour is accounted one of the best in Denmark, and has belonging to it about 60 vessels, great and small. In the castle at this place Christian II., king of Denmark, was confined as a prisoner for 13 years; 16 miles east-north-east of Flensborg. Lat. 54. 56. N. long. 9. 49. E.

SUNDERBUNDS, or **CHUNDERBUND**, an extensive and woody district of Bengal, situated in the Delta of the Ganges and intersected by innumerable rivers or creeks, all of which are salt, and through the whole track nothing but brackish water is to be found. It is therefore, generally speaking, uninhabited, except by deer and tigers: even the birds seem to have abandoned this inhospitable territory, as not one is to be seen till you approach one of the few scattered villages which are mostly situated at the junction of two of the most frequented rivers, and are supplied with fresh water by the passing boats. The navigation through the Sunderbunds is, however, extremely romantic, and well worth seeing once. There are pilots who are well acquainted with all its intricacies, and who conduct the boats through with great safety. Instances have occurred of tigers jumping into, or swimming to boats, and carrying off some of the crew, but they are

very rare. This route is seldom taken as a matter of choice; but boats coming down the country to Calcutta in the hot season, are obliged to come through the Sunderbunds. The boats also from Chittagong and Arracan come through them in all seasons of the year; and during the dry weather salt-makers and wood cutters reside here, and follow their respective occupations, though at the great risk of their lives. It is observable, that none of the trees are of a great size, nor afford valuable timber. They are, however, extremely useful to Calcutta and other European towns on the Bhaggarutty river, by yielding them an inexhaustible supply of firewood. Some attempts have been made to bring parts of the Sunderbunds into cultivation, but with little success, as the want of fresh water must always prove a great obstacle. In a political point of view the Sunderbunds are esteemed of much utility, as forming a strong barrier towards the south, there being only three of the rivers accessible by ships.

SUNDERBURGER-SUND. See **ALSINGSUND.**

SUNDERLAND, a large and populous market-town and sea-port of England, in the county of Durham. It is situated near the mouth of the Wear, on the south bank of the river. It is joined to the town of Monk Wearmouth, on the opposite side, by a famous iron bridge; so that the whole, including Bishop Wearmouth, forms one connected town, which extends about a mile and a half in length, and about one mile (the river Wear included) in breadth. The High-street is spacious, and tolerably handsome, especially the central part, which rises with a considerable ascent. Some of the other streets which branch off from this are narrow and dirty; but of late years many improvements have been made, in widening, repairing, and lighting the streets; and the general appearance of the town has, in consequence, been greatly improved. Of its public buildings, the church is a spacious and handsome edifice. The east end has a very light and elegant appearance, the altar being placed in a circular recess, surmounted by a dome. This building proving too small for the increasing population of the town, a spacious and elegant chapel of ease was erected in 1769; and the town contains, besides, a large and handsome chapel for the Methodists, and meeting-houses for the Presbyterians, Independents, Baptists, Quakers, and Unitarians. Several benevolent institutions exist in different parts of the town, particularly a dispensary established in 1794; a humane society, begun about the year 1790; a charity for decayed seamen and seamen's widows; a school for girls, founded about the year 1778; and a blue-coat school for boys. For the latter, a new school-house has been erected by subscription. The expense of education is chiefly defrayed by the money collected from communicants at the times of administering the sacrament. Here is also a charity school for boys, on the Lancasterian plan, and another at Bishop Wearmouth, on Bell's system. The exchange at Sunderland is a handsome building; and here is also an excellent public library, a large assembly-room, and a neat theatre. During the last war, very extensive and commodious barracks were erected on the moor on the east of the town. At a short distance to the south was formerly a chalybeate spring, said to be scarcely less powerful than that of Harrogate; but by the encroachment of the sea on the Town-moor, where it was situated, this has been entirely washed away. The harbour of Sunderland is formed by two piers, situated on the south and north sides of the river. That on the south side is of long standing, and has undergone several repairs, having been much damaged by the high flood in November 1771. The other has been constructed since the year 1788, and forms a capital improvement in the harbour. Before this period, the navigation of the river was much impeded for want of a sufficient depth of water to admit ships of large burden with their cargoes, so that they were obliged to take in part of their lading in the open road. This inconvenience is now, in a great measure, removed. The northern pier, by narrowing the river, gives the ebbing tide greater force to clear away the bar of sand which is apt to form at the entrance of the harbour. The tide now flows 16 feet, and admits vessels of 300 or 400 tons

burden. Near the extremity of the northern pier an elegant light-house has been erected, which was finished in 1802. The iron bridge of Sunderland is justly regarded as the greatest curiosity in this part of the country, and is deserving of attention, both as a magnificent work of art, and as being among the first of the kind ever erected. It consists of an arch of iron frame-work, thrown over the river, 237 feet span, and rising 100 feet above the level of the water; so that ships even of 400 tons can sail under it, by only striking their top-gallant masts. The trade of Sunderland has been long on the increase, and during the last half century in particular, has advanced with great rapidity. Its imports are chiefly flour, wines, spirituous liquors, timber, tar, deals, flax, iron, &c. Coal is the staple article of export, and the coal trade furnishes employment for nearly 600 vessels, besides nearly 500 keels, which convey the coals from the coal-wharfs to the ships. The whole quantity of coals exported from Sunderland in the year 1820, was 421,061½ Newcastle chaldrons. The number of persons dependent on this trade is very great, and cannot be estimated at less than 20,000 or 30,000. Most of the coals go to the metropolis, and to different places along the eastern coast. Considerable quantities are also sent to the Baltic, and in time of peace to France and Holland. The other articles of export are lime, glass bottles, grindstones, and coppers. The lime is sent chiefly to the coasts of Yorkshire and Scotland. In the year 1814, no fewer than 8000 vessels cleared out from this port. The manufactures of Sunderland are chiefly those of flint and bottle glass, earthenware, coppers, coal, tar, patent ropes, &c. Ship-building is carried on to a great extent, and a greater number of vessels have been launched here of late years, than at any other part in the kingdom. Sunderland is a borough by prescription. In the year 1634, the burgesses and inhabitants were incorporated, by the title of mayor, 12 aldermen, and commonalty; but through the destruction and confusion incident to the civil wars which immediately followed, the charter was suffered to expire, no mayor or aldermen having ever been chosen to replace the first nominees. It sends no member to parliament. Population in 1811, 25,180; in this return seafaring men, and persons serving in the army, or old militia, were not included. The real population at present, including these, will not be short of 35,000. Market on Friday; 13 miles north-east of Durham, and 268 north of London. Lat. 54. 55. N., long. 0. 40. E.

SUNDERLAND, a village of England, in Cumberland, near Cockermouth.

SUNDERLAND, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Massachusetts, east of the Connecticut; 90 miles west of Boston. Population 551.

SUNDERLAND BRIDGE, a hamlet of England, county of Durham; 3½ miles south-south-west of Durham.

SUNDERLAND FORT, a fort of the island of Barbadoes; 1 mile north of Speights Town.

SUNDERLAND, NORTH, a township of England, in Northumberland; 6½ miles east-south-east of Belford. Population 528.

SUNDERLAND WICK, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles south-south-west of Great Driffield.

SUNDEW, *s.* An herb. *Ainsworth.*

SUNDHAUSEN, a village of the east of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, with 1000 inhabitants.

SUNDI, or **SOONDI**, a district of Congo, in Africa, on the upper part of the bank of the Zaire. It is rocky and barren.

SUNDIAL, *s.* A marked plate on which the shadow points the hour.—The body, though it really moves, yet not changing perceivable distance, seems to stand still; as is evident in the shadows of *sun-dials*. *Locke.*

SUNDON, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 5 miles north-west-by-north of Luton.

SUN-DRIED, *part. adj.* Dried by the heat of the sun.—The building is of *sun-dried* brick. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SUNDRISH, or **SUNDRIDGE**, a parish of England, in Kent;

Kent; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-by-north of Seven Oaks. Population 854.

SUNDRY, *adj.* [jʊndəp, Sax.; *sundr*, Goth., from *to sunder*. See also *ASUNDER*.] Several; more than one.—Not of one nation was it peopled, but of *sundry* people of different manners. *Spenser*.

How can a mirror *sundry* faces show,
If from all shapes and forms it be not clear? *Davies*.

SUNDSWALL, a small town of Middle Sweden, in the province of Medelpedia, on the gulf of Bothnia, surrounded by high hills. It is the only town in the province, consists of one broad street, but has a population of only 1500. The harbour is large and convenient. The chief trade is in timber and tar; also in linen; 20 miles south of Hernosand, and 185 north of Stockholm. Lat. 62. 22. 30. N. long. 17. 16. 30. E.

SUNDWICH, or **SUNDWIG**, a village of Prussian Westphalia, in the county of Mark, with manufactures of iron and brass-wire; 2 miles from Iserlohn.

SUNERAMPORE, a town of Bengal, district of Dacca. It is advantageously situated on the eastern branch of the Megna river, and carries on a considerable trade. Lat. 24. 5. N., long. 91. E.—There are several other places of this name in Hindostan, but none of consequence.

SUNERGONG. See **SOONERGONG**.

SUNFISH. See **TETRODON MOLA**.

SUNFISH CREEK, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which runs into the Ohio; 22 miles below Wheeling.

SUNFLEET POINT, a cape on the south coast of New Holland, in Spalding Cove, Port Lincoln.

SUN-FLOWER, *s.* A plant. See **HELIANTHEMUM**.

SUNG. The preterite and participle of *sing*.

A large rock then heaving from the plain,
He whirl'd it round, it *sung* across the main. *Pope*.

SUNGEI TENANG, a county in the interior of Sumatra, situated between the 2d and 3d degrees of south latitude. The access to this territory is extremely difficult, on account of the different ranges of high mountains, covered with forest trees and thick jungle, that intervene. It is bounded on the north-west by Korinchi and Serampe; on the west and south-west by the Anak Sungei, or Mocomoco and Ypu district; on the south by Laboon, and on the east by Bantang Asei and Pakalangjambu.

The general produce of the country is maize, padi, potatoes, sweet potatoes, tobacco, and sugar-cane; and the valleys on the whole are well cultivated. The principal part of the clothing is procured from the eastern part of the island. It is a practice with many individuals among these people (as with mountaineers in some parts of Europe) to leave their country, in order to seek employment where they can find it, and at the end of three or four years revisit their native soil, bringing with them the produce of their labours. If they happen to be successful, they become itinerant merchants, and travel to almost all parts of the island, particularly where fairs are held, or else purchase a matchlock-gun, and become soldiers of fortune, hiring themselves to whoever will pay them, but always ready to come forward in defence of their country and families. They are a thick, stout, dark race of people, something resembling the Acheenese; and in general they are addicted to smoking opium. The men are very fantastical in their dress. They commonly carry charms about their persons, to preserve them from accidents; one of which was shewn to Mr. Marsden, printed (at Batavia or Samarang in Java) in Dutch, Portuguese, and French. It purported that the writer was acquainted with the occult sciences, and that whoever possessed one of the papers impressed with his mark (which was the figure of a hand, with the thumb and fingers extended) was invulnerable and free from all kinds of harm. It desired the people to be very cautious of taking any such, printed in London (where, certainly, none were ever printed), as the English would endeavour to counterfeit them, and to impose on the purchasers, being all cheats. The houses are all built on posts. Every

village has a town-hall about 120 feet long, and broad in proportion, the wood-work of which is neatly carved. The dwelling-houses contain five, six, or seven families each, and the country is populous.

SUNIUM, the cape or promontory forming the southern extremity of Attica. Its bay is insignificant, and the chief curiosity is a ruined temple of Minerva, once adorned with exquisite sculpture, of which 15 columns are still standing. Its present name is Cape Colonna.

SUNK. The preterite and participle passive of *sink*.—We have large cavés: the deepest are *sunk* six hundred fathom, and some digged and made under great hills. *Bacon*.

SUN-LESS, *adj.* Wanting sun; wanting warmth.

He thrice happy on the *sun-less* side,
Beneath the whole collected shade reclines. *Thomson*.

SUNLIKE, *adj.* Resembling the sun.

She came, as if Aurora faire
Out of the East had newly made repaire,
Making a *sun-like* light with golden shine
Of her bright beauty in the gazers' eine. *Mir. for Mag.*

SUN-LIGHT, *s.* The light of the sun.

Where highest woods, impenetrable
To star or *sun-light*, spread their umbrage broad. *Milton*.

SUNNINGHILL, a very pleasant village and parish of England, in Berkshire, situated in the most delightful part of Windsor forest. Here are many handsome villas, and some mineral wells in the neighbourhood, which are much frequented in summer, and are reckoned efficacious in paralytic cases. Population 913; 6 miles south-south-west of New Windsor.

SUNNINGWELL, a parish of England, situated on the opposite banks of the Thames, in Berkshire and Oxfordshire, the two parts being connected by a wooden bridge; 2 miles north of Abingdon.

SUNNY, *adj.* Resembling the sun; bright.
She saw Duessa *sunny*-bright,
Adorn'd with gold and jewels shining clear. *Spenser*.

Exposed to the sun; bright with the sun.—Him walking
on a *sunny* hill he found. *Milton*.

The filmy gossamer now flits no more,
Nor halcyons bask on the short *sunny* shore. *Dryden*.

Coloured by the sun.

Her *sunny* locks
Hang on her temples like a golden fleece. *Shakspeare*.

SUN-PROOF, *adj.* Impervious to sun-light.—This shade,
sun-proof, is yet no proof for thee. *Peele*.

SUN-RISE, or **SUN-RISING**, *s.* Morning; the appearance of the sun.

Send out a pursuivant
To Stanley's regiment; bid him bring his power
Before *sun-rising*. *Shakspeare*.

We now believe the Copernican system; yet, upon ordinary occasions, we shall still use the popular terms of *sun-rise* and *sun-set*. *Bentley*.—East.—In those days the giants of Libanus mastered all nations, from the *sun-rising* to the *sun-set*. *Raleigh*.

SUN-SET, *s.* Close of the day; evening.
At *sun-set* to their ship they make return,
And snore secure on deck till rosy morn. *Dryden*.

West.

SUNSHINE, *s.* [jʊn-ʃaɪn, Sax. Milton accents it on the last syllable; and so *sun-shiny* was formerly accented on the second.] Action of the sun; place where the heat and lustre of the sun are powerful.

That man that sits within a monarch's heart,
And ripens in the *sun-shine* of his favour,
Would he abuse the countenance of the king,
Alack, what mischiefs might be set abroad,
In shadow of such greatness? *Shakspeare*.

SUN-SHINE, or **SUN-SHINY**, *adj.* [It was anciently accented

accented on the second syllable.] Bright with the sun.—The cases prevent the bees getting abroad upon every *sun-shine* day. *Mortimer*.—Bright like the sun.

The frightful-headed-beast, amaz'd
At flashing beams of that *sun-shiny* shield,
Became stark blind, and all his senses daz'd,
That down he tumbled.

Spenser.

SUNTA BEDNORE, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore. It is defended by a mud wall and a bound hedge; but was burnt by the Mahrattas in 1792. Lat. 14. 8. N. long. 76. 5. E.

SUOVĒTAURILIA, or SOLITAURILIA, a solemn sacrifice among the ancient Romans; in which they offered three victims of three different kinds, viz., a bull, a ram, and a boar.

Livy, describing it, calls it *suovetaurilia*; as composed of *sus*, *ovis*, and *taurus*; the names of the three victims sacrificed.

To SUP, *v. a.* [*supan*, Sax.; *soepen*, Dutch.] To drink by mouthfuls; to drink by little at a time; to sip.

There I'll find a purer air
To feed my life with; there I'll *sup*
Balm and nectar in my cup.

Crashaw.

To SUP, *v. n.* [*souper*, Fr.] To eat the evening meal. There's none observes, much less repines,
How often this man *sups* or dines.

Carew.

To SUP, *v. a.* To treat with supper.—He's almost *supp'd*: why have you left the chamber? *Shakspeare*.

SUP, *s.* A small draught; a mouthful of liquor.

Tom Thumb had got a little *sup*,
And Tomalin scarce kist the cup.

Drayton.

SU'PER, in composition, notes either more than another, or more than enough, or on the top.

SU'PERABLE, *adj.* [*superabilis*, Lat.; *superable*, Fr.] Conquerable; such as may be overcome.—Antipathies are, generally, *superable* by a single effort. *Johnson*.

SU'PERABLY, *adv.* So as may be overcome.

SU'PERABLENESS, *s.* Quality of being conquerable.

To SUPERABO'UND, *v. n.* To be exuberant; to be stored with more than enough.—She *superabounds* with corn, which is quickly convertible to coin. *Howell*.

SUPERABUNDANCE, *s.* More than enough: great quantity.—The precipitation of the vegetative terrestrial matter at the deluge amongst the sand, was to retrench the luxury and *superabundance* of the productions of the earth. *Woodward*.

SUPERABUNDANT, *adj.* Being more than enough.—So much *superabundant* zeal could have no other design than to damp that spirit raised against Wood. *Swift*.

SUPERABUNDANTLY, *adv.* More than sufficiently.—Nothing but the uncreated Infinite can adequately fill and *superabundantly* satisfy the desire. *Cheyne*.

To SUPERA'DD, *v. a.* [*superaddo*, Lat.] To add over and above; to join any thing extrinsic.—The peacock laid it extremely to heart that he had not the nightingale's voice *superadded* to the beauty of plumes. *L'Estrange*.

SUPERADDITION, *s.* The act of adding to something else.—The fabric of the eye, its safe and useful situation, and the *superaddition* of muscles, are a certain pledge of the existence of God. *More*.—That which is added.

SUPERADVE'NIENT, *adj.* [*superadveniens*, Lat.] *Unuscd.*—Coming to the increase or assistance of something. Coming unexpectedly.

To SUPERA'NNUATE, *v. a.* [*super* and *annus*, Lat.] To impair or disqualify by age or length of life.—If such depravities but yet alive, deformity need not despair, nor will the eldest hopes be ever *superannuated*. *Brown*.

To SUPERA'NNUATE, *v. n.* To last beyond the year. *Not in use*.—The dying of the roots of plants that are annual, is by the over-expend of the sap into stalk and

leaves, which being prevented, they will *superannuate*. *Bacon*.

SUPERANNUATION, *s.* The state of being disqualified by years.

SUPERB, *adj.* [*superbe*, Fr.; *superbus*, Lat.] Grand; pompous; lofty; august; stately; magnificent.—The most *superb* edifice, that ever was conceived or constructed, would not equal the smallest insect, blest with sight, feeling and locomotivity. *Bryant*.

SUPERBLY, *adv.* In a superb manner.—Wood's manuscript was very *superbly* bound and embossed. *Warton*.

SUPERCARGO, *s.* An officer in a ship whose business is to manage the trade.

I only wear it in a land of Hectors,
Thieves, *supercargoes*, sharpeners, and directors. *Pope*.

SUPERCELESTIAL, *adj.* Placed above the firmament.—I dare not think that any *supercelestial* heaven, or whatsoever else, not himself, was increate and eternal. *Raleigh*.

SUPERCHERY, *s.* [An old word of French original.] Deceit; cheating.

SUPERCILIOUS, *adj.* [*supercilium*, Latin.] Haughty; dogmatical; dictatorial; arbitrary; despotic; overbearing.—Several *supercilious* critics will treat an author with the greatest contempt, if he fancies the old Romans wore a girdle. *Addison*.

SUPERCILIOUSLY, *adv.* Haughtily; dogmatically; contemptuously.

SUPERCILIOUSNESS, *s.* Haughtiness; contemptuousness.

SUPERCONCEPTION, *s.* A conception admitted after another conception. *Unused*.—Those *superconceptions*, where one child was like the father, the other like the adulterer, seem idle. *Brown*.

SUPERCONSEQUENCE, *s.* Remote consequence. *Unused*.—Not attaining the deuterostopy, and second intention of the words, they omit their *superconsequences* and coherences. *Brown*.

SUPERCRE'SCENCE, *s.* [*super* and *cresco*, Lat.] That which grows upon another growing thing.—Wherever it groweth it maintains a regular figure, like other *supercrecences*, and like such as, living upon the stock of others, are termed parasitical plants. *Brown*.

SUPERE'MINENCE, or SUPERE'MINENCY, *s.* [*super* and *emineo*, Lat.] Uncommon degree of eminence; eminence above others though eminent.—The archbishop of Canterbury, as he is primate over all England and metropolitan, has a *supereminency*, and even some power over the archbishop of York. *Ayliffe*.

SUPERE'MINENT, *adj.* Eminent in a high degree.

SUPERE'MINENTLY, *adv.* In the most eminent manner.

SUPERE'ROGANT, *adj.* The same as supererogatory.

To SUPERE'ROGATE, *v. n.* [*supcr* and *erogatio*, Lat.] To do more than duty requires.

So by an abbey's skeleton of late,

I heard an echo *supererogate*

Through imperfection, and the voice restore,

As if she had the hiccup o'er and o'er. *Cleveland*.

SUPEREROGATION, *s.* Performance of more than duty requires.—There is no such thing as works of *supererogation*; no man can do more than needs, and is his duty to do, by way of preparation for another world. *Tillotson*.

SUPEREROGATIVE, *adj.* Supererogatory.—I can brook better a fellow that hath bought his new-found nobility with nobles, than another of an high birth and low-stooping spirit, who can justly brag of nothing of his own, but lives upon the *supererogative* deeds of his ancestors. *Stafford*.

SUPEREROGATORY, *adj.* Performed beyond the strict demands of duty.—*Supererogatory* services, and too great benefits from subjects to kings, are of dangerous consequence. *Howell*.

SUPERESSENTIAL, *adj.* Above the constitution or existence

existence of a thing.—It being impossible for any nature to comprehend what is *superessential*, or infinitely above it. *Ellis*.

To SUPEREXALT, *v. a.* To exalt above the ordinary rate.—God having *superexalted* our Lord,—is therefore said to have seated him at his right hand. *Barrow*.

SUPEREXALTATION, *s.* Elevation above the common rate.

SUPEREXCELLENT, *adj.* Excellent beyond common degrees of excellence.—We discern not the abuse: suffer him to persuade us that we are as gods, something so *superexcellent*, that all must reverence and adore. *Dec. of Chr. Piety*.

SUPEREXCRESCENCE, *s.* Something superfluously growing.—As the eschar separated between the scarifications, I rubbed the *superexcrescence* of flesh with the vitriol stone. *Wiseman*.

To SUPERFETATE, *v. n.* [*super* and *fatus*, Lat.] To conceive after conception.—The female brings forth twice in one month, and so is said to *superfetate*, which, saith Aristotle, is because her eggs are hatched in her one after another. *Grew*.

SUPERFETATION, *s.* [*superfetus*, Fr.] One conception following another, so that both were supposed to be in the womb together.—*Superfetus* must be by abundance of sap in the bough that putteth it forth. *Bacon*.

To SUPERFETE, *v. n.* To superfetate.

So is my fancy quicken'd by the glance
Of his benign aspect and countenance:
It makes me pregnant, and to *superfete*.

Howell.

To SUPERFETE, *v. a.* To conceive upon a conception.—The Spaniard doth use to pause so in his pronunciation, that his tongue seldom foreruns his wit; and his brain may very well raise and *superfete* a second thought before the first be offered. *Howell*.

SUPERFICE, *s.* [*superficus*, Fr., *superficies*, Latin.] Outside; surface.

Then if it rise not to the former height
Of *superfice*, conclude that soil is light.

Dryden.

SUPERFICIAL, *adj.* [*superficial*, Fr., from *superficies*, Lat.] Lying on the surface; not reaching below the surface.—That, upon the *superficial* ground, heat and moisture cause putrefaction, in England is found not true. *Bacon*.—Shallow; contrived to cover something.

This *superficial* tale

Is but a preface to her worthy praise.

Shakspeare.

Shallow; not profound; smattering, not learned.—Their knowledge is so very *superficial*, and so ill-grounded, that it is impossible for them to describe in what consists the beauty of those works. *Dryden*.

SUPERFICIALITY, *s.* The quality of being superficial.—By these salts the colours of bodies receive degrees of lustre or obscurity, *superficiality* or profundity. *Brown*.

SUPERFICIALLY, *adv.* On the surface; not below the surface. Without penetration; without close heed.—Perspective hath been with some diligence inquired; but the nature of sounds in general hath been *superficially* observed. *Bacon*.—Without going deep; without searching to the bottom of things.

You have said well;

But on the cause and question now in hand,
Have glaz'd but *superficially*.

Shakspeare.

SUPERFICIALNESS, *s.* Shallowness; position on the surface. Slight knowledge: false appearance; show without substance.

SUPERFICIES, *s.* Outside; surface; superface.—A convex mirror makes objects in the middle to come out from the *superficies*: the painter must, in respect of the light and shadows of his figures, give them more relieve. *Dryden*.

SUPERFINE, *adj.* Eminently fine.—If you observe your cyder, by interposing it between a candle and your

eye, to be very transparent, it may be called *superfine*. *Mortimer*.

SUPERFLUENCE, *s.* [*super* and *fluo*, Lat.] More than is necessary.—The *superfluence* of grace is ordinarily proportioned to the discharge of former trusts, making use of the foregoing sufficient grace. *Hammond*.

SUPERFLUITANCE, *s.* [*super* and *fluito*, Lat.] The act of floating above.—Spermaceti, which is a *superfluitance* on the sea, is not the sperm of a whale. *Brown*.

SUPERFLUITANT, *adj.* [*superfluitans*, Lat.] Floating above.

SUPERFLUITY, *s.* [*superfluité*, French.] More than enough; plenty beyond use or necessity.—A quiet mediocrity is still to be preferred before a troubled *superfluity*. *Suckling*.

SUPERFLUOUS, *adj.* [*super* and *fluo*, Lat.] Exuberant; more than enough; unnecessary; offensive by being more than sufficient.

If ye know,

Why ask ye, and *superfluous* begin

Your message, like to end as much in vain?

Milton.

SUPERFLUOUSNESS, *s.* The state of being superfluous.

SUPERFLUX, *s.* [*super* and *fluxus*, Lat.] That which is more than is wanted.

Take physic, pomp;

Expose thyself to feel what wretches feel,

That thou may'st shake the *superflux* to them.

Shakspeare.

SUPERFOLIATION, *s.* Excess of foliation.—This, in the pathology of plants, may be the disease of *superfoliation*, mentioned by Theophrastus; whereby the fructifying juice is starved by the excess of leaves. *Sir T. Brown*.

SUPERGA, a mountain of the north of Italy, in the Sardinian states, in Piedmont, about five miles from Turin, remarkable for its picturesque scenery, and for the elegance of a church which crowns its summit. This edifice, built by Victor Amadeus, is of a circular form, supported by pillars of beautiful marble, and surmounted by a dome. The altars are decorated with bas-reliefs, and the pavement is of variegated marble. It is the burial place of the royal family, is seen from the surrounding country to a considerable distance, and commands, in return, a most delightful view.

SUPERHUMAN, *adj.* Above the nature or power of man.

SUPERIMPREGNATION, *s.* Superconception; superfetation.

SUPERINCUMBENT, *adj.* Lying on the top of something else.—It is sometimes so extremely violent, that it forces the *superincumbent* strata. *Woodward*.

To SUPERINDUCE, *v. a.* [*super* and *induco*, Lat.] To bring in as an addition to something else.—Father is a notion *superinduced* to the substance of man, and refers only to an act of that thing called man, whereby he contributed to the generation of one of his own kind, let man be what it will. *Locke*.—To bring on a thing not originally belonging to that on which it is brought.—Relation is not contained in the real existence of things, but something extraneous and *superinduced*. *Locke*.

SUPERINDUCTION, *s.* The act of superinducing.—A good inclination is but the first rude draught of virtue; the *superinduction* of ill habits quickly deface it. *South*.

SUPERINJECTION, *s.* An injection succeeding another.

To SUPERINSPECT, *v. a.* To overlook; to oversee.—He *superinspects* the whole affair of victualling at that port. *Maydman*.

SUPERINSTITUTION, *s.* [In Law.] One institution upon another; as if A be instituted and admitted to a benefice upon a title, and B be instituted and admitted by the presentation of another. *Bailey*.

To SUPERINTEND, *v. a.* To oversee; to overlook; to take care of others with authority.—This argues design, and a *superintending* wisdom, power, and providence in this special business of food. *Derham*.

8 Q SUPERINTENDENCE,

SUPERINTE'NDENCE, or **SUPERINTE'NDENCY**, *s.* Superior care; the act of overseeing with authority.—The Divine Providence, which hath a visible respect to the being of every man, is yet more observable in its *superintendency* over societies. *Grew.*

SUPERINTE'NDENT, *s.* [*superintendant*, Fr.] One who overlooks others authoritatively.—Our new *superintendents* and ministers. *Martin.*

SUPERINTE'NDENT, *adj.* Overlooking others with authority.—Next to Brama, one Deuendre is the *superintendent* deity, who hath many more under him. *Stillingfleet.*

SUPE'RIOR, *adj.* [*superieur*, Fr.; *superior*, Lat.] Higher; greater in dignity or excellence; preferable or preferred to another.—*Superior* beings above us, who enjoy perfect happiness, are more steadily determined in their choice of good than we, and yet they are not less happy or less free than we are. *Locke.*—Upper; highly locally.—By the refraction of the second prism, the breadth of the image was not increased, but its *superior* part which in the first prism suffered the greater refraction, and appeared violet and blue, did again in the second prism suffer a greater refraction than its inferior part, which appeared red and yellow. *Newton.*—Free from emotion or concern; unconquered; unaffected.—There is not in earth a spectacle more worthy than a great man *superior* to his sufferings. *Addison.*

SUPE'RIOR, *s.* One more excellent or dignified than another.—Those under the great officers of state have more frequent opportunities for the exercise of benevolence than their *superiors*. *Addison.*

SUPERIOR, LAKE, a lake of North America, and the largest body of fresh water which has yet been discovered. It is the most western of the great American lakes, and may be considered the head reservoir from which the St. Lawrence derives its ample stream. This immense lake, unequalled in magnitude by any collection of fresh water upon the globe, is almost of a triangular form; its greatest length is 351, its breadth 161, and its circumference little less than 1152 miles; and is remarkable for the unrivalled transparency of its waters, as for its extraordinary depth. Its northern coast, indented with many extensive bays, is high and rocky; but on the southern shore the land is generally low and level. A sea almost of itself, it is subject to many vicissitudes of that element; for here the storm rages, and the billows break with a violence scarcely surpassed by the tempests of the ocean. In the distant range of mountains that form the land's height beyond its northern and western shores, several considerable rivers, and numerous small ones, have their rise, which being increased in their course by many small lakes, finally discharge themselves into Lake Superior. To the southward also there is another lofty range, dividing the waters that find their way to the gulf of Mexico through the channel of the Mississippi, from those that take a northern course into the great lake; so that its vastness is increased by the tributary streams of more than 30 rivers. On its north and north-east sides there are several islands, of which one called Isle Royale is the largest, being 100 miles long and 40 broad. Out of the south-east angle of Lake Superior a very rapid current, interrupted and broken by many small islands, or rather huge masses of rock, flows through a channel of 27 miles in length, at the end of which it flows into Lake Huron. The falls of St. Mary are nearly midway between the two lakes. This denomination, though generally given, but little accords with the usual appellation of Falls, as applied to the descent of large bodies of water precipitated from great heights, that so frequently occur on the rivers of America; for, in this place, it is only the impetuous stream of the enormous discharge from Lake Superior, forcing its way through a confined channel, and breaking with proportionate violence through the impediments that nature has thrown in its way; yet this scene of tumultuous and unceasing agitation of the waters, combined with the noise and dazzling whiteness of the surge, is not deficient either in grandeur or magnificence. The lake abounds with

fish, particularly trout and sturgeon, which may be caught at almost any season in the greatest abundance. The trout in general weigh about 12lbs.; but some are caught that exceed 50. Besides these, a species of white fish is taken in great quantities here, that resemble a shad in their shape, but they are rather thicker, and less bony: they weigh about 4lbs. each, and are of a delicious taste. There are likewise many sorts of smaller fish in great plenty here, and which may be taken with ease. Among these are a sort resembling a herring, that are generally made use of as a bait for the trout. Very small crabs, not larger than half a crown piece, are found both in this and Lake Michigan. Lat. 46. 4. to 48. 45. N. long. 84. 46. to 91. 55. W.

SUPERIO'RITY, *s.* Pre-eminence; the quality of being greater or higher than another in any respect.—The person who advises, does in that particular exercise a *superiority* over us, thinking us defective in our conduct or understanding. *Addison.*

SUPERJURARE. Anciently, when a criminal endeavoured to excuse himself by his own oath, or by that of one or more witnesses, and yet the crime was so notorious, that he was convicted by the oaths of many more witnesses; this was called *superjurare*.

SUPERLA'TION, *s.* [*superlatio*, Lat.] Exaltation of any thing beyond truth or propriety.—There are words that as much raise a style as others can depress it; *superlative* and overmuchness amplifies: it may be above faith, but not above a mean. *B. Jonson.*

SUPE'RLATIVE, *adj.* [*superlatif*, Fr.; *superlativus*, Lat.] Implying or expressing the highest degree.—Some have a violent and turgid manner of talking and thinking: they are always in extremes, and pronounce concerning every thing in the *superlative*. *Watts.*—Rising to the highest degree.—Ingratitude and compassion never cohabit in the same breast; and shews the *superlative* malignity of this vice, and the baseness of the mind in which it dwells. *South.*

SUPE'RLATIVELY, *adv.* In a manner of speech expressing the highest degree.—I shall not speak *superlatively* of them; but that I may truly say, they are second to none in the Christian world. *Bacon.*—In the highest degree.—Tiberius was bad enough in his youth; but *superlatively* and monstrously so in his old age. *South.*

SUPE'RLATIVENESS, *s.* The state of being in the highest degree.

SUPERLU'NAR, or **SUPERLU'NARY**, *adj.* Not sublunary; placed above the moon; not of this world.

The mind, in metaphysics, at a loss,

May wander in a wilderness of moss;

The head that turns at *superlunar* things,

Pois'd with a tail, may steer on Wilkins' wings. *Pope.*

SUPERNA'CULUM, *s.* ["*vox hybrida*, ex Lat. *præpositione super* (upon) et Germ. *nagel* (a nail) composita; qui mos nova vocabula fingendi Anglis potissimum usitatus est, vocemque *supernaculi* apud eosdem produxit." De *Supernaculo* Anglorum, 4to., Lips. 1746, p. 8. Cited by Brand, Pop. Antiq. ii. 239.] Good liquor, of which there is not even a drop left sufficient to wet one's nail. *Grose.*—To drink *supernaculum* was an ancient custom not only in England, but also in several other parts of Europe, of emptying the cup or glass, and then pouring the drop or two that remained at the bottom upon the person's nail that drank it, to shew that he was no fincher. *Brand.*

I saw some sparks as they were drinking,

With mighty mirth, and little thinking;

Their jests were *supernaculum*,

I snatch'd their rubies from each thumb;

And in this crystal have 'em here. *King.*

SUPE'RNAL, *adj.* [*supernus*, Lat.] Having an higher position; locally above us.—By heaven and earth was meant the solid matter and substance, as well of all the heavens and orbs *supernal*, as of the globe of the earth, and waters which covered it. *Raleigh.*—Relating to things above; placed above; celestial; heavenly.

That

That *supernal* Judge that stirs good thoughts
In any breast of strong authority,
To look into the blots and stains of right. *Shakspeare.*

SUPERNA'TANT, *adj.* [*supernatans*, Lat.] Swimming above.—Whilst the substance continued fluid, I could shake it with the *supernatant* menstruum, without making between them any true union. *Boyle.*

SUPERNATA'TION, *s.* [from *supernato*, Lat.] The act of swimming on the top of any thing.—Bodies are differenced by *supernatation*, as floating on water; for chrystal will sink in water, as carrying in its own bulk a greater ponderosity than the space of any water it doth occupy; and will therefore only swim in molten metal and quicksilver. *Brown.*

SUPERNA'TURAL, *adj.* Being above the powers of nature.

What mists of providence are these,
Through which we cannot see?
So saints by *supernatural* power set free
Are left at last in martyrdom to die. *Dryden.*

SUPERNA'TURALLY, *adv.* In a manner above the course or power of nature.

SUPERNUMERARY, *adj.* [*supernumeraire*, Fr.; *super* and *numerus*, Lat.] Being above a stated, a necessary, an usual, or a round number.—Antiochus began to augment his fleet; but the Roman senate ordered his *supernumerary* vessels to be burnt. *Arbutnot.*

SUPERPLANT, *s.* A plant growing upon another plant.—No *superplant* is formed from a plant but misletoe. *Bacon.*

SUPERPLUSAGE, *s.* [*super* and *plus*, Lat.] Something more than enough.—After this there yet remained a *superplusage* for the assistance of the neighbour parishes. *Fell.*

To **SUPERPONDERATE**, *v. a.* [*super* and *pondero*, Lat.] To weigh over and above. *Dict.*

To **SUPERPRAISE**, *v. a.* To praise beyond measure.
To vow, and swear, and *superpraise* my parts,
When I am sure you hate me with your hearts. *Shakspeare.*

SUPERPROPORTION, *s.* [*super* and *proportio*, Lat.] Overplus of proportion.—No defect of velocity, which requires as great a *superproportion* in the cause, can be overcome in an instant. *Digby.*

SUPERPURGATION, *s.* [*superpurgation*, Fr.; *super* and *purgation*.] More purgation than enough.—There happening a *superpurgation*, he declined the repeating of that purge. *Wiseman.*

SUPERREFLEXION, *s.* Reflexion of an image reflected.—Place one glass before and another behind, you shall see the glass behind with the image within the glass before, and again the glass before in that, and divers such *superreflexions*, till the species speciei at last die. *Bacon.*

SUPERSA'LIENCY, *s.* [*super* and *salio*, Latin.] This were better written *supersaliency*.] The act of leaping upon any thing.—Their coition is, by *supersaliency*, like that of horses. *Brown.*

To **SUPERSCRIBE**, *v. a.* [*super* and *scribo*, Lat.] To inscribe upon the top or outside.—Fabretti and others believe, that by the two fortunes were only meant in general the goddess who sent prosperity or afflictions, and produce in their behalf an ancient monument, *superscribed*. *Addison.*

SUPERSCRIPTION, *s.* [*super* and *scriptio*, Lat.] The act of superscribing. That which is written on the top or outside.—Read me the *superscription* of these letters; I know not which is which. *Shakspeare.*

It is enough her stone
May honour'd be with *superscription*
Of the sole lady, who had pow'r to move
The great Northumberland. *Waller.*

SUPERSE'ULAR, *adj.* Above the world.—Let us, saith he, celebrate this feast, not in a panegyric but divine, not in a worldly but *superse'cular* manner. *Bp. Hall.*

To **SUPERSE'DE**, *v. a.* [*super* and *sedeo*, Latin.] To make void or inefficacious by superior power; to set aside.—In this genuine acceptation of chance, nothing is supposed that can *supersede* the known laws of natural motion. *Bentley.*

SUPERSE'DEAS, *s.* [In Law.] Is a writ which lieth in divers and sundry cases; in all which it signifies a command or request to stay or forbear the doing of that which in appearance of law were to be done, were it not for the cause whereupon the writ is granted: for example, a man regularly is to have surety of peace against him of whom he will swear that he is afraid; and the justice required hereunto cannot deny him: yet if the party be formerly bound to the peace, in Chancery or elsewhere, this writ lieth to stay the justice from doing that, which otherwise he might not deny. *Cowel.*—The far distance of this county from the court hath afforded it a *supersedeas* from takers and purveyours. *Carew.*

SUPERSE'VICEABLE, *adj.* Over officious; more than is necessary or required.—A glass-gazing, *superserviceable*, finical rogue. *Shakspeare.*

SUPER-STATUTO, 1 Ed. III. c. 12, 13., is a writ that lay against the king's tenants holding in chief, who aliened the king's land without his licence.

SUPER-STATUTO de articulis Cleri, cap. 6., a writ lying against the sheriff, or other officer, that distrains in the king's highway, or in the lands anciently belonging to the church.

SUPER-STATUTO facto pour Seneschal et Marshal de Roy, &c., a writ that lies against the steward or marshal for holding plea in his court, or for trespass or contracts not made, and arising within the king's household.

SUPER-STATUTO versus Servantes et Laboratores, a writ which lies against him who keeps any servants, departed out of the service of another contrary to law.

SUPERSTITION, *s.* [*superstition*, Fr., *superstitio*, Lat.] Unnecessary fear or scruples in religion; observance of unnecessary and uncommanded rites or practices; religion without morality.

A rev'rent fear, such *superstition* reigns
Among the rude, ev'n then possess'd the swains. *Dryden.*

Rite or practice proceeding from scrupulous or timorous religion. In this sense it is plural.

Their truth
With *superstitions* and traditions taint. *Milton.*

False religion; reverence of beings not proper objects of reverence; false worship.—They had certain questions against him of their own *superstition*. *Acts.*—Over-nicety; exactness too scrupulous.

SUPERSTITIONIST, *s.* One who is addicted to superstition.—Every vain-glorious *superstitionist*, that would make a show in the flesh. *More.*

SUPERSTYTIOUS, *adj.* [*superstitieux*, Fr., *superstitiosus*, Latin.] Addicted to superstition; full of idle fancies or scruples with regard to religion.

A venerable wood,
Where rites divine were paid, whose holy hair
Was kept and cut with *superstitious* care. *Dryden.*

Over accurate; scrupulous beyond need.
Have I with all my full affections
Still met the king? lov'd him next heav'n? obey'd him?
Been out of fondness *superstitious* to him?
And am I thus rewarded? *Shakspeare.*

SUPERSTYTIOUSLY, *adv.* In a superstitious manner; with erroneous religion.—There reigned in this island a king, whose memory of all others we most adore; not *superstitiously*, but as a divine instrument. *Bacon.*—With too much care.—Neither of these methods should be too scrupulously and *superstitiously* pursued. *Watts.*

SUPERSTYTIOUSNESS, *s.* The state of being superstitious.—Remembrance also hys prynce's pleasure, which hath wylled all *superstyeuousnesse* to be taken away from the ceremonies. *Bale.*

To SUPERSTRAIN, *v. a.* To strain beyond the just stretch.—In the straining of a string, the further it is strained, the less *superstraining* goeth to a note. *Bacon.*

To SUPERSTRUCT, *v. a.* [*superstruo, superstructus, Lat.*] To build upon any thing.—This is the only proper basis on which to *superstruct* first innocence, and then virtue. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

SUPERSTRUCTURE, *s.* An edifice raised on any thing.—I want not to improve the honour of the living by impairing that of the dead; and my own profession hath taught me not to erect new *superstructures* upon an old ruin. *Denham.*

SUPERSTRUCTIVE, *adj.* Built upon something else.—He that is so sure of his particular election, as to resolve he can never fall, must necessarily resolve, that what were drunkenness in another, is not so in him, and nothing but the removing his fundamental error can rescue him from the *superstructive*, be it never so gross. *Hammond.*

SUPERSTRUCTURE, *s.* That which is raised or built upon something else.—You have added to your natural endowments the *superstructures* of study. *Dryden.*

SUPERSUBSTANTIAL, *adj.* More than substantial.

SUPERSUBTLE, *adj.* Over subtle.—If sanctimony and a frail vow betwixt an erring barbarian and *supersubtle* Venetian be not too hard for my wits. *Shakspeare.*

SUPERVACANEOUS, *adj.* [*supervacaneus, Lat.*] Superfluous; needless; unnecessary; serving to no purpose. *Unused.*

SUPERVACANEOUSLY, *adv.* Needlessly. *Unused.*

SUPERVACANEOUSNESS, *s.* Needlessness. *Unused.*

To SUPERVENE, *v. n.* [*supervenio, Lat.*] To come as an extraneous addition.—His good-will, when placed on any, was so fixed and rooted, that even *supervening* vice, to which he had the greatest detestation imaginable, could not easily remove it. *Fell.*—Such a mutual gravitation can never *supervene* to matter, unless impressed by a divine power. *Bentley.*

SUPERVENIENT, *adj.* [*superveniens, Lat.*] Added; additional.—If it were unjust to murder John, the *supervenient* oath did not extenuate the fact, or oblige the juror unto it. *Brown.*

SUPERVENTION, *s.* The act of supervening.—An espousal contract may be broken off by the *supervention* of a legal kindred, unexpected. *Hall.*

To SUPERVISE, *v. a.* [*super and visus, Latin.*] To overlook: to oversee; to intend.—M. Bayle speaks of the vexation of the *supervising* of the press, in terms so feeling that they move compassion. *Congreve.*

SUPERVISE, *s.* Inspection. *Not in use.*

That on the *supervise*, no leisure bated,
No, not to stay the grinding of the axe,
My head should be struck off.

Shakspeare.

SUPERVISION, *s.* Act of supervising.—I have a confused remembrance of having seen an old donation, for the sustenance of a perpetual lamp to burn before the high-altar in the royal chapel at Islip, under the trust and *supervision* of the abbots of Westminster. *Warton.*

SUPERVISOR, *s.* An overseer; an inspector; a superintendent.—A *supervisor* may signify an overseer of the poor, an inspector of the customs, a surveyor of high-ways, a *supervisor* of the excise. *Watts.*

How satisfy'd, my lord!

Would you be *supervisor*, grossly gape on? *Shakspeare.*

To SUPERVIVE, *v. n.* To overlive; to outlive.—Upon what principle can the soul be imagined to be naturally mortal, or what revolutions in nature will it not be able to resist and *supervive*? *Clarke.*

SUPINAMA, a river of Guiana, which falls into the Essequibo. Many estates and settlements are already on its banks; and it is also the residence of several timber cutters and brick-makers, the soil for which is particularly good.

SUPINATION, *s.* [*supination, Fr., from supino, Latin.*] The act of lying, or state of being laid with the face upward.—In anatomy, the position of the hand, in which the

palm is turned upwards.—They [the muscles] can perform—flexion, extension, pronation, *supination*, the tonic motion, circumgyration; and all these with so great expedition and agility, that they are much sooner done than said, yea, as soon done as thought on. *Smith.*

SUPINE, *adj.* [*supinus, Latin.*] Lying with the face upward: opposed to *prone*. *Brown.*

At him he lanc'd his spear, and pierc'd his breast;
On the hard earth the Lycian knock'd his head,
And lay *supine*; and forth the spirit fled. *Dryden.*

Leaning backwards with exposure to the sun.

If the vine,

On rising ground be plac'd or hills *supine*,
Extend thy loose battalions. *Dryden.*

Negligent; careless; indolent; drowsy; thoughtless; inattentive.

Supine amidst our flowing store
We slept securely. *Dryden.*

Supine in Sylvia's snowy arms he lies,
And all the busy cares of life defies. *Tatler.*

SUPINE, *s.* [*supin, French; supinum, Latin.*] In Latin Grammar, a term signifying a noun formed from a verb.

SUPINELY, *adv.* With the face upward.—Drowsily; thoughtlessly; indolently.

Who on the beds of sin *supinely* lie,
They in the summer of their age shall die. *Sandys.*

SUPINENESS, *s.* Posture with the face upward.—Drowsiness; carelessness; indolence.—When this door is open to let Dissenters in, considering their industry and our *supineness* they may in a very few years grow to a majority in the house of commons. *Swift.*

SUPINITY, *s.* Posture of lying with the face upwards.—Carelessness; indolence; thoughtlessness.—The fourth cause of error is a *supinity* or neglect of enquiry, even in matters wherein we doubt, rather believing than going to see. *Brown.*

SUPONGA, a small river of Guiana, which runs south, somewhat inclining to the west, and enters the Caroni.

SUPPAGE, *s.* What may be supped; pottage. *Unused.*

SUPPALPATION, *s.* [from *suppalpor, Lat. to wheedle.*] Act of enticing by soft words.—Thou art a courtier, and hast laid a plot to rise; if obsequious servility to the great; if those gifts in the bosom, which our blunt ancestors would have termed bribes; if plausible *suppalpations*, if restless importunities will hoist thee; thou wilt mount! *Seasonable Sermon.* (1644.)

SUPPARASITATION, *s.* [from *supparasitor, Lat. to flatter.*] The act of flattering or paying servile court to. *Unused.*

SUPPEDA'NEOUS, *adj.* [*sub and pes, Lat.*] Placed under the feet.—He had slender legs, but increased by riding after meals; that is, the humour descended upon their pedulosity, they having no support or *suppedaneous* stability. *Brown.*

To SUPPE'DITATE, *v. a.* [*suppedito, Latin.*] To supply.—Whosoever is able to *suppeditate* all things to the sufficing of all must have an infinite power. *Pearson.*

SUPPER, *s.* [*supper, Fr.* See SUP.] The last meal of the day; the evening repast.—To-night we hold a solemn *supper*. *Shakspeare.*—The hour of *supper* comes unearn'd. *Milton.*

SUPPERLESS, *adj.* Wanting supper; fasting at night. She ey'd the bard, where *supperless* he sat.
And pin'd, unconscious of his rising fate. *Popc.*

To SUPPLANT, *v. a.* [*supplanter, Fr., sub and planta, Latin.*] To trip up the heels.

The thronging populace with hasty strides

Obstruct the easy way: the rocking town

Supplants their footsteps; to and fro they reel. *Philips.*

To displace by stratagem; to turn out.—It is Philoclea his heart is set upon: it is my daughter I have borne to *supplant* me. *Sidney.*

To displace; to overpower; to force away.

If it be fond, call it a woman's fear;
Which fear, if better reasons can *supplant*,
I will subscribe, and say, I wrong'd the duke. *Shakspeare.*

SUPPLANTER, *s.* One that supplants; one that displaces.—A treacherous *supplanter* and underminer of the peace of all families and societies. *South.*

SUPPLANTING, *s.* The act of displacing or turning out.—That sad disunion and jealousy, those divisions and *supplantings* that were among the king's own friends. *Hoadley.*

SUPPLE, *adj.* [*souple*, Fr.] Pliant; flexible.
Will ye submit your necks, and choose to bend
The *supple* knee? *Milton.*

And sometimes went, and sometimes ran,
With *supple* joints, as lively vigour led. *Milton.*

Yielding; soft; not obstinate.—If punishment reaches not the mind, and makes not the will *supple*, it hardens the offender. *Locke.*—Flattering; fawning; bending.—There is something so *supple* and insinuating in this absurd unnatural doctrine, as makes it extremely agreeable to a prince's ear. *Addison.*—That which makes *supple*.

Each part deprived of *supple* government,
Shall stiff, and stark, and cold appear, like death. *Shakspeare.*

To **SUPPLE**, *v. a.* To make pliant; to make soft; to make flexible.—Poultices allaying pain, drew down the humours, and *suppled* the parts, thereby making the passages wider. *Temple.*—To make compliant.

Knaves having by their own importunate suit,
Convinc'd or *suppled* them, they cannot chuse,
But they must blab. *Shakspeare.*

To **SUPPLE**, *v. n.* To grow soft; to grow pliant.
The stones

Did first the rigour of their kind expel,
And *suppled* into softness as they fell. *Dryden.*

SUPPLELY, *adv.* Softly; mildly; pliantly. *Unused.*
SUPPLEMENT, *s.* [*supplement*, Fr., *supplementum*, Latin.]—Addition to any thing by which its defects are supplied.—His blood will atone for our imperfection, his righteousness he imputed in *supplement* to what is lacking in ours. *Rogers.*

Instructive satire, true to virtue's cause!
Thou shining *supplement* of public laws! *Young.*
Store; supply. *Not in use.*

We had not spent
Our ruddie wine a ship-board; *supplement*
Of large sort, each man to his vessel drew. *Chapman.*

SUPPLEMENTAL, or **SUPPLEMENTARY**, *adj.* Additional; such as may supply the place of what is lost or wanting.—*Supplemental* acts of state were made to supply defects of laws; and so tonnage and poundage were collected. *Clarendon.*

SUPPLENESS, *s.* [*souplesse*, Fr.] Pliantness; flexibility; readiness to take any form.—The fruit is of a pleasant taste, caused by the *suppleness* and gentleness of the juice, being that which maketh the boughs also so flexible. *Bacon.*—Readiness of compliance: facility.—Study gives strength to the mind, conversation grace; the first apt to give stiffness, the other *suppleness*. *Temple.*

SUPPLETORY, *adj.* [from *suppleo*, Latin.] Brought in to fill up deficiencies.—I have partly from Prynne, partly from my own conjecture, supplied the mutilated places as well as I could; but have included all such *suppletory* words in crotchets. *Wharton.*

SUPPLETORY *s.* [*suppletorium*, Lat.] That which is to fill up deficiencies.—They invent *suppletories* to excuse an evil man. *Bp. Taylor.*

SUPPLIAL, *s.* The act of supplying.—Society is preserved by mutual wants, the *supplial* of which causeth mutual happiness. *Warburton.*

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SUPPLIANCE, *s.* Continuance.

A violet in the youth of primy nature,
Forward, not permanent, sweet, not lasting,
The perfume and *suppliance* of a minute. *Shakspeare.*

SUPPLIANT, *adj.* [*suppliant*, Fr.] Entreating; beseeching; precatory; submissive.—To bow and sue for grace with *suppliant* knee. *Milton.*

SUPPLIANT, *s.* An humble petitioner; one who begs submissively.

Hourly suitors come:
The east with incense and the west with gold,
Will stand like *suppliants* to receive their doom. *Dryden.*

SUPPLIANTLY, *adv.* In a submissive manner.
SUPPLICANT, *s.* [*supplicans*, Lat.] One that entreats or implores with great submission; an humble petitioner.

SUPPLICANT, *adj.* [*supplicans*, Lat.] Entreating; submissively petitioning.—[They] offered to this council their letters *suppliant*, confessing that they had sinned. *Bp. Bull.*

To **SUPPLICATE**, *v. n.* [*supplier*, Fr., *supplico*, Lat.] To implore; to entreat; to petition submissively and humbly.—Many things a man cannot with any comeliness say or do, a man cannot brook to *supplicate* or beg. *Bacon.*

SUPPLICATION, *s.* [*supplication*, Fr.] Petition humbly delivered; entreaty.

My mother bows,
As if Olympus to a mole-hill should
In *supplication* nod. *Shakspeare.*

Petitionary worship; the adoration of a suppliant or petitioner.

Bend thine ear
To *supplication*; hear his sighs though mute. *Milton.*

SUPPLICATORY, *adj.* Petitionary.—If we except the Creeds, no part of the service was accompanied by music, which was not either of the *supplicatory* or thanksgiving species. *Mason.*

SUPPLIER, *s.* One who supplies; one who makes up for an omission.

To **SUPPLY**, *v. a.* [*suppleo*, Lat., *suppleo*, Fr.] To fill up as any deficiencies happen.—Out of the fry of these rakehell horseboys are their kern *supplied* and maintained. *Spenser.*—To give something wanted; to yield; to afford.—They were princes that had wives, sons, and nephews; and yet all these could not *supply* the comfort of friendship. *Bacon.*—To relieve with something wanted.

Although I neither lend nor borrow,
Yet, to *supply* the ripe wants of my friend,
I'll break a custom. *Shakspeare.*

To serve instead of.
Burning ships the banish'd sun *supply*,
And no light shines but that by which men die. *Waller.*

To give or bring, whether good or bad.
Nearer care *supplies*
Sighs to my breast, and sorrow to my eyes. *Prior.*

To fill any room made vacant.
The sun was set; and Vesper, to *supply*
His absent beams, had lighted up the sky. *Dryden.*

To accommodate; to furnish.
While trees the mountain-tops with shades *supply*,
Your honour, name, and praise shall never die. *Dryden.*

SUPPLY, *s.* Relief of want; cure of deficiencies.
Art from that fund each just *supply* provides,
Works without show, and without pomp presides. *Pope.*

SUPPLY'S PASSAGE, a channel of the South Pacific ocean, between Sirius island and Queen Charlotte's island; so named by Lieutenant Ball, who commanded the Supply store-ship in 1790.

SUPPLY'MENT, *s.* Prevention of deficiency. *Not in use.*

I will never fail
Beginning, nor *supplyment*. *Shakspeare.*

To SUPPO'RT, *v. a.* [*supporter*, Fr., *supportare*, Ital.] To sustain; to prop; to bear up.—Stooping to *support* each flower of tender stalk. *Milton.*

The palace built by Picus, vast and proud,
Supported by a hundred pillars stood. *Dryden.*

To endure any thing painful without being overcome.—Strongly to suffer and *support* our pains. *Milton.*—To endure; to bear.—None can *support* a diet of flesh and water without acids, as salt, vinegar, and bread, without falling into a putrid fever. *Arbuthnot.*—To sustain; to keep from fainting.

With inward consolations recompens'd,
And oft *supported*. *Milton.*

SUPPO'RT, *s.* [*support*, Fr.] Act or power of sustaining.—Though the idea we have of a horse or stone be but the collection of those several sensible qualities which we find united in them, yet, because we cannot conceive how they should subsist alone, we suppose them existing in and supported by some common subject, which *support* we denote by the name substance, though it be certain we have no clear idea of that *support*. *Locke.*—Prop; sustaining power. Necessaries of life.—Maintenance; supply.—Let us next consider the ward, or person within age, for whose assistance and *support* these guardians are constituted by law. *Blackstone.*

SUPPO'RTABLE, *adj.* [*supportable*, Fr.] Tolerable; to be endured. It may be observed that *Shakspeare* accents the first syllable.

As great to me, as late; and, *supportable*
To make the dear loss, have I means much weaker
Than you may call to comfort you. *Shakspeare.*

SUPPO'RTABLENESS, *s.* The state of being tolerable.—It hath an influence on the *supportableness* of the burthen. *Hammond.*

SUPPO'RTANCE, or SUPPORTA'TION, *s.* Maintenance; support. *Obsolete.*—Give some *supportance* to the bending twigs. *Shakspeare.*—The benefited subject should render some small portion of his gain, for the *supportation* of the king's expence. *Bacon.*

SUPPO'RTER, *s.* One that supports.—Because a relation cannot be founded in nothing, and the thing here related as a *supporter*, or a support, is not represented to the mind by any distinct idea. *Locke.*—Prop; that by which any thing is borne up from falling.—There is no loss of room at the bottom, as there is in a building set upon *supporters*. *Mortimer.*—Sustainer; comforter. The saints have a companion and *supporter* in all their miseries. *South.*—Maintainer; defender.—The beginning of the earl of Essex I must attribute in great part to my lord of Leicester; but yet as an introducer or *supporter*, not as a teacher. *Wotton.*—*Supporters*. [In Heraldry.] Figures of beasts, birds, and sometimes of human beings, which support the arms.—More might be added of helms, crests, mantles, and *supporters*. *Camden.*

SUPPO'RTFUL, *adj.* Abounding with support. *Not used.*

Upon the Eolian god's *supportfull* wings,
With chearefull shouts, they parted from the shore.
Mir. for Mag.

SUPPO'RTMENT, *s.* Support. *Obsolete.* *Milton.*

SUPPO'SABLE, *adj.* That may be supposed.

SUPPO'SAL, *s.* Position without proof; imagination; belief.—Little can be looked for towards the advancement of natural theory, but from those that are likely to mend our prospect: the defect of events, and sensible appearances, suffer us to proceed no further towards science, than to imperfect guesses and timorous *supposals*. *Glanville.*

To SUPPO'SE, *v. a.* [*supposer*, Fr., *suppono*, Lat.]—

To lay down without proof; to advance by way of argument or illustration without maintaining the truth of the position.—Where we meet with all the indications and evidences of such a thing as the thing is capable of, *supposing* it to be true, it must needs be very irrational to make any doubt of it. *Wilkins.*—To admit without proof.—This is to be entertained as a firm principle, that when we have as great assurance that a thing is, as we could possibly, *supposing* it were, we ought not to make any doubt of its existence. *Tillotson.*—To imagine; to believe without examination.

I *suppose*
We should compel them to a quick result. *Milton*

To require as previous.—This *supposeth* something, without evident ground. *Hale.*—To make reasonably supposed.—One falsehood always *supposes* another, and renders all you can say suspected. *Female Quixote.*—To put one thing by fraud in the place of another.

SUPPO'SE, *s.* Supposition; position without proof; unevicted conceit.

Is Egypt's safety, and the king's, and your's,
Fit to be trusted on a bare *suppose*
That he is honest? *Dryden.*

SUPPO'SER, *s.* One that supposes.
Thou hast by marriage made thy daughter mine,
While counterfeit *supposers* bear'd thine eyne. *Shakspeare.*

SUPPOSITION, *s.* [*supposition*, Fr.] Position laid down; hypothesis; imagination yet unproved.

Sing, syren, for thyself, and I will dote;
Spread o'er the silver waves thy golden hairs,
And as a bed I'll take thee, and there lye;
And in that glorious *supposition* think
He gains by death, that hath such means to die. *Shakspeare.*

SUPPOSITIONAL, *adj.* Hypothetical. *Unused.*

SUPPOSITIOUS, *adj.* [from *suppositus*, *suppositivus*, Latin.] Not genuine; put by a trick into the place or character belonging to another.—It is their opinion that no man ever killed his father; but that, if it should ever happen, the reputed son must have been illegitimate, *supposititious*, or begotten in adultery. *Addison.*—Supposed; imaginary; not real.—Some alterations in the globe tend rather to the benefit of the earth, and its productions, than their destruction, as all these *supposititious* ones manifestly would do. *Woodward.*

SUPPOSITIOUSLY, *adv.* By supposition.—*Suppositiously* he derives it from the Lunæ Montes 15 degrees south. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SUPPOSITIOUSNESS, *s.* State of being counterfeit.

SUPPO'SITIVE, *adj.* Supposed; including a supposition.

SUPPO'SITIVE, *s.* What implies supposition: as *if*.—The *suppositives* denote connection, but assert not actual existence; the positive imply both the one and the other. *Harris.*

SUPPO'SITIVELY, *adv.* Upon supposition.—The unreformed sinner may have some hope *suppositively*, if he do change and repent: the honest penitent may hope positively. *Hammond.*

SUPPO'SITORY, *s.* [from *suppositorium*], in Medicine, a species of clyster.—Various medicated substances which cannot be retained long enough in the bowels in a liquid form to produce their effects, are rolled up into a long cylinder and introduced into the anus, where they gradually dissolve. Soap generally enters into the composition of suppositories. They are but rarely used in the present day.

To SUPPRESS, *v. a.* [*supprimo*, *suppressus*, Lat., *supprimer*, Fr.] To crush; to overpower; to overwhelm; to subdue; to reduce from any state of activity or commotion.—Every rebellion, when it is *suppressed*, doth make the subject weaker, and the prince stronger. *Davies.*—To conceal; not to tell; not to reveal.—Still she *suppresses* the name, and this keeps him in a pleasing suspense; and,

and, in the very close of her speech, she indirectly mentions it. *Broome*.—To keep in; not to let out.

Well did'st thou, Richard, to *suppress* thy voice;
For had the passions of thy heart burst out,
I fear we should have seen decypher'd there
More rancorous spight, more furious raging broils.

Shakspeare.

SUPPRESSEDION, *s.* [*suppression*, Fr., *suppressio*, Lat.] The act of suppressing.—Not publication.—You may depend upon a *suppression* of these verses. *Pope*.

SUPPRESSIVE, *adj.* Suppressing; overpowering; concealing; keeping in.—Johnson gives us expressive and oppressive, but neither impressive nor *suppressive*, though proceeding as obviously from their respective sources. *Seaward*.

SUPPRESSOR, *s.* One that suppresses, crushes, or conceals. *Sherwood*.

To **SUPPURATE**, *v. a.* [from *pus puris*, Lat., *suppurator*, Fr.] To generate *pus* or matter. *Unused*.—This disease is generally fatal: if it *suppurates* the *pus*, it is evacuated into the lower belly, where it produceth putrefaction. *Arbuthnot*.

To **SUPPURATE**, *v. n.* To grow to *pus*.

SUPPURATION, *s.* [*suppuration*, Fr.] The ripening or change of the matter of a tumour into *pus*.—This great attrition must produce a great propensity to the putrescent alkaline condition of the fluids, and consequently to *suppurations*. *Arbuthnot*.—The matter *suppurated*. *Unused*.—The great physician of souls sometimes cannot cure without cutting us: *sin* has festered inwardly, and he must lance the imposthume, to let out death with the *suppuration*. *South*.

SUPPURATIVE, *adj.* [*suppuratif*, Fr.] Digestive; generating matter. *Cotgrave*.

SUPPURATIVE, *s.* A *suppurating* medicine.—If the inflammation be gone too far towards a *suppuration*, then it must be promoted with *suppuratives*, and opened by incision. *Wiseman*.

SUPPUTATION, *s.* [*supputo*, Lat.] Reckoning; account; calculation; computation.—From these differing properties of day and year arise difficulties in carrying on and reconciling the *supputation* of time in long measures. *Holder*.

To **SUPPUTE**, *v. a.* [from *supputo*, Lat.] To reckon; to calculate.

SUPPRA. [Latin.] In composition, signifies *above*, or *before*.

SUPRALAPSARIAN, or **SUPRALAPSARY**, *adj.* [*supra*, and *lapsus*, Latin.] Antecedent to the fall of man.

SUPRALAPSARIAN, *s.* One who maintains the *supralapsarian* doctrine.—*Supralapsarians*, with whom the object of the decree is *homo conditus*, man created, not yet fallen; and the *sublapsarians*, with whom it is man fallen, or the corrupt mass. *Hammond*.

SUPRAMUNDANE, *adj.* Above the world.—He that was in the form of God, clothed with all the majesty and glory of the *supramundane* life, yet emptied himself of all this unspeakable felicity, and took upon him the form of a servant. *Hallywell*.

SUPRAVULGAR, *adj.* Above the vulgar.—None of these motives can prevail with a man to furnish himself with *supravulgar* and noble qualities. *Collier*.

SUPREMACY, *s.* Highest place; highest authority; state of being *supreme*.—No appeal may be made unto any one of higher power, in as much as the order of discipline admitteth no standing inequality of courts, no spiritual judge to have any ordinary superior on earth, but as many *supremacies* as there are parishes and several congregations. *Hooker*.

As we under heav'n are *supreme* head,
So, under him, that great *supremacy*,
Where we do reign, we will alone uphold. *Shakspeare*.

SUPREME, *adj.* [*supremus*, Lat.] Highest in dignity; highest in authority. It may be observed, that *superiour* is

used often of local elevation, but *supreme* only of intellectual or political.

The god of soldiers,
With the consent of *supreme* Jove, inform
Thy thoughts with nobleness.

Shakspeare.

Highest; most excellent.
No single virtue we could most commend;
Whether the wife, the mother, or the friend;
For she was all in that *supreme* degree,
That as no one prevail'd, so all was she.

Dryden.

SUPREMEPLY, *adv.* In the highest degree.
The starving chemist in his golden views
Supremely blest, the poet in his muse.

Pope.

SUR. [*sur*, Fr.] In composition, means *upon* or *over* and *above*.

SUR, a small river in the north of Switzerland, in the canton of Lucerne, which issues from the Lake of Sur, and falls into the Rhine below Arau.

SUR, or **SOUR**. See **TYRE**.
SURA, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey, on the Euphrates.

SURA, a village of Irak Arabi, on the Euphrates; 160 miles south of Bagdad.

SURACA, a small town of the island of Samos; 4 miles south-west of Cara.

SURADDITION, *s.* Something added to the name.

He serv'd with glory and admir'd success

So gain'd the *suraddition*, Leonatus.

Shakspeare.

SURADSJE, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 16 miles east-south-east of Doran.

SURAJEGHUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, district of Monghier. It is situated on the south bank of the river Ganges, and formerly possessed a stone fort. Lat. 25. 14. N. long. 86. 15. E.

SURAJEPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad. It is pleasantly situated on the western bank of the river Ganges, and is adorned with many Hindoo temples, and steps leading down to the river for the convenience of bathing. Lat. 26. 10. N. long. 80. 37. E.—*Suraje* being the name of the sun, which is one of the innumerable Hindoo deities, there are many towns so dedicated to, or called after him, in India.

SURAL, *adj.* [from *sura*, Lat.] Being in the calf of the leg.—He was wounded in the inside of the calf of his leg, into the *sural* artery. *Wiseman*.

SURAMACA, a river of Dutch Guiana, which runs into the Atlantic, near the settlement of Cupename.

SURAMI, a village and fortress of Georgia, in the province of Cartuel; 24 miles west-south-west of Gori.

SURAN, a village of Korassan, in Persia; 45 miles north of Meru.

SURANCE, *s.* Warrant; security; assurance.

Give some *surance* that thou art revenge;

Stab them, tear them on thy chariot wheels. *Shakspeare.*

SURANY, **NAGY**, a small town in the north-west of Hungary, on the river Neutra; 20 miles north of Comorn.

SURASH, a market town of the west of European Russia, in the government of Vitepsk, on the Dwina, with only 700 inhabitants; 24 miles east-north-east of Vitepsk.

SURAT, a large and populous city of Hindostan, province of Gujerat. It is situated on the south bank of the river Taptee, about 20 miles from its embouchure. It is a fortified town, contains about 70,000 inhabitants, of all nations and religions, and carries on a very extensive trade, notwithstanding all large vessels are obliged to remain at the mouth of the river called Swallow roads, where they are rather exposed to storms, but the anchorage is good. *Surat* was formerly called the Imperial port, and was the place whence the Mahometan pilgrims were conveyed to Mecca, often at the expense of government. It was here that the English East India Company obtained permission from the Mogul emperor Jehangire, to establish their first factory in Hindostan.

Hindustan. The firman, or order, is dated in 1612. The Dutch and French acquired the same privileges a short time after. At this period its articles of commerce were of the richest kind, viz.; diamonds, pearls, gold, musk, ambergris, spices, indigo, saltpetre, silk, and fine cotton manufactures, both plain and coloured. But since the rise of Bombay, the value of its traffic has much declined, and now consists chiefly of raw cotton, a few of its own manufactures, and articles imported from Gujerat. The greater number of vessels which now enter the port are Arabs. Although Surat is inhabited by persons of all nations, the Parrses, or fire worshippers, are the most considerable in affluence. They have been settled here since the 7th century, when driven from their native country, Persia, by the followers of Mahomet. They intermarry only with each other, and retain all their ancient customs and prejudices, the most remarkable of which are their repugnance to extinguish fire, and exposing their dead to be eaten by birds. They are, however, dextrous mechanics, good servants, and skilful merchants.

The next extraordinary people of this city are a set of Hindoos, who never willingly deprive any thing of life, and erect hospitals for the preservation of maimed or diseased animals, though this practice has of late fallen into disuse. Surat is situated on a fertile plain, protected on one side by the river, and on the three others by a brick rampart and ditch. It also possesses a strong citadel, situated on the bank of the river, and surrounded by an esplanade. Under the native governments the citadel was always commanded by an officer, independent of the governor of the town, and who, under the Mogul system, was also superintendant of the royal marine. The governor of the citadel and its garrison were maintained by an assignment on the revenue of the district. The governor of the town received not only the customs of the ports, but the duties levied in the city, and the rents of the district surrounding it. Of the ancient history of Surat under the Hindoo dynasties, we have no authentic records, although it was probably at that period a place of considerable consequence. But it is stated in Feriskta's History of Gujerat, that in the year 1538 Sultan Mahmoud being much alarmed at the incursions of the Portuguese, sent orders to his general, Khodovund Khan, a Turk commanding in the southern districts, to build a strong fortress at this place; and from the description given of it, it is doubtless the present citadel. It was taken by the Mogul emperor Akbar, in the year 1572, after a vigorous siege of 47 days, who found therein a number of Turkish cannon, which were called Soleymany, from their having belonged to the Ottoman emperor, and had been sent on board his fleet to India for the purpose of expelling the Portuguese. Akbar appointed a governor to the district including the city, but the defence of the citadel was entrusted to a Kelada independent of the governor, which system was continued by his successors. To the latter was subsequently added the appointment of admiral or comptroller of the Mogul marine, which consisted of several men of war, and a number of small vessels. In the year 1664 the city was surprised and plundered by the Mahratta chief Sevajee. The exterior wall at that time was only of mud, and the gates were not strong. He had therefore little difficulty in entering the town, but was compelled to retreat by the fire from the citadel. The booty he obtained for his own share amounted to a million sterling. Five years subsequent to this event he again repeated his visit; and although a new and better wall had been commenced, yet as it was not finished, the inhabitants were compelled to pay a heavy contribution: the English and Dutch factories were, however, exempted, as they had been in 1664. In the year 1671 Sevajee again appeared before Surat, and compelled the inhabitants to ransom their property, from which circumstance he jocosely named that city his private treasury; and his successors, not willing to relinquish their claim, laid it again under contribution in the years 1702 and 1707. On the decline of the Mogul authority, when the governor of every province assumed independence, those of Surat also wished to take advantage of the general confusion; but quarrelling with each other, one of the parties called in a

body of Mahrattas to his assistance, and assigned to them a third part of the customs of the port, while the English and Dutch factories espousing opposite sides, assisted them with ammunition and cannon. After various contests, Moyeen Addeen, the governor of the city, finding himself unequal to the reduction of the citadel, offered to cede the place to the British, provided they would assist him to expel his rival. This proposal was accepted by the Bombay government, and a civil servant named Spencer was sent, in the year 1759, with a considerable force, to effect this object. On their arrival at Surat they were admitted into the town, and in a few days compelled the garrison to capitulate.

The British took possession of the fortress, but in the name of the emperor of Delhi, from whom they shortly after obtained, in the name of the East India Company, the commissions of governor of Surat, and admiral of the Mogul fleet, with an assignment on the duties and customs, of 25,000*l.* per annum, for the support of the marine and citadel. But as the Mahrattas still required the fulfilment of their agreement, and were too powerful to be refused either by the English or the nabob, this circumstance established three discordant authorities in the place, which could not fail of causing much confusion and oppression of the inhabitants.

In 1763, the nabob Moyeen Addeen died, and was succeeded by his son Cuttub Addeen, who died, in 1792, and was succeeded by his son Nazim Addeen, who died in 1800, and was succeeded by his son Nasir Addeen, who shortly after this event entered into a treaty with the British, to resign all his authority for the payment of an annual sum of 12,500*l.*, and a proportion of the extra revenue that may hereafter be collected. The successes of the British against the Mahrattas in 1803 also compelled them to relinquish all claims on Surat, which is now governed by a civil servant, who is styled the *chief* and senior judge of the court of circuit and appeal, having under him a magistrate for regulating the police of the city and adjoining district. Under this judicious management the country in the vicinity of Surat, which was formerly overrun by banditti, is fast recovering its prosperity; and although the city, owing to the rivalry of Bombay, can never again attain its former splendour, it is still a rich and populous place, and of much political consequence. Lat. 21. 13. N. long. 73. 3. E.

SURATA, a river of South America, in New Granada, and province of Santa Martha, which runs into the river Lobrija.

SURBASE, *s.* A kind of skirt, border, or moulding, above the base.—There is a double flight of steps, a rustic *subase*. *Pennant.*

Round the hall, the oak's high *subase* rears

The field-day triumphs of two hundred years. *Langhorne.*

SURBASED, *adj.* Having a *subase* or moulding.—The tomb—has a wide *sur-based* arch with scalloped ornaments. *Gray.*

To SURBATE, *v. a.* [*solbatir*, Fr.] To bruise and batter the feet with travel.—Their mareh they continued all that night, the horsemen often alighting, that the foot might ride, and others taking many of them behind them; however, they could not but be extremely weary and *subated*. *Clarendon.*

SURBATING, is a term used to signify when the sole of a horn is worn out, bruised, or spoiled by any accident, as by bad shoeing, especially when the shoes lie flat on the feet.

SURBEAT, or SURBE'T. The participle passive of *subate*, which Spenser and Hall have used for *subate*.

A bear and tiger being met

In cruel fight on Lybick ocean wide,

Espy a traveller with feet *subet*,

Whom they in equal-prey hope to divide. *Spenser.*

SURBURG, a large village in the north-east of France, in Lower Alsace, on the river Saur, with 1500 inhabitants.

To SURCEA'SE, *v. n.* To be at an end; to stop; to cease; to be no longer in use or being.

Small favours will my prayers increase:
Granting my suit, you give me all;
And then my prayers must needs *surcease*;
For I have made your godhead fall.

Donne.

To leave off; to practise no longer; to refrain finally.
Nor did the British squadrons now *surcease*
To gall their foes o'erwhelm'd.

Philips.

To *SURCEASE*, *v. a.* To stop; to put to an end.

All pain hath end, and every war hath peace;
But mine no price, nor prayer, may *surcease*.

Spenser.

SURCEASE, *s.* Cessation; stop.—It might very well agree with your principles, if your discipline were fully planted, even to send out your writs of *surcease* into all courts of England for the most things handled in them.

Hooker.

To *SURCHARGE*, *v. a.* [*surcharger*, Fr.] To overload; to overburthen.

More remov'd,
Lest heaven *surcharg'd* with potent multitude,
Might hap to move no broils.

Milton.

SURCHARGE, *s.* [*surcharge*, Fr.] Burthen added to burthen; overburthen; more than can be well borne.—The air, after receiving a charge, doth not receive a *surcharge*, or greater charge, with like appetite as it doth the first.

Bacon.

SURCHARGER, *s.* One that overburthens.
SURCINGLE, *s.* A girth with which the burthen is bound upon a horse. The girdle of a cassock.—Justly he chose the *surcingle* and gown.

Marvel.

SURCINGLED, *adj.* Girt.
Is't not a shame to see each homely groom
Sit peached in an idle chariot room,
That were not meete some pannel to bestride,
Sursingled to a galled hackney's hide?

Bp. Hall.

SURCLE, *s.* A shoot; a twig; a sucker. *Not in general use.*—It is an arboreous excrescence, or superplant, which the tree cannot assimilate, and therefore sprouteth not forth in boughs and *sureles* of the same shape unto the tree.

Brown.

SURCO, the name of two inconsiderable settlements in Peru, in the provinces of Cercado and Guarochiri.
SURCOAT, *s.* [*surcot*, old Fr.] A short coat worn over the rest of the dress.

That day in equal arms they fought for fame;
Their swords, their shields, their *surcoats* were the same.

Dryden.

SURCREW, *s.* Augmentation; additional collection. *Not in use.*—It [a fever] had once left me, as I thought; but it was only to fetch more company, returning with a *surcrew* of those splenetick vapours that are called hypochondriacal.

Wotton.

SUR CUI in vita, in Law, a writ that lies for the heir of a woman, whose husband aliened her land in fee, and she neglected to bring the writ *cui in vita* for the recovery thereof, her heir may bring this writ against the tenant after her decease.

To *SURCULATE*, *v. a.* [*surcalo*, Lat.] To prune; to cut off young shoots.

SURCULATION, *s.* The act of pruning.—When insinuation and grafting, in the text, is applied unto the olive tree, it hath an emphatical sense, very agreeable unto that tree, which is best propagated this way; not at all by *surculation*.

Sir T. Brown.

SURCULUS, a word used to express that part of the branching of the ribs of a leaf which is of the middle kind, between the great middle rib and the smallest reticular ramifications.

SURD, *adj.* [*sourd*, Fr.] Deaf; wanting the sense of hearing.—He who hath had the patience of Diogenes, to make orations unto statues, may more sensibly apprehend how all words fall to the ground, spent upon such a *surd* and earless generation of men, stupid unto all instruction, and rather requiring an exorcist than an orator for their con-

version. *Brown.*—Unheard; not perceived by the ear. Not expressed by any term.

SURDNUMBER, *s.* That which is incommensurate with unity. See *ABSURD*.

SURDITY, *s.* Deafness.

SURDY, a small uninhabited island in the Persian gulf, situated to the south of Kishme. Lat. 25. 54. N.

SURE, *adj.* [*seure*, Fr.] Certain; unfailing; infallible.

Who knows,

Let this be good, whether our angry foe
Can give it, or will ever? How he can
Is doubtful, that he never will is *sure*.

Milton.

Certainly doomed.—Our coin beyond sea is valued according to the silver in it: sending it in bullion is the safest way, and the weightiest is *sure* to go. *Locke.*—Confident; undoubting; certainly knowing.

Friar Laurence met them both;

Him he knew well, and guess'd that it was she;

But, being mask'd, he was not *sure* of it.

Shakspeare.

Safe; firm; certain; past doubt or danger. To *make sure* is to secure, so as that nothing shall put it out of one's possession or power.

I bred you up to arms, rais'd you to power,

All to make *sure* the vengeance of this day,

Which even this day has ruin'd.

Dryden.

Firm; stable; steady; not liable to failure.

Thou the garland wear'st successively;

Yet though thou stand'st more *sure* than I could do,

Thou art not firm enough.

Shakspeare.

To *be SURE*. Certainly. This is a vicious expression: more properly *be sure*.—Objects of sense would then determine the views of all such, *to be sure*, who conversed perpetually with them. *Atterbury.*

SURE, *adv.* [*surement*, Fr.] Certainly; without doubt; doubtless. It is generally without emphasis; and, notwithstanding its original meaning, expresses rather doubt than assertion.

Something, *sure*, of state

Hath puddled his clear sp'rit.

Shakspeare.

SUREFOOTED, *adj.* Treading firmly; not stumbling.

True earnest sorrows, rooted miseries,

Anguish in grain, vexations ripe and blown,

Surefooted griefs, solid calamities.

Herbert.

SURELY, *adv.* Certainly; undoubtedly; without doubt. It is often used rather to intend and strengthen the meaning of the sentence, than with any distinct and explicable meaning.—In the day that thou eatest thereof thou shalt *surely* die. *Genesis.*—Firmly; without hazard.—He that walketh uprightly, walketh *surely*. *Proverbs.*

SURENESS, *s.* Certainty.

The subtle ague, that for *sureness* sake

Takes its own time th' assault to make.

Cowley.

SURETISHIP, *s.* The office of a surety or bondsman; the act of being bound for another.

Idly, like prisoners, which whole months will swear

That only *suretiship* hath brought them there.

Donne.

SURETY, *s.* [*sureté*, Fr.] Certainty; indubitableness.

—Know of a *surety* that thy seed shall be a stranger. *Gen. xv.*—Security; safety.—There the princesses determining to bathe, thought it was so privileged a place as no body durst presume to come thither; yet, for the more *surety*, they looked round about. *Sidney.*—Foundation of stability; support.

We our state

Hold, as you your's, while our obedience holds:

On other *surety* none.

Milton.

Evidence; ratification; confirmation.

She call'd the saints to *surety*,

That she would never put it from her finger,

Unless she gave it to yourself.

Shakspeare.

Security

Security against loss or damage; security for payment.

There remains unpaid

A hundred thousand more, in *surety* of the which
One part of Acquittain is bound to us. *Shakspeare.*

Hostage; bondsman; one that gives security for another;
one that is bound for another.

That you may well perceive I have not wrong'd you,
One of the greatest in the Christian world
Shall be my *surety*. *Shakspeare.*

SURF, *s.* [probably from the French *surf*, "the rising of billow upon billow, or the interchanged swelling of several waves. *Cotgrave.*] The swell or dashing of the sea that beats against rocks or the shore.—Swell is more particularly applied to the fluctuating motion of the sea, which remains after the expiration of a storm; and also to that which breaks on the shore, or on rocks and shallows, called *surf*. *Falconer.*—Foam.

SURFACE, *s.* [*surface*, old Fr. Milton places the accent on the last syllable.] Superficies; outside; superface.

Which of us who beholds the bright *surface*
Of this ethereous mold, whereon we stand. *Milton.*

To **SURFEIT**, *v. a.* [French, *to do more than enough; to overdo.*] To feed with meat or drink to satiety and sickness; to cram overmuch.

The *surfeited* grooms
Do mock their charge with snores. *Shakspeare.*

To **SURFEIT**, *v. n.* To be fed to satiety and sickness.—They are as sick that *surfeit* with too much, as they that starve with nothing. *Shakspeare.*

SURFEIT, *s.* Sickness or satiety caused by overfulness.—When we are sick in fortune, often the *surfeits* of our own behaviour, we make guilty of our disasters the sun, the moon and stars. *Shakspeare.*

SURFEITER. One who riots; a glutton.

I did not think
This am'rous *surfeiter* would have donn'd his helm
For such a petty war. *Shakspeare.*

SURFEITING, *s.* The act of feeding with meat or drink to satiety and sickness.

Kill not her quickening power with *surfeitings*;

Mar not her sense with sensuality. *Davies.*

SURFEITWATER, *s.* Water that cures surfeits.—A little cold distilled poppywater, which is the true *surfeit-water*, with ease and abstinence, often ends distempers in the beginning. *Loeke.*

SURFLEFT, a village and parish of England, in Lincolnshire, situated at the mouth of the river Coln. It has a handsome church built of stone, and two free schools; and here is one of the largest heronries in the kingdom. Population 658; 4 miles north of Spalding.

SURGE, *s.* [from *surgo*, Lat.] A swelling sea; wave rolling above the general surface of the water; billow; wave.

The wind-shak'd *surge*, with high and monstrous main
Seems to cast water on the burning bear,
And quench the guards of the ever-fired pole:
I never did like molestation view
On the enchafed flood. *Shakspeare.*

To **SURGE**, *v. n.* [from *surgo*, Lat.] To swell; to rise high.

The serpent mov'd, not with indented wave,
Prone on the ground, as since; but on his rear
Circular base of rising folds, that tower'd
Fold above fold, a *surging* maze! *Milton.*

SURGELESS, *adj.* Without surges; calm.

In *surgeless* seas of quiet rest when I
Seven yeares had sail'd, a pirrie did arise,
The blasts whereof abridg'd my libertie. *Mir. for Mag.*

SURGEON, *s.* [Corrupted by conversation from *chirurgion*. *Dr. Johnson.*—*Surgeon* is a very old English word; and is no doubt adopted from the ancient French, *surgien*. *Todd.*] One who practises surgery.—The wound was past the cure of a better *surgeon* than myself, so as I could but receive some few of her dying words. *Sidney.*

SURGERES, a small town in the west of France, in the department of the Lower Charente. Population 1500. Its chief traffic is in the horses of the neighbouring country; 12 miles north-east of Rochefort, and 21 north of Saintes.

S U R G E R Y.

SURGERY, *s.* [Corrupted from *Chirurgery*, which is derived from the Greek *χειρ*, a hand, and *εργον*, labour.] In its strictest and primary sense, the art of operating manually on the human body for the cure of diseases; in its second acceptation, it embraced the science of curing the body of such maladies, internal or not, as arise in consequence of accident or injury. At present surgery implies the art of manual operation, the science of pathology, inasmuch as it is connected with the well-doing of patients under surgical operations, and also several complaints quite unconnected with manual operation, but which custom and convenience have thrown into the hands of the surgeon.

The division of the healing art into medicine and surgery being marked by a line so far from precise, and being, in fact, quite arbitrary, it has been deemed by many unnatural and inexpedient. Virtually, the two branches are united in the practice of surgeons of the present day; and there are some of them who have lent astonishing assistance to the science of medicine. Viewed generally, however, it must be confessed that if they exhibit no deficiency in practical success, yet that in the discrimination of symptoms and rules for prognosis in internal diseases they have displayed none of that remarkable and accurate observation which has so much distinguished English physicians from the time of Sydenham to the present day. At the same time we must give the highest meed of praise to the surgeons who broke through that absurd custom which rendered them the mere mechanical servants

of the physician,* and to those who brought the science of pathology to the test of anatomical and physiological investigation.

In our own time, we have seen a surgeon introduce into the practice of medicine as memorable a change as any which has been made since the time of Hippocrates. Nor have the researches of physicians been lost on the practice of surgery; operations have been instituted which entirely owed their success to sound views of the resources of the animal oconomy: and the nature and extent of these resources had been, in the first instances, discovered by those who practised medicine only. In both branches the metaphysical acumen of the physician has cleared away obscurities in physiological or pathological phenomena, and has been of great service in making minute distinctions or useful generalizations. While the professors of the surgical art, by their facility at dissection, have done immense service towards morbid anatomy, and the experiments their chirological tact has enabled them to perform on various animals, have materially advanced physiology, which is universally allowed to be the foundation of pathology.

It is to be hoped, therefore (whatever petty attempts may be made to disturb their harmony), that the physician and

* Johnson defined a surgeon,—“One who cures by manual operation; one whose duty is to act in external maladies by the direction of the physician.”

surgeon will continue to go hand in hand in their career of improvement. The former brings from the colleges those powers of analysis and of strict logical demonstration which the study of the learned languages and the mathematics is calculated to develop. While the latter, ever tied down to contemplate the gross and visual objects under his knife, reduces the discursive flights of theory to accurate and practical experiment. It is true, that if the physician had generally made dissection a part of his education, we should have seen fewer of those brain-spun systems which anatomy has so often overthrown; but at the same time, if surgeons had been more generally classically educated, the disgrace of being proverbial for a barbarous and inelegant style of writing had been spared us, and we might have escaped the ridicule which some recent theories of life have tended to cast on our logical accuracy.

We shall not, however, enter further into any question as to the respective merits of surgeons or physicians, or rather of their courses of education; our own feelings being, perhaps, too much interested to allow us to be impartial. We shall content ourselves with observing that the public, who are the best judges of their own interest, have pretty generally decided that it is individuals, and not classes, who are to derive honour and profit from the profession, and they appear very justly and naturally to think that the division of their medical attendants into two or three rival classes, by keeping up a spirit of emulation, is conducive to the general welfare of the community, and the advancement of pathological knowledge.

The diseases, then, which are assigned to the surgeon, are, 1st. Every disease which may or can require a manual operation: as, fracture, dislocation, distortion, tumour, hernia. 2d. The medical diseases of such parts as are usually the subjects of surgical operations: e. g. diseases of the urethra and other urinary organs; syphilis, diseases of the eye and the ear.

Since, in the treatment of all these maladies, the general principles of inflammation and of other morbid actions are requisite to be known, and as the practice founded on these principles is incalculably more useful than any manual dexterity which may be called into play in an operation, it becomes necessary to enter somewhat fully into those diseases which are

UNIVERSAL OR GENERAL.

Notwithstanding the multitudinous divisions of the nosologists, all diseases may be resolved into two classes:—diseases of vessels and diseases of nerves. This division, which is to a demonstration real, because there are no other active or vital parts, except vessels and nerves in the body, is practically extremely convenient; since every person is aware that the chief difficulty in practice is to distinguish those diseases which are simply nervous, and which may continue for a long time without danger, and are often cured by stimulation or mild and feeble measures, from those actions of the vascular system which destroy the functions or structure of an organ, and which are for the most part curable only by agents promptly and vigorously put in force.

The two divisions run into each other; the actions of the secreting organs, especially, are so intimately connected with functions of nerves, that it is scarcely possible to suppose any organ can have one of these elementary parts in a morbid state, without the other participating in it. The class of diseases, however, which are usually meant by the term vascular, are such as affect the red blood-vessels; for though these also are subservient to the action of the nervous system, the connection is not so intimate. No division of disease will be expected by the physiologist, to be marked with a precise line. The human body is a machine, every part whereof depends so closely on another, that an insulated action, and consequently an insulated disease, cannot take place.

The function of a nerve in pathology is confined, 1st. To giving notice of the receipt of injury or other morbid cause to the mind; in other words, suffering pain: this, however, is not invariable. 2dly. To causing an increased flow of

blood to the inflamed part. 3dly. To exciting such remote actions of the system as may assist collaterally to the restoration of the part affected. Thus the action of the heart becomes increased, the secretions of the digestive apparatus locked up, and other analogous changes take place in proportion to the severity of the primary disease.

The reason why an injury should excite pain is very evident. The utility of removing the injured part out of the sphere of the injuring cause, and of keeping it at rest, being apparent to any one. But why a blow should excite local inflammation, and also general fever, with a morbid change in the constitution of the whole mass of blood and in the action of all the animal organs, is so difficult of explanation, that what we shall proceed to offer can be looked upon as nothing more than conjecture.

We shall do well to reflect that whatever injury may take place in the body, whether a contusion destroys the properties of a part, or an incision separates it, two things are necessary to be done. The dead part is to be removed, and the loss to be repaired by means of a new and similar structure. Both these changes take place through the medium of the blood. Into this fluid the old structure is to be absorbed; and from it the new one formed. Since these processes, though of the same nature, are greater in degree than the powers of the parts are wont to perform, it is necessary that these powers be increased. In the first place, we should naturally expect that the quantity of blood should become greater. With this expectation the facts accord. There is obviously in inflamed limbs a greater quantity of blood than ordinary. But this blood requires to be changed, to be converted into the structure which is to be built up. Now, there can be little doubt that the assimilating power of blood-vessels is under the control of the nervous system; and hence we see that extraordinary changes being required, extraordinary nervous energies ought to be developed. Accordingly, increased heat and acute sensibility are manifested.

Other and more general phenomena, however, take place, especially after serious injuries. A fever called sympathetic comes on. This fever consists in an increased action of the heart and lungs, exalted temperature of the skin, and diminution and alteration of all the secretions. The two first of these phenomena being exactly of the same nature as what occurs in the limb itself, we may naturally refer them to the same purposes; namely, the increment in the quantity of blood sent through the limb, and of nervous power, in order to convert the blood into new structure. The diminution of the discerning functions might be explained from a well known law of the nervous system; namely, that if one portion of this system acts with unusual vigour, every other portion betrays unwonted languor. But it is probable that we should go deeper; that there is a second end answered by this tardiness of the secretions,—the alteration in the state of the blood. That this fluid is changed, is evident, since, in all inflammations it is what is called *buffed*,—that is, inclined to separate coagulable lymph more rapidly, and in greater quantities than ordinary from the rest of its component parts.

We have already so far anticipated what we had to say on the action of vessels in inflammation, as to state that the quantity of blood is increased in a limb when it is inflamed; this being a point easily solved by experiment, and allowed on all hands. Authors, however, are divided as to the question whether the blood moves slower or faster than ordinary in inflamed vessels. Doctors Hastings, Wilson Philip, and others, conclude, from microscopical observations, that the current of the blood is retarded in velocity, but that the calibre of the vessels is enlarged. But the inaccuracy of this opinion is proved by a process of reasoning far less liable to inaccuracy than observations made with the microscope. There is no fact more obvious than that the arteries going to an inflamed part, are larger than ordinary. But supposing there were in the part which they are passing any impediment to the flow of blood, would they enlarge? On the contrary; no law is more clearly established than that arteries contract whenever a resistance is offered to the exit of their blood. A ligature around an artery causes this phenomenon to take place at once. Pressure causes the same thing, though

though more tardily. On the other hand, where hæmorrhage, or any unusual discharge is taking place, there occurs an inordinate afflux of blood. Again, if there be a lentor of the blood in inflammation, how happens it that the veins, returning from an inflamed part, are also enlarged in calibre, and apparently increased in number? Such are the facts, as any one may satisfy himself by experiment on an animal, and they prove that no impediment to the flow of blood exists. There may be an *error loci*, as Boerhaave called it: the passage of blood may be impeded through the smaller capillary vessels, and the larger ones may hence be preternaturally distended. Such a supposition, however, by no means accords with the appearances on dissection, for the sanguineous vessels are found as much increased in number as in bulk.

Inflammations are divided into various kinds, according to the appearances they present. On the surface of the body we distinguish phlegmon and erysipelas. The former is described in the four words of Celsus, tumor, calor, rubor, dolor. The tumour is a regular swelling which gradually subsides by a regular circumference into the surrounding parts, and loses as it diminishes the other characters. It is to be remarked, that the heat, though greater to the feelings of the patient, occasions no great rise in the thermometer; that the pain is of a dull kind, and indeed there is seldom little more felt than the throbbing of the arteries of the part. Phlegmon belongs to the skin, cellular tissue, and muscles; the constitutional fever it excites, is of that kind usually denominated inflammatory; a pulse full and frequent; a disturbance of the nervous system, varying from a little restlessness or disinclination for sleep to actual delirium; a sustained increase of the heat of the skin; all the secretions partially stopped and altered, whence result dry furred tongue, constipation, high coloured urine, and want of perspiration.

Erysipelas is a form of inflammation confined to the skin and cellular tissue. It is just the reverse of phlegmon, in regard to its outward appearance; for instead of a regular swelling highest in the middle, and imperceptibly sinking into the surrounding parts, it has an abrupt edge, ending, as it were, all at once; is quite irregular; instead of being hard, is boggy; subsides on pressure, but returns; spreads very rapidly laterally, and very slowly downwards. It betrays little tendency to secrete pus, and none for the deposition of coagulating lymph; and it varies from a slight red blush, acquiring in a few days a yellowish hue and ending in desquamation, to a deep red, hot, painful swelling, quickly covered with vesications, and ultimately terminating in gangrene.

The sympathetic fever varies of course extremely with the various appearances of the inflammation; generally speaking, however, it may be characterised as of the low nervous kind. It is very trifling in common cases, but when erysipelas attacks the face, the constitutional irritation is very high, coma and delirium supersede, and the patient is frequently carried off.

It is difficult to learn the cause of the peculiar appearance of this form of inflammation. Some have supposed that it arises from the particular structure it affects, but this is assuredly not the case, since phlegmon also affects the skin. It may perhaps arise from the peculiar matter exuded; but this is a mere conjecture. Nor is the reason why sometimes erysipelas, and sometimes phlegmon follow the same injury at all apparent. This only has been established by repeated observations, that there is nearly always antecedent to the inflammation something amiss in the constitution of the patient. Either he was drunk when he was exposed to the causes of erysipelas, or he was an habitual drunkard, or otherwise had an impaired constitution.

The appearances of phlegmon and erysipelas are often modified by their being mixed together. Of the union of the two inflammations the most remarkable examples are the *carbuncle* and the *boil*. These tumours, which vary only in degree (the former being small and occurring in healthy persons, and the other being large and commonly the sign of a broken-down constitution), are remarkable for swelling higher than phlegmon and terminating in more irregular

edges; they are also attended with the hot burning sensation of erysipelas; but their most distinctive characters are the formation of a gangrenous core at the bases, accompanied by the formation of pus in irregular holes, and extreme hardness.

The fever which accompanies the boil is scarcely perceptible, when the patient has a good constitution. But in carbuncle there is always much constitutional disturbance—a fever of the typhus kind, accompanied often by great depression and restlessness.

Inflammation of the internal organs presents different symptoms as it affects the mucous membranes, the serous membranes, or the parenchyma of the viscera. The mucous membranes undergo an inflammation so far erysipelatous, that it spreads laterally; but here the resemblance, both as to appearance and constitutional symptoms, ends. Inflammations of the parenchyma, indicate most of the characters of phlegmon; there is a sensation of heat and distention in the part affected; dissection shews it to have been gorged with blood. Making some allowance for the particular parts of the nervous system implicated, the fever in these affections is of the kind which belongs to the phlegmonous; namely, the inflammatory.

The serous membranes, as well as the cartilages and the bones, scarcely undergo any active inflammation without sudden and complete disorganization. The pleura is capable of intenser inflammation than the peritoneum, without being destroyed; nor is there much depression of strength,—a phenomenon very remarkable when the latter is affected.

By an arrangement differing from the one we have chosen, inflammations have been divided according to their terminations, as into adhesive, suppurative, and the like; but since the circulating vessels are only capable of one kind of action, such divisions are not strictly true. These phenomena are rather to be considered as consequential or secondary, and should not therefore be confounded with inflammation which is simply an affection of the red blood-vessel, and is therefore identical in every structure. Proceeding in this view of the case, we shall consider the terminations of inflammation.

The first and rarest, called *resolution*, occurs only after slight accidents, and consists in the restoration of the properties of the injured part by a little exaltation in the circulatory and nervous powers.

In the second, a separation of the blood takes place at the extremity of the inflamed vessels; that portion called coagulable lymph is deposited. This deposition is one of the most general and useful of all morbid processes. If a part is merely contused, this substance is poured into its interstices, where it serves to supply the place of such parts as having lost their vitality, are removed by absorption. If a cut has been made, it furnishes a cement which by its tenacity mechanically unites the divided parts; and this union is shortly after rendered permanent by means of vessels that shoot through the lymph in every direction. It forms a bed for the formation of new bone, or cartilage, when these structures are broken, and it affords room for adhesions in various parts of the viscera, frequently effecting a very remarkable preservation of life, but as often producing very dangerous effects.

The effusion of coagulable lymph, though ordinarily, is not invariably in direct proportion to the vehemence of the attendant inflammation; and there are many facts which warrant the inference that it depends very much on the state of the blood. It is generally most copious as the inflammation subsides, affects the serous membranes more than any other part, and rarely attacks the mucous membranes. On the former structures, it is found uniting them together in various directions, and vascular; the latter coagulable lymph does not unite, but is found lining them as with additional membranes, sometimes in patches, sometimes assuming very accurately their form. The effusion of serum accompanies that of lymph; it often occurs likewise alone, but then seems peculiar to the unbroken surface of the Dermis, when the cuticle is taken off, as in a blister, and to the serous membranes. The inflammation which precedes it is of a milder character

character than that which precedes the deposition of solid lymph. The third way inflammation terminates is in suppuration. In this process the absorption of the affected structure is so rapid, that a considerable cavity is formed. This cavity, if the skin is entire, we denominate an *abscess*; if broken, an *ulcer*. The filling up of this cavity is effected by the secretion of a fluid called *pus*. It is poured forth from the sides of the cavity which are always indurated. Its composition bears a very near affinity to blood; its colour, however, being a yellow white. In this pus there are soon observed red spots which the microscope shows to be blood-vessels; these growing up in bundles present a granulated appearance, and gradually fill up the cavity with flesh of the same kind as had been removed.

Now this process is liable to many irregularities; the abscess frequently burrows into important parts and forms dangerous sinuses. The secretion of pus is often incomplete, being mixed with too much blood, or presenting a watery composition which is called *sanies*. In this case the ulcer assumes every variety of appearance, and requires the interference of art to bring about the formation of natural pus. The granulations are often deficient, and do not fill up the vacancy, or they are so redundant as to ascend beyond its edge, and form a protrusion, having a fungoid or sprouting appearance.

The last mode in which inflammations terminate, is by gangrene. This formidable affection supervenes after any species of inflammation, and there is no structure exempt from it. It consists in a perfect dissolution of the structure it attacks, which is converted into a dark-brown fetid mass, and loses all but a mechanical connection with the living parts. In the bones, where it is called *necrosis*, its appearance is much varied. If a blow is so severe that it utterly annuls the vital action of the vessels and nerves, and destroys the natural cohesion of the intimate particles of flesh for each other, gangrene ensues. If inflammation be carried on so violently at first that it cannot be supported by the powers of the part, the same thing occurs. If the disease be so extensive or general, that the constitution cannot effect the absorption of the old structure without danger, gangrene is here met with.

Though the word gangrene, or mortification, appears at first to imply a very formidable disease, it is to be observed, that it is only when, from the extent of the injury or the feebleness of the constitution, the mortified parts are not easily separated from the living, that any danger ensues. From sores having but very small dimensions, and producing no constitutional disturbance, little black layers are often detached, which are called *sloughs*: these are no other than portions of mortified flesh. From the depressions left by the small-pox during its decay, similar, but very minute pieces of the same substance, are detached. It is only when a violent accident or an extensive inflammation causes a very large surface to become gangrenous, or when the patient is old, or has a feeble constitution, that this disease is terrible and perhaps fatal. In such cases the dead parts, instead of being detached from, advance upon and convert into their own offensive substance, the living structure.

Having thus given an outline of those diseases of the red-blood vessels, which may be said to be primary in regard to their simplicity and universal, since they can attack all structures, it would now be requisite, if we followed in this article any thing like a philosophical arrangement, to proceed to the disease of the secreting or white vessels. As, however, these diseases are of a chronic character, and are very rare, their investigation cannot be reckoned essential to the understanding of active diseases. We shall, therefore, defer their consideration until we have entered into the treatment of inflammation and its consequences.

Phlegmonous or pure inflammation, whether it be idiopathic, or the result of injury, is treated locally by means of refrigerating lotions. How these act is unknown, but it is certain, that by reducing within certain limits the heat of inflamed parts, they subside quicker than by any other

mode of treatment. It is, however, curious enough, that if the inflammation last a long time, this plan becomes hurtful, and warm applications salutary. The time at which a change is to be made from one to the other, is chiefly regulated by the feelings of the patient.

The local treatment of erysipelas is a point concerning which surgeons are by no means united. Some advising cold applications, others warm; some scarifying the erysipelatous parts, others applying blisters to them, and others again powdering them with flour. Perhaps none of these means do any good, and the disease is only to be subdued by constitutional remedies.

The deposition of coagulable lymph is of course not to be interfered with by any topical applications. It is, however, to be remembered, that the healthy disposition of this substance, is chiefly dependant on the degree of phlegmon preceding it.

The formation of pus is facilitated, the attendant inflammation rendered milder, and the pain less, by the application of warm fomentations and poultices. The *modus operandi* of these matters is quite unknown, but the fact of their beneficial tendency is known to every body; and to make a smooth poultice has been laid down by a surgeon of the highest eminence, as a most important surgical attainment. When pus is formed, if the abscess does not break, some surgeons are in the habit of opening it with the lancet. As, however, it generally partially unites and fills again, the practice has been much blamed, and indeed we may lay it down as a rule, that it is only when an abscess spreads into important parts, or when its coverings are so thick as to preclude the hope of a natural opening (as when it is under fascia, and among tendons) that it should be opened. The ulcer which results from the opened abscess, requires no other treatment than to be kept moist, and secluded from the air. If its granulations are superabundant, it is usual to causticate them, and if deficient, to excite inflammation by various stimuli. When, however, an ulcer has continued long, it is often very troublesome, requiring a multitude of various stimuli, and of very opposite characters. In those cases where the inveteracy of the disease baffles all these attempts, the edge of the ulcer should be swept off with a knife, and the cut surfaces drawn together by adhesive plaster, and united at once. The chief danger of this procedure is, that the constitution is liable to suffer from the sudden stoppage of the accustomed discharge.

As to the treatment of boils and carbuncles, the former may safely be trusted to nature; occasional poulticing, and, when very severe, a little opening medicine, being all that is necessary. The carbuncle, though we may be unwilling to trust it to nature, is, nevertheless, a disease in which our interference probably does little good; it is held, however, as established practice, to lay open carbuncles very freely, in order to give passage to the core or nucleus which forms at their bases. This being done, if the patient's constitution is good, several sloughs come out, and the wound heals; if not, these are thrown off very tardily, an ichorous discharge follows, the ulcer spreads deeply and widely, and the patient, exhausted by irritation, dies. Perhaps the only chance of curing bad carbuncles, in bad constitutions, would be to endeavour to extirpate altogether the diseased structure and unite the wound by the first intention. The plan, however, is merely a suggestion, and has never been tried.

The treatment of gangrene is typically by poultices, either simply of linseed meal, or of this matter mixed with charcoal, or juice of carrots, or yeast. The powers of the part, however, when they are sufficient to throw off the dead parts, require no stimulant application, and when they are not, do not seem very amenable to external remedies. Indeed, our plan should be to prevent such a degree of inflammation as may threaten gangrene, for in nine cases out of ten this is a mere consequence of previous excitement. No danger is to be apprehended from it, if we find a line of separation extending between the dead and living parts. When this does not take place, and the gangrene spreads, it becomes necessary

to remove the gangrenous part; care being at the same time taken to remove so much of the apparently healthy part that no return of the gangrenous action may be indicated.

With respect to the constitutional treatment of local diseases, this is of far more consequence than any topical remedies; a fact, which, though so apparently obvious, was not clearly observed by any one before the beginning of the present century. Mr. Abernethy, in his work on the "Constitutional Origin of Local Diseases," has put this matter in so clear a light, and laid down a line of practice so successful, that it has received, for some time, the assent of all surgeons and may safely be said to have produced a greater revolution in surgical practice than has ever been effected by any individual.

Advancing upon the very evident principles that the reparation of all injured parts must be made from the blood which is eliminated by the digestive organs, and must be influenced by the irritated or quiescent state of the digestive organs, this author proceeded to shew that in all local diseases it is of the prime importance to procure healthy secretions from the bowels and other viscera of the abdomen, and by appropriate diet, and other minor adjuvants, to tranquilize the inordinate actions of the nervous system. A foolish notion has gone abroad that this plan consisted in *purging*, and the name of Dr. Hamilton has been very unjustly associated with that of Mr. Abernethy, as if they had each discovered the same principle. The plan, however, of the former was to purge, because he found it lower the pulse and alleviate some chronic diseases. The practice of the second arose out of a philosophical consideration of the functions of animal bodies, whereby he saw the dependence of one part on another, and the reciprocating action that resulted from the healthy performance of separate functions. So that he did not fail to perceive that the due action of the skin, the lungs, the stomach, and the liver, were as essential to health as the action of the bowels; and if in his practice he seemed to pay more especial attention to the alimentary canal, it was only because this is the prime recipient of all medicine, and the part through which other functions are influenced in the greatest degree.

The particular remedies to be used, we need not here detail, after the very full consideration of the influence of the digestive system, on the general health, that we indulged in under the article *PATHOLOGY*. It is enough to observe that, whether inflammation be going on, or any of its consequences, the due action of the alimentary canal is essential to their salutary progress.

The effects of injuries on all parts of the nervous system are extremely irregular, but as their consequences are often very formidable, they should be diligently noted. Commonly, we find so general a prostration of strength, such debility in the nerves governing the actions of the respiratory muscles of the heart and the stomach, that no other plan remains than to support the patient by stimuli, even though we may anticipate a re-action that will require great blood-lettings. At times no re-action comes on, or, at least, not for a considerable time; this is especially the case in extensive burns or scalds, when it is often necessary to support the patient by warm cordials for eight or ten days. The re-action that follows is occasionally succeeded a second time by prostration of strength; but now the stimulating plan must be had recourse to with less confidence, and endeavours made to rouse into action the secretory system.

With regard to the fever which attends inflammation, it does not appear that we have any reason to interfere with this. If, indeed, the theory be true which we have broached with regard to the cause of sympathetic fever, it is obvious that this is a salutary process.

It happens to be sure that this action often runs alarmingly high, that at other times the patient is sunk into extreme debility; but in either case, our attention should solely be directed to the original inflammation; if this be found excessive, it must be reduced; if deficient, excited, and thus

bleeding on the one hand, or stimuli on the other, may be indicated; but these not to cure the fever, but its cause.

Nevertheless, the fever should be carefully noted, because it is an indication of the original inflammation, and of the strength of the constitution. Thus the fever technically called Hectic, which comes on when large quantities of pus are formed, or when this matter has been produced for a long time, points out a debility of the vital powers, which requires continued, but gentle stimulation; or, on the other hand, points out the necessity of immediately removing the offending part. So, the delirium and the hiccup attending gangrene, point out the dangerous degree of this action.

It has been generally held that the formation of a line of separation in gangrene, and of healthy pus in abscess, are both much influenced by the administration of bark. Under due regulations, and used merely as an adjuvant to remedies that excite regular action of the secretions, this drug is valuable; but its administration as a specific, and the practice of increasing the dose, when it was found inert, to an extreme extent, have now fallen in disuse.

The treatment of inflammation attacking the mucous membranes is best developed in the works of Badham and Hastings, and of Broussais and others of the French school. We observe in these, however, considerable discrepancies; the former laying great stress on bleeding and counter-irritation; the latter considering that mild measures alone are necessary, and that phlogoses of these membranes are cured rather by time and abstinence, than by any determined practice.

The inflammation of the serous membranes is for the most part characterized by such remarkable lowness of pulse, and general depression and weakness of the vital powers, as might deter a practitioner, not acting on the result of experience, from using the lancet. There is no class of diseases, however, which demand larger and more sudden bleedings than this, nor any that require a more violent degree of counter-irritation by purging and blistering. When muscles, or the synovial membranes are inflamed, we have these inexplicable forms of diseased inflammation, called Gout and Rheumatism. Of their treatment little can be said. As they are aggravated by disorders in the general health, and ameliorated as this is improved, attention to this point is of course indicated. Some specific remedies, especially the Colchicum, are also occasionally useful; but upon the whole, the general treatment of inflammation does not apply to them. The inflammation of the joints which occurs from injury, observes the same laws, and requires the same treatment as the early stages of phlegmon; namely, depletion generally, and cold lotions topically; but the depletion may be carried further. The synovial membranes frequently, when the inflammation is subdued, continue to secrete inordinate quantities of their natural fluid, by which means great pain and irritation are produced. Frictions and blistering form the sole local means of treating this disorder.

The phenomena of inflammation attacking arteries, were not till lately much investigated. Contrary to what might be expected, this is a very rare disease. The causes are hidden in obscurity: its characters are remarkable redness of the skin and turgescence of the face, with other symptoms of vehement general action. This is followed by a typhus fever of the gravest description. Great danger results from the circumstance that the inflamed artery betrays no tendency to unite, by the adhesive inflammation, and that consequently the disease spreads rapidly towards the heart. On dissection, the usual appearances are rough granulations on the surface of the artery, separation and erosion of the coats and suppuration. It has been conjectured, that though acute arteritis be very rare, a chronic kind often exists, which gives rise to the several diseases of the inner surface of the heart.

The inflammation of veins is generally brought on by bleeding. It exists in various degrees; sometimes being so slight, that no further consequences ensue from it than a slight thickening of the vein and adhesion of its sides. At other

other times the vein bursts on the surface, and exhibits abscesses of various conditions. But instances are not wanting, and these are truly dangerous, in which the inflammation has communicated itself along the parietes of the veins to the brain or heart, giving rise to a severe typhoid fever, and commonly terminating in death. The treatment is to subdue the disease in its earlier stage, by leeching and poultices, and to endeavour to procure adhesion of the sides of the vessel by the application of a compress above the wound. Some Frenchmen having found inflammation of the veins very frequent concomitants of typhus fever, and that the latter invariably followed the former, have concluded that the two were always related to each other as cause and effect. The anatomical characters of phlebitis vary according to the violence and the duration of the phlogosis. "In the early stage, we find the internal membrane of the vessel of a brownish-red colour, with or without traces of vascular injection. At a more advanced period, this membrane becomes thickened, and easily lacerated. In this condition, it is readily separated from the subjacent tunic, and is often covered with purulent matter, or ulcerated in its structure to a greater or less extent. It is still more common to find the pus, which is the product of the inflammation, mixed with a certain quantity of the blood contained in the vein—hence the purulent, sanguinolent, or fetid matter which we see in the vessels of many of our sick—hence the manifest decomposition of the blood, with the presence of gas, which we occasionally observe. In some cases, the purulent matter secreted by the inflamed vein, determines a sort of coagulation of the venous blood, and produces those long fibrinous clots, which obstruct the canals of the vessels. Sometimes, though rarely, the concretible and organisable matter secreted by the vein agglutinates the opposite parietes, and the vessel is ultimately converted into a solid cord. This, however, is a rare circumstance, because the matter, as it is secreted, is hurried along into the general circulation. When the inflammation has, at length, invaded all the coats of the vein, the vessel becomes thickened in its parietes, and readily lacerable."

Inflammation of the absorbents follows nearly the same course as phlebitis, except that it is usually attended with glandular swellings. These vessels are seen running along the limbs, hard, red, and inflamed. Erysipelas generally appears on the skin, coagulable lymph is effused around them in the cellular tissue, wherein, as well as in the glands, abscesses are formed. Inflammation of veins and absorbents are, however, rarely if ever seen, except in consequence of the inoculation of poisons, and of these, that of putrid bodies is, perhaps, the most frequent. Many have been the unfortunate victims who have been carried off by this complaint, whilst prosecuting anatomical studies; and though of course from many feelings this complaint has called forth much attention from pathologists, our practice is very unsuccessful. The profession is divided as to whether this complaint ought to be treated like other inflammations, by venesection, mercury, purgatives, &c., or by stimulation and a high diet. With regard to the success that has followed these two modes of practice, it amounts to nearly nothing. Where life has been prolonged by any means for some time, the powers of the constitution seem to have overcome the virulence of the poison, and the patient has slowly recovered: but it is very doubtful whether any thing ought to be attributed to the treatment.

It must be confessed, however, that though the depleting system has been adopted in all degrees, and with the most obstinate pertinacity, there is no evidence that a plan of stimulation, regulated solely by effects and pushed to the utmost sufferable degree, has ever been fairly put on trial. Viewing the matter on theoretical grounds, (and it is to theory we must resort when experience shews no certain way), we should be inclined to think that the stimulating plan is the only one likely to be attended with success, and that the measures adopted by those who preferred antiphlogistic measures, were calculated on all accounts to be productive of injury. In the first place, we suppose it will be

allowed on all hands, that a specific poison is absorbed into the blood either through the veins or absorbents. What is the process nature adopts in ordinary cases to prevent the ingress of morbid matter into the system? Why first, the part affected inflames, coagulating lymph is thrown out, a cyst is formed by it round the inflamed part, into this cyst pus is secreted, and the poison is probably thrown off; at all events no ill consequences result, and though the sore long remains open, and is very troublesome, no dangers are threatened. It appears here that the indurated cyst which is formed round the wound, or the adhesion that closes the inflamed vein afford a powerful opposition to the transmission of poison into the system. Yet we do every thing to prevent this consolidation. We bleed, which is the very treatment we adopt when we wish to prevent adhesive inflammation from taking place. We give mercury in large doses; a medicine of the utmost efficacy in checking the deposition of lymph, and which has moreover the reputation of promoting absorption. It would be more consonant with reason, and not at all opposed by experience, to tie a ligature round the poisoned limb, so as to retard the flow of blood, and thus favour deposition, and to give the sulphate of quinine, or other medicine of a stimulating nature, in such doses as might keep up a strong action of the heart and arteries.

Having thus given a general account of the varieties of active inflammation, we shall proceed to some account of those sudden injuries or accidents which call this action into play. These may naturally be divided in wounds, contusions, burns, scalds, dislocations, and fractures.

Wounds are of three kinds—cuts, stabs, and rents; words with the meaning of which every one is so familiar, that they require no definition. They are dangerous nearly in the order set down; the first being the least so. The effect of an incision through the flesh is to cause hæmorrhage from all the blood-vessels divided; if any of them are of large size, (say the size of the third string of a fiddle,) and it is not compressed, the patient commonly bleeds to death. Arteries of smaller dimensions, however, having bled a little, have an inflammation set up in their vasa vasorum, which causes them to swell, and obliterates them. Though the blood is by this means stopped, the orifices pour forth a lymph which, coagulating, forms a cement to unite the divided surfaces. This deposition of coagulation has of course the greater effect the nearer the respective sides of the wounds are approached to each other, and thus it happens that if the wound be very deep, the lower not being brought into opposition by an unskilful surgeon, the exterior part unites while suppuration takes place below. The accurate union of all the wound is therefore our first duty. This is for the most part easily effected by adhesive plaster laid over the wound in strips, so as to bring the edges of the wound in contact, while the bottom of the wound may be closed by means of compresses laid on the sides of the limb and fixed by bandages. There is considerable tact required in this as well as in the removal and re-application of dressings. The following rules are extracted from a very useful book, "Cooper's Surgery:"—

"The strips of adhesive plaster should be removed by taking hold of their ends, and drawing them always in a direction towards the wound. Were the plasters pulled off in the contrary direction, the edges of the wound would be separated, and perhaps torn asunder again, and the process of reunion at all events disturbed. The plaster should not be pulled up, as by this proceeding the edges of the wound would be torn from the subjacent parts.

"In large wounds, especially, only one strip, or at most two, should be off the injury at a time; and the part from which the plaster has been removed, having been carefully wiped with a sponge and dried, is then to be supported with a fresh strip, before any more strips are taken off.

"The edges of the wound, particularly if it be large and deep, should always be held together by an assistant at the time of changing the dressings.

"The frequency of dressing must be regulated by the quantity

quantity and quality of the discharge; by the situation of the injury; by the climate and season of the year; by the effects which the renewal of the dressings seems to produce; and by the feelings, and sometimes the wishes, of the patient."

There are some wounds of very moveable parts that no plaisters or bandages will keep in apposition. These are to be united by sewing their edges together. There is a furious opposition amongst the English surgeons to the use of these sutures, because they cause constitutional irritation. This is true, but the matter has been much exaggerated.

If a great artery has been divided by a wound, our first object is to stop the bleeding. This is effected by sticking a tenaculum through the bleeding vessel, and tying that with a ligature. An operation, in ordinary states, easy enough, with a little practice; its only difficulty is to tie the artery, and nothing else; no nerve, vein, or flesh. There has been much disputation amongst surgeons, as to whether a small ligature tied very tightly round a vessel so as to cut through its internal or softer coats, or a broad ligature less strictly drawn, are most conducive to the safe obliteration of large arteries. Experience seems to decide in favour of the former.

Arteries not of the largest size may have their bleeding stopped by pressure, that is, by means of compresses formed of lint, laid over the vessel and bound tightly down. Pressure is also often used as a temporary method of suspending hæmorrhage, until a ligature can be applied, as when we amputate or perform any other operation in which larger arteries are involved: in this case the pressure is made by means of the tourniquet, a well known instrument, constructed so as to apply its pressure exactly over the vessel required to be stopped.

Wounds are dangerous, however, from other causes besides hæmorrhage; as for instance, when they involve nerves, or any of the viscera; but their varieties, in this respect, will be best considered when we come to speak of particular regions of the body. Stabs are more dangerous than cuts, because they bruise the parts so as to destroy their vitality; the process of adhesion is, therefore, not sufficient, and consequently suppuration is always required. The same may be said of lacerated wounds, which are indeed perfectly similar to stabs, except that they are often more extensive. Punctured and lacerated wounds are, however, dangerous, independently of their tending to suppuration. They excite a peculiar and dangerous irritation of the nerves: no wounds are so liable as these to destroy life by the nervous depression they cause; none are so frequently attended with tetanus. The only local method of treating these wounds is by fomentations and poultices, which sooth the pain, and are said to promote suppuration.

In the constitutional treatment of these wounds when extensive, as well as of all great accidents, we observe three stages. In the first, when the violent impression made on the nerves has paralyzed or enervated their powers, it is proper to stimulate the patient gently by slight doses of brandy, ammonia, and the like. When re-action takes place, we are called upon topically and generally to reduce inflammation and to regulate and sometimes lower the vehement actions of the nervous system. Thirdly, when the inflammatory action subsides, and suppuration or mortification commences, we are called upon to support the strength by regulating diligently the diet and secretions, and by the occasional exhibition of tonics.

Besides these simple varieties, wounds are rendered much worse if any foreign bodies remain within them. Hence, partly, though not so much as to their laceration, are we to attribute the dangerous nature of gun-shot wounds.

Foreign bodies should be extracted from wounds whenever this can be effected without doing more mischief than their remaining is likely to create. Hence it is often requisite to leave bullets in the body. Gun-shot wounds illustrate the general effects of contusions and lacerations in the most remarkable degree, since they are the severest of these accidents. They vary, however, very much in character. Mr. Hennen observes, that "If a musket or pistol ball has

struck a fleshy part, without injuring any material blood-vessel, we see a hole about the size of (or smaller) than the bullet itself, with a discoloured lip, forced inwards; and if the ball has passed through the parts, an everted edge, and a more ragged or larger orifice at the point of its exit. The hæmorrhage is generally very slight, and the pain often inconsiderable, insomuch that in many instances the wounded are not even conscious of having received any injury. If, however, the ball has touched a large vessel or nerve, the hæmorrhage will be profuse, or the pain of the wound severe, and the power of the part lost. Some men will have a limb carried off, or shattered to pieces by a cannon ball, without exhibiting the slightest symptoms of mental or corporeal agitation; while a deadly paleness, instant vomiting, profuse perspiration, and universal tremor, will seize another on the receipt of a slight flesh wound."

Balls which are somewhat spent, and which strike the body in an oblique direction, are most curiously bent from their original direction. Some very extraordinary instances of the reflection of balls, from one part of the body to another, are recorded by Mr. Hennen. The ball (he observes) is in many instances found very close to its point of entrance, having nearly completed the circuit of the body. In one case, which occurred to a friend of his in the Mediterranean, the ball which struck about the pomum Adami was found lying in the very orifice of its entrance, having gone completely round the neck. This winding course of balls is represented as particularly frequent when they strike the ribs or abdominal muscles; for, says Mr. Hennen, they are turned from the direct line by a very slight resistance indeed, although they will sometimes run along a continued surface like that of a bone, a muscle, or a fascia, to a very extraordinary distance. If there is nothing to check its course, and its momentum be very great, it is surprising what a variety of parts may be injured by a musket ball. Mr. Hennen affirms, that he has seen cases where it has traversed almost the whole extent of the body and extremities. In one instance, which occurred in a soldier with his arm extended, in the act of climbing up a scaling ladder, a ball, which entered about the centre of the humerus, passed along it over the posterior part of the thorax, coursed along the abdominal muscles, passed deeply through the glutæi, and presented itself on the fore-part of the middle of the opposite thigh. In another case, a ball which had struck the breast, lodged in the scrotum.

To determine when limbs are so injured by gun-shot wounds or other contusions, that they cannot recover, is one of the most difficult and important points in surgery. No certain rules on the subject can be laid down, and much, therefore, must be left to individual judgment. We may state, however, as a general rule, that when the bones are fractured into many splinters, and when large arteries or nerves are torn through, amputation should be decided on; while on the other hand, most extensive contusions and lacerations of the soft parts may be trusted to general surgical treatment. With respect to the time an amputation should be performed, it seems pretty generally decided by the best army surgeons, that this should be as soon after the accident as possible, and before inflammation is set up. An exception, however, is to be made in favour of those cases where the nervous depression is very great, for in such the combined influence of the accident and the operation is too much for the nervous system to bear, and the patient sinks suddenly. It is therefore only when the spirits are not entirely sunk, and when the pulse indicates some power in the system, that we should proceed to these immediate amputations. A soldier betraying extreme debility lying nearly in a state of syncope, with hardly any pulse or warmth, should be relieved by slight cordials, and when he becomes reanimated and begins to feel some stiffness and aching in the limb, this is the most favourable time for the amputation to be performed.

Burns and scalds vary in their appearances. When slight they cause merely a little redness of the skin, attended with great heat. When more severe they produce blisters; a violent

violent symptomatic fever takes place if they are large, and the adjacent dermis commonly suppurates. In severer cases, or even sometimes in the preceding, mortification on the skin takes place, and then occur shivering, convulsions and delirium. Though they should be treated on general anti-phlogistic principles, their peculiarities cause some deviations from any uniform plan. When the skin is unbroken, cold applications may be applied. These, however, should not be at first of the coldest possible nature, and indeed we have some reason to suppose, that if we acted in this respect on the same principle as when we apply warmth to frozen parts, namely, by beginning with very slight changes of temperature, and gradually increasing them, our success in the cure of burns would be greater. In severe burns, it is useless to attempt to prevent suppuration, and violent depletory measures are to be avoided, partly on the same account and partly because they weaken the constitution, and disable it of the powers necessary to support the secretion of pus. Emollient poultices are, therefore, the only applications that are required. A liniment composed of oil and lime water, is in general use: all that can with justice be said in its favour, is that it does no harm. The constitution requires a great deal of management in severe burns. The support of the system during the formation of pus or the separation of sloughs, must be sedulously attended to. Medicines are of little use; but wine and occasionally brandy require to be administered, in small quantities and in conjunction with nutritious matters, very frequently.

Fractures of the bones are known by various signs as they occur in different parts; sometimes the limb is found flexible; sometimes it is shortened, lengthened, or otherwise distorted; but the most general sign is, that by taking hold of and irritating it, a grating or crepitus is produced by the friction of the irregular broken surfaces. When bones are broken, coagulable lymph is thrown out between them, which gradually hardens and becomes callous. Into this, vessels shoot, which deposit osseous matter, and by this means union is effected. This deposition takes place only, however, when the bones are in contact, and occurs as quickly if the two bones lie side by side as when their broken surfaces are in opposition. The process of union is completed in various periods of time, being most rapid in the smallest bones; usually from four to six weeks are required to consolidate a broken bone.

The treatment of simple fractures consists, 1st. In extending, by pulleys, or by manual strength, the distorted limb, and then placing the broken ends in the position they naturally occupied: as the muscles, however, seldom offer so great a resistance in fractures, as in dislocations, violent extension is not generally necessary. 2d. In retaining the bone in its natural situation: this is effected by placing the limb in such a position, as shall relax the majority of the muscles tending to displace the bones, and by antagonizing the action of others by means of unyielding splints, fastened tightly round the limb, or in other situations by bandages. Then, the moderation of inflammation, and the subduction of irritation, which sometimes causes violent twitchings of the muscles, are all we have to attend to.

Sometimes the deposition of callus does not occur, and the bones consequently remained unconnected. In these cases it is usual to rub the ends of the broken surfaces together; if this fails, to pass a seton through the fracture, or open the fracture and saw off the broken ends. These measures are, however, hardly ever called for, and the latter is very dangerous.

A fracture, which is accompanied with a fissure or laceration in the integuments, is very dangerous; because these cases are nearly always effected by a violent contusing force, and because the suppuration or mortification which may be set up, debilitates very much the restorative powers of the constitution. The treatment, however, of compound fractures differs not from that of simple fractures, unless the injury has been so severe as to preclude the hope of preserving the limb. In these cases amputation should be

performed. In this, as we stated when treating of gun-shot wounds, much must be left to the individual judgment, and no certain rule can be laid down. A large wound, much laceration and contusion of the soft parts, but above all considerable splintering of the bone, should induce us to amputate.

Dislocations are accidents whereby the articulating surfaces of bones are thrown out of their places.

The general symptoms of dislocations are alteration in the length of the dislocated limb; alteration also in its position, which is owing to the altered axis of the muscular movements, not as some have thought to the remaining and unbroken portion of the ligaments, for the ligaments may be (according to the violence of the accident), either stretched only, or partially, or completely torn; yet the position of the limb is in all these cases much the same. The loss of motion which (with a few marked exceptions) attends dislocations, is to be attributed to the "permanent contraction of the muscles." When the limb is shortened the muscles are relaxed; but when lengthened they are so much stretched as to be sometimes torn. Considerable tumefaction from effusion of ruptured vessels sometimes obscures the prominences of the bones. Severe and obtuse pain is felt from the pressures of the dislocated heads of bones on the muscles, or paralysis of the whole limb may come on when a large nerve is thus compressed. The head of a dislocated bone may be sometimes felt in its new situation, and on rolling the shaft of the bone we feel rotation of the head also. *Crepitus* (from the inspissation of the synovia) comes on frequently, but not at first, and is thus distinguished from the crepitus arising from broken bones—though it is audible, we have no jarring sensation communicated to our hand. *Suppuration* seldom follows dislocations, when reduction has been made, when it happens it is generally eventually fatal. Unreduced bones form by pressure new beds, and some motion (to a greater extent in the upper than the lower limbs) is recovered. On dissection, laceration of the ligaments of the tendons of muscles going over the joint, and sometimes of the muscles themselves, is met with. These lacerations cause for some time weakness of the joint, or disposition to be dislocated. In old dislocations we see that when a bone's head is imbedded in muscle, its pressure on the cellular membrane causes inflammation and thickening of that structure, and thus a substance sufficiently dense to furnish some support is formed, which new capsular ligament surrounds the whole articular surface of the bone, but does not adhere to it. When the surface of another bone forms the resting place of the dislocated head, the pressure incurred produces absorption on the one hand of the periosteum, on the other of the articular surface. "A smooth hollow surface is formed; the ball becomes altered in shape to adapt itself to the new surface; and whilst absorption proceeds upon the part on which the head of the bone rests, an ossific deposit takes place around it from the periosteum which is there irritated, but not absorbed. This bony matter is deposited between the periosteum and the original bone, by which a deep cup is formed to receive the head of the bone." The socket smoothed on its internal surface to allow motion, it sometimes so completely surrounds the ball of the bone that the part cannot be separated without fracture. The muscles gradually accommodate themselves to the displacement of the bones.

Dislocations are sometimes produced by relaxation of the ligaments without force, as in case of scrofulous patients, and sometimes in dancers, and other persons who practice unnatural postures, or in old and paralytic persons. It may arise also from accumulation of synovia in a joint. Dislocations are sometimes complicated with fractures, as when (which is very common) the fibula is fractured in the ankle-joint, or the acetabulum in dislocation of the hip or the head of the os humeri in displacements of the shoulder joint, or the coronoid process in those of the ulna, which last produces a species of luxation which does not admit of the preservation of the natural site of the bone. In dislocation

tion and fracture, the dislocation is to be reduced at once; for if it is not done at first, it cannot afterwards without displacing the fracture. It is proper to secure the fracture, however, first with splints. The same rule is good when one bone is broken and another dislocated.

Compound dislocations are accompanied by great injury of the muscles, often by rupture of blood-vessels, by the escape of synovia from the joint and the passage of blood into it. When a joint is opened, inflammation succeeding, suppuration in a few hours comes on, and granulations spring from the secreting membrane, which being of the mucous kind is more disposed to the suppurative than to the adhesive inflammation. At the extremity of the bone the cartilage after some time becomes absorbed, in consequence of an ulceration often beginning on its synovial surface, but more commonly arising from the end of the bone itself. The cartilage being destroyed, granulations spring from the denuded bones, and fill up the joint: generally, becoming ossified, they cause ankylosis; sometimes remaining soft a degree of motion is in time regained. During this process constitutional irritation rises to a great height; hence in weak patients we must sometimes amputate the limb to preserve life. The joints most subject to dislocation are such as have much motion, hence the frequency of luxations of the humerus. *Partial dislocations* occur commonly to the knee. This joint is rarely dislocated in any other way. It happens also to the shoulder joint, as when the os humeri rests on the edge of the glenoid cavity; the ancle joint even has been found subject to it. Then the end of the tibia rests on part of the astragalus, but a larger portion is seated on the os naviculare. *Partial dislocations* also affect the elbow both in respect to the radius and the ulna.

Dislocations are caused by violence when the bone is in an oblique direction; it is necessary, however, that the muscles be unprepared, for otherwise tremendous force would be required to overcome their contraction. Of this we have examples in the cases of Damien and Ravillac, when repeated efforts of strong horses were insufficient to dislocate any of the limbs while the muscles were engaged in resisting them. Dislocations are uncommon in old persons, because their bones are more liable to break from injuries, and in children the same effect takes place, because the epiphyses are not firmly united.

The *reduction* of dislocations is little impeded by the form of the joint. The projecting lip, indeed, of the acetabulum requires the head of the former to be lifted over it in dislocation; and in displacement of the radius, the head of this bone being larger than its cervix, reduction is difficult; but still the form of the bone is to be slightly considered.

The weak and inelastic structure of the capsular ligaments, and the extensive lacerations they suffer from injuries, shews that they cannot impede reduction. The chief impediment to reduction exists in the muscles. These, independent of their common contraction, which always require rest after a short exertion, have another kind of contraction which is permanent, and which is in an inverse proportion to the resistance that is made to it. Thus if the biceps be cut, the triceps keeps the arm always extended. Thus when a bone is dislocated, the muscles draw it from the joint as far as possible, and there fix it. In old cases, adhesions to the surrounding parts also impede reduction.

The means of reduction are constitutional and mechanical: the constitutional are, bleeding from a large orifice, warm bath at 101 or 110, till faintness comes on, and nauseating doses of antimony to keep up the effect, produce relaxation of the muscles, and thus reduction of the limb. The mechanical means are to relax the stronger muscles, apply gradual tension to the dislocated bone by means of pulleys or manual assistance, and to be careful to fix the opposite bone. Natural form and unimpeded motion, mark reduction. The shoulder is apt to slip out of its cavity after reduction, if not secured by bandages; especially if the force of pulleys has been required. Rest is all that is requisite for the union of the broken ligaments, and

the strength of the muscles and ligaments may be greatly promoted by pouring cold water upon the limb, and by the subsequent employment of friction.

Severe injury of the muscles and nerves attends attempts at reduction in old dislocations. Hence, though they have been reduced at later period, it may be given as a general rule not to attempt reduction of the hip after eight weeks, nor of the shoulder after three months' dislocation, except in aged or extremely relaxed persons.—*Sir A. Cooper on Dislocations.*

Having thus passed in a sketching and imperfect manner through the varieties of acute inflammation, and of the accidents and other causes that produce it, we may now enter into some account of chronic inflammation, and of those tardy and inexplicable changes in the actions of blood or secreting vessels by which the original structures of the body are destroyed, and morbid structures or degenerations substituted in their place.

It is very difficult to define the characters of chronic inflammation. On the surface of the body, where it is however rarely observed, except as accompanying ulceration or desquamation, it exhibits the redness, and, in a slight degree, the tumour of active inflammation. But the pain and throbbing is absent as well as the increased heat.

The fever which attends chronic inflammation is that so well known by the term *hectic*. It is characterized by irregularity, rather than excess or diminution in the actions of the body. The heat is not permanently increased, but flushes come on in the evening or after meals, tinging the cheeks with a deep and circumscribed redness; the pulse is not hard but very frequent, fluttering and small; there is heartburn and flatulence, alternating with good appetite; diarrhoea comes on irregularly, and night sweats. The nervous system is usually in a state of unnatural excitement; there is want of sleep and considerable restlessness, though these alternate also; for sometimes we observe great alacrity, mildness, and quietude. The treatment of hectic fever has been laid down, but this is absurd. Its only cure is to remove its cause; where this is impossible, the amelioration of that cause is to be had in view, but we have no power to remove a necessary symptom.

The commonest way in which we meet with chronic inflammation, is producing fistulous abscesses or chronic ulcers. Fistulous abscesses require simply free openings, which convert them into ulcers or open sores. Chronic ulcers are of various kinds. In some, the secretion of pus is nearly stopped, and frequent accessions of pain and heat come on attended with an ichorous discharge, with inversion or eversion of the edges, and much constitutional disorder: these are called irritable ulcers. In others, the secretion of pus is changed in quite an opposite way; it is mixed with coagulable lymph, is very tenacious, and shews no granulations. The edges are smooth and hard: this they call an indolent ulcer. To the first kind, soothing applications are of course applicable; and when they get better, and we are desirous of bringing their sides closer together for the purpose of uniting the skin, care must be taken not to bandage them too tightly at first. The second kind of ulcer requires, in various constitutions, various stimuli; generally weak caustics; and when one does not succeed, another may be tried. The red precipitate ointment, under proper constitutional treatment, is as effectual as any thing. Ulcers are, in old people, rendered very troublesome and even dangerous, by varicose veins running into them. We need not say that the treatment of these sort of ulcers is to cure varicose veins.

Of chronic inflammation in internal parts, we know very little. It has been the fashion to attribute tubercle, ascites, ossifications, and other depositions in the arteries and on the inner surface of the heart, tumors of all kinds, and even cancers, to chronic inflammation: and while it has seemed to some to account for these tremendous changes, others have made it subservient to the explanation of the slight irritations that are of hourly occurrence in the digestive tube. We shall not adopt as proved, any theories that rest on so little visible

visible foundation; but shall content ourselves with giving a descriptive catalogue of the various changes that the different animal structures undergo, without endeavouring to fix precisely the nature of the morbid action that gives rise to them. At the same time, we must not be accused of deeming this a matter of slight consideration. Every one must have noticed a connection between inflammation and morbid depositions. No point in the whole range of pathology are we more desirous to ascertain, than whether this inflammation produce these depositions, or whether these depositions, by the irritation their growth excites, cause the inflammation. But if inflammation were the sole cause of all the above-mentioned degenerations, that and these would be synonymous, or, at least, inseparable. It is true this would be of little consequence in a practical point of view, if experience shewed that the treatment proper for chronic inflammation prevented the formation of tubercle, cancer, &c. &c. Unfortunately such is not the case.

Arteries are subject to few changes from chronic action. Besides depositions of bone and cartilage on their inner surfaces, they exhibit scarcely any disease, except aneurisms. These are enlargements or dilatations of certain parts of arteries; according to some, they arise from a rupture of the inner or muscular coat, and from a consequent dilatation of the outer coat; but others affirm, that though this is often the case, yet that aneurisms may arise from a simple dilatation of all the arterial coats. The latter opinion, though supported by good authorities, has one physiological fact strongly against it; namely, that when we inject an artery, however forcibly dilated, it preserves its round form whilst the muscular coat remains entire; but that no sooner is that broken, than the outer coat bulges out into an irregular tumour, like an aneurismal sac.

The first change that takes place in an artery, is the dilatation of its coats;—the second, the rupture of the muscular coat;—the third, the deposition of the layers of coagula in the tumour. The action of the heart continuing to act on the tumour, gradually enlarges it, until at length it bursts, or the patient dies. On the other hand, if the coagula are freely deposited, they may gradually close up the orifice of the artery altogether, and thus the patient's life may be saved. An instance is on record, where even the aorta was thus closed.

An aneurism is known from other tumours by its pulsating synchronously with the heart, and by its subsiding when pressed upon. But these diagnostic signs must not be considered infallible; an extensive abscess will, if it lies over an artery, have a pulsation; and if it has extensive sinuses, may subside when pressed. It is a symptom more to be depended on that we find the tumour subside, if we intercept its blood by pressing on the artery that supplies it. This, of course, would cause any tumour to leave off beating; but an aneurism would, if not filled with too solid a coagulum, subside under this pressure which, of course, could not happen to any other tumour.

There are several artificial divisions of aneurisms. They are called *diffused*, if long, and *circumscribed* if short; *false* if the blood gets through all the coats of the artery into the surrounding cellular tissue; and false aneurisms are again divided into false circumscribed, and false diffused, and the like. But there are only three sorts of aneurism that require notice. The common aneurism, the aneurismal varix, or varicose aneurism, and the anastomosing aneurism. The first we have described; the second is brought about when in bleeding we cut through the vein into the artery, the consequence of this is, that the blood of the latter vessel is driven into the former, which begins to pulsate synchronously with the heart and to dilate. The third is totally different from any of the preceding forms of disease, as it proceeds from a morbid growth, or dilatation of the arterial ramifications, by which a very vascular interstitial substance is produced, which has a singular propensity to increase to a great and dangerous extent, and which, when cut or broken, bleeds with incredible obstinacy.

The cure of aneurisms is constitutional and local. The constitutional treatment is by large and frequent bleedings and low diet, to slacken the action of the heart and facilitate, as it is supposed, the deposition of coagula in the tumour. The success of this plan, in a few instances, is affirmed by some surgeons, but it is difficult to reconcile this with the fact, that bleeding in general tends to prevent the deposition of coagulating lymph. In fact, it seems we bleed commonly to prevent morbid adhesions, while, in aneurisms, we bleed to cause them. The fact is, however, that the constitutional treatment, though a few patients have got well under its influence, probably did neither good nor harm, but allowed nature to effect a spontaneous cure.

Aneurisms have been cured by long continued pressure, especially varicose aneurisms; but in general when a large aneurism is formed, the only way to cure it is to tie the artery that supplies it with blood. Every artery of the body has been tied up to the abdominal aorta, but of course the nearer the heart the greater the danger. Desault formerly, and Mr. Wardrop recently, have endeavoured to shew, that when aneurisms are formed near the heart, and it is dangerous to tie the arteries that supply them, a cure may be effected by tying the artery beyond the tumour. In this case, the artery so tied becomes obliterated up to the aneurism, the aneurism itself becomes obliterated, and a small part of the vessel that supplied it. Success has crowned these endeavours to a certain extent; but not so much as to establish that the new operation is as effectual as the old.

The method of tying arteries for aneurisms, as well as to prevent hæmorrhages, is now pretty nearly settled amongst surgeons. To make as small an opening as possible, to use as fine a ligature as will effectually compress the vessel, to remove as little of the surrounding tissue as possible, and to exclude from the ligature every thing but the vessel, are the principles that should be held in view. The accomplishment of these ends, in different parts of the body, is, however, attended with extreme difficulties, and can only be effected by perfect anatomical knowledge, and great practical tact.

The anastomosing aneurism, and the *nævus maternus*, which bears a faint resemblance to it, may both be relieved by tying the artery which supplies them.

The only disease the veins are subject to, is *varix*. This is an enlargement of their calibres; it occurs, for the most part, in old persons, and is of little consequence unless the varicose vein opens into an ulcer, or grows so large that it threatens to burst. The treatment for slight cases, is to support the limb by proper bandaging. When this fails, and the ulcer is troublesome, we should cut through the vein; this is dangerous if we make a wound, on account of the air getting into the vein, or inflammation being set up and communicated to the heart; but a plan first suggested by Mr. Brodie, is not, we believe, liable to these ill consequences. It consists in passing a curved bistoury, in an oblique direction, through the skin, dividing the vein, and leaving the skin immediately over it uncut.

We come now to the consideration of tumours; concerning which we have nothing novel to offer, either in arrangement or description. We shall, therefore, make free with some considerable extracts from Mr. Abernethy's excellent work on the subject. He is of opinion "there can be little doubt, but that tumours form every where in the same manner. The coagulable part of the blood being either accidentally effused, or deposited in consequence of disease, becomes afterwards an organized and living part, by the growth of the adjacent vessels and nerves into it. When the deposited substance has its attachment by a single thread, all its vascular supply must proceed through that part; but in other cases the vessels shoot into it irregularly at various parts of its surface. Thus an unorganized concrete becomes a living tumour, which has at first no perceptible peculiarity as to its nature; though it derives a supply of nourishment from the surrounding parts, it seems to live and grow by its

own independent powers; and the future structure which it may acquire, seems to depend on the operation of its own vessels.

"The structure of a tumour is sometimes like that of the parts near which it grows. Those which are pendulous into joints, are of a cartilaginous or osseous fabric; fatty tumours frequently form in the midst of adipose substance, but in many cases the nature of the tumour depends on its own actions and organization; and, like the embryo, it merely receives nourishment from the surrounding parts."

The medical treatment of tumours appears to Mr. Abernethy to be identical with that of chronic inflammation, namely, to subtract the heat and blood topically from the part by leeching, and evaporating lotions, to excite, when inflammation subsides, counter-irritation, and to regulate the general health.

Encysted tumours are so called, because they are contained in a cyst. They are formed of matters extremely various in appearance and consistence: sometimes soft, sometimes fluid, and in other instances ossified, or horny.

When the contents of an encysted swelling are fluid, like honey, the tumour is named *meliceris*; when of a pappy quality, *atheroma*; when fatty, *steatoma*. These swellings have a soft or hard feel, according to the nature of their contents, but the consistence of the contained matter cannot always be ascertained by the touch, especially when the cyst is exceedingly thick.

Sometimes the cyst is very thin, sometimes of considerable thickness, but in general, though not always, its thickness is proportioned to its age. It is often quite firm, like parchment or cartilage, and it commonly contains only one cavity; however, this is frequently intersected by several partitions. Ordinarily, they are not at all painful. At first, they are constantly moveable, and probably would continue so, if all external pressure were kept from influencing them, but, in time, they generally become more fixed, in consequence of being adherent to the skin and subjacent parts. The only way to cure these tumours is to cut them out. The art of doing this with adroitness, consists in dissecting the parts surrounding the tumour, without wounding the cyst. It is also a great point to remove every particle of the cyst; for, when any portion remains behind, the wound will not frequently heal, in consequence of fungous granulations, arising from the diseased part.

"A ganglion is a small hard tumour, unattended with pain, and composed of a cyst, which is of a firm tendinous texture, connected with a subjacent tendon, and filled with a fluid resembling the white of an egg. It is usually more or less moveable beneath the skin; its growth is slow, and it is seldom much larger than a hazel-nut. Its figure is commonly round, smooth, and even; it seldom inflames, and still more rarely does it suppurate; but, when the latter event happens, an ill-conditioned ulcer is generally produced.

Ganglions occur most frequently on the hands and fingers, and either over a tendon, or ligamentous expansion, with which the sac is connected underneath. But, there are instances of these tumours making their appearance in many other situations, and they sometimes attain a considerable magnitude. A ganglion has been known to cover the whole back part of the neck. These tumours appear sometimes to be the consequence of a bruise, or violent sprain. Occasionally they move along with the tendon, to which they are attached; while, in other instances, they seem fixed."

If pressure fails to remove a ganglion, its superincumbent skin must be drawn aside, and the ganglion punctured. The skin then being let free, forms a valve, through which the fluid escapes; but no air can be admitted which would excite troublesome inflammation. Some have, by a blow, broken the ganglion without puncturing the skin; and the fluid thus let out into the cellular tissue, has been absorbed.

Sarcomatous tumours are such as are fleshy, and are of various kinds. Mr. Abernethy, to whom we are indebted for a very excellent classification of these productions, divides them into the following kinds:—

1. Common vascular, or organized sarcoma, are such tumours as are organized throughout, but without any distinguishable peculiarity of structure. "This structure is met with not only in distinct tumours, but likewise in the testis, mamma, and absorbent glands.

"When it has attained a considerable size, the superficial veins appear remarkably large; on which account, together with their curiously meandering course beneath the skin, they cannot fail to attract attention.

"These tumours are generally dull in their sensation; enduring even a rough examination by the hand, and electrifying, without becoming painful. They generally grow till the skin is so distended that it ulcerates, and exposes the new-formed substance; which, being as it were obliged to inflame, and not being able to sustain disease, sloughs and falls out; sometimes portions seem to be detached, and come away without sloughing. In this manner is the disease occasionally got rid of; but such is the constitutional irritation attending this process, and the disgusting fœtor and frightful appearance of the part, that the surgeon generally recommends, and the patient submits to its removal at this juncture."

2. Adipose sarcoma. This is generally formed in the midst of cellular and adipose substance. The capsule which surrounds it is very thin, adheres but slightly to the tumour; and the principal connection appears to be by vessels, which pass through it to enter the substance of the tumour. "These vessels are so small and the connection so slight, that no dissection is required to separate it; for when the tumour is to be removed, the hand of the operator can be easily introduced between it and its investment, and it is thus readily turned out of its capsule. In some instances, however, when inflammation has been induced, the capsules even of these tumours are thickened, and adhere so as not to be separable without difficulty from their surface."

3. Pancreatic sarcoma, so called, because it resembles the pancreas in its internal structure. It consists of irregular-shaped masses, connected together by a fibrous texture. This species of sarcoma is sometimes formed distinctly in the cellular substance, but, most commonly, occurs in the female breast, perhaps originating in the lymphatic glands. In general, the disease is chronic, and does not involve the absorbent glands in the vicinity. But, in a few instances, this species of sarcoma, when situated in the breast, deviates from its ordinary indolent nature, and occasions severe and lancinating pain, an inflammatory state of the integuments, and an adhesion of them to the tumour. The axillary glands also enlarge.

Pancreatic sarcoma is sometimes so irritable a disease, that Mr. Abernethy thinks it may frequently be considered as bad as a cancer. When the glands in the axilla become affected, one generally swells at first, and is extremely tender and painful; afterwards the pain abates, and it remains indurated; another then becomes affected, and runs through the same course.

4. Cystic sarcoma. This name is applied because the disease contains cysts, or cells. Cystic sarcoma sometimes occurs as a distinct tumour, but is commonly met with in the testis and ovary. The cysts, both in the former and latter part, are capable of being rendered red by anatomical injection. The cavities generally contain a serous fluid, but sometimes a caseous substance. Mr. Abernethy believes this last sort of case, when the testicle is concerned, is peculiarly intractable.

5. Mastoid, or mammary sarcoma, so named from its resemblance to the mammary gland in structure. Mr. Abernethy has not frequently seen this kind of tumour, and his attention was called to the nature of the disease, by a case, in which a swelling, partaking of the above structure, and about as large as an orange, was removed from the front of the thigh. The wound seemed at first disposed to heal, but it afterwards degenerated into a malignant ulcer, which occasioned death in the course of two months.

As this kind of tumour is gradually lost in the surrounding parts,

parts, which probably retain a disposition to assume a similar morbid alteration, Mr. Abernethy very judiciously recommends a more extensive removal of them, than was practised in the above example.

Mr. Abernethy thinks this kind of sarcoma more malignant than the preceding species; but not so much so as the following.

6. Tuberculated sarcoma consists of an aggregation of small, roundish tumours, of various sizes and colours, connected together by a kind of cellular substance. The size of the tubercles is from that of a pea to that of a horse bean, or sometimes larger; their colour is of a brownish red, and some are of a yellowish tint.

Mr. Abernethy has chiefly seen this disease in the lymphatic glands of the neck. The tumours ulcerated, became painful incurable sores, and destroyed the patients. Tuberculated sarcoma is so terrible a disorder, that it may be deemed a fatal one; fortunately it is uncommon.

7. Medullary sarcoma. This is commonly seen affecting the testis, and has been termed the soft cancer of that part. The tumour resembles the structure and appearance of the medullary substance of the brain.

In consequence of the diseased state of the testis, the inguinal glands on each side become affected with the same morbid change, and acquire a very enormous size. The skin covering the disease in the groin gives way, and the most prominent of the enlarged glands inflame, and are gradually detached in the form of sloughs. Hemorrhage succeeds the separation of each slough, and can only be suppressed by means of continued pressure. After all the dead portions have been thrown off, the skin heals, and continues cicatrized till the distention of another gland renews the foregoing process, and the patient is at length exhausted.

Dissections after death evince, that the glands in the pelvis and abdomen are affected with the same disease. Indeed, the facility with which medullary sarcoma is propagated along the absorbent vessels, is one of its most striking peculiarities.

The medullary sarcoma is often considered to be exactly the same sort of disease as the fungus hæmatodes; but they appear different in the medullary sarcoma, after the parts have sloughed out, the place heals, until another similar swelling bursts the skin; but, in fungus hæmatodes, the fungus always grows larger and larger, without being materially retarded by sloughing and no healing process ever occurs.

Fungus hæmatodes, or the bleeding fungus, commences by a small fluctuating, colourless tumour, painful when occupying the mamma, not painful in other situations,—advances to a considerable size, breaks and protrudes from its opening small fungi, which grow rapidly and bleed considerably. It changes into a liver-like structure the muscles, makes carious the bones, and spreads rapidly along the glands. Its base, from where the fungi grew, is of a soft nature, somewhat like brain. This disease attacks young persons, and is always fatal; unless completely extirpated with the knife. This even commonly fails, because the disease has often spread along the glands into remote parts before any operation is decided on. No structure, but the brain, seems free from fungus hæmatodes.

We shall throw together the remarks we have to make on scirrhus, on cancer, and on carcinomatous tumours. A cancer is an open ulcer which discharges a copious and peculiarly fetid matter; its surface is very uneven; its edges irregular, and both its edges and its base extremely indurated. It is accompanied by violent lancinating pains, frequently bleeds, forms every now and then fungoid granulations, and has a tendency to involve in its structure "nearly every part with which it comes in contact. It always begins in a small spot, and extends from thence in all directions like rays from a centre." A cancer is incurable by art, and there are but one or two instances on record in which it has been removed by the powers of nature. In these a deep-seated mortification occurred which threw off the whole sore. Extreme emaciation and great disturbance of the or-

ganic functions are the constitutional attendants of this malady. Cancer may succeed to various kinds of indurations and tumours; but its most common predecessor is the tumour called *scirrhus*. This is not merely a scirrhus or indurated swelling, but an induration attended with peculiar characters. These are accurately described by Mr. Samuel Cooper in his "First Lines:"—

"The puckering of the skin, the dull leaden colour of the integuments, the knotted and uneven feel of the disease, the occasional darting pains in the part, its fixed attachment to the skin above, and muscles beneath, form so striking an assemblage of symptoms, that, when they are all present, there cannot be the smallest doubt that the tumour is a scirrhus."

"But, it is not to be denied, that the diagnosis is frequently more obscure. In some cases scirrhus is moveable, and not fixed to the subjacent parts; and the disease may be indolent, without much pain, or without discolouration of the skin. In the female breast the part first affected may be very small, and feel like a loose pea under the skin; in other instances it may be more extensive and deeply situated." Neither is the swelling always irregular and craggy; Howard describes it as being generally roundish and renitent. "He describes the skin, at an advanced period, as being smooth and shining, and having a reddish hue, inclining to purple. He tells us, also, that an external strongly marked cancer, when much distended, and tending to ulceration, but not actually ulcerated, may be compared with a hard, prominent carbuncle, before it sloughs; for they have each a similar hardness, with a shining prominence; and if the cancer be adherent to a broad base, there is posteriorly a similar firmness and immobility."

"The progress of a scirrhus, before ulceration takes place, is generally slow; but when this last process commences, the ravages of the disease mostly spread with great rapidity."

"A scirrhus induration is not prone to acquire the magnitude, which almost all other tumours are apt to attain, when their growth is not interrupted."

"Other tumours, especially when they have not been inflamed, are commonly much more moveable than scirrhi."

"If we except the fungus hæmatodes, other tumours do not involve every kind of structure, skin, muscle, cellular substance, &c.; and the integuments seldom become affected before the distention, produced by the size of such swellings, becomes very considerable. In scirrhus cases, the skin soon becomes contaminated, discoloured, and puckered."

"Some few tumours may be harder and heavier than a few scirrhi; but the reverse is commonly the case."

"In a scirrhus of the breast, the part affected is generally hard, heavy, and connected with the mammary gland; and, when moved, the whole gland moves along with it."

"In parts which have become scirrhi, the structure usually consists of a very firm light brown substance, intersected by membranous or ligamentous septa, which run in various directions. The membranous septa are more numerous, and of greater thickness in some cases than others. There is occasionally mixed with this structure a cartilaginous substance, and even bony matter, has been met with."

No cure having been discovered either for scirrhus or cancer, the only method of treating these diseases is to cut them out. In recommending such operations we must be guarded by the same reasons as regulate our practice with regard to other tumours; namely, by the consideration whether the patient is constitutionally affected, and whether we can perfectly remove all the diseased portions. When these cannot be effected, our object should be to palliate the disease. Scirrhus may be kept under for some time by cooling applications and attention to health; and some have attributed good effect to the iodine ointment, but we think with insufficient reasons.

Under the words carcinomatous tumour, cancer has been included. We shall here make use of it to express those anomalous diseases which bear a resemblance to cancer, and which, though often as fatal, arise from common causes, such as long continued chronic inflammation. The appearances of these diseases, as well as the symptoms that precede them, are,

however, extremely various. Sometimes a common tumour having formed, has burst and discharged for some time good matter, but afterwards the sides of the ulcer having become indurated, it has gradually acquired the appearance and the incurable nature of cancer.

"Diseases also, which strikingly resemble carcinoma in appearance, form in the following manner. An enlarged lymphatic gland shall gradually become soft, and contain a fluid. In this state it ulcerates or is opened; but instead of subsiding, it inflames; the surrounding parts become indurated; the integuments acquire a dusky hue; the opening and cavity enlarge, and assume the appearance of a cyst, from the sides of which fungus arises, and turns over the averted edges of the opening. I have also seen, after the bursting of an encysted tumour the surrounding parts indurate, and throw out a fungus, forming a disease appearing like cancer, and which could not be cured."—*Abernethy on Tumours.*

Our cursory view of general diseases being now run through, it remains to enter into particular details. The arrangement we have adopted is a mere arbitrary division of the body into regions. But this is practically the best arrangement that can be adopted, because we have before us at once all the possible diseases of any one part, so that their discrepancies or similarities are at once apparent. This method applies very well to medicine, and, indeed, has long ago formed the basis of some very fair systems of nosology. But with this we have not here to do. We shall confine ourselves to surgical diseases, and consider them in this order—The surgical diseases of the abdomen, of the pelvis and urinary organs, of the chest, of the throat and face, of the head, of the back, of the upper extremity, and of the lower extremity: we shall not, however, confine ourselves very strictly to the anatomical division of these parts.

OF THE ABDOMEN.

Wounds of the abdomen differ as they are confined to the muscles, fascia, and integuments, or as they involve the peritoneum. The former are only troublesome because they weaken the parietes of the abdomen, which are thus rendered liable to hernia; an accident incidental also to severe contusions. The abscesses that form from these superficial wounds require free openings, because they are apt to burrow between the fascia and peritoneum, but otherwise are not particularly dangerous. Wounds that pass through the peritoneum, are, however, very different. Active inflammation is set up, and the whole of the serous membrane may be shortly involved in disorganization. But if a wound be merely a puncture, it is often difficult to say whether the peritoneum has been punctured or not; generally, such a wound produces great sickness, syncope, and fear, but these often attend fixed wounds. As, however, a puncture can scarcely be supposed to wound the peritoneum without also wounding some of the viscera, in these cases we shall have particular symptoms; as, for instance, bloody urine, when the kidneys and urinary bladder are injured; vomiting of blood, when the stomach is pierced; discharge of blood with the fæces, when the large intestines are wounded. Symptoms, like these, must of course throw considerable light on the nature of the accident.

With regard to our not being always able to pronounce whether a wound penetrates the cavity of the belly or not, the want of precise information on this point is of little practical importance; for, if the case be not complicated with any urgent symptoms, the treatment should obviously resemble that of a simple wound, and if inflammation of the peritoneum evinced itself, it would then be met by depleting measures.

"When, in the case of a penetrating wound of the abdomen, a portion of intestine, or omentum protrudes, the sooner it is returned, the more effectually will the irritation, arising from the exposure and constriction of the part, be prevented. The mesentery is always to be returned before the intestine; and the intestine before the omentum; but the last protruded portion of each of these parts ought to be the first reduced.

"The two index fingers are the most convenient for reducing the parts; and it is a rule to keep the portion first returned from protruding again by one finger, until it has been followed by another portion, introduced by the other finger. The second piece is to be supported in the same way, by the finger used to return it, and so on, till all the displaced parts have been put into their natural situation."

"As soon as the reduction seems complete, the surgeon is to assure himself of it, by introducing his finger into the cavity of the abdomen, in order to feel that the parts are all freely reduced. When it is absolutely necessary to enlarge the wound, in order to get back the bowels, the dilatation should be made in a direction parallel to the muscular fibres.

"The reduction of the viscera having been effected, the patient is to be laid upon his back, with the thighs bent upon the pelvis, and he must strictly avoid making any exertion, lest he bring on another protrusion. The wound is then to be closed with adhesive plaster, and the uniting bandage; but if the division be extensive, and these means ineffectual, it may be proper to have recourse to a suture."

If the bowel should be found injured as well as protruded, other measures are to be used. If the wound of the viscera be very small, a suture, or a ligature may be applied to it. If it is large, and transverse, or involves much of the circumference of the bowel, it is best to retain it, dress the wound lightly, use very active antiphlogistic measures, and leave the case to nature. The wound will, for some time probably, serve as an artificial anus; adhesions will take place between the bowel and peritoneum, which adhesions gradually becoming a canal, the natural passage is re-established. It has been proposed, however, to sew the divided portions together. See Mr. Travers' Inquiry into the Process of Nature, in repairing Injuries of the Intestines.

Extravasations of various balls from guns, are of occasional occurrence in the cavity of the abdomen, but they cannot be removed with any certainty, or without doing much injury, and are therefore better suffered to remain.

Of Hernia, or Rupture.—By this term is meant a tumour, which occurs from some of the viscera passing out through fissures or openings in the abdominal muscles, and pressing out the elastic skin and cellular tissue, and forming a swelling. It is well known that in these muscles, there are some particular parts very incompletely closed; it is there that hernia usually makes its appearance. Hernia has been applied, however, to any protrusion, as of the brain, &c.: here we speak of hernia covered by peritoneum.

Our anatomists and earlier surgeons having been men who, for the most part, despised the harmonious and expressive language called English, set themselves to designate the varieties of hernia by the following harsh compounds of Greek and Latin. When the intestine only was contained in the hernia, they called the case an *enterocele*; when the omentum only, an *epiplocele*; when both, an *entero-epiplocele*; when the stomach came down, it was *gastrocele*; the liver *hepatocelc*; the protrusion of the bladder was *cystocelc*. Then a hernia in the groin was *bubonocelc*, and when this descended into the scrotum, *oschocelc*. A hernia that came through at the navel, was called *exomphalos*.

The nature of hernia being stated, it follows that any violent or irregular action of the abdominal muscles, such as raising weights, or the like, must tend to produce it. And that heat, illness, or any cause tending to relax extraordinarily the muscular fibres, must favour its production. At the same time, it must be confessed that it is not always traceable to these causes, and that it often appears without any obvious reason. The general rule is, however, established.

We shall now proceed to speak of various kinds of hernia. The Inguinal Hernia is known—"1. By a tumour arising from a protrusion of some part of the bowel through that canal or opening which is commonly called the abdominal ring, and which in the male subject gives passage to the spermatic cord; and in the female, to the round ligament of the uterus. The swelling is not preceded by any symptoms of inflammation; and though, according to the opinion of the most accurate

accurate observers, its commencement is generally slow and gradual, it afterwards frequently undergoes a sudden enlargement, and is for the first time particularly noticed by the patient himself, after he has been making some violent effort.

"2. By the diminution, or even total disappearance of the swelling, when the patient lies upon his back; by its recurrence, when he stands up again; and by the impulse which is felt in the swelling, whenever the patient coughs."

The inguinal hernia passes out of the internal abdominal ring, or, in other words, beneath the united tendon of the internal oblique and transversalis muscles. It afterwards lies in the inguinal canal, and ultimately passes out at the external abdominal ring. It will be recollected that the external ring is considerably nearer the pubis than the internal ring; but in a hernia of any duration the rings become so far dilated, that they are nearly opposite to one another. When a hernia is strangulated, it is in a few instances constricted at the external abdominal ring. These are generally old cases. The commonest situation is at the internal ring which is found about an inch deeper than the outer ring. But when the hernia is very small, and the parts consequently not much displaced, the stricture is found as deeply situated as two inches. Occasionally a membranous band forms across the neck of the sac, which produces the stricture, and this is generally very remote. The coverings of inguinal hernia are the peritonæum which forms the sac, the cremaster muscle which is expanded and thickened, the fascia superficialis and the common integuments. The epigastric artery is behind and to the inner side of the hernia.

There is a sort of hernia which Sir A. Cooper calls direct, and Hesselbach internal. Instead of coming through the internal abdominal ring, it passes, as Scarpa very clearly explains, through a fissure in the muscle which is nearer the pubis than that ring. Consequently it passes nearly straight outwards to the external ring, and of course leaves the epigastric artery on its outer side. Now Sir A. Cooper states that this direct sort of hernia has one more covering than the oblique hernia, namely, a fascia protruded before it that is derived from the fascia transversalis, and transversalis muscle.

Hernia of the Tunica Vaginalis.—"This case differs from all other ruptures in the circumstance of the protruded bowels being in immediate contact with the testicle, the tunica vaginalis serving as the hernial sac. Or, (to use the words of Richter), the displaced bowel and the testicle, simply covered by its albuginea, lie together in one and the same sac."

The origin of this species of hernia is as follows: until the approach of birth, the testes of the fetus are lodged within the cavity of the abdomen, and situated immediately below the kidneys, on the fore-part of the psoas muscles, by the side of the rectum, which bowel is larger in proportion to the capacity of the pelvis than in the full-grown subject, and lies before the lumbar vertebrae as well as the os sacrum. The anterior and lateral surfaces of the testis are covered by reflected peritonæum, while posteriorly it adheres to the psoas muscle by means of cellular substance. A little while before birth, generally in the eighth month, but sometimes subsequently to this event, the testes descend through the abdominal ring, and then pass through a kind of membranous canal, which the peritonæum forms from that aperture into the scrotum. Thus, as they were already furnished with one peritoneal investment up in the loins, a second is acquired by their entering this canal, or rather elongation of the peritonæum. The first covering, which is smooth, and every where closely adherent to the surface of the testis, constitutes the tunica albuginea; while the other, which is denser, and in front loose and unconnected, becomes the tunica vaginalis. Now it is into this production of peritonæum (originally formed, and placed ready for the reception of the testes on their descent from the loins), that the bowels are sometimes accidentally propelled, before the passage leading into it from the belly is duly closed. The congenital inguinal hernia, therefore, differs from the generality

of ruptures in having no hernial sac, formed and produced by the peritonæum being thrust forth from the belly by the displaced bowels themselves. There is, however, one uncommon species of hernia which, in the tunica vaginalis, is included also in a common hernial sac, so that the protruded bowels neither lie in contact with the preceding membrane, nor with the albuginea. It seems to be formed, after the communication of the cavity of the peritonæum with that of the tunica vaginalis has been obliterated, but previously to the closure of the passage lower down.

"The most important symptom, by which a congenital inguinal hernia may be distinguished from a common scrotal rupture, is the situation of the testis, which, in the latter disease, can always be plainly felt towards the lower and back part of the tumor. But, in a congenital hernia, if the protrusion be at all considerable, the testis cannot be felt while the bowels are down. In a congenital hernia, the viscera usually pass from the groin down into the scrotum in a very short space of time, and, as it were, precipitately; but, in a common inguinal hernia, the protrusion is generally slower and more gradual. However, we may consider the quickness with which the bowels have descended from the groin into the scrotum, as a characteristic mark of a congenital hernia.

The femoral or crural hernia is that to which women are most liable. It seldom occurs in male subjects, who, on the other hand, are very subject to bubonocoeles, from which females are almost entirely exempt. It consists of a protrusion of some of the abdominal viscera under the pubic extremity of Poupart's ligament. It rarely acquires a large size, and is generally of a globular shape, while an inguinal hernia is more or less oblong. Anatomical examinations prove, that the aperture through which the parts escape is exceedingly small, and hence, we must not be surprised at the remarkable rapidity with which the symptoms usually advance.

In this hernia we find that the viscera are protruded through the crural ring, which lies under the crural arch, between its thin edge and the external iliac veins. A protrusion of the viscera, under any other part of the tendon, is prevented by the attachment of the iliac fascia. The hernia, having passed through the crural ring, rises above its edge, and therefore, as Mr. Hey has observed, if a surgeon attempts to reduce it when strangulated, by pushing it upwards, he effectually frustrates his intention. The viscera descend from the abdomen at first nearly in a perpendicular direction, and come into the hollow in front of the pectineus. They then come forwards to the surface, so as to lie in general in front of the crural arch. The neck of the sac, or that portion of it lying under Poupart's ligament, is generally about half an inch in length, and it is obvious that the strangulation must have a very deep situation, since it occurs exactly where the neck of the sac communicates with the abdomen. The tumour is situated in front of the pectineus, and of the fascia lata. There is one variety of femoral hernia, and in which the parts descend into the sheath of the crural vessels. In this case the tumour is situated under the fascia lata, is more obscure to the feel, and has not a defined edge.

The femoral hernia is usually of a rounder form, and less bulk when strangulated, than the scrotal hernia. Mr. Hey has repeatedly seen it resembling an enlarged inguinal gland. It is apt also to extend in a horizontal rather than a vertical direction.

The femoral hernia is liable to be mistaken for a bubonocoele. The cases may always be discriminated by recollecting, that if the swelling of a crural hernia be drawn downwards, the crural arch may be traced passing over the neck of the sac, while in bubonocoele it extends under that part. The spine of the os pubis, which is behind and below the neck of the sac in an inguinal hernia, is on the same horizontal level, and rather within it in the crural rupture. A varix of the femoral vein may be distinguished from a crural hernia by the disappearance of the swelling on the patient's lying down, and its recurrence again as soon as the

vein is pressed upon above Poupart's ligament. A psoas abscess may be known by the fluctuation of the matter, the preceding pain in the loins and shivering, and the absence of intestinal complaints.

The term umbilical hernia has been applied, not only to protrusions of the bowels through the opening of the navel, but to all other tumours of a similar nature, which present themselves any where in the vicinity of that aperture; the majority of them take place in the linea alba, either above or below the precise situation of the umbilicus.

The congenital exomphalos sometimes affects the fœtus in utero, and of course exists at the time of birth; the viscera protruding out of the umbilical ring itself, and passing into the cellular substance, which connects the vessels of the cord together. It may commence in any of the stages of gestation; for it is observed in the embryo, and in the fœtus which has not yet acquired its full size, as well as in that which is completely grown.

According to all appearances, the principal cause of the congenital exomphalos is a slow and imperfect development of the abdominal muscles. As the umbilical ring in the fœtus is the weakest point of all the parietes of the abdomen, the viscera must be very liable to protrude at this opening, and gradually make their way into the cellular substance, which connects the vessels of the cord together.

Children born with umbilical herniæ generally live but a short time, because they are simultaneously afflicted with other malformations.

The true umbilical hernia, which is formed subsequently to birth, presents itself in children after the separation of the funis, and is generally attended with the following particularities:—The swelling is either of a round, cylindrical, or conical shape, with a circular base. No vestige of the cicatrix of the navel can be discerned upon it, except that near the apex, or upon one side of the tumour, a small portion of the skin seems paler and thinner than the rest. Underneath the common integuments another covering is found, consisting of a cellular substance, and of that delicate fascia which is spread over the surface of the abdominal muscles. When this second investment is opened, the true hernial sac is seen, which is thin, semitransparent, and in every respect similar to the rest of the peritoneum, as in other herniæ. It usually contains a noose of intestine, and never, or but very rarely, omentum; a circumstance which Scarpa accounts for by the natural shortness of this membrane in young children.

The occurrence of exomphalos in children always implies an imperfect closure of the umbilical ring. The quickness with which the navel is closed after birth, and especially the retraction of the cicatrix by the umbilical ligaments, as the growth of the body proceeds, greatly promote the efficacy of bandages, and, in young children, facilitate the radical cure of this species of hernia. A disposition to such protrusions is very common during the first three or four months after birth, but moderate compression suffices for the removal of the swelling, and for keeping the parts reduced.

The exomphalos of the adult subject is a hernia in the linea alba. Scarpa lays down, with great accuracy, the distinguishing characters both of the true umbilical hernia, and of other cases which occur in the linea alba near the navel. The first disease, says he, whether met with in the infant or the adult, has a circular neck, or pedicle, at the circumference of which the tendinous margin of the umbilical ring can be felt with the end of the finger. Whatever may be the size of the tumour, its body always retains nearly a spherical shape; nor can any wrinkle of the skin, nor any thing at all resembling the cicatrix of the navel, be observed either upon the convexity or upon the sides of the swelling; the skin being merely a little paler and thinner at some points than others: on the contrary, in a hernia of the linea alba, the neck of the swelling is of an oval shape, like the fissure through which the protrusion has taken place. The tumour itself is also constantly of an oval form. When the finger is pressed deeply round its neck, the edges of the aperture in the linea alba are perceptible; and if the hernia be very near the navel, the umbilical cicatrix may be seen on one of the

sides of the swelling, a sure indication that the viscera, do not protrude through the umbilicus itself.

Herniæ of the linea alba, when left to themselves, are much slower in their progress than true cases of exomphalos. On account of their small size they are frequently unobserved, especially in corpulent subjects, or when situated at the side of the ensiform cartilage. However, they bring on complaints of the stomach; habitual colics, particularly after meals; and the patient may be troubled for a long while with such disorders before their true cause is detected. On the other hand, a true umbilical hernia may be known from the earliest period of its formation, both by the changes which it produces in the cicatrix of the navel, and by the rapidity of its increase.

These two species of hernia require similar modes of treatment; but the cases which happen in the linea alba are more difficult of cure than the exomphalos.

The treatment of reducible hernia is sufficiently simple: it consists merely in returning the bowel into the belly, and placing a truss on so adjusted that its pad presses fairly on the opening. The same sort of truss serves for crural and inguinal hernia, and except in particular cases, the common one answers perfectly well. Trusses for umbilical hernia have merely a large concave pad to lie over the umbilicus, secured by a broad belt that passes round the waist.

With respect to irreducible hernia, if the incapacity for reduction be of recent standing and no untoward symptoms are present, we may frequently get it back, by desiring the patient to take some brisk purges, live low, and use the recumbent posture for a few days. But ordinarily there are adhesions formed before the surgeon is applied to, and all that can be done is to support the hernia and prevent its further protrusion, by using a suspensory bandage.

Hernia is a complaint only formidable to life when it becomes strangulated: that is to say, when the viscus protruded through the abdominal opening swells and cannot be returned, so that inflammation spreads into the contents of the abdomen, while at the same time the passage of the fœces is stopped, and the strictured bowel becomes inflamed to a degree that threatens speedy gangrene. The symptoms of strangulated hernia are thus described by Sir A. Cooper.—"The patient first complains of pain about the region of the diaphragm. He will describe the sensation to be as if he felt a cord bound tightly round the upper part of the stomach. The next symptom is constant eructation, owing to the great quantity of air rising from the intestines to the stomach. The patient is next troubled with vomiting, accompanied with costiveness. He has a great disposition to have motions, but cannot succeed in his attempts to expel the fœces. There is some pain in the swelling, and a good deal at the part where the stricture is situated. These symptoms attend the first dawn of strangulation. The abdomen afterwards becomes considerably distended with air, not at first from inflammation, but in consequence of the accumulation of flatus in the intestines. This is evident, because the patient does not at first complain of pain on pressure of the abdomen. The vomiting becomes more frequent, and feculent matter is rejected from the stomach. A clyster will sometimes bring away a portion of feculent matter; but the quantity will be extremely small. During the time that the abdomen is in this tense state, but unaccompanied with pain, and while there is frequent vomiting of the fœces, the pulse is hard, frequent, but very distinct; but in the next stage of symptoms, when the abdomen is not only tense but painful to the touch, you will find the pulse extremely small and frequent; so small that it can scarcely be felt; so frequent that it can hardly be counted. The vomiting and eructations continue, and the patient is pale, and covered with a cold perspiration. The tumour becomes very tense, hard, and in general a little inflamed on the surface of the skin. The next change in the symptoms of strangulated hernia is, that in addition to the vomiting, which is not less frequent, hiccough supervenes. Hiccough was formerly considered to be a sign of the presence of gangrene, but it is now known not to be so. Patients have had hiccough for many

many hours, and have recovered after the operation for strangulated hernia. After the appearance of hiccough, you may prevent gangrene by bleeding, and using other means for reducing the patient. The hiccough will sometimes remain for several days after the operation, and in this case bleeding will relieve the patient more than any thing else. When gangrene has actually taken place, the patient will tell you that he has got rid of all his pain, and that he feels a great deal better; but if you put your hand on his abdomen, you will find it still tense and tender; his pulse will be intermitting, small, and irregular, and the swelling will feel tense and somewhat emphysematous. In this state it sometimes happens that the hernia, by a little pressure, may be returned into the abdomen, in consequence of the great relaxation of the surrounding parts from the effects of gangrene. Death, however, is close at hand."

Clearly as these symptoms are detailed, and accurately as they correspond with what is in the majority of cases observed, the student must not expect to find them invariable. There are some cases, especially in very old persons, in whom the marked tenderness of the abdomen as well as its tenseness and inflation are not very obvious. A frequent hard pulse, nausea, anxiety and constipation, are, in a few rare instances, the only symptoms, and the cases are more numerous in which the symptoms, though severer, are yet by no means equal to those so well noted by Sir Astley as usual in this complaint. Exomphalos especially, the most dangerous to life, has the mildest symptoms.

When a man applies to a surgeon with strangulated hernia, the course pursued should be as follows:—In the first place, he should endeavour, by means of the hand, very gently and carefully, to return the intestine. If this does not succeed, he should neither practice nor allow any more handling, but immediately use constitutional remedies. His attention ought to be directed to making the patient faint as fast as possible. For this purpose a very large bleeding should be made, and the patient immediately placed in a warm bath. The endeavour to return the bowel may now be made. If faintness be perfectly induced, and yet this attempt does not succeed, it is of no use to do any thing more, and the sooner the operation is performed the better. But if faintness has not been induced, other means are sometimes had recourse to, such as the tobacco enema. There is a difference of opinion among surgeons as to the use of this remedy, but there seems no reasonable objection to its use, except one which applies to every thing else, *viz.*, that too much time may be lost in its application.

The measures above mentioned being found unsuccessful, an operation for the relief of the intestine is at once to be decided on. With respect to the time that may be suffered to elapse, between the occurrence of the strangulation and the performance of the operation, this is various. It is generally allowed, that most patients die because the operation is performed too late. With respect to young patients, those who have small or recent hernia, there is no occasion to wait an instant. Inflammation, is in these cases, going on rapidly; the constitutional means have been tried, (and these, if not successful when suddenly put in force, cannot be successful when more tardily used); the disease has never the slightest tendency to a spontaneous cure: then, why delay the operation and keep the patient in suspense at all? In old patients, in those who have large and ancient hernia, we may wait for some time without danger; but even here we can expect no advantage from waiting, that is, if we are perfectly convinced strangulation exists. But old persons, with large hernia, are subject to an obstruction in the intestines, which the French call *engouement*, and which arises from a quantity of foetid matter distending preternaturally the intestine, so that it cannot return into the belly. These cases are generally to be cured by the application of pounded ice to the swelling, and the exhibition of brisk purgatives and emetics.

The operation for hernia varies, of course, with the nature of the complaint: we shall first describe the operation for common inguinal hernia. The external incision should

begin an inch above the outer angle of the ring, and extend over the middle of the tumour to its lower part. Either by this first incision, or in the subsequent dissection down to the sac, the external pudic branch of the femoral artery may be divided, and ought to be tied when the hemorrhage from it is profuse. After thus dividing the skin, the cellular substance lying upon the outside of the hernial sac is to be raised with a pair of dissecting forceps and cautiously cut, layer by layer. In order to lessen the risk of cutting suddenly through the sac and wounding the bowels, the surgeon should not only elevate the layers of cellular substance with the forceps, but take care to divide them with the edge of the knife inclined rather horizontally. The opening into the sac can be accomplished with most security at the lower part of the tumour, because fluid is sometimes contained in the sac, and, in that case, always gravitates to the bottom of the swelling. An opening having been made, it is to be enlarged in both directions with the probe-pointed bistoury, guided by the finger or director until the whole cavity is laid open. The presence of fluid is not a constant circumstance, and, therefore, cannot be depended upon as a criterion, which will always serve for shewing when the first aperture is made in the hernial sac. The circular arrangement of the arteries of the intestine, and its very smooth surface distinguish it from the hernial sac, which is rather rough and cellular on its surface, and is in general closely connected with the surrounding parts. Since the spermatic vessels are apt sometimes to deviate from their ordinary situation, in respect to the hernia, and lie more or less in front of the sac, every operator ought to endeavour to ascertain such variations, if possible, before hand, in order that he may avoid parts which should never be injured. When the hernial sac has been in this manner opened, and its contents fairly brought into view, the next object is to liberate them from the state of stricture in which they are. "The finger should be carried as far into the neck of the sac as it can be without violence, and between the protruded parts and the upper margin of the stricture. The bistoury, with its back resting on the finger, is pushed forwards towards the abdomen, followed and supported by the finger which protects the viscera. The length of the incision should not exceed what is sufficient to allow the viscera to be replaced with ease." *Lawrence*.—The direction of this should be, in every case, *i. e.* whether the hernia be direct or oblique, *directly upwards*.

The last thing which the surgeon has to achieve in the operation, is to reduce the viscera into the cavity of the abdomen, a circumstance, which may be directly done, when the protruded parts are sound and free from adhesions. When the bowel is mortified, which is known by its being tessellated with green spots, it is useless to return it; it must be cut off, and an artificial anus formed, as in cases of mortification of the intestines from ordinary wounds. Adhesions, when recent and slight, may be divided with the finger, when old by a cautious use of the knife. The omentum, when redundant or mortified, may be removed, and any bleeding arteries in its substance secured by ligatures.

In the operation for femoral hernia, "the first incision exposes the superficial fascia, which is given off by the external oblique muscle, and which covers the anterior part of the hernial sac; but if the patient is thin, and the hernia has not been long formed, this fascia escapes observation, as it is then slight and delicate, and adheres closely to the inner side of the skin. When this fascia is divided, the tumour is so far exposed, that the circumscribed form of the hernia may be distinctly seen. It is still, however, enveloped by a membrane, which is the fascia, that the hernial sac pushes before it, as it passes through the inner side of the crural sheath. This membrane, the fascia propria, is to be next divided longitudinally from the neck to the fundus of the sac; and if the subject is fat, an adipose membrane lies between it and the sac, from which it may be distinguished by seeing the cellular membrane passing from its inner side to the surface of the sac.

“The hernial sac, being exposed, is to be next opened; and, to divide it with safety, it is best to pinch up a small part of it between the finger and the thumb; to move the thumb upon the finger, by which the intestine is distinctly felt, and may be separated from the inner side of the sac; and then to cut into the sac, by placing the blade of the knife horizontally. Into this opening a director should be passed, and the sac opened from its fundus to the crural sheath.” See *A. Cooper on Crural and Umbilical Hernia*. The incision of Gimbernat's ligament should now be made, and the operation completed.

The treatment of a congenital inguinal hernia is to be conducted on the same general principles as apply to other ruptures. After the viscera are reduced, the communication between the abdomen and scrotum may, by the regular and uninterrupted use of a well-made truss, be obliterated. If the patient be young, this cure may be completed in the course of a few weeks. But if a piece of intestine, or omentum, gets low down in the sac, while the testis is in the abdomen, the application of a truss would be highly improper; except, however, when a hernia takes place in a patient whose testis has not descended, and whose age makes it doubtful whether it ever will descend.

In the operation, the surgeon should remember, that the testis will often be found between the intestine and omentum; that, after their reduction, it will be left quite bare in the exposed cavity of the sac; and that, as it is a part very sensible and prone to inflammation, it should never be unnecessarily handled and disturbed.

The sac of a congenital rupture is frequently very thin; sometimes firmly adherent to the skin, at others to the testis, often subject to that kind of strangulation which is caused by the neck of the hernial sac, and liable to various contractions in the course of the sac which require dilatation.

Besides the preceding ruptures, there are several others of various kinds; which, though unfrequent, are deserving of notice. These are,—

1. Ventral herniæ.—The term *ventral* is extended to all such ruptures as happen at any other parts of the abdomen besides the abdominal ring, under the crural arch, and at the navel.

In certain instances, these eventrations are the consequence of repeated pregnancies. In this way, the fore-part of the abdomen has been observed to be so completely weakened (the effect of reiterated distention), as to form a bag, which descended over the thighs, and contained not only the omentum and mass of intestines, but even the gravid uterus itself. See what we have said under *exomphalos*.

Eventrations can hardly become strangulated, though bad and fatal symptoms may be occasioned by an accumulation of intestinal matter, and by obstruction in some part of the protruded viscera.

2. Hernia of the bladder, or cystocele.—A hernia of this kind differs materially from ordinary cases, since there is no hernial sac, and the disease rather consists of an elongation, than a displacement of the bladder. The impossibility of a complete displacement must, indeed, be immediately obvious, on reflecting how firmly this organ is fixed to the perineum and os pubis.

When, in a person subject to retentions of urine, the bladder is much dilated, rising above the pubes, it acquires a situation behind the abdominal ring, without any interposition of the peritoneum. In this state, the least effort may bring on an elongation of the distended bladder through that opening. Thus, a kind of appendage to this organ is formed, which may reach more or less downwards. In most instances it descends no lower than the groin; occasionally it passes into the scrotum. When a considerable portion of the urinary bladder is protruded, its fundus and posterior surface are dragged towards the ring, and even pass through this aperture, together with the peritoneum, which covers them.

The portion of this membrane, which is thus drawn out by the protruded part of the bladder, and follows it, composes a pouch, into which the omentum and bowels escape, so that

a cystocele is very commonly complicated with an ordinary inguinal hernia.

A hernia of the bladder is characterized by a soft, oblong, fluctuating tumour, situated in the bend of the groin; it makes its first appearance near the abdominal ring, and gradually increases in size by descending more and more towards the scrotum. The swelling is made to disappear by compression; it becomes larger when the patient holds his water; but diminishes and entirely subsides when he makes such evacuation. The last circumstance unequivocally distinguishes the disease from the encysted hydrocele of the spermatic cord, while the feel of fluctuation exhibits its difference from an enterocele. It is also to be remembered that cystocele seldom afflicts persons unless they have been often troubled with retentions of urine. The patient in general makes water more frequently than natural.

Besides this sort of hernia of the bladder, there are cases on record, where portions of this viscus have been protruded under the crural arch, and in the perineum and vagina.

Were a surgeon called to a cystocele in a very recent state, he should endeavour to reduce the protruded part, and keep it up with a truss. In almost all cases, however, the case is irreducible, in consequence of the prolapsed part being firmly adherent in its unnatural position.

3. Perineal hernia.—The records of surgery furnish us with examples of herniæ, which have occurred at the lower aperture of the pelvis. In men, the viscera are protruded between the bladder and rectum; in women, between the rectum and vagina. As the part, where the peritoneum is reflected from the rectum to the vagina, or bladder, is at a considerable distance from the peritoneum, it is not difficult to comprehend, that a protrusion may exist, without forming any external swelling. When this is the case, the hernia can only be distinguished in men by examining within the rectum; in women, the disease may be detected both in this way, and by feeling within the vagina.

4. Hernia of the vagina.—The situation in which the protrusion begins is the same as in the perineal rupture; but in the latter case, the vagina resists, and does not give way. In the rupture now under consideration, the swelling projects into the vagina, and is covered by the membrane of that canal. Women who have borne children, are more subject to this disease than other females. The tumour is mostly formed by the small intestines. When the protrusion is occasioned by the bladder, the swelling is situated on the anterior and upper surface of the vagina. This species of hernia is generally brought on by a violent exertion. Its contents may be readily pushed up by the hand, but they descend again if the patient coughs or strains. All active and laborious pursuits are productive of a painful sense of bearing down. The disease is frequently accompanied with disorders of the alimentary canal. Very often the bladder is affected, in consequence of the vicinity of the tumour. When this receptacle itself forms the protrusion, pressure on the swelling will cause a discharge of urine from the meatus urinarius.

In this disease, the first indication is to reduce the parts by the pressure of the hand, care being taken to effect a complete reduction, and not allow any portion of the protruded viscera to continue in the long track, through which they may have descended. Therefore they must be pressed up as far as the os uteri. They are to be prevented from descending again by the use of a pessary, which must be shaped either like a globe, or hollow cylinder.

The vaginal hernia might be attended with much danger and inconvenience, were it to be down at the time of parturition. Hence, during the labour pains, it behoves the practitioner to maintain the viscera reduced by pressure, until the child's head has passed down into the pelvis. Should the head have descended, while the rupture is down, delivery should be expedited as much as possible.

There is an operation which surgeons are occasionally called on to perform, called *Paracentesis Abdominis*. This operation consists in plunging a trocar into the cavity of the peritoneum,

peritoneum, for the purpose of discharging the fluid collected there in dropsical cases. Modern practitioners usually prefer making the puncture in the linea alba.

When the operation is to be performed in the linea alba, the instrument should be introduced about two or three inches below the navel.

As soon as the trocar meets with no further resistance, it is not to be pushed more deeply without any object, and with a possibility of injuring the viscera. The stilet is now to be withdrawn, and the fluid allowed to escape through the cannula. Since, in consequence of the sudden removal of the pressure of the fluid from the viscera and diaphragm, patients are very apt to swoon. The abdomen is to be compressed with a bandage or belt.

An operation for aneurism of the aorta, was performed some years ago by Sir A. Cooper; but the patient died, and the apparent hopelessness of this sort of case is such, that no surgeon has followed his example. The following account of the operation is extracted from that gentleman's *Surgical Essays*:—

“The patient's shoulders were slightly elevated by pillows, in order to relax as much as possible, the abdominal muscles; for I expected that a protrusion of the intestines would produce embarrassment in the operation, and was greatly gratified to find that this was prevented by their empty state, in consequence of the involuntary evacuation of the fæces; and here let me remark that I should, in a similar operation, consider it absolutely necessary, previously to empty the bowels by active aperient medicines.

“I then made an incision three inches long into the linea alba, giving it a slight curve to avoid the umbilicus: one inch and a half was above, and the remainder below the navel, and the inclination of the incision was to the left side of the umbilicus in this form (5). Having divided the linea alba, I made a small aperture into the peritoneum, and introduced my finger into the abdomen; and then with a probe-pointed bistoury, enlarged the opening into the peritoneum to nearly the same extent as that of the external wound. Neither the omentum nor intestines protruded; and during the progress of the operation, only one small convolution projected beyond the wound.

“Having made a sufficient opening to admit my finger into the abdomen, I then passed it between the intestines to the spine, and felt the aorta greatly enlarged, and beating with excessive force. By means of my finger nail, I scratched through the peritoneum on the left side of the aorta, and then gently moving my finger from side to side, gradually passed it between the aorta and spine, and again penetrated the peritoneum on the right side of the aorta.

“I had now my finger under the artery, and by its side, I conveyed the blunt aneurismal needle armed with a single ligature behind it; and my apprentice, Mr. Key, drew the ligature from the eye of the needle to the external wound; after which the needle was immediately withdrawn.

“The next circumstance, which required considerable care, was the exclusion of the intestine from the ligature, the ends of which were brought together at the wound, and the finger was carried down between them, so as to remove every portion of the intestine from between the threads: the ligature was then tied, and its ends were left hanging from the wound. The omentum was drawn behind the opening as far as the ligature would admit, so as to facilitate adhesion; and the edges of the wound were brought together by means of a quilled suture and adhesive plaister.”

OF THE PELVIS.

The surgical diseases of the pelvis, besides inflammations (which are of course common to the contents of this cavity as well as all other parts,) are such as affect the urethra, bladder and prostate gland, diseases of the rectum, and in females diseases of the vagina and uterus. Of the last, we have spoken fully under *PARTURITION*; of the second, under *PATHOLOGY*. We have therefore only to give some account of the first. We shall speak of diseases of the mucous

membranes in the first instance, and of the external parts and general structures afterwards.

The ureters, the bladder, and the urethra, are all liable to be affected with catarrhal affections from general causes, the same as other mucous membranes.

The catarrh of the bladder is more frequent among men than among women; and old people are more subject to it, than those at any other period of life.

This disease is marked by pains of the bladder, and at the point of the urethra, both before, and whilst making water. The injection of the urethra is more or less difficult, according to the action of the bladder, and of the freedom of the passage of the urethra. The hypogastric region is tense, and the urine presents a variety of colours; it is sometimes whitish, or reddish, or of a deep yellow colour; it is muddy, and it exhales an odour of ammonia, which becomes more sensible a short time after it has cooled. It also forms, in most common cases, a mucus, which mixes and comes away with the urine in the form of glairy filaments, and which is afterwards deposited at the bottom of the vessel, in the form of the tenacious glairy substance, resembling somewhat the white of an egg.

The chronic inflammation of the mucous membrane of the bladder, may be accompanied with an ulceration of the kidneys or bladder; the mucus discharged then becomes of a greenish yellow colour, sometimes mixed with streaks of blood. It is deposited slowly, is mixed easily among the urine, and in water; it has little viscosity, or fœtor, and does not coagulate by ebullition. The other symptoms which accompany this excretion, as fever, pain, wasting of the flesh, sufficiently distinguish this double affection of the bladder. The chronic catarrh is subject to return with intolerant pain in the region of the pubis and perinæum, accompanied with restlessness and anxiety. These intermissions are irregular, and may remain some weeks.

The matter which exists in the mucous membrane of the bladder, and that of other membranes of the same name, is sufficient to point out the means which are to be employed in its treatment. The warm bath, and mucilaginous drinks, are particularly indicated at the beginning of the acute catarrh; but the tendency which it has to become chronic ought to make us cautious in not prosecuting debilitating remedies too far. Opium should be employed with great circumspection, notwithstanding the intensity of the pain; and as this is often the result of the distension of the bladder, from the accumulation of urine, it is sometimes necessary to have recourse to the introduction of the catheter.

This mucous membrane is liable to a very acute form of catarrh, induced by specific causes, and called gonorrhœa. The first symptom of this complaint is usually an itching at the orifice of the urethra, sometimes extending over the whole glans penis. A little fulness of the lips of the urethra is next observable. Very soon after the discharge has appeared, the itching changes into pain, especially at the time of voiding the urine. The penis, and particularly the glans are affected with swelling. The latter part has a transparent appearance around the mouth of the urethra, the skin seeming distended, smooth, and red, like a ripe cherry. Sometimes the glans, as well as the beginning of the urethra, are more or less excoriated. This canal becomes narrower, as is proved by the stream of urine being smaller than common. Small swellings are often observable along the lower surface of the penis, in the course of the urethra: these were suspected by Mr. Hunter to be the enlarged glans. In some instances, also, Cowper's glans in the perineum inflame and suppurate.

The natural discharge from the urethra is first changed from a transparent viscid secretion, to a watery, whitish pellucid fluid; and this, becoming gradually thicker, assumes the appearance of pus. The matter often changes its colour and consistence; sometimes it is almost white; sometimes, quite yellow; and, in other instances, greenish.

In ordinary cases, the affection of the urethra does not extend very far along this canal from its orifice.

Besides

Besides the symptoms already mentioned, a very acute, scalding pain is experienced in making water, which frequently can only be discharged by drops, or in an extremely small broken stream. The patient is also incessantly troubled with a sensation as if he wanted to make water, and is obliged to be repeatedly emptying the bladder of what little collects in it.

In the neighbouring parts, a variety of other affections are occasionally produced: pain, soreness, and uneasiness, may be experienced all over the pelvis; and the scrotum, testicles, perineum, anus, and hips, may become disagreeably sensible. The testicles often require to be suspended in a bag-truss, and are so irritable, that the least exertion makes them swell. The inguinal glands may inflame and enlarge also, producing the kind of swelling termed a *sympathetic bubo*. In many instances the bladder is unusually irritable, and cannot bear the least distension, so that the patient is, almost every five minutes, obliged to make water with violent pain, not only in the bladder itself, but likewise in the glans penis; and such pain frequently continues after the urine is discharged.

The consequences of the inflammation are various. Sometimes the discharge stops, and the testicle swells; sometimes the prepuce inflames and is thickened to an amazing extent. If this happens while it is below the glans, the penis is strangulated; a disease named paraphymosis. When inflammation comes on while the skin is before the glans, and it cannot be retracted, the disease is named a phymosis.

The treatment of gonorrhœa is resolved into two very simple principles—to subdue the inflammation at first, and stimulate the vessels when the disease becomes chronic. The inflammation of the prepuce and the testicles requires very active depletory treatment.

Of the great variety of diseases of these organs, strictures in the urethra are perhaps the most frequent, and most serious. They prevent the free evacuation of the bladder; greatly disturb, if not entirely destroy the function of generation; and often give origin to constitutional symptoms which sometimes increase to an alarming degree, and even prove fatal.

The whole extent of the urinary canal is lined by a delicate membrane, which is constantly covered with a viscid fluid, secreted by numerous glands, whose ducts open on its internal surface by orifices which are called lacunæ.

It is highly vascular, and is endowed with so much nervous sensibility, that irritating bodies applied to it often affect, or even derange the whole system.

It has a considerable degree of contractility, is evidently elastic, and perhaps may possess a muscular power, although no muscular coat has yet been demonstrated; but to whatever cause this contractility be owing, it is well known it does not contract upon irritation.

The contraction which forms a stricture in the urethra may take place round the whole circumference of the canal; it may arise chiefly at a particular point of the circumference; or, it may extend along a considerable extent of its surface, and thus produce obstructions of different forms.

The stricture once begun, continues no longer than the cause which first produced it continues to operate. But if the parts are kept long in this state of contraction they generally are attended with a degree of inflammation; the membrane of the urethra acquires a morbid degree of thickness; the surrounding parts are altered in structure; and this change of form and appearance remains after the cause which originally produced them has ceased to operate.

That spasmodic strictures do exist appears from the impressions made on bougies which have been passed through them, and from the examination of the parts after death; for although complete obstructions to the bougie were found when alive, yet not the smallest remains can be observed on dissection.

When there has been a permanent stricture, the natural structure of the urethra is changed, and the morbid alterations it has undergone may be seen on dissection. There is

commonly a contraction at one particular part of the canal; and the appearance of it has been compared to that which would have been given had a packthread been tied round it, or in slight cases it is mere narrowing.

The mode of curing strictures by means of constitutional remedies and dilating the passage with a catheter having been fully laid down under *PATHOLOGY*, we are not required to say more here on the subject, but may at once recur to the graver consequences of this disease—to fistulæ in perinæo, and diseased prostate.

When the urethra is very much obstructed, nature often endeavours to procure relief by ulceration on the inside of that part of the urethra which is within the stricture. Hence, the urine insinuates itself into the loose cellular membrane of the scrotum and penis. The extravasation of this fluid becomes the cause of suppuration, wherever it is diffused, and even of mortification, first of all the cellular substance, and then of several portions of the skin. If the patient survives, all these sloughs are detached, leaving a free communication between the urethra and external surface. Every opening thus produced, is termed a *fistula in perinæo*.

Sometimes the urine finds its way into the corpus spongiosum urethræ, becomes diffused through the whole of this texture, and injected into the glans penis, occasioning mortification of the parts in which it is lodged.

When the effused urine forms only a circumscribed tumour, an incision may be made into the swelling, and an elastic gum catheter introduced and worn. When the effusion is extensive, and strictures are the cause, a complete cure cannot be accomplished without removing them. But, in general, this indication cannot be fulfilled in time to prevent all the mischief arising from the extravasation of urine. An attempt indeed should be made to pass a bougie; for, sometimes, the stricture is, more or less, removed by the ulceration. When this is the case, Mr. Hunter advises the almost constant use of bougies, in order to procure a passage onward into the bladder. However, if it were possible, in this state of things, to introduce a bougie through the whole course of the urethra, there can be little doubt, that the most advantageous plan would be that of making the patient keep an elastic gum catheter continually in the passage. This instrument would at once conduct the urine outward, hinder any more from being effused, and act, like a bougie, on the remains of the stricture. In cases of this nature, the larger the catheter is which can be introduced the better, as it will not only act more quickly on the remains of the stricture, but will be more likely to hinder a further extravasation of urine.

In the cases under consideration, we are advised by Mr. Hunter to endeavour to unload the bladder, and prevent the further effusion of urine into the cellular substance, by making an opening into the urethra, somewhere beyond the stricture; but the nearer to it, the better.

Introduce a director, or staff, into the urethra, as far as the stricture. Cut down on the extremity of the instrument, and extend the incision a little farther towards the anus, so as to open the urethra beyond the stricture.

When the stricture is opposite the scrotum, Mr. Hunter recommends making an opening into the urethra in the perineum; but, here, we cannot have the end of the staff to guide us, and we must trust to our anatomical knowledge. The rest of the operation resembles that for the cure of a false passage. A flexible gum catheter should then be introduced, and the wound healed.

Great attention should still be paid to the inflammation, produced by the diffusion of the urine. Free incisions ought to be made, in order to give vent to this fluid as well as the purulent matter. When there are sloughs, of course the surgeon ought to prefer dividing them to cutting the living parts; yet this consideration must not lead him to omit making the requisite openings in the most depending situations.

When the total obstruction of the urethra and the extravasation are ascertained to depend upon the lodgment of calculi

calculi at the stricture, the plain indication is of course to make an incision down to the extraneous substances, and extract them.

In old cases of fistulæ in perinæo, where the dangers arising from the diffusion of urine, are past, the surgeon is to endeavour to make the natural passage as free as possible by the use of bougies and catheters: for the fistulous openings in the perineum often heal up spontaneously, as soon as the urine finds a ready passage forwards through the urethra.

The prostate gland is liable to enlargement, which interferes with the passage of urine, and renders it very difficult to get any instrument into the bladder. Counter-irritation, leeching the perineum, and a long continued course of constitutional remedies, will frequently cause great diminution in the enlargements.

An account of the formation of stone in the bladder is contained under the article *PATHOLOGY*, and the futility of any means of dissolution pointed out. It remains only, in the present plan, to speak of the surgical operations for its removal.—There are several operations of this kind, but only two that deserve our particular consideration, namely, the removal of small stones through the urethra, and that which is called the lateral operation. The lateral operation is performed either with a knife or with gorgets of various constructions altogether: the former instrument and of a straight director appears to us by far the simplest and easiest mode of operation. We shall therefore merely subjoin an account of it by Mr. Key, who has lately brought it into notice.

“With a view to obviate the evils attending the employment of the gorget and curved staff, and, at the same time, to adhere closely to the operation of Cheselden, I use a straight director, which I find to answer all the purposes of a common staff, to be entirely free from its objections, and to combine advantages which a curved instrument cannot possess.

“I was first led to try an instrument of this form, on the dead subject, by the following accidental occurrence. Being called upon to examine a child who had died with stone in the bladder, I was desirous of performing the operation, before making any examination of the body; and having neither staff, gorget, nor knife with me, I was obliged to operate with a common director, a scalpel, and dressing forceps; and I was forcibly struck with the facility with which the director conducted the knife into the bladder.

“The introduction of this instrument is not attended with difficulty; it enters the bladder of the adult, or infant, with as much facility as one of the accustomed form. When held in the position for the first incision of the operation, it might strike a surgeon, in the habit of using a common staff, that the point of the director was not in the bladder, an objection that, if correct, would justly condemn it as a dangerous instrument. To satisfy my own doubt on the subject, when first I used it, I cut open the bladder, while an assistant held the director, and in every subject on which I tried it, I found the extremity projecting some way into the base of the bladder. At first I had the extremity made straight, but thinking that in depressing the handle it might be caught by a projecting fold in the bladder, which would considerably embarrass the operator, I had the point slightly curved upwards, and as the knife is never introduced so far into the bladder, as to reach the curve, it will cause no difficulty in its introduction. The groove is made somewhat deeper than in the common staff; to prevent any risk of the knife slipping out. The extremity is not grooved, but rounded like a common sound, to prevent abrasion of the prostate or mucous lining of the bladder. The handle is somewhat larger, to afford a better purchase to the hand of the operator.

“The advantage of a straight over a curved line, as a conductor to a cutting instrument, is too obvious to require any comment, but its chief superiority consists in allowing the surgeon to turn the groove in any direction he may wish. Before carrying the knife into the prostate, the groove, which has been held downwards for the first incision, may be turned in any oblique line towards the patient's

left side, that the operator may think preferable for the division of the prostate. Nor does it preclude the use of the gorget. This instrument may be propelled along the straight groove, with more safety than in the curved staff. To those who have been used to the gorget, it may be difficult to lay it aside; and its employment is certainly less objectionable with the straight director than with the common staff. When the gorget is employed, the corresponding motion of the left hand is not required to carry it into the bladder; the director should be held perfectly quiet, while the gorget is propelled along its groove. The danger of passing it out of the groove of the director is diminished, if not entirely removed, from which circumstance alone the surgeon gains much additional confidence, and, consequently, the patient much benefit.

“The knife resembles, in form, a common scalpel, but is longer in the blade, and is slightly convex in the back near the point, to enable it to run with more facility in the groove of the director. The scalpel blade has this advantage over the common beaked lithotome, that the external incision can be made with the same instrument, as the section of the prostate gland, thus rendering a change of instrument unnecessary. There is less danger also of any membrane getting between the groove and the knife, as the point of the cutting edge, being buried in the groove, will divide whatever lies before it, which is not done by a beaked instrument. The opening made in the prostate, and also in the perineal muscles, can, in some measure, be regulated by the angle which the knife makes with the director, as it enters the bladder. In the majority of cases, it will merely be necessary to pass the knife along the director, and having cut the prostate, to withdraw it without carrying it out of the groove; varying the angle according to the age of the patient, the width of the pelvis, and the size of the stone. As the direction in which the prostate should be divided (in order to adhere to Cheselden's operation), is obliquely downwards and outwards, the increasing the angle at which the knife enters the bladder, will incur no risk of wounding the pudic artery. When the stone is unusually large, it will be necessary to dilate the prostate, in withdrawing the knife.

“This want of power to regulate the size of the incision, is an objection to which the gorget is acknowledged to be open. Whether the stone be large or small, the same opening, and that a small one, must serve in either case; and, if the stone be large, the operator cannot avoid employing violence in its extraction.

“As not more dexterity is required to introduce this knife upon the director, than every surgeon, however unused to lithotomy, possesses, it is almost needless to caution against the employment of undue force in the section of the prostate. The knife may be conducted with deliberate care into the bladder; the resistance afforded by the prostate will be readily felt, and the hand of the operator should be checked as soon as he feels the prostate has given way. It will be evident, that the most important part of the operation is thus divested of that blind force, which renders it hazardous in the hands of the most dexterous, as well as of the most unskilful lithotomist.

“The mode of conducting the operation is as follows:—

“An assistant holding the director, with the handle somewhat inclined towards the operator, the external incision of the usual extent is made with the knife, until the groove is opened, and the point of the knife rests fairly in the director, which can be readily ascertained by the sensation communicated; the point being kept steadily against the groove, the operator with his left hand takes the handle of the director, and lowers it till he feels a check, keeping his right hand fixed; then with an easy simultaneous movement of both hands, the groove of the director and the edge of the knife are to be turned obliquely towards the patient's left side; the knife having the proper bearing, is now ready for the section of the prostate; at this time the operator should look to the exact line the director takes, in order to carry the knife safely and slowly along the groove; which

may now be done without any risk of the knife slipping out. The knife may then be either withdrawn along the director, or the parts further dilated, according to the circumstances adverted to. Having delivered his knife to the assistant, the operator takes the staff in his right hand, and passing the forefinger of his left along the director through the opening in the prostate, withdraws the director, and exchanging it for the forceps, passes the latter upon his finger into the cavity of the bladder.

"In extracting the calculus, should the aperture in the prostate prove too small, and a great degree of violence be required to make it pass through the opening, it is advisable always to dilate with the knife, rather than expose the patient to the inevitable danger consequent upon laceration."

The testicle is very liable to inflammation and in this state the disease is very absurdly styled *hernia humoralis*. According to Hunter, the first symptom of this complaint is a soft, pulpy, fulness of the body of the testicle, which is exceedingly tender when handled. This fulness increases to a hard swelling, accompanied with considerable pain. The hardest part is commonly the epididymis, and principally the lower portion of it, as may be distinctly felt. The spermatic cord is often affected, and particularly the vas deferens, which is thickened, and, when touched, very tender and painful. The spermatic veins sometimes become varicose; cholicky pains may be experienced in the bowels; and sickness is a common symptom, and even vomiting. In some cases, a great accumulation of air takes place within the alimentary canal, producing much oppression and inconvenience. The bowels in other instances are obstinately constipated, and if this symptom be conjoined with incessant vomiting, a large tumour of the scrotum, and a great swelling and thickening of the spermatic cord, the case may partly resemble a hernia, from which, however, a surgeon well acquainted with all the characters of the latter disease, will have no difficulty in distinguishing it. A severe pain in the loins is usually attendant on the complaint. In addition to the preceding complaints, the patient in severe cases has a great deal of symptomatic fever, pain shooting down the thighs, and considerable heat and difficulty in making water. The description of the manner in which this disease commences, as delivered by some other writers, does not however correspond altogether to the foregoing account. Thus, Richter asserts, that the patient first complains of pain in the groin; then the spermatic cord becomes swollen, particularly the vas deferens; and shortly afterwards the epididymis; but, says he, the testis itself always swells the last, and frequently not till some days have elapsed. The scrotum, in consequence of the distention which it suffers, becomes smooth, loses its corrugated appearance, and is redder than in the healthy state. The disease rarely affects both testes at once; though, as Mr. Hunter observes, it sometimes happens, that the swelling changes from one of these organs to the other with surprising rapidity. In slight cases, the vas deferens and epididymis may be affected alone; but in all usual examples, the body of the testes is equally implicated. Any man, says Mr. Hunter, who is accustomed to know the difference between a swelling of the whole testis, and that of the epididymis only, will immediately be sensible, that in *hernia humoralis*, the whole testis is commonly swelled. This organ assumes the same shape that it does from other causes, where we know from being obliged to remove it, that the whole has swelled, and the pain is in every part of it. Mr. Hunter has seen *hernia humoralis* suppurate at the anterior part of the swelling; he has known several instances, in which the complaint produced adhesions between the tunica albuginea and tunica vaginalis, as was discovered after death, or in the operation for a partial hydrocele. Such changes, says he, could not have taken place, if the body itself of the testes had not been inflamed.

The patient should be kept perfectly quiet, and in a horizontal posture in bed. If he be young and robust, the swelling of the part considerable, and the pain in the loins very violent, phlebotomy may be practised; the quantity

of blood taken away, and the repetition of the operation being determined, by the patient's ability to bear the evacuation, and by the state of the local disease. With regard to local applications, fomentations and poultices prove more beneficial than cold astringent lotions. But, an object, of the highest importance, is to keep the testicle constantly supported, by means of a bag truss, or suspensory bandage.

Mr. Hunter states, that emetics have been known to remove the swelling almost instantaneously. Without giving full credit to the literal meaning of this observation, it is very certain, that the great degree of swelling, in cases of *hernia humoralis*, often occurs and subsides more rapidly, than in any other inflammatory affection whatever.

When the pain in the part and loins is unusually severe, opiates become necessary.

After the inflammation is completely subdued, the hardness of the epididymis commonly remains. Sometimes, this may be lessened by frictions with camphorated mercurial ointment, or the use of discutient plaisters; but, in general, more or less of such induration continues during life.

The testicle is liable to a particular sort of cancer, called the chimney-sweepers' cancer; it was first described by the celebrated Mr. Pott. It is said to be endemial in this country.

This disease almost always makes its first appearance in the inferior part of the scrotum, where, as Mr. Pott observes, it produces a superficial, painful, ragged, ill-looking sore, with hard and rising edges. With the exception of one case, which was shewn to him by Sir J. Earle, and which occurred in a child under eight years of age, that eminent surgeon never saw the complaint occur under the age of puberty. In no great length of time, it makes its way completely through the scrotum, and attacks the testicle, which it enlarges, hardens, and renders thoroughly distempered. Next, it extends up the spermatic cord, contaminating the inguinal glands, and parts within the abdominal ring, and then very soon becoming painfully destructive. The only treatment is extirpation.

The veins of the testis are liable to varix, generally, in consequence of some enlargement of the gland; and the spermatic veins especially are liable to this disease, which has received the denomination of *circoscele*. This dilatation of the veins being combined, in some instances, with a similar affection of the lower portion of the vas deferens, the convoluted canal of the epididymis, and even of the tubuli seminiferi testis, compose an unnatural mis-shapen mass perceptible in the scrotum.

Circoscele frequently occasions great uneasiness, and sometimes a wasting of the testicle. It is commonly limited to that part of the spermatic cord, which is below the abdominal ring; and the vessels are generally larger, the nearer they are to the testicle. It is attended with a sense of weight in the scrotum; an unequal knotty swelling; and, if the disease affects the whole corpus pampiniforme, with a sensation that seems to arise from a bundle of ropes, or earthworms. The disease generally begins at the lower part of the spermatic cord, by the side of the testis. Excepting the uneasy sensation of weight in the scrotum, and a little tenderness when pressed, the recent *circoscele* is productive of only trivial, or even no inconvenience. But in an advanced stage of the disease, very severe pains gradually come on, sometimes extending upward to the back and loins, and downward to the thigh. The case does not invariably make the kind of progress above described: it is often confined to the spermatic cord, or epididymis; and it has been known to continue in this state for many years, without increasing, notwithstanding the patient's employments were of a nature very likely to aggravate the disease. Standing long at a time, walking, horse-exercise, great exertions of the lungs, and every thing requiring forcible expirations, always augment the turgidity of the veins, and the painful sensations experienced by the patient. The weight of the testis, when this organ is not wasted, appears also to have a similar effect.

This disease is more frequently than any other, mistaken for an omental rupture. A bag-truss and astringent lotions are the only agents necessary for treating this disorder.

disorder. The direction which Sir A. Cooper gives for avoiding mistakes, is simple and good; the patient is to be placed in a horizontal posture, and the swelling emptied by pressure; the surgeon is then to put his fingers firmly upon the abdominal ring: if the case be a hernia, the tumour cannot re-appear, as long as the pressure is continued at the ring; but, if the disease be a cirsocele, the swelling will appear again with increased size, on account of the return of blood into the abdomen being prevented by such pressure.

A cirsocele may be really combined with a hernia; a case which is extremely perplexing, because the former complaint renders the patient incapable of wearing a truss.

The testicle is liable to various chronic enlargements, which are all included in the general term *sarcocele*. The common sarcocele has the same structure as the ordinary vascular sarcoma. The testis becomes larger than natural; and this increased size, which, in some cases, is inconsiderable, in others, attains a degree, in which the part affected is as large as two fists. While the tumour is of moderate dimensions, the shape of the testis is partly retained; the swelling being oval and flattened at the sides, with its larger end turned upward and forward, and its smaller directed downward and backward. Its weight is very considerable, in comparison to its size; and it is its nature to remain a long while indolent, giving but little pain, except it be left unsupported, when from the dragging of the spermatic cord, more or less annoyance is produced. The scrotum is of its natural colour, without any augmentation of its temperature, or any signs of fluctuation. At first the spermatic cord is unaffected, and of course the swelling does not extend quite up to the abdominal ring; but, after a time, the disease generally extends higher up, and the cord itself becomes enlarged. However fleshy and indolent a common sarcocele may be in its incipient stages, and even for years, the possibility of its assuming a more painful and malignant nature should never be forgotten, because it is a fact, that ought always to be allowed to weigh in considering the propriety of persevering in attempts to save the part. The species of sarcocele which is liable to change into scirrhus and cancer, generally begins in the body of the testicle, and very seldom in the epididymis and spermatic cord, which parts, however, are often subsequently affected.

The testicle is sometimes converted into a scrofulous mass. It is enlarged in size; and when cut into, a whitish or yellowish coagulated matter is discovered, mixed with pus.

Fungus hæmatodes, or *soft cancer*, sometimes attacks the testicle, and particularly demands the earnest attention of the surgeon, not only on account of its fatal character; but also because it is a distemper very insidious in its attack, and peculiarly liable to be mistaken for a common hydrocele. It is described by Dr. Baillie as sometimes much enlarged, and converted into a uniform pulpy matter, in which its natural structure is entirely lost. This sort of change has been sometimes mistaken for scirrhus, but it is very different from what is called scirrhus in other parts of the body, and what is found in the testicle itself.

According to the excellent description given by Mr. Wardrop, the fungus hæmatodes of the testicle is mostly seen in persons under the age of thirty. In some cases, it begins in the body of the organ, while, in others, its origin is attended with a tumour in the epididymis. The progress of the disease is very slow, and, as the swelling of the gland increases, the tumour retains an oval, or globular form, and it becomes difficult, if not impossible, to distinguish the body of the testicle and epididymis from one another. The pain of the disease is generally so trifling as to excite little alarm, and there is no inequality, nor hardness in the gland, nor any change in the structure of the scrotum. When the testicle has increased considerably in bulk, it becomes remarkable for its softness and elasticity, and produces a sensation, as if it contained fluid. Hence, the disease has often been mistaken for hydrocele, and punctured.

Mr. Wardrop says, that the want of transparency in the tumour is one appearance in the fungus hæmatodes of the

testicle, which might be expected to lead to an accurate diagnosis between it and hydrocele; but, as there are many collections of water in the vaginal coat of a dark colour, and sometimes even of blood, and as the vaginal coat is often very much thickened, this cannot be always regarded as a diagnostic symptom: The fungus hæmatodes of the testicle, when of considerable bulk, though resembling many of the more frequent varieties of hydrocele in shape, yet, on inquiry, will not be found to have had a similar progress. In hydrocele, the water begins to collect at the bottom of the scrotum, and the testicle may generally be distinguished at the posterior part, until the tumour has acquired a very large size; whereas, in fungus hæmatodes, the disease commences in the body of the testicle, or in the epididymis, and the whole gland gradually enlarges. The tumour, too, in hydrocele, is accurately circumscribed towards the ring, whereas, in the fungus hæmatodes, there is a gradual swelling, or fulness, extending up from the testicle along the spermatic cord. This fulness is described as being very different also from the unyielding hardness of a scirrhus affection of the part. In judging of the nature of the disease, the comparative weight of the swelling, to that of an hydrocele of equal bulk, is likewise to be considered.

A fungus hæmatodes of the testicle, when large, sometimes becomes hard at some points, and soft at others, where the swelling seems as if it were about to break. It is not common for the scrotum to give way, and a fungus to protrude; but, if the patient live long enough, the disease may follow such a course.

The testicle often becomes scirrhus; it is found converted into a hard mass, of a brownish colour, and generally intersected by membranes, and sometimes there are cells in the tumour, filled with a sanious fluid. This is the truly scirrhus testicle, which is attended with a great hardness, severe pains darting along the spermatic cord to the loins, and an unequal, knotty feel. The health commonly becomes impaired. To use Mr. Pott's words, sometimes the fury of the disease brooks no restraint; but, making its way through all the membranes which envelope the testicle, it either produces a large, foul, stinking, phagedenic ulcer with hard edges, or it thrusts forth a painful gleetings fungus, subject to frequent hæmorrhage. These latter states of the disease are denominated the *cancer of the testis*.

Sooner or later, the scirrhus induration extends from the epididymis upward along the spermatic cord, even within the abdominal ring. In the latter case, the lymphatic glands, in the loins usually become diseased; and this extension of mischief, together with the impossibility of removing the whole of the diseased cord, too frequently deprives the patient of every chance of getting well.

"It is now well known," says S. Cooper, in his First Lines, "that various sarcomatous enlargements of the testicle, at first quite indolent, and exempt from pain, and every alarming complication, such as swelling and induration of the cord, tumours of the inguinal glands, and swellings within the abdominal parietes, are capable of assuming, in a very sudden manner, a malignant and cancerous tendency; and that sometimes the scirrhus induration of the cord makes rapid progress upward. When these changes have taken place, attended with severe hectic symptoms, extreme emaciation, a pallid wan face, and a tendency to anasarca, no measures which the healing art can suggest, will now avail to save either the diseased part, or the patient's life. Hence, that surgeon acts with prudence, who recommends an early extirpation of every testis that is incurably diseased, and entirely deprived of its original organization." This, of course, should never be done, until the general treatment of chronic inflammation has failed.

There is a particular affection of the testicle, in which a fungus grows from the glandular substance of this body, and, in some cases, from the surface of the tunica albuginea. This excrescence is usually preceded by an enlargement of the testicle, in consequence of gonorrhœa, a bruise, or some species of external violence. A small abscess takes place and bursts, and, from the ulcerated opening, the fungus gradually

ally protrudes. In some instances, the disease appears to have been accompanied with great irritability of the urethra, or strictures.

If, when the inflammatory affection of the testicle has subsided, the substance of this body should not be much indurated or enlarged, it is a very rational practice, to endeavour to extirpate the fungus, and diseased portion of the testis, without removing the whole of this body, and the object may sometimes be fulfilled by destroying the fungus with the *lapis infernalis*.

The sarcocele is very liable to be confounded with hydrocele when the tunica vaginalis is much thickened. Hence some surgeons have advised that an opening should be made into the scrotum previous to commencing extirpation.

Another disease, liable to be confounded with sarcocele, is a great and sometimes an enormous thickening of the scrotum itself. This case is more frequently met with in warm, than cold, or temperate countries; but it has been seen both in this country and in France. Though the scrotum may attain a magnitude which is truly surprising, the testes, concealed in the mass of new-formed matter, remain perfectly sound; and the principal grievances depend upon the manner in which the patient's fitness for every active employ, and even his capability of walking, riding, and taking exercise, are destroyed by an enormous swelling, which sometimes weighs nearly a hundred pounds. The only mode of relief consists in cutting the diseased scrotum away, in doing which, the operator is to avoid injuring the spermatic cord and testicles.

The preceding diseases frequently render necessary the operation of castration, which should be thus performed.

The parts being previously shaved, the patient is to be laid upon a firm table covered with a blanket or mattress. His legs should hang over the table, and be supported by assistants. An incision is to be made through the integuments with a common scalpel, extending from a little above the external abdominal ring to the bottom of the scrotum. The cellular membrane around the spermatic cord is to be dissected back, and the cord laid fairly bare; and this part of the operation is much more easily accomplished when the incision through the skin is very free. The cord is to be divided as high as the disease renders necessary and handed to an assistant who is to compress it. The whole of the testicle and its vaginal coat may then be readily dissected away, taking care not to cut into the vaginal cavity of the opposite side of the scrotum. After the testicle is removed, the cord should be loosened, and the spermatic artery and veins included in separate ligatures. Much care should also be taken to secure any arteries of the integuments of the scrotum which are seen bleeding.

The wound is to be dressed, so as to be healed if possible by adhesion; and this may generally be accomplished, except at the upper part where the ligatures come through. With this view the wound and scrotum are to be carefully washed, and two or three stitches, as may be thought most expedient, are to be put through the edges of the wound; for in a part like the scrotum, where the skin is loose and puckered, it is hardly possible to apply adhesive straps with sufficient accuracy, so as to serve the purpose. Small pieces of adhesive plaister, however, should be neatly placed between each of the stitches along the whole extent of the wound and a pledget of simple ointment and compress afterwards to be laid over; the whole being secured with a T bandage. After the operation, the patient is to be put to bed, being directed to lie on his back with a pillow between the thighs, so as to support the scrotum. Opium should be given to allay pain, and if any inflammatory symptoms supervene, bleeding at the arm had recourse to. Hemorrhage from imperceptible vessels of the scrotum may generally be stopped by cold lotions.

The scrotum is often exceedingly enlarged by collections of fluid. Of these, *hydrocele*, or watery swelling, is the most frequent.

“Of this disease there are three principal kinds; one, in which the fluid is lodged in the cellular texture of the scro-

tum; another, in which it is contained in the tunica vaginalis testis; and a third, in which the fluid collects in the spermatic cord.”

The first sort, sometimes named *hydrocele œdematodes*, is strictly only an anasarctous tumour of the scrotum, and generally a symptom of a dropsical affection of the whole constitution. And the most frequent causes of this species of hydrocele do not differ from those which are concerned in the production of ascites and œdema in general. The pressure also of certain tumours upon the large veins and lymphatics within the abdomen; the accidental rupture of a hydrocele of the tunica vaginalis, or the water of this last disease not having a ready outlet through the puncture in the skin, in consequence of the aperture having changed its situation with respect to the opening in the tunica vaginalis, after the lancet is withdrawn; violent contusions of the scrotum; the pressure of a very tight ill-made truss; are all circumstances which may give rise to an œdematous hydrocele, has generally the appearance of a smooth, oblong, or pyriform swelling of one side of the scrotum. It is not attended with any discolouration of the skin, and, if carefully watched from the beginning, it is observed at first only at the lower part of the scrotum, whence it gradually spreads upward, until it reaches the higher part of the spermatic cord, on the outside of the ring. The ordinary shape of the tumour somewhat resembles a swan's-egg pear, with its broader part downwards. In an early stage, it presents a softish feel, attended with fluctuation; but, on the fingers being removed, it immediately rises to its former level. It cannot be diminished either by pressure, or by making the patient lie down upon his back; it cannot be pushed into the cavity of the abdomen by any artifice of the surgeon; nor can any impulse be distinguished in it, when the patient coughs; circumstances particularly marking its difference from hernia. When the disease is more advanced, and has attained a larger size, the tumour becomes oblong, and its weight and firmness increase, though they are still much less than in cases of common sarcocele. At the same time, the fluctuation grows less distinct. If the fluid in the tunica vaginalis be clear, this membrane and the cremaster not much thickened, and a candle be placed behind the tumour, the scrotum will be found to have a semitransparent appearance. Whenever the quantity of fluid is at all considerable, the testicle cannot be plainly felt, being distinguishable only at the upper and back part of the tumour, by a certain hard feel. The spermatic cord, however, is still obvious to the touch. Even when the swelling has acquired its greatest size, and the scrotum is considerably distended, the corrugations are seldom so completely obliterated as they are in the œdematous hydrocele. The penis appears small, and, as it were, buried in the tumour. In cases of long standing, the integuments of the scrotum are sometimes much thickened; the veins are large; and, upon handling the swelling, a sense of elasticity, rather than of fluctuation, is communicated. When the hydrocele is of very great size, the spermatic cord itself may be concealed by it nearly or quite up to the ring. In children, the water commonly extends higher up the cord, than in adults.

The quantity of fluid varies in different cases; a hydrocele of ordinary size contains about six, eight, or ten ounces; but instances are recorded, in which four, and even six pints of water have been drawn off.

Scarpa, who has carefully examined hydroceles in the dead subject, assures us, that, whenever the tumour is large, the spermatic vessels are found so displaced and separated, that the artery and vas deferens usually lie on one side of the swelling, and the veins on the other; and that sometimes all these different vessels extend from the sides towards the front of the tumour, chiefly at its lower part.

“In a hydrocele, as well as a rupture, the cremaster (says Mr. Hunter) “becomes stronger than usual, and its fibres can be traced spreading on the tunica vaginalis, and seem at last to be lost upon it near to the lower end of the body of the testicles.”

Fungus hæmatodes testis is more liable to be confounded with

with hydrocele than any other disease; for the swelling of the testicle is so elastic, and the feel which it communicates so like that of a fluid, that many surgeons of great judgment and experience have been deceived, and actually introduced a trocar into the substance of the tumour.

The cure of hydrocele is very simple. We should first ascertain that there is no disease of the testicle, then we may plunge a trocar and canula into the scrotum and evacuate the water. This having been done, it will be found that the tumour is soon refilled, and that the operation is again required. Our object now is to change the action of the secretions, or to promote adhesion of the tunics of the testicle, and thus the obliteration of the cavity which is between them and which contains the water. After puncturing it, therefore, we now inject red wine, weak solution of sulphate of zinc, or even common water, desire the patient to go to bed for a short time, and await the coming on of inflammation. This should be watched and regulated, because, though rarely, instances have been known occasionally to occur, of very formidable inflammation, followed by sloughing, &c., coming on. A small portion of the tunica vaginalis may be drawn through the opening made by the cannula and snipped off, and this little operation frequently brings on the requisite degree of inflammatory action. In injecting and puncturing hydrocele, the greatest care should be taken that neither the fluid to be removed nor that injected get into the cellular tissue of the scrotum, and also when any thing is injected that it be perfectly evacuated again.

When the fluid collected in the scrotum is blood, the disease is called hæmatocele. It may be doubted whether there is any true secretion of blood in this situation. We may generally trace the disease to some blow or injury, or to some enlargement of the vessels which has caused the rupture of a blood vessel and consequent extravasation.

When the case is clearly distinguished from a hernia, attempts must be made to promote the absorption of the extravasated blood, by applying to the tumour the lotion composed of spirit of wine, vinegar, and the muriate of ammonia, or even camphorated liniments. The patient, if young, or not too much reduced, should also be bled, and, as purgatives are of essential use in promoting the absorption of effused blood, their exhibition should never be omitted. A bag-truss is to be worn, and the patient kept in bed. When, under this treatment, the swelling, instead of diminishing, increases in size, the bag-truss may be tightened, and compresses laid upon the scrotum, wet with cold water.

If the case should obstinately resist all these means, a thing which seldom happens, an incision must be made into the tumour, and if any bleeding point be discovered, it should either be tied, or stopped with a dossil of lint.

The penis is sometimes amputated. Almost the only case that requires this operation, is cancer; but if this exists to such an extent, as to involve the pubis or inguinal gland, the use of the knife is of course unjustifiable. Common warty excrescences have been mistaken for cancer of the penis. These, however, have a spreading, mushroom-like top, and slender base; and if the intermediate parts can be seen, they retain their natural appearance. A cancer begins with an irregular warty excrescence, having a broad base in the substance of the prepuce, or on the frænum. In a more advanced and ulcerated stage, the sore is of a dark red colour, covered with a sanious discharge; its bottom is solid, and deep excavations, and irregular cauliflower excrescences, present themselves. The neighbouring skin, of a purple colour, indurated, swelled, and tuberculated, stands out from the sore, while its irregular edge is turned inwards. The discharge has a peculiar smell, being highly offensive, and when the urethra is ulcerated, the urine gushes out from preternatural openings.

Cancer upon the glands, also, usually begins in the form of a wart, or small, not very troublesome, induration, which gradually changes into a most painful ulcerated excrescence.

The operation (not a very easy one, on account of the profuse hæmorrhage that attends it, and the tendency to

retract themselves out of sight, that the corpora cavernosa have), is to be thus performed:—

Having drawn the integuments as much forwards as possible, and fixed them there with a circular tape, make an incision behind the tape, but only just deep enough to see the blood issue from the divided arteriæ dorsales, which should be immediately taken up with a tenaculum, and tied. Then cut straight down through the middle of the corpora cavernosa, until the blood gushes from two arteriæ profundæ, which are to be secured in the same manner. Lastly, the third sweep of the knife should cut the corpus spongiosum and its arteries, without, however, dividing the urethra completely through; then the arteries of the spongy substance are tied, and the part is afterwards entirely severed.

When, from long continued irritation, a very narrow stricture has been formed, any sudden accession of inflammation will completely close the passage, so that no catheter or other instrument can be passed. In these cases, if the usual means of reducing vascular action and relaxing spasm have been used without effect, it is necessary to puncture the bladder.

There are two situations, in either of which the surgeon may make an opening into the bladder, viz., above the os pubis, and through the rectum.

In the first, a perpendicular incision is made, about an inch and a half or two inches in length, through the integuments and fat, covering the lower part of the linea alba. The bottom of the incision should just meet the upper part of the above bone. A cut of the same length is next to be made between the pyramidal muscles, and, this being done, the surgeon can feel with his finger the prominent, distended bladder. A trocar, the curvature of which forms a segment of a small circle, is now to be introduced into the exposed part of this viscus.

Many operators make no preliminary division of the integuments and fat, but introduce the trocar at once into the bladder.

In the puncture through the rectum, the patient is to be put in the same posture as for lithotomy. An assistant is to make pressure on the abdomen, just above the os pubis, in order to make the prominence of the bladder more distinct to the surgeon's finger in the rectum. A curved trocar, with its point drawn within the canula, is to be introduced with the right hand, and conveyed, upon the index-finger of the left, along the swelling, formed by the distended bladder. The instrument should be kept exactly in the central line of the front portion of the rectum, and, when conveyed sufficiently beyond the prostate gland, the point of the trocar is to be pushed into the bladder, through the anterior part of the intestine.

This operation is so easy of accomplishment, and so very safe, that it certainly merits a general preference. The coats of the rectum and bladder, at this part, are in immediate contact, and the instrument has to penetrate no thickness of substance. The operation is not more painful than venesection, and the distended bladder is so distinctly perceptible to the finger, that no mistake can well be made. The only chance of doing mischief arises from the situation of the vesiculæ seminales; but, all risk is removed, when the trocar and the finger are introduced sufficiently into the rectum, and the puncture is made exactly in the central part of the swelling. The curved trocar, about five inches long, is the most proper.

The diseases of the rectum, with the exception of fistula, have already been noticed by us under PATHOLOGY.—Fistula in ano generally makes its attack, in the form of phlegmonous inflammation, attended by sympathetic fever. A part of the buttock near the anus is considerably swollen, and has a large circumscribed hardness. The middle of this hardness soon becomes very red, and matter forms in its centre. As Mr. Pott remarks, the pain is sometimes great, the fever high, the tumour large, and exquisitely tender; but, however high the symptoms may have risen before suppuration, yet, when that end is fairly and fully accomplished,

the patient generally becomes easy, and free from fever. The matter, though plentiful, is good.

On other occasions, the fistula in ano begins as an erysipelatous inflammation, without any of the circumscribed hardness which characterizes the preceding tumour. The affection, on the contrary, spreads more extensively; the disease is more superficial; the quantity of matter small, and the cellular membrane sloughy to a considerable extent.

Sometimes, the complaint begins somewhat like a carbuncle. The skin is of a dusky red, or purple kind of colour, and, although harder than in the natural state, yet it is not nearly so tense as in phlegmonous, or erysipelatous inflammation.

At first, the pulse is full and hard; but, if no relief be obtained, it soon becomes unequal, low, and faltering; and the strength and spirits are greatly dejected. The matter formed under the skin is small in quantity, and bad in quality, and the cellular membrane is in a sloughy state. This species of the disease affects persons, whose habit is bad.

Sometimes the fistula in ano first appears as an induration of the skin near the anus; but without pain or alteration of colour; which hardness gradually softens or suppurates.

The matter may either point in the buttock, at a distance from the anus; or near this latter part; or in the perineum. The matter may escape from one opening, or from several. Sometimes, there is not only an external aperture, but another internal one communicating with the cavity of the intestine. In other instances, there is only one external, or internal opening.

The matter may be formed at a considerable distance from the rectum, which is not even laid bare by it; in other cases it is laid bare, but not perforated; sometimes it is both denuded and pierced.

These inflammations can scarcely be prevented from suppurating. Hence, the indications are, to moderate the symptoms, to promote the formation of matter, and, when this has collected, to let it out, and treat the sore in such a manner, as shall be most likely to produce a speedy cure.

A soft poultice is the best application for promoting supuration. When the inflammation is phlegmonous, the thinner the skin is suffered to become, before the abscess is opened, the better. If the patient be of a full, sanguine habit, venesection, and mild purgatives, are proper.

When the attack is of an erysipelatous kind, and there is a sloughy state of the cellular membrane; the sooner it is opened the better.

When the fistula in ano commences with that kind of inflammation which a carbuncle exhibits, no evacuations are necessary. The part should be opened early by a very free incision.

In opening all abscesses about the anus, the incision should be so large as to divide the whole of the skin covering the matter. Thus the abscess will be discharged at once; future lodgment of matter will be prevented; and convenient room will be made for the application of proper dressings.

All fistulæ in ano do not necessarily interest the rectum; sometimes the matter is so distant from the intestine, that the surgeon has no more to do with this part, than if it did not exist, and the abscess is to be treated upon general principles.

The operation consists in dividing the rectum, from the top of the hollow, in which the matter is lodged, as far as the anus. Thus the sinus is converted into an open wound. A narrow, curved, probe-pointed knife, is the proper instrument, and if it can be guided by the director, introduced through the track of the fistula, quite as far as the intestine, so much the better. The surgeon's fore-finger in the rectum will here feel the point of the knife. Then the director, if used, is to be withdrawn, and the operation is to be completed, by bringing the knife out, with its point applied to the finger, which was in the intestine. In this manner, all that is between the edge of the knife and the anus, must obviously be divided.

Immediately after the operation, a soft dossil of fine lint should be introduced, from the rectum, between the lips of the incision. This first dressing should remain, till loosened by suppuration. All the future dressings should be light.

OF THE CHEST.

The outer surface of the chest is the frequent seat of cancer: in this place, therefore, we may properly describe the operation for the extirpation of that disease.

The operation is usually performed as the patient is in a sitting posture, well supported by pillows and assistants.

The pectoral muscle is to be made tense by keeping the arm back, by means of a stick, placed transversely behind the back, in front of the arms, above the bend of the elbow.

If none of the integuments are to be removed, a straight incision is to be made through them; the tumour is to be regularly dissected all round from the circumjacent parts; and lastly, its base is to be detached from its connections, from above downward, until the whole is separated.

If the outer incision has been made transversely, the lower half of the swelling should be separated from its surrounding connections, before the dissection of the upper portion is begun, by which means, the surgeon will not be incommoded by the blood, from the vessels above, falling into the lower part of the wound, before the detachment of the adjacent portion of the tumour is effected. As soon as the lower half of the swelling is separated from its connections, the surgeon is to undertake the dissection of the upper half.

Such are the modes of removing all simple tumours, which are not of a malignant nature, nor of immense size.

When the tumour is of a malignant nature, and adherent to the skin and pectoral muscle beneath, the operator is to remove, at least, an inch or two of the fat on every side of the disease. The portion of the skin, intended to be taken away, must be included in two semicircular incisions; which meet thus () at their extremities; and when the base of the tumour is to be detached, the surface of the pectoral muscle, wherever it is adherent to the tumour, is also to be removed. The advantage of making the incision in the preceding manner obviously consists in enabling the surgeon to bring the edges of the wound together after the operation, so as to form a straight line, and be capable of uniting by the first intention.

The mere magnitude of a tumour frequently renders it highly judicious to take away a portion of the skin in the above method: if none were removed, the dissection of the tumour would be exceedingly tedious; and, after the operation, the loose undistended skin would lie in folds, and form, as it were, a large pouch for the lodgment of the matter.

In the extirpation of a diseased breast, the direction of the external incision must partly be determined by the shape of the tumour; but according to Dessault, there are advantages in cutting as much as possible transversely, when circumstances will allow. It is alleged, that, as the integuments are more yielding upwards or downwards, than they are in a cross direction, especially near the sternum, the transverse wound may be more expeditiously united; and that, as the great pectoral muscle only acts perpendicularly, with respect to the edges of the incision, it cannot tend to separate them. Dessault thought these advantages of higher importance, than that of the easy escape of the matter at the depending angle of the wound; the reason generally assigned for preferring a perpendicular cut.

As in the abdomen, so in the chest, an important practical distinction arises as to whether wounds penetrate or do not penetrate the cavity; for wounds of the thorax are dangerous when they pass through its parietes, but very important when they are only partially divided.

It is frequently difficult to pronounce, however, whether a wound extends into the cavity of the thorax or not. Many punctured wounds are very long and narrow, so as not easily to admit a probe to their termination.

Sometimes, however, the passage of air into and out of the chest, through the wound, leaves no doubt that the in-

jury extends beyond the pleura costalis. But this symptom can only be expected when the wound is straight and freely pervious.

“To discover whether the wound has injured the lungs, or not (says Mr. Hennen), is a point which has given to the older surgeons great room for the employment of their ingenuity in devising possible cases, and has occasioned no small waste of time and wax-tapers in ascertaining the exit of air through the passage. A practical surgeon will require but little investigation: bloody expectoration *immediately* on receiving the wound, and the terrible symptoms of dyspnoea, sense of stricture and suffocation, insupportable anxiety and faintness, which succeed, soon enough discover the fact.” The immediate danger is either from debility from hemorrhage, or suffocation from the blood flowing into the air cells and cavity of the thorax. Emphysema may also cause more or less suffering and danger. The symptoms here enumerated, whether single or in combination, may be deemed the primary effects of wounds of the lungs. Violent inflammatory affections of these organs and of the pleura occur; or long and tedious suppurations and exfoliations of bones, which, though not so rapidly fatal, are often as certainly so as the others. Diseases also may follow, which, although we cannot strictly call them pulmonary consumption, agree with it in many points, particularly in cough, emaciation, debility, and hectic.

The commonest effect of penetrating wounds of the thorax is the disease called emphysema. This is a swelling, arising from a diffusion of air in the cells of the cellular substance. It may occur in wounds which just enter the cavity of the chest; in others that extend more deeply, so as to wound the lungs; and also in cases in which these organs are wounded by the spiculæ of a broken rib, or clavicle, while there is no outward wound whatever. We find, that emphysema is a more common consequence of fractured ribs, and narrow stabs, than of large penetrating wounds; because, in the latter cases, the air readily passes outward, through the opening.

When the chest becomes expanded, in the act of inspiration, some of the air, which enters through the trachea into the wounded lung, instead of distending this organ, now passes through the breach in it, so as to get into the space between the pleura pulmonalis and pleura costalis.

When the thorax is next diminished in the act of expiration, the effused air is compressed against the wounded lung; but none of it can enter this viscus again; accordingly, fresh air accumulates in the space between the pleuræ at every inspiration, while none can escape during expiration. This case may produce suffocation from the pressure of the collected air on the diaphragm, mediastinum, and opposite lung.

However, as emphysema commonly follows narrow stabs, or fractures of the ribs, attended with injury of the lungs, the pleura costalis and intercostal muscles are at the same time wounded or lacerated, so that part of the air also usually gets through the above wounded membrane and muscles, into the cellular substance on the outside of the chest, and thence is sometimes diffused, through the same substance, over the whole body, so as sometimes to inflate it in an extraordinary degree.

So unlimited is the diffusion of air in some cases, that the cellular substance beneath the conjunctiva of the eye has been known to be prodigiously inflated.

From what has been stated, it is evident, that, in cases of emphysema, the danger does not depend so much on the extent of the external swelling, as on the degree of compression produced on the mediastinum, diaphragm, and the lung of the opposite side, combined with inflammation and extravasation of fluid in the chest.

In all cases of penetrating wounds of the chest, and especially in injuries of the lungs, the free use of the lancet is the only thing which can be depended upon in the early part of the treatment. By it, internal hæmorrhage is restrained; and by it, the dangers of the subsequent inflammation of

the thoracic viscera are to be averted. The records of surgery furnish abundant proof of the necessity of such practice.

In every penetrating wound of the chest, therefore, and more particularly when the lungs are injured, the first bleeding should be copious. If the patient should faint, we ought not to administer cordials, but allow him to revive gradually. We should avail ourselves of this opportunity to extract, without pain, all foreign bodies within reach, whether cloth, ball, iron, wood, or splinters of bone. Should there be reason for believing that any of these extraneous substances are lodged, and that by an enlargement of the wound, they might be extracted, the practice ought to be immediately adopted. The next object is to dress the wound itself. If it is a gunshot, a light mild dressing will be sufficient; but if incised, the lips of it should be closed at once. The patient is now to be left to repose, and he will often lie for some hours in a state of comparative ease, till the vessels again pour forth their contents, induce fresh spitting of bloody froth, and a repetition of all the symptoms of approaching suffocation. In this circumstance, the lancet must be used again without hesitation; for, as Mr. Hennen justly remarks, though in the after-treatment of a wound of the nature here described, considerable benefit may be derived from medicine, until the danger of immediate death from hemorrhage is over, “we must not think of employing any thing, except depletion by the lancet; it, and it only, can save the life of the wounded man.”

If air does not diffuse itself before the third or fourth day from the accident, there is not much chance of its doing so afterwards, because the extravasation of coagulating lymph around the wound soon shuts up the cavities of the cellular membrane.

It is sometimes requisite to open the chest either to evacuate air or water: an operation called paracentesis thoracis. The most eligible place, is between the sixth and seventh true ribs, just at that point, where the indigitations of the serratus major anticus terminate. By placing the patient on his abdomen, this opening may be rendered very depending.

An incision, about two inches long, must be made through the integuments. These are first to be drawn to one side, if it be intended to close the wound immediately afterwards. The intercostal muscles are next to be cautiously divided, and a small puncture carefully made in the pleura costalis, as soon as it is exposed. The intercostal muscles must be divided closely to the upper edge of the lower rib, in order to avoid any chance of wounding the intercostal artery, which runs in a groove along the lower edge of the upper rib.

Water is sometimes found in the *pericardium* when there is none in any other cavity of the thorax, but it is generally accompanied with hydrothorax. The symptoms of this disease are nearly similar to those of hydrothorax; and we find that Dessault and other very eminent surgeons have not been able to distinguish them. Dr. Baillie says, “that the feeling of oppression is more accurately confined to the situation of the heart; and the heart is more disturbed in its functions in dropsy of the pericardium than in hydrothorax.” It is also said, that a firm undulatory motion can be felt at every stroke of the heart.

If the existence of this complaint is ascertained, and if the quantity of water is suspected to be great, it may be perhaps advisable to discharge it, as practised by Dessault and others, by making an opening between the sixth and seventh ribs of the left side, opposite to the apex of the heart.

The ribs are not often broken; the upper escape on account of their guarded situation beneath the clavicle and shoulder; the lower because their great mobility makes them elude the effect of external violence. These injuries are rarely attended with any material displacement; the intercostal muscles tending to hinder a permanent separation of the fragments. The injury is most commonly situated near the greatest

greatest convexity of the bone. The surgeon should place his hand on the part where the patient complains of a pricking pain, or where the blow has been received; and then the latter should be desired to cough, in which action, the ribs must necessarily undergo a sudden motion, and a crepitus thereby be likely to be rendered perceptible. However, all the best practical surgeons are in the habit of adopting the same treatment when there is reason to suspect a rib to be fractured, as when the injury is actually known to exist.

When the point of a fractured rib is beaten inward, a train of alarming symptoms may ensue, as for instance, extravasation of blood, emphysema, and inflammation of the pleura and lungs.

Except when urgent symptoms arise, the treatment of fractured ribs is a business of great simplicity. The principal indication is to render the injured bone or bones as motionless as possible, during the cure. For this purpose, a jacket of strong linen should be made, and tightly laced.

OF THE THROAT AND FACE.

"There are several anatomical points," observes Mr. Cooper, "which should be remembered by the surgeon in all cases of wounds about the throat. First, that the arch of the aorta lies in the upper part of the chest, in front of the trachea, and that where the carotid arteries come out of the chest to run up the neck, they are scarcely at the sides of the trachea, but rather in front of it. As they get higher, however, they incline more to the side of that tube; and on their arrival near the angle of the jaw, where they begin to give off their branches to the head and neck, they even lie rather behind the side of the larynx. Hence, we see the reason why a wound at the lower part of the neck is very often fatal, while one higher up is generally less dangerous. The suicide rarely strikes at the lower part of the neck, and it is from the accidental circumstance of his cutting very high up, near the chin, that the carotids escape."

Secondly, as Mr. John Bell has explained, it should be remembered, that the carotid artery, the great jugular vein, and eighth pair of nerves, lie very closely connected with each other, being all inclosed in one mass of cellular substance, which forms a kind of common sheath for them. "Now," says this author, "since the eighth pair is one of the greatest nerves of the viscera, and since, from experiments on animals, we know that a wound of it is more fatal than a wound of the brain itself, this frequently puts an end at once to all questions about the way of managing wounds of the carotid artery, or of the great vein." But that the internal jugular vein, or the carotid artery itself, may sometimes be partially injured, without the par vagum being also hurt, or the patient instantly perishing, has now been fully proved.

Mr. John Bell asserted, that it is impossible to cut through the trachea, without wounding the carotid artery, the jugular vein, and the eighth pair of nerves. It is true such an accident cannot be frequent. "The fact is (says he), that neither the œsophagus nor the trachea is touched in the least degree, but the wound is much above them, for a suicide always strikes immediately under the chin. This wound, as far as I have observed, commonly falls in the line which divides the neck from the chin, that is, the place where the os hyoides lies, and he commonly cuts the os hyoides away from its connection with the thyroid cartilage, or pomum Adami. In that case, the thyroid cartilage, forming the uppermost part of the larynx is not touched; the rima glottidis lies below the wound quite safe. It only separates the larynx from the root of the tongue; it is properly a wound in the root of the tongue; it is rather a wound of the mouth than of the throat; and when the food comes out along with spittle and froth, it is by rolling over the root of the tongue."

In these high wounds of the throat, it is the superior thyroid artery, which is most frequently cut. This vessel, after quitting the external carotid at the angle of the jaw,

passes along the side of the upper part of the trachea, inclining forwards the thyroid gland in its descent, and therefore much exposed to the edge of the razor. The bleeding from this artery is profuse, and if not speedily stopped, is as fatal as hemorrhage from the carotid itself. In some of these cases, the bleeding also proceeds from the lingual artery, or its branches.

Wounds of the trachea are either simple or complicated. In both descriptions of cases, the usual symptoms are, an emission of air from the wound, loss of the voice, and sometimes emphysema. Such injuries of the windpipe, as are not complicated either with hemorrhage, emphysema, or loss of substance, may generally be easily cured by means analogous to those which are employed for the cure of wounds in general. The reunion is still more easily accomplished, when the trachea is divided longitudinally, than when it is cut transversely. If the wound be of a certain size, and attended with hemorrhage, the first indication is to tie the bleeding vessels, and, in particular, to obviate the inconvenience and danger which would result from the entrance of the effused blood into the windpipe; an occurrence which has sometimes proved fatal.

The greater sensibility of the larynx, its complicated structure, and the number and size of its blood vessels, render wounds of it much more dangerous than those of the trachea. They produce a great deal more irritation, and are generally attended with a convulsive cough. In general, however, simple wounds of the thyroid cartilage heal very favourably.

Transverse wounds, extending through only the anterior half of the upper part of the trachea, generally do well. Such injuries mostly leave nerves and vessels of consequence untouched. Loss of the voice; the entrance and exit of air through the wound, and sometimes an emphysematous swelling of the integuments, are the speedy consequences of the injury. Wounds of this description, made by gunshot violence, are more dangerous; but even these not unfrequently terminate well. In most instances, transverse wounds of the trachea, which have not divided it completely through, can be cured by the strict observance of a proper position. By bringing the patient's chin downward and forward to the sternum, and maintaining the head in this posture by the support of pillows, the edges of the wound in the trachea may be placed, and kept in contact, until they have grown together.

The manner in which sutures aggravate the cough, and inflame the wound, often necessitates the surgeon to withdraw them, when they have been employed. Besides the irritation, which, as extraneous bodies, they create in the trachea, they are in general unnecessary. Nothing prevents a wound of the trachea from uniting more than the disturbance of a convulsive cough; and the irritation of sutures always increases this hurtful symptom in a great degree. In fact, unless the greatest part of the trachea be divided, there never can be such a space between the edges of the wound that they cannot be brought into contact with the assistance of a judicious posture of the head.

When the troublesome cough seems to be owing to an inflammatory state of the wound, the complaint may be mitigated by bleeding and soothing remedies.

Many surgical writers recommend the patient to refrain from making forcible expirations, and drawing his head suddenly backward, for a certain time after the wound is healed. By such causes, it is asserted, the recent coalescence of the wound may be easily destroyed.

When a wound has detached the upper portion of the trachea from the lower one, and it is not immediately fatal by the injury of other important parts, the bleeding vessels are first to be tied, and the two ends are then to be brought into contact. In this sort of case, the employment of a suture is warrantable. A flat broadish ligature should be employed; the needle should not be introduced through the lining of the trachea; and one stitch will be quite enough, when the chin is kept properly approximated to the breast.

In cases in which the whole diameter of the trachea is cut through, the French surgeons have proposed the introduction of a flexible catheter, from one of the nostrils, into the larynx and trachea, in order to insure a passage for respiration, which, they say, without this means, is liable to be intercepted when the outer wound is closed, in consequence of the two portions of the windpipe being separated and not corresponding. This, however, is not the practice to which we should give a preference; first because the introduction of a flexible catheter is a thing which is not always easy of accomplishment; secondly, because its use in this way is constantly productive of considerable irritation; and, thirdly, because the employment of a suture appears a better way for preserving a passage for the air, by keeping the ends of the trachea together.

A flexible catheter should be introduced through one of the nostrils into the œsophagus, for the purpose of giving food and medicines to the patient, without disturbing the wounded parts.

A total division of the œsophagus may be considered as fatal. The inevitable injury of other important parts, at the same time, would render such a case at once mortal. The celebrated Prussian surgeon Schmucker, has treated small wounds of the pharynx and upper part of the œsophagus with success. Wounds dividing half, or even two-thirds of the tube, are also stated to have been cured.

The tying of the carotid artery when divided in wounds of the neck, is of course the same process as tying any other artery in any other wound. When this vessel is to be tied for the cure of aneurism, the following operation is performed:—

Begin the incision at the lower edge of the thyroid cartilage; continue it upwards and outwards through the integuments and platysma myoides for two inches and a half, immediately on the inner side of the sterno mastoid muscle, so as to form an angle with the thyroid cartilage: dissect very carefully by the edge of the muscle, drawing it a little outwards, and the artery is found where it emerges from beneath that muscle and the omo-hyoideus. Be careful not to wound the internal jugular vein, which is situated on the outer side of the artery, and rather anteriorly; the nervus vagus is behind, and to its outer side, and the descendens noni runs down the front of the artery: the whole is surrounded by condensed cellular membrane, forming a kind of sheath.

The windpipe is cut into in various parts, to prevent suffocation. When surgeons make an opening into the trachea, the operation is called tracheotomy; when into the larynx, laryngotomy. These operations are only performed, when we have in view to make a passage for the air, or to extract foreign bodies from the œsophagus. Laryngotomy is thus performed:—

The skin being made tense, and the larynx fixed, the skin and cellular substance are to be divided to the extent of an inch, from the lower part of the thyroid to the cricoid cartilage, between the sterno-thyroidei and hyoidei muscles. The surgeon is then to place on the membrane his finger, with which he is to guide the point of the knife. The puncture should be made rather towards the cricoid cartilage, in order to avoid an arterial branch, which usually runs along the lower edge of the thyroid cartilage. Should any vessel happen to bleed, it must be tied. Lastly, the silver tube is to be introduced, and being covered with a bit of gauze, is to be fixed in its place with ribands. Care must be taken to withdraw and clean the canula as often as it may become obstructed with mucus, during the necessity for continuing its employment.

The following is the common method of performing tracheotomy:—

When a free incision into the trachea is requisite, the surgeon may make an incision in the integuments, which should begin just below the inferior lobes of the thyroid gland, and be carried straight downwards about two inches. The sterno-thyroidei muscles are then to be pushed a little

towards the side of the neck, and a longitudinal wound, of the necessary size, is next to be made in the front of the trachea. The knife must not be carried either to the right or left hand, in order to avoid all risk of injuring the large blood-vessels; and the incision ought never to extend too near the first bone of the sternum, lest the subclavian vein should unfortunately be cut.

The treatment of bodies in the œsophagus.—If possible they should be extracted, and if this cannot be done and they are not such as are likely to be pushed through the vessels of the pharynx and produce worse consequences, they may be propelled down the œsophagus with a probang.

The operation of extracting the thyroid gland, is one that rarely requires to be performed: Desault's method is reckoned the best; it was conducted in the following manner:—An incision was made along the middle of the swelling, beginning about an inch above, and ending at the same distance below it. This extent was given to the wound for the purpose of having plenty of room for the continuance of the dissection. The inner edge of the incision being drawn to the left by an assistant, the tumour was next separated from the sterno-cleido-mastoideus by the operator cutting the cellular substance that connected these parts. In doing this, two small arteries were divided, and immediately tied. The next object was to detach the inner part of the swelling from the trachea. While this was performed, the assistant drew the tumour outwards with a hook. In this part of the operation, several branches of the thyroid arteries were tied as soon as cut.

The assistant with the hook, then pulled the gland inwards and forwards, while Desault finished the dissection outwards and above and below. This part of the operation was the most difficult, and it was necessary every instant to wipe away with a sponge the little blood that was effused, in order that the parts might be distinctly seen. The operator only ventured to divide a very little at a time, and every part was carefully examined with the fingers before it was cut. With these precautions, Desault succeeded in exposing the superior and inferior thyroideal arteries, without wounding them, and a ligature was immediately put under them by means of a curved blunt needle. The vessels were then divided, and the detachment of the swelling from the trachea completed. The patient was discharged from the Hôtel-Dieu, quite well, on the 34th day after the operation.

The tumour which was removed was nearly five inches in circumference. The wound made in the operation was almost three inches in depth, being bounded externally by the sterno-cleido-mastoideus, internally by the trachea and œsophagus, and behind by the common carotid, and par vagum, which were visible.

That the extirpation of the thyroid gland is a delicate and difficult operation, must be evident to every body at all acquainted with anatomy. Above, are the superior thyroideal arteries; below, the inferior ones; at the sides, the common carotids, and internal jugular veins; in front, an extensive plexus of veins; and the trachea, œsophagus, recurrent nerves, and par vagum, all close to the tumour.

Wounds of the face, though they involve important parts, and are extremely frightful to behold, are not generally attended with danger, and heal up in a surprising manner.

There is nothing peculiar in their treatment, unless in cuts of the cheek, when the parotid duct sometimes becomes divided, and the disease called salivary fistula is formed. In this complaint the saliva, instead of taking its natural course into the mouth, flows out on the cheek. The treatment of the salivary fistula is as follows:—an opening should be made into the mouth with a trocar as close to the open orifice of the duct as possible, and this being withdrawn, a seton introduced.

Desault's method of applying the seton is the most eligible. When the trocar had been introduced, he used to withdraw the stilette, and pass through the canula a thread into the mouth. The tube was then taken out, and

the seton was drawn, by means of the thread, from within the mouth outwards into the track of the wound; but care was taken not to draw it through the external opening, out of which the single thread alone passed, and was then fastened to the cheek with a bit of sticking plaster. The outer aperture was now dressed with lint, covered with compresses wet with the saturnine lotion. Thus the external opening had an opportunity of healing, with the exception of a mere point which soon closed; the seton, after being worn long enough, was taken out, and the little aperture touched with the *argentum nitratum*.

Hare-lip.—This well known deformity is curable by a surgical operation which requires, however, a great deal of attention and address. In the operation, the object is to make the wound as smooth and even a cut as possible, in order that it may more certainly unite by adhesion, and of such a shape that the *cicatrix* may form one narrow line.

The best plan is, either to place any flat instrument, like a spatula, the handle of a wooden spoon, or a bit of paste-board, underneath the lip, and then cut away the edge of the fissure with a sharp bistoury, or to hold the lip with a pair of forceps, in such a manner, that as much of the edge of the fissure as is to be removed is situated on one side of the blades of the instrument, so that it can be cut off with one sweep of the knife. This is to be done on each side of the cleft, and the two incisions are to meet at an angle above, thus A, in order that the whole track of the wound may be brought together, and united by the first intention.

The lips being exceedingly moveable, and it being essential in this case to heal the wound by adhesion, a particular process is always pursued to keep the lips of the wound in contact. Two silver pins, made with steel points, are introduced through the edges of the wound, and a piece of thread is then repeatedly twisted round the ends of the pins, from one side of the division to the other, first transversely, then obliquely, from the right or left end of one pin above, to the end of the lower on the opposite side, &c. Thus the thread being made to cross as many points of the wound as possible, greatly contributes to maintain its edges in even apposition. It is obvious, that a great deal of exactness is requisite in introducing the pins, in order that the edges of the incision may afterwards be precisely applied to each other in the proper manner. The pins ought never to extend more deeply than about two-thirds through the substance of the lip. It would be a great improvement always to have them constructed a little curved. This is what is named the *twisted suture*. The pins are usually removed in three or four days; the support of sticking plaster being afterwards quite sufficient.

We come to speak of diseases about the mouth. The tongue is liable to ulcers of a painful, obstinate, and malignant-looking nature, sometimes produced by the sharp or rough edge of a tooth. Some very obstinate ulcers are connected with disorder of the digestive organs; but ulcers that are *malignant* and *cancerous*, not unfrequently form on the tongue. Sometimes the malady, in its most incipient state, appears as a sore. Sometimes a circumscribed moveable or immovable scirrhus swelling is first observable, which gradually becomes painful, and ulcerates. In other instances, there is in the beginning only an induration in the substance of the tongue, without the smallest appearance of any swelling. The ulcers under consideration are always surrounded by hardness. They may make their first appearance either at the edges or at the apex of the tongue. In certain cases, the whole, or a large portion of this organ is covered with numerous small scirrhus tubercles, which gradually fall into a state of ulceration. All the medicines tried in other cases of cancer, especially arsenic, conium, &c., may here be tried, but on the whole, the timely employment of the knife merits the most confidence.

The tongue is in children occasionally too much confined by its *frænum*: it may be divided to a very small extent with a pair of blunt-pointed scissors.

The most frequent wounds of the tongue are those which are transverse. They are hardly ever produced by outward means; but usually by the teeth, when the lower jaw is forcibly and spasmodically brought against the upper one, while the tongue is out of the mouth, as sometimes happens in epilepsy, and falls upon the chin. In this way, transverse wounds of considerable extent frequently happen, almost separating, in some instances, the apex from the body of the tongue. In such cases, the injury may easily be converted into a sort of cleft, which may remain for ever afterwards, and more or less impede the functions of the organ. This disagreeable consequence is more likely to happen when no care is taken to keep the opposite sides of the wound in proper contact, and hinder them from becoming distant from each other. Hence, wounds of the tongue should be immediately closed with a suture.

An hæmorrhage from the ranal vessels sometimes follows accidental wounds, and surgical operations on the tongue. When it is an artery that bleeds, the accident may prove dangerous, and even fatal. Moving the tongue and jaw about, and continually sucking, promote the hæmorrhage, and render the adoption of the measures necessary for its suppression extremely difficult. As in these cases a ligature, compression, and styptics, hardly admit of being applied, the bleeding cannot be stopped without much trouble.

The plan is that of directing an assistant to keep a compress on the bleeding vessels, as long as necessary, with his finger, while with his thumb he takes care to make counter-pressure under the jaw.

If a surgeon were to find this unavailing, he must cut down to and tie the trunk of the lingual artery, just where it passes over the cornu of the os hyoides.

Sometimes, when this organ is inflamed, it swells so prodigiously, that it protrudes between the teeth, entirely fills up the cavity of the mouth, and obstructs speech, deglutition, and even respiration. In such a case, the most prompt assistance is demanded. Ordinary evacuations of blood, and other antiphlogistic measures, here seldom bring relief with sufficient celerity. According to surgical authors, the most certain plan consists in making two longitudinal cuts along the edges of the dorsum of the tongue, from one to two inches in length. A copious bleeding generally follows, which soon brings about a diminution of the swelling. No troublesome consequences are to be apprehended from such incisions, which heal with ease, and scarcely leave any scar behind.

The ranula is a tumour arising from a distension of the salivary ducts underneath the tongue, and from an accumulation of the saliva in the dilated part. The cause of the disorder is an obstruction of the excretory duct either of the sublingual, or of the inferior maxillary gland.

The swelling is usually situated on one side of the *frænum linguæ*, and particularly when it is large, sometimes extends under the apex of the tongue. The tumour consists of a sac, which is composed of the dilated portion of the duct, and is either filled with clear fluid, a purulent matter, or an earthy substance. Unless the tumour has been of long standing, its contents bear a perfect resemblance, in colour and consistence, to the white of an egg. When the disease is less recent, the matter is thicker, and it may become like plaster, or even acquire a calcareous hardness. Its size varies considerably in different cases, from that of a pea to that of a hen's egg. In some instances, it becomes exceedingly large, elevating the tongue so much, that deglutition and respiration are greatly obstructed. Some swellings of this kind have been known to contain a pint of matter.

Ranulæ are frequently quite free from pain; but, in some instances they are very painful, especially when the tongue is moved; and in others, they are more or less in an inflamed state.

From what has been stated, it might be inferred, that the cysts of these swellings ought to be dissected out, in the same manner as those of ordinary encysted tumours. Owing to the particularity of the situation of ranulæ, this is not exactly
the

the case. If the surgeon were to endeavour to take out the whole sac, he could hardly avoid wounding the ranal artery, the hæmorrhage from which might prove excessively troublesome, and even fatal.

Practitioners, therefore, are content with laying open the tumour from one end to the other; squeezing out its contents; and removing every particle of calcareous matter that can be felt within the wound.

Cutting away a portion of the sac is sometimes necessary; for when a mere incision is too small, or closes prematurely, the disease generally recurs. After making a free opening into the swelling with a knife, the surgeon can easily cut off a part of the edges of the incision, either with the same instrument and a pair of forceps, or with a pair of scissors.

The tonsils are exceedingly liable to inflame, and sometimes the swelling thus produced is so great as to obstruct deglutition and respiration in a very dangerous degree. Prompt succour is now most urgently required, and relief may commonly be obtained by scarifying the enlarged tonsils, and promoting the bleeding with warm gargles.

The tonsils sometimes become enlarged, without being inflamed. Discutient and astringent applications here prove ineffectual. The tumour admits of being removed, but it is unnecessary and improper to take away the whole tonsil, as a dangerous and even fatal hæmorrhage might be the consequence. Only so much of the swelling should be removed as is sufficient to afford relief. The remaining portion in general heals without difficulty.

Cancerous diseases of the lip are met with in various forms; sometimes having the appearance of an ulcerated, wart-like excrescence, which occasionally becomes as large as an apple; sometimes the form of a very destructive ulcer, which consumes the surrounding substance of the lip; and, in other examples, the disease resembles a hard lump, which at length ulcerates. The disease in its infancy is often no more than a pimple, which gradually becomes malignant.

Cancers of the lip are said to be more frequent in men than women, and generally to occur in the lower spheres of life. The under lip is commonly the seat of the disease; the upper one being but seldom affected.

Every obstinate hardness and ill-conditioned ulcer on the lips, is not to be regarded as cancerous; many may be cured by keeping the constitution under the influence of either mercury, cicuta, opium, or the arsenical preparation.

Whenever there is reason to believe that the disease is of an unyielding, cancerous nature, the sooner it is extirpated the better.

The operation should be done as for the hare-lip, making the wound of such a shape as will allow its edges to be evenly united by adhesion, and taking care to extirpate every portion of the morbid part. When the affection is extensive, the surgeon, however, is frequently necessitated to remove the whole of the lip, a most unpleasant occurrence, as the patient's saliva can then only be prevented from continually running over his chin by some artificial mechanical contrivance. The deformity is very great; and swallowing, and the pronunciation of words, can only be imperfectly performed.

When the membrane lining the antrum inflames and ulcerates, a darting pain is felt in the side of the face, extending from the teeth to the orbit, and unattended with any external swelling. The pain and tenderness do not affect the integuments, which may be handled without inconvenience to the patient. This state of the disorder is not attended with much fever, and is usually regarded as a tooth-ach.

In some instances, matter flows into the nose; and, its being discharged from one of the nostrils, excites a suspicion of the nature of the case. But many patients do not distinguish the pus from the usual mucous evacuation; and frequently, in consequence of the communication between the nose and antrum being closed, there is no purulent discharge whatever.

The disease, when further advanced, becomes more obvious. The whole antrum now expands, and its parieties are rendered thinner by absorption. The expansion of the bone towards the nose may produce a complete obstruction of the nostril, or its swelling above may raise the floor of the orbit, and push the eye out of its situation. But the greatest degree of expansion commonly takes place towards the surface of the body; for, all collections of matter have a natural tendency to burst externally.

At length, the abscess makes its way through the bony parieties of the antrum, and continues to be discharged through ulcerated openings. In some instances, the matter finds a passage into the mouth, through one of the sockets for the teeth.

The indications in the cure are chiefly two, viz., to procure a vent for the matter confined in the antrum as speedily as possible, which is done by drawing a tooth; and to check the suppuration, and promote the separation of any exfoliations which are taking place.

The ossa nasi are occasionally broken: as there are no muscles that tend to displace these bones, they merely require to be reduced.

The lower jaw may be fractured either in its body, or rami, on one side or both; at the neck of one of the condyles, or near the symphysis. According to Delpech, the fracture is never situated exactly at the symphysis itself; but this remark is incorrect, at least with respect to children, in whom the bone sometimes splits in that very situation.

When the fracture has happened towards the chin, whether the bone be broken on one side, or both, the fragment comprehending the symphysis is drawn downwards. If the fracture be oblique, this sort of displacement is much more considerable, especially when the solution of continuity runs downwards and backwards, as it frequently does; for, in this case, the direction of the muscles, which depress the jaw, and are chiefly inserted into the portion of bone most liable to be drawn out of its right place, is parallel to that of the fracture, and consequently they have a greater effect in producing the displacement.

A fracture of the lower jaw may be detected by introducing a finger into the mouth, and pressing on the front teeth of the side on which the fracture is supposed to be, while, at the same time, the fingers of the other hand are applied to the basis of the bone, near the angle. On making alternate pressure in each of the above situations, the bone may be felt to move, and a crepitus distinguished. This painful mode of examination, however, is not invariably requisite; for, when the fracture is displaced, the nature of the accident is obvious enough without any such proceeding. In this case, the body of the bone is drawn downwards from the rami; the mouth is more or less open, and so distorted that the commissure of the lips is much lower on the injured side than the other; while the front teeth are below the level of the molares; the regularity of the arch formed by the teeth and alveolar process being more or less destroyed.

The generality of fractures of the jaw are easily reduced; but the reduction cannot be maintained without difficulty.

When the fracture is not displaced, the surgeon need only adapt some pasteboard, wet and softened with vinegar, to the outside of the jaw, both along its side, and under its basis. Over this wet pasteboard, a bandage with four tails is to be applied, the centre being placed on the patient's chin, the two posterior tails pinned to the front part of his night-cap, and the two anterior attached to a part of the same cap, more backward. When the pasteboard becomes dry, it forms a convenient apparatus for supporting the fracture. The soap plaister frequently applied to the skin is rather to be considered as a thing done for the amusement of the patient and bystanders than as a measure of any real utility.

When the symphysis appears to be drawn below the level of the base of the jaw behind the fracture, the coronoid process

process is to be gradually pushed backward with the index finger of one hand, while the index and middle fingers of the other hand are to be applied to the front teeth, and the thumb to the basis of the anterior part of the jaw. At the same moment that the coronoid process is pushed backwards, the front portion of the bone is to be raised and inclined forwards. When one end of the fracture is situated over the other, the two parts of the bone are to be pushed in opposite directions, and if this be skilfully done, the slightest pressure on the extremities of the fracture will suffice for placing them in contact.

That the fracture is well reduced, may always be readily known by adverting to the evenness of the dental line, and that of the base of the jaw.

The surfaces of the fracture having been placed in even contact, the jaw is to be covered with pasteboard, and the four-tailed bandage applied. It will also be necessary to counteract the action of muscles, between the lower jaw and os hyoides, by supporting the front portion of the bone with compresses placed under the bandage.

According to Delpsch, nothing is more essential for keeping the fragments in their right place, than applying betwixt the teeth of the upper and lower jaws a piece of cork, cut into a suitable shape, and with depressions for receiving the projections formed by the teeth. Without this apparatus, he says, the four-tailed bandage, the pasteboard, and even the plan of fastening the adjoining teeth together with wire, or catgut, will not have due effect. A similar piece of cork is also to be placed between the teeth on the opposite side, an interspace being left between the two portions sufficient to receive a small spoon, with which the patient is to be fed.

The lower jaw is subject to only one species of dislocation, namely, that in which the condyles advance forwards over the eminentiæ articulares, and slip under the zygoma. Sometimes the luxation is confined to one side; but, in all common instances, both condyles are displaced.

A very little consideration would inform a surgeon, duly acquainted with anatomy, that the condyles of the lower jaw could not be displaced backwards, under the prominence formed by the lower part of the meatus auditorius, unless the bone were raised considerably above its point of contact with the upper jaw. Nor could one condyle be displaced outwards, without the other being at the same time carried inwards, below the projection of the spinous process of the sphenoid bone. This is a movement, therefore, which may be regarded as impossible, because it could not take place without a fracture of the spinous process, and any blow, or cause at all calculated to produce this accident, would be much more likely to fracture the ramus, or body of the lower jaw-bone itself.

With respect to the causes of a dislocation of the jaw, every thing that has a tendency to separate the upper and lower maxillæ further from each other, than is natural, may occasion the accident. Thus, yawning, vomiting, laughing, and blows on the chin, may be considered as the most frequent causes of the displacement.

When the lower jaw is dislocated by the action of the muscles, as in gaping, vomiting, laughing, &c., the muscles, which are inserted into the os hyoides first depress the bone, and, in proportion as this movement increases, the pterygoideus externus acts, and draws the condyle and inter-articular cartilage forwards upon the eminentia articularis. The displacement now more readily follows, because in the above-mentioned circumstances, the pterygoideus externus contracts in a powerful spasmodic manner.

When the lower jaw is dislocated, the bone is depressed and fixed in this position; the dental arches are separated by a space of about an inch and an half. The upper and lower teeth no longer correspond: the lower incisores are placed too much forwards; and it is at the same time manifest, that if the mouth were completely shut, these teeth would project beyond those above them. The grinders undergo an analogous displacement, each of the lower ones

advancing some distance more forwards, than its fellow in the upper jaw. The space between the molares of the two jaws is not very great, and, in many cases, the thumb can scarcely be got between those situated furthest back.

Except when the accident has been caused by outward violence, and the soft parts are much injured, there are only two indications in the treatment of a dislocated jaw; viz., to reduce the bone, and to keep it reduced.

In order to accomplish the first of these purposes, the patient is to be placed upon a low seat, and his head is to be supported against the breast of an assistant, who is to apply both his hands close round the forehead. The surgeon being in front of the patient, is to put his thumbs, covered with a handkerchief, or a thick pair of gloves, as far as he can betwixt the back grinders on both sides of the mouth. The fore-fingers are then to be applied to the crowns of the last surger grinders, while the body of the bone is grasped on each side with the rest of the fingers, which are to extend obliquely under its base. While the head is steadily held in the above way, the surgeon now presses directly downwards with his thumbs, by which means the condyles are separated a little way from the anterior part of the transverse process of the temporal bone. This movement is to be performed in an uniform manner, without either raising or depressing the chin. The condyles are then to be inclined backwards and a little downwards, by pressure applied to the back molares and the coronoid process, and at the same time, the chin is to be inclined with the fingers upwards and forwards.

As soon as the condyles slip into the glenoid cavities, the muscles generally act, and suddenly shut the mouth, so that, if the surgeon were not quickly to move his thumbs towards the cheeks from between the grinding teeth, they might be injured. Hence the prudence also of protecting them with a napkin, handkerchief, or, what is better, a thick pair of gloves. It must be acknowledged, however, that the danger here spoken of has been rather exaggerated by writers on surgery, as upon the reduction taking place, the muscles do not shut the mouth with the force generally represented.

OF THE HEAD.

The surgical injuries of the head are such as affect the scalp—such as produce concussion—such as produce compression of the brain.

Injuries of the scalp are not exempt from danger, as the integuments of the head have free connection with the parts within the skull by means of vessels. Contusions of the head sometimes occasion abscesses beneath the aponeurosis of the occipito-frontalis muscle. The matter ought to be evacuated as soon as its existence is ascertained; and, if possible, the opening should be made in a depending situation.

No wounds are more liable to be followed by erysipelas than those of the head; a circumstance explained by Pétit, Desault, and Bichat, by the supposition, that injuries of the head are particularly apt to disorder the hepatic functions, and thus produce a state of the constitution favourable to the occurrence of the erysipelas. It is on the same principle, that these celebrated men, with their countryman M. Larrey, attempt to account for the frequency of the abscesses found in the livers of persons who have died after injuries of the head; a thing which Richerand refers to the liver itself generally having suffered a concussion or mechanical injury at the same time as the brain. But, whatever may be the cause of these events, the facts remain incontestible, that the head is particularly liable to erysipelas from wounds, and that disorder of the liver, and even abscesses in this organ are common consequences of injuries of the head. When erysipelas comes on, the pain in the head grows worse; uneasiness and oppression about the liver are experienced; the skin becomes exceedingly hot, and the pulse hard, small, contracted, and frequent. The appearance of the wound at the same time becomes less favourable. If the injury be recent, its lips are puffed up and dry, without any secretion. Should it be already in a state of suppuration, the matter is yellowish

yellowish and foetid. The tension of the scalp is considerable, and, if the attempts at resolution fail, abscesses are formed, and the matter is commonly discharged by openings, which take place behind the ears, in the upper eyelid, or other situations.

When the symptoms are still more intense, delirium and coma ensue.

Fractures of the Cranium.—When the breach of continuity in the bone is very fine, it is termed a *fissure*; when wide and open, it is named a *fracture*. When the fracture happens in a situation at some distance from the spot on which the external violence has immediately operated, it is denominated a *counter-fissure*. The skull, at the fractured part, either continues on a level with the rest of the cranium, or it is depressed. The inner table alone is sometimes broken, while the external one remains entire.

Fractures of the cranium are in themselves by no means dangerous; that is to say, the simple breach of continuity in the bone, were it unaccompanied with other mischief, would rarely give rise to any serious complaints. In fact, fractures of the skull have often been known to get well without any bad symptoms whatever. The alarming symptoms which sometimes originate when the skull is broken, are occasioned by the bone being beaten inward, so as to press upon or even wound the brain; or by the sharp irregular edges of the fracture irritating the dura mater, and making it inflame and suppurate; or else by mischief done to the parts within the cranium by the same force which broke the bone itself.

A fracture of the cranium, without depression, is not only itself unproductive of any dangerous effects, it is also unattended with any particular symptoms.

Even fractures, with considerable depression of the bone, are sometimes unattended with urgent symptoms; and, in this circumstance, the application of the trephine is unnecessary. We shall see, from what follows, that there can only be one genuine reason for trephining, viz., to remove such pressure from the surface of the brain, as gives rise to bad symptoms.

But whenever these symptoms accompany a depressed fracture, the sooner the bone is elevated the better. Sometimes the inner-table is depressed, so as to wound the dura mater and brain, and cause perilous symptoms, while the outer-table is merely broken, and not thrown out of its natural level.

External violence, applied to the head, very frequently occasions a rupture of the spinous, or some other artery of the dura mater; and a large quantity of blood becomes effused on the surface of this membrane beneath the cranium. In many instances, the blood is extravasated between the dura and pia mater, or in the very substance or cavities of the brain. Extravasations between the dura mater and any part of the base of the skull are mostly fatal.

The symptoms of pressure on the brain, whether that pressure be caused by a depressed portion of bone, by blood, purulent matter, or a foreign body, like a bullet, lodged between the dura mater and skull, are all of one kind.

In cases of extravasation of blood, the patient is usually stunned by a blow, from which state he sometimes soon recovers; while, in other instances, he remains stupid and senseless. When he regains his senses soon after the first effects of the violence have subsided, and afterwards gradually relapses into a drowsy condition, and then into a state which we are about to describe, considerable light is thrown upon the case by there having been an interval of sense. That the following symptoms cannot arise from the concussion is proved by the patient having recovered his senses, which he at first lost by being stunned; that the symptoms cannot be imputed to a depression of any part of the skull, is clear, because the patient would have continued senseless from the first; that the same symptoms cannot be attributed to matter beneath the skull is certain, because the time would not have been sufficient for the formation of matter, and there have been no symptoms of inflammation of the dura mater. Here any reflecting man must know, that hæmorrhage beneath the skull must exist, and that in propor-

tion as it increased after the accident, it alone has induced the bad symptoms under which the patient labours.

Unfortunately, much obscurity is frequently occasioned by the effects of extravasation taking place, before those of concussion have subsided, in which case not the least interval of sense returns, and we know not whether to ascribe the general insensibility to the former or the latter cause. But the worst cases of all are those in which concussion and extravasation are co-existent.

When the quantity of blood is at first small, drowsiness and head-ach may be the only symptoms. When, however, the pressure on the brain is augmented by the increased extravasation, the patient is gradually deprived of all sensibility, as in apoplexy. The eyes are half open; the pupil dilated; the iris does not move, even when a candle is brought near the eye; there is no sickness, which would betray sensibility in the stomach and œsophagus; the pulse beats regularly and slowly; the fæces and urine pass involuntarily; and respiration is carried on with difficulty, and with a stertorous noise.

These symptoms indicate with tolerable certainty the existence both of extravasation and dangerous pressure on the brain; but it is to be lamented, that the surgeon has few or no means of judging with precision where the effused blood is situated, nor of course where he should perforate the cranium with the trephine. He neither knows whether the blood lies immediately under the skull, upon the outer surface of the dura mater; between the dura mater and tunica arachnoides; in the convolutions; in the ventricles; or deeply in the substance of the brain. Supposing it to lie upon the dura mater, he knows not the exact point of its situation.

The common rule in these cases is to apply the trephine to the place where any traces of external violence appear, the extravasation being often situated under that part of the skull which received the blow. Should an appearance of contusion be manifest on the scalp, after the head has been shaved and carefully examined; should the scalp be wounded; or lastly, should there be a visible fracture of the cranium; the perforation is to be made in the situation of such injuries. The practitioner, however, has often the mortification to find, that in following this plan, the extravasation being elsewhere situated, is not brought into view.

Paralysis is a symptom of pressure on the brain, and when it seems to affect one side of the body more than the other, and one pupil seems more dilated than its fellow, we have great reason to suspect, that the extravasation is on that side, on which there is least paralysis, and least dilatation of the pupil. In the Hôtel Dieu, however, the extravasation has frequently been found on both sides of the head, or generally diffused, even though the paralytic affection was local.

Mr. Abernethy has observed, that, when blood lies on the dura mater, the bone above it does not bleed when scraped. This is a most valuable remark.

When a considerable collection of matter forms on the surface of the dura mater, it finally produces the same sort of symptoms as have been just described.

The first effect of concussion consists essentially in a sort of contusion, or general irritation of the brain, occasioned by the shock, which every part of this organ has received.

Whatever may be the nature of concussion, certain it is, that it may happen in very different degrees. Of course, many varieties exist between that slight stunning, the sudden effect of an inconsiderable blow, and that complete disorganization, which, at the instant of the injury, annihilates at once all power of motion and every spark of life!

When the concussion has not been great, a transient stunning, a slight pain in the head, a little acceleration of the pulse, a vertigo and sickness sometimes immediately follow such accident; but none of these complaints last long, especially if evacuation has been used. In certain instances, however, the dura mater inflames after slight blows on the head, and this at a period when sometimes there is not the least apprehension of danger. If the violence has been great, the symptoms are as follow:—the patient is at first stunned and

in a state of total insensibility; his extremities are frequently cold, his pulse weak, slow, and intermitting; his respiration hardly perceptible; his power of motion abolished; in short, he is in a state which is the immediate result of the violent commotion which the brain has suffered. This is what Mr. Abernethy has so judiciously called the first stage of concussion. In proportion as the stupefaction, arising directly from the injury, goes off (supposing the violence not to exceed a certain degree, for then no signs of returning sensation follow), sickness, increased frequency of the pulse and respiration, more or less motion, and other symptoms take place, which are followed by marks of inflammation of the brain. The tendency to phrenitis gradually increases as the first effects of concussion subside. If the patient's eyelids are now opened, he will shut them again in a peevish manner; the pupil is contracted, and though the patient is regardless of slight impressions, he is not by any means insensible. As the case advances, the patient gets no sleep at all; has a wild look, an eye much like that of a person who has long watched through apprehension and anxiety; talks much and very inconsistently; has a hard labouring pulse; if not retained, he will get out of bed, and act with a kind of frantic absurdity; and, in general, he appears much hurt by a strong light. As the signs of delirium increase, the pulse becomes small, frequent, and even rapid. The inflammation under the skull may now produce suppuration, or a copious effusion of serum, and to the foregoing afflictions may be added those depending on the pressure of the secreted fluid. Stertorous respiration is said more particularly to indicate compression, than concussion.

Death is the unavoidable consequence of violent concussion; such is then the extent of the disorder, that every means are incapable of re-establishing the functions of the brain. But when the injury, which this organ has received is less considerable, its functions may be gradually restored in a more or less perfect state. Frequently the patient is for ever afterwards affected by the accident. Imbecility, loss of memory, and a marked change in the character, are sometimes the permanent consequences. In certain instances, the patient's memory remains weakened, and he can only recollect things which have very recently attracted his attention. Desault used to cite a curious case, in which the patient could at first only remember circumstances with which the mind had been lately impressed; but afterwards, he could recollect nothing, except what had happened in his childhood.

The treatment of concussion consists in taking away very copious quantities of blood repeatedly from the temporal artery and arm, giving antimonials, administering saline purges, and aperient clysters, and ordering a low diet. In the first stage of concussion, when all the animal functions are, as it were, at the lowest ebb, such measures, however, are not necessary. While the system is in this state, cordials and stimulants may be allowable, but when the second stage arrives, which is invariably attended with a tendency to inflammation of the brain, or its membranes, the antiphlogistic treatment holds forth the best chance of preservation. Counter-irritation should also be excited on the outside of the head by a large blister, which may afterwards be kept open with the savine cerate. It is wonderful, what immense quantities of blood it is necessary to take away in these cases, in order to keep down the symptoms of phrenitis.

Mr. Abernethy divides concussion into two stages. In the first, the system is senseless, and almost lifeless. Here, bleeding and evacuations are not essential, while stimulants and cordials can do no harm, and may perhaps do good, by promoting the return of sensation, the action of the heart and arteries, the function of respiration, &c. But, in the second stage, when the first effects of concussion have subsided, and the disposition to phrenitis is about to commence, reason and experience are decidedly in favour of copious and repeated bleeding, evacuations, low regimen, and blistering the head.

Operation of trephining.—This operation consists in re-

moving a portion of the skull, and is usually done for the sake of elevating a part of the bone producing dangerous pressure on the brain, or in order to give vent to collections of matter, or blood, which have the same effect; or to be able to extract a ball, or other foreign body lodged under the skull.

Every part of the cranium cannot be trephined with equal safety. The moderns consider, however, that the mere presence of a suture ought not to deter the surgeon from making the perforation in any place which seems advantageous; that the fears, respecting wounds of the longitudinal sinus, have been vastly exaggerated, and that if the situation of a depressed fracture or extravasation, demanded the removal of a piece of the skull directly over this vessel, the operation would be justifiable.

The longitudinal sinus has often been wounded by spiculae of the cranium, in cases of fractures; and it has been purposely punctured with a lancet, in order to bleed the patient; yet, the hæmorrhage was never known to be troublesome, after placing a little bit of lint over the opening. At the same time, it is as well to avoid it if possible. The frontal sinuses, then just over the middle meningeal artery, the lateral sinuses, and just over the spine of the os frontis, are the only situations in which the trephine should not be used.

When the bone is already sufficiently exposed by a wound, the operation may commence at once; but otherwise, it is first requisite to make room for the application of the trephine, by making an incision of a crucial form. Of course none of the scalp should ever be removed.

When the scalp has been divided, and loose splinters of the cranium are found lying underneath, they ought to be taken away with the forceps or finger. The depressed pieces of the skull are sometimes completely detached from the rest of the cranium, and may be taken away in the same manner.

In order to fix the centre-pin of the trephine, surgeons make a small hole in the external table of the skull with an instrument named a perforator. The crown of the trephine is to be alternately turned in one direction, and then in the other by the pronation and supination of the surgeon's hand. As soon as the teeth of the instrument have made a circular groove, sufficiently deep for fixing the trephine, the centre-pin is to be removed, lest it should injure the dura mater, before the internal table of the cranium is perforated.

When the sawing is far advanced, the surgeon must proceed with greater caution, and frequently examine with the point of a quill, whether any part of the circle is nearly, or completely sawn through.

In a few cases, the surgeon clearly perceives the entrance of the saw into the diploe, by the sensation which the instrument communicates to his fingers. However, he is not warranted in sawing too boldly, until a criterion of this sort takes place; for, in many skulls, the diploe is very thin, and in old persons obliterated.

When the operation is finished, the scalp is to be laid down in its natural position.

The trephine should never be used when the depressed portion can be raised by Mr. Hey's saws.

There is a very troublesome disease that follows, when any part of the cranium is removed either by disorganization or the trephine. It protrudes through an ulcerated opening of the dura mater, and very soon attains the magnitude of a pigeon's or hen's egg, the pia mater covering it seeming inflamed. As it enlarges, frequent hæmorrhages occur, and its surface is commonly darkened with coagulated blood. In a few cases, it is not attended with loss of the mental faculties, though in most instances we find that coma, insensibility, and other marks of pressure on the brain, accompany the disease.

According to Mr. Abernethy, this singular malady seems to proceed from an injury done to a part of the brain at some distance from its surface, which injury produces a diseased state of the vessels, similar to what occurs in apoplexy. The morbid state increasing, one or more vessels give

give way, and an effusion of blood into the substance of the brain follows. This occurrence, if the skull were entire, would probably occasion apoplexy; but when there is a deficiency of bone, that allows the brain to expand, this viscus and its membranes protrude through the aperture. The dura mater soon ulcerates, and the tumour rapidly increases, in proportion as the internal hæmorrhage goes on. At last, the pia mater, and stratum of the brain, covering the effused blood, give way, and the blood oozes out and coagulates. In the cases recorded by Mr. Stanley, however, the protrusion consisted both of the cortical and medullary substance of the brain, and the effused blood is described as merely lying upon the surface, and not extending thence to any other place.

The best practice is to repress the increase of the swelling by pressure, which, in cases where the tumour is already large, must be preceded by a removal of the protruding mass with a scalpel, and to combine with such treatment copious evacuations of blood. The pressure may be exerted to a very great extent.

Fungous tumours sometimes grow from the external surface of the dura mater, and, after destroying the superincumbent portion of the cranium, make their appearance in the form of an external swelling under the scalp.

The severe pains in the head, which precede the appearance of the disease externally, become still more violent as soon as the fungus protrudes through the opening in the bone, and is irritated by the sharp inequalities of the edge of the aperture. The swelling has a manifest pulsation corresponding to that of the arteries, and when compressed, it either returns entirely within the cranium, or is considerably lessened. The pain then subsides, the tumour being no longer irritated by the irregular circumference of the opening in the skull. But should the size of the fungus be large, no relief can be thus obtained; for, when an endeavour is made to reduce the tumour, all the alarming symptoms of pressure on the brain are immediately excited.

Fungous tumours of the dura mater constitute an exceedingly dangerous disease, and mostly prove fatal.

Before a fungus of this description has made its way through the cranium, and projected under the scalp, so that its nature and existence can be ascertained, the practitioner has no opportunity of attacking the disease with any effectual means. The ordinary treatment of the severe pain occurring in certain parts of the head, after blows or falls on the cranium, and before the fungus protrudes, has consisted of bleeding and evacuations. But when the disease has manifested itself in the form of an outward swelling, the nature of which is recognised by previous circumstances, as well as by the pain which attends it, and subsides on its reduction and its pulsatory motion; the surgeon should have the head shaved, make a crucial incision in the scalp covering the fungus, dissect up the angles, and fairly bring into view the whole of the tumour, and the margin of the opening through which it protrudes. But as it is impossible to get at the entire root of the fungus, while it is closely embraced by the cranium, it becomes necessary to saw away the surrounding bone. This object has generally been accomplished very inconveniently with the trepan or trephine, which, while it cuts away more of the cranium than is requisite, cannot effect the removal of every part of the bony circumference, and the surgeon has to break away the pieces betwixt the perforations with a gouge and mallet after the manner of the French surgeons. The best instruments for cutting away the surrounding part of the cranium, are the saws described by Mr. Hey. With these, the division of the bone may be made in any direction desirable.

The root of the fungus being thus exposed, the next business is to cut the swelling away, which is most effectually done by carefully dissecting out the part of the dura mater with which it is connected.

The preceding operation is not practicable, when the fungus protrudes at the orbit, or very near the ear. The

upper part of the head is evidently the most favourable situation for such a measure.

Diseases of the Eye may be divided into such as are deep-seated, and those affecting superficial parts. We shall speak, then, first of the eyelids.

Ectropium is an affection in which the inner lining of the palpebra is turned outward, and the lower portion of the eyeball is uncovered. The consequence is, that the exposure of the eye and sensible lining of the eyelid induces in these parts a species of chronic inflammation, not only attended with a constant flux of tears and pain, but also with a preternatural redness and thickening of the lining of the affected eyelid. At length, the exposed membrane is converted into an indurated, callous substance, which lies just under the globe of the eye. The disease obstructs the flow of tears towards the inner angle, and through the puncta lachrymalia, and the complaint is always attended with a weeping of the eye.

One of the most common causes of this malady is a contraction of the integuments of the eyelid, or neighbouring part of the face, after the cicatrization of burns, ulcers, and wounds.

Slight cases, arising in this manner, may sometimes be cured, by keeping the eyelid gradually raised more and more every day, with small strips of sticking plaister, which are to be applied to the outside of the affected eyelid, and to the lower part of the forehead. This method, however, is seldom permanently efficacious.

In most instances, it is necessary to remove a considerable portion of the thickened exposed lining of the eyelid, with the aid of a convex bistoury, and a pair of dissecting forceps; and afterwards, in proportion as the wound heals, the eyelid, being properly supported by a compress and bandage, returns to its natural position. In the operation, care must be taken not to cut the puncta lachrymalia. The eyelid is drawn inward again by the same principle which caused its eversion, viz., the contraction of the cicatrix.

The eyelashes are subject to the diseases called *trichiasis*, in which they are turned inward toward the eyeball. Trichiasis is of two descriptions; in the first, there is no defect of the eyelid, and the whole grievance depends entirely on the wrong direction in which the eyelashes grow; in the other, the defect lies altogether in the eyelid itself, the margin of which is preternaturally turned towards the eye, so that the cilia rub against the front of this organ, and cause considerable inconvenience. The latter case, which is by far the most common, is termed *entropium*.

It is observed by Mr. Saunders, that the superior palpebra, when inverted in the slightest degree, is the cause of a most vexatious irritation of the eye; but when a large portion is inverted, the case becomes truly distressing, from the violent ophthalmia which is produced. The friction of the cilia against the eye is incessant, and from the continual suffering, the patient's health and strength decline. The cornea is ulcerated, and becomes opaque, and the sight is ultimately destroyed. Nor is this the end of the patient's misery; except, as occasionally happens, the cornea becomes thickened and indurated in an extraordinary degree, assuming a white appearance, like that of a macerated ligament. If this be the case, the patient finds ease in the insensibility of this new formed substance.

The appearance of the disease in its inveterate form, is truly disagreeable. The discharge, the copious flow of tears, the excoriation of the cheek, the opacity of the cornea, the villous, granular, or fungous conjunctiva, compose altogether a disgusting sight. The patient carries his head obliquely, and attempts, in the most awkward manner, to direct the pupil towards the objects which he wants to see. Indeed, when it is the upper eyelid which is inverted, the patient, in order to evade turning up the eye, distorts the head so as to seem as if he had a wry neck.

The cure of the first description of trichiasis consists in plucking out the inverted hairs, and preventing their growing again in the same direction. When many project inward,

ward, it is as well to be content with eradicating a few every day, lest the operation should create too much pain and inflammation. The prevention of the hairs from growing again in the same position is frequently very difficult; and, except in young subjects, in whom a frequent repetition of this method of extracting the hairs sometimes leads to a radical cure, Beer states, that the practice is to be considered only as a means of palliation.

After plucking out the hairs, the most successful plans are to smear the whole inner half of the margin of the eyelid, by means of a fine hair pencil, with the *aq. ammon. pur.*; or a solution of the *argentum nitratum*; or else to remove a piece of the skin, containing the roots of the inverted cilia, as proposed by Mr. Saunders.

The second kind of case, called entropium, is the most frequent. In the upper eyelid, the defect is often owing to a relaxed state of the levator muscle; and then it may sometimes be cured by supporting the eyelid for a certain time, with the aid of sticking plaister; but if this plan fails, a cure may always be accomplished by cutting away, with the aid of a pair of forceps and scissors, a fold of the integuments near the edge of the tarsus. Care should be taken to do this just in the middle of the inverted part. The wound is then to be closed, as well as circumstances will allow, with sticking plaister, compresses, and a bandage. In proportion as the contraction of the cicatrix follows, the eyelid will be restored to its right position.

Ptosis is a disease which consists in an inability of properly raising the upper eyelid. Of this, three varieties are noticed: the first depends on a preternatural elongation of the skin of the upper eye-lid; the second, on a weakness or total paralysis of the levator muscle; and the third, on a spasmodic contraction of the orbicularis palpebrarum.

"The first example is the most frequent, and is cured by the removal of the redundant integuments of the eyelid.

"The second species is principally met with in old persons, in whom the cure is often impracticable. This sort of ptosis sometimes seems to be symptomatic of other affections, chlorosis, irritation in the stomach and bowels, worms, &c., while in other examples it is entirely a local defect.

"The chief means of cure are, the external use of the tincture of cantharides and cold water; the shower bath; the internal exhibition of bark; the use of camphorated liniments; electricity. This ptosis is frequently periodical.

"The third species of ptosis arises from a spasmodic affection of the orbicularis muscle, and is the most uncommon. The affection is never continual, but makes its attacks at certain or uncertain periods, and its duration varies in different cases.

"The spasmodic ptosis usually depends on some sympathetic irritation in the system. The removal of this particular irritation, whatever it may be; the internal exhibition of antispasmodics; applying a blister to the temple, and bathing the eye with warm milk containing saffron, or with a decoction of poppy-heads or *cicuta*; form the usual method of the treatment."

Lagophthalmus, or hare-eye, is a complaint, in which the eyelids cannot be shut, nor the eye covered. The inconveniences resulting from the disease are of various kinds. The eyes weep constantly, because the interruption of the alternate closure and opening of the eyelids hinders the tears from passing into the nose: the patient becomes blind in a very light situation, in consequence of his not being able to diminish the rays of light which fall on the eye; and, on the same account, the sight becomes gradually very much weakened; the patient cannot sleep in a chamber into which any light enters; and the extraneous substances in the atmosphere settling on the eyeball, cannot be washed away by the action of the eyelids, so that they occasion irritation, pain, and redness.

The cause of this complaint sometimes depends on a swelling or protrusion of the eyeball out of the orbit. But the defect commonly lies in the upper eyelid. Sometimes,

though very seldom, it originates from a paralytic affection of the orbicularis muscle. This case requires the same kind of treatment as the second species of ptosis.

Lagophthalmus most frequently arises from a contraction of the skin of the upper eyelid, in consequence of wounds, abscesses, burns, &c. This case is to be treated on the same principles as the ectropium.

Until the complaint is permanently cured, the eye should be protected by a shade from exposure to a strong light.

Tumours of the eyelids are of various kinds. The hordeolum stye is always situated at the edge of the eyelids. It is a very small circumscribed tumour, about the size of a barleycorn. An inflamed stye is commonly extremely red and painful; and is very similar, in every respect, to a small boil, or an inflamed encysted tumour.

The cure of the inflamed stye demands the external employment of emollient applications; for, the tumour always suppurates, and the more this is promoted, the sooner is the patient freed from inconvenience. Even when the stye has already suppurated, emollients are the best applications, until the hardness has subsided. When the suppuration has terminated, a weak solution of the acetate of lead may be used to disperse the remaining redness and swelling.

The *indurated* stye, as it is called, occasions a good deal of inconvenience, by frequently inflaming and becoming painful, hindering the motion of the eyelids, and preventing the free enjoyment of sight. The best mode of curing this disease is to touch the little induration with the *argentum nitratum* until it is destroyed.

Encysted tumours of the eyelids are most frequently situated immediately under the skin, but sometimes they lie so deeply, that they can be taken out more easily from the inside than the outside of the part. They seldom become very large, and are more commonly observed on the upper, than the lower eyelid. When they have attained a certain size, they hinder the elevation of the eyelid, and occasion ptosis, they should be cut out.

Of conjunctivitis.—The irradiation of red vessels over the white eye-ball, terminating in a short time in a perfect continuous blush, marks conjunctivitis. There is in this complaint, at first, a copious flow of tears, but a great dryness, or want of secretion is manifested. A sense of grittiness in the eye-ball, and a great deal of pain, much aggravated by light, also attend. Much constitutional disorder is also present. The inflammation is subdued by a full general bleeding, followed by local bleedings, and warm fomentations to the part affected, and by purgation and low living.

In general, inflammation of the conjunctiva is a very manageable complaint. It passes into chronic inflammation, after the acute stage has continued for a certain time, and it not unfrequently subsides of itself. A spontaneous cure, however, is by no means to be trusted to, because simple inflammation of this membrane may lead to inflammation of the deeper seated tunics of the globe of the eye. The consequences of inflammation of this membrane are very similar to those of inflammation in other parts of the body. It sometimes terminates in effusion, the serum or blood under the conjunctiva rising in a roll above the transparent cornea, and forming the appearance called chemosis. It sometimes produces the adhesive process, and when it terminates in this manner, the adhesive matter is deposited under the conjunctiva, which covers the transparent cornea, and is recognized by a hazy appearance at the part. This is technically called nebula; when considerable in quantity, and very opaque, it is called albugo, or leucoma. The inflammation sometimes proceeds to the suppurative process. Ulceration is also sometimes produced; this usually occurs in the cornea, in consequence, probably of its denudation or exposure. Lastly, sloughing and mortification of the cornea, is not an uncommon effect of a high degree of inflammation. In chronic inflammation the redness is less intense, the pain less acute, the intolerance of light less, the chemosis and swelling diminished, the effusion of tears less considerable, the

the constitutional irritation a great degree have subsided, and, in short, all the acute symptoms much mitigated. There still however remains a considerable degree of irritability in the eye, on exposure to light, some artificial defence to exclude the light will be necessary, and the person will still be incapable of applying the organ to the ordinary purposes of vision.

The treatment of the chronic conjunctivitis may be considered in conjunction with that of the terminations of acute inflammation, the object in the former is to excite new action, and constrict the dilated blood vessels; for this purpose a variety of lotions are in use. A few drops of tincture of opium, put into the corner of the eye with a camel-hair pencil, or syringing the eye with solutions of lead, seem to answer as well as any thing. No local treatment is however likely to be successful, if the general health remains unimproved. And in strumous subjects especially we find chronic inflammation, and its consequences, excessively troublesome. The consequences of conjunctivitis, are treated of course according to their various natures in various ways. Nebula may generally be removed by mild stimuli, not however, that these must be used while any inflammation of consequence is going on. Pustules sometimes occur on the conjunctiva. These are generally seated at the junction of the transparent with the opaque cornea; but they may sometimes occur in the cornea itself, or the conjunctiva covering it, or the ball. The appearances that they present at first are red or yellowish spots arising from a deposit of lymph in those parts, and are slightly elevated. These ulcers are difficult to manage, as they often occur in scrofulous habits of body, and broken up constitutions, and are apt to become chronic, and consequently difficult of cure. As for the treatment this affection requires, it will be hardly necessary to say, that if considerable inflammation exists, depletion must be employed.—The inflammation, however, is of the atonic kind.—First apply leeches, not in too large numbers, so as to carry depletion to too great an extent—it will be proper to evacuate the bowels, not by drastic purges, but mild aperients, and to attend to the secretions. Blisters will be useful if the sight be affected. Mild astringent collyria used; the best is the vinum opii.

Fungus sometimes grows on the conjunctiva. It becomes loose and red; the vessels turgid with blood, and there is a fold of this membrane on the inside of the lids, which produces considerable irregularity on its surface—a morbid secretion is kept up on the part—and not unfrequently eversion of the lids is the result. To prevent this, and remedy the complaint, the loose portion of the conjunctiva should be removed with a pair of curved scissors.

The same treatment may also be used, when we find little granulations growing on the membrane, or when we have a pterygium (which is a little triangular thickening between the cornea and the inner canthus), or an encanthus, (which is a granulated thickening of the caruncula lachrymalis).

Next to the conjunctiva, the iris is that texture of the eye which is most frequently affected with inflammation, and the changes which this process occasions, can no where else be so distinctly seen and examined.

Scarcely any disease to which the eye is subject, has a more immediate or rapid tendency to destroy vision, than inflammation of the iris. In the *idiopathic iritis*, as (Professor Schmidt observes,) besides the common symptoms of ophthalmia, certain changes happen at the very commencement, indicating the seat of inflammation. The pupil appears contracted, the motions of the iris are less free, and the pupil loses its natural bright black colour. The brilliancy of the colour of the iris fades, and it becomes thickened and puckered, with its inner margin turned towards the crystalline lens. The change of colour happens first in the lesser circle of the iris, which becomes of a darker hue; and afterwards in the greater circle, which turns green, if it had been greyish or blue; and reddish, if it had been brown or black. The redness accompanying these changes is by no means con-

siderable, and is at first confined to the sclerotic coat, in which a number of very minute rose-red vessels are seen running in straight lines towards the cornea. In the words of Mr. Saunders, the vascularity of the sclerotica is very great, whilst that of the conjunctiva remains much as usual; the plexus of vessels lying within the latter tunic. The insculcations of these vessels are numerous, and form a species of zone at the junction of the sclerotica and cornea. Here the vessels disappear, not being continued over the transparent cornea, as in a case of simple ophthalmia, but penetrating the sclerotica, in order to pass to the inflamed iris. The irritation caused by the light is distressing, and the patient is much incommoded by any pressure on the globe of the eye, or by the rapid or sudden motions of this organ. Considerable uneasiness is felt over the eyebrow, and acute lancinating pains shoot through the orbit towards the brain. The pupil loses its circular form, becomes somewhat irregular, and presents a greyish appearance. Examined by means of a magnifying glass, this appearance is seen to be produced by a substance very like a cobweb occupying the pupil, and which can soon afterwards be distinguished, even without the aid of the glass, to be a delicate flake of coagulable lymph. Into this, says Professor Schmidt, the processus or dentations of the irregular pupillary margin of the iris seem to shoot, and it is afterwards found that adhesions are apt to be established at these points. Owing to these adhesions, the patient, whose vision has been all along indistinct, now complains of being able to see only one side or part of an object. Occasionally, when the cornea has been attacked, it becomes cloudy, thickened, and adherent to the iris, before any visible effusion of lymph takes place; or, when the inflammation is violent, and extends to the other tunics, the eye is totally destroyed by suppuration; but the disease rarely advances to this extreme, and generally terminates in the adhesive stage. Lymph is then deposited on the anterior surface of the iris, and between the iris and the capsule of the crystalline lens, and often in so large a quantity, as to extend through the pupil, and drop pendulously to the bottom of the anterior chamber. If this process is not interrupted, the pupil is entirely obliterated, or the iris adheres to the capsule of the lens, leaving only a very minute aperture, which is most commonly occupied by an opaque portion of the capsule, or of organized lymph, and the patient is totally blind.

From the preceding description, it is evident that the principal danger in iritis depends upon the effusion of lymph, its quick organization, the rapid formation of adhesions between the iris and other parts, and the closure and obstruction of the pupil. Of late years great improvement has unquestionably been made in the treatment of this disease, an improvement derived from a knowledge of the fact, that mercury is one of the most effectual means of stopping the effusion, and promoting the absorption, of lymph in the adhesive inflammation.

In the idiopathic iritis, before lymph is effused, copious bleeding either from the temporal artery or veins of the arm, and cathartics, followed by nauseating doses of tartarized antimony, with a view of enfeebling the pulse, are the means from which most benefit may be expected. When general bleeding has been carried as far as the state of the pulse will allow, leeches are to be applied to the vicinity of the eye, and their application repeated at short intervals. When the inflammation stops in this stage, the cure may be completed by covering the eye with linen, wet with a collyrium of the acetate of lead, and keeping the patient for some time in a dark room. Professor Schmidt, however, describes cold local applications as quite useless in iritis, and he says, the only topical treatment which is admissible, is the fomentation of the eye with water, made as warm as the patient can bear, which will sometimes mitigate the violence of the pain. In the first stage of the process, he observes, that blisters to the temple, or behind the ears, have little or no effect, though a large one on the nape of the neck sometimes seems to be of service.

When the disease, however, advances to the stage in which the effusion of lymph begins, every possible means must be adopted for resisting this process, and bringing about the absorption of the substance already deposited in the posterior chamber, in the pupil, or upon the iris. Of all remedies for this purpose, none merits so much encomium as mercury, which must be freely exhibited, in order to affect the constitution as soon as possible. The ointment, or the pil. hydrarg. with opium, may be employed, and often it is right both to exhibit the medicine internally, and have recourse to frictions. In this second stage of iritis, Professor Beer gives calomel united with opium, applies to the eye a solution containing oxymuriate of mercury, mucilage, and a considerable quantity of vinum opii; and when this collyrium loses its effect, he introduces daily between the eyelids a small quantity of a salve, composed of two drachms of fresh butter, six grains of red precipitate, and eight grains of extract of opium. He observes also, that frictions once a day, over the eyebrow with mercurial ointment, containing opium, will very much assist in producing an absorption of the effused lymph. The tendency of the iris to expand, and the pupil to contract, the late Mr. Saunders used to oppose by the use of the extract of belladonna, with which he sometimes smeared the eyelids and eyebrows.

Closure of the pupil sometimes occurs in consequence of violent inflammation of the internal membranes of the eye, especially the iris. In particular instances, the malady follows the extraction and depression of the cataract, but without any inflammatory affection of the interior of the eye appearing to have any share in its origin. After an indeterminate time from the operation, the pupil is perceived to diminish in diameter daily, without any evident cause, and ordinarily closes so much, that it can hardly admit a pin's head. The iris is motionless, assumes a radiated rugous appearance, and, when no opacity exists behind it, a little black speck is seen in its centre. In this state if the retina be sound, the patient may sometimes regain a considerable power of vision, by having an artificial pupil formed.

Cheselden was the first who performed an operation, with a view of diminishing the blindness produced by this malady; he introduced a couching needle, having a sharp edge only on one side, through the sclerotica, about a line and a half from the margin of the cornea. After perforating the iris, towards the external angle, and then pushing the point of the needle transversely through the anterior chamber, as far as the edge of the iris next the nose, he turned the edge of the instrument backward, and withdrew it, so as to make a transverse division of the iris.

Janin practised this method in two instances, but without success, as the edges of the opening after a time united. Here, Baron Wenzel practised the excision of a portion of the iris. He introduced the point of the cornea knife into the anterior chamber, exactly in the same manner as in the extraction of the cataract, but when it had arrived nearly as far as the centre of the iris, it was plunged into this membrane, and then, by a slight motion of the hand backward, it was brought out again, about the distance of three quarters of a line from the part in which it entered. Next, the incision being continued as in cases of cataract, the section of the iris was completed before that of the cornea, and presented a small flap, which was cut off with a pair of scissors.

Beer opens the cornea, draws out the iris by means of a fine hook, and removes a small portion of this membrane.

Hypopium is an accumulation of a glutinous yellowish fluid, like pus, in the anterior chamber of the aqueous humour, and frequently also in the posterior one, in consequence of violent ophthalmia.

The symptoms exciting apprehension of an hypopium, are the very same which occur in the highest stage of violent acute ophthalmia, viz., prodigious tumefaction of the eyelids, redness and swelling of the conjunctiva, as in chemosis; burning heat and pain in the eye; pains in the eyebrow and nape of the neck; fever; restlessness; aversion to light, and a contracted state of the pupil.

During the first stage of violent ophthalmia, while the

hypopium is increasing, the same treatment as is recommended for severe acute inflammation of the eye is the most proper. In the second stage of the ophthalmia, when the hypopium has become stationary, the surgeon must endeavour to quicken the action of the absorbents in the eye. Camphorated emollient poultices may be applied; the vapours of the spir. ammon. comp. may be directed against the eye, through a tube two or three times a day; a blister may be put on the nape of the neck, and when the irritability of the organ has diminished, the vitriolic collyrium may be used. This may be afterwards strengthened by the addition of a few drops of camphorated spirit. Under such treatment, hypopium most commonly disappears, in proportion as the chronic ophthalmia is relieved.

When the secreting extremities of the arteries, and the minute mouths of the absorbent vessels of the eye do not act in their naturally reciprocal manner, the organ may become distended with a morbid redundancy of an aqueous secretion. This disease constitutes what is termed dropsy of the eye, and is at first attended with great weakness, and afterwards with total loss of sight.

In the last stage of the disease, when the dropsical eye projects from the orbit, so as not to admit of being covered by the eyelids, with the inconveniences already enumerated, others associate themselves, arising from the dryness of the eye; the contact of extraneous bodies; the friction of the eyelashes; the very viscid secretion from the eyelids; the ulceration of the lower eyelid, and even of the eye itself. Hence, the advanced stage of dropsy of the eye induces violent ophthalmias, followed by ulceration and a total destruction of the organ.

In the incipient period of the disease, it is usual to prescribe mercurials, or cicuta, and make a seton in the nape of the neck. Scarpa describes astringent applications as hurtful, and recommends the eye to be bathed with a decoction of mallows.

When the disease has attained such a pitch, that the eye protrudes from the orbit, there is no means of opposing the grievous dangers now impending, except making an incision, in order to evacuate the superabundant fluid in the eye. But simply puncturing the eye is no more adequate to produce a permanent cure of the dropsical affection, than puncturing the tunica vaginalis is sufficient to effect a radical cure of the hydrocele. Besides discharging the redundant humours contained in the organ, inflammation and suppuration must be excited. For this purpose, a portion of the centre of the cornea, about as broad as a pea, is to be cut out, and so much of the humours is then to be pressed out as will permit the eyelids to be brought over the eye. Nothing but a pledget of dry lint, kept on by a bandage, is to be applied before the inflammation has taken place, which is usually about the third or fifth day. Then antiphlogistic means may be adopted, and emollients employed.

After operating for the relief of the present affliction, a fungus occasionally grows out of the internal part of the eye. Such an excrescence was, in one instance, destroyed by the external employment of belladonna. But, in case this or other means fail in preventing the reproduction of the fungus, it is the duty of the surgeon to recommend the entire extirpation of the diseased organ.

"Carcinoma of the eye is said to make its appearance in three forms. Sometimes the eyeball becomes irregular and knobby, and swells to the size of an apple; the sight is gradually lost; the blood-vessels in the white of the eye enlarge; and the whole external and internal structure of the organ becomes so altered, that the part resembles a piece of flesh, and no vestiges of its original organization remain. Sometimes a portion of the cornea is still visible, within which a small aperture is also discernible, through which can be distinguished the remains of the vitreous humour, and of the choroid coat. In some instances, the eyeball is ulcerated, and emits a foetid discharge; while, in others, there is not the smallest appearance of ulceration, and the eyeball resembles a piece of firm flesh. The patient usually experiences from the first considerable burning, and at last, violent

violent darting pains in the organ extending over one side of the head. This is the most frequent description of cancer of the eye.

Sometimes excrescences form upon the anterior surface of the eye, especially upon the transparent cornea, and frequently admit of being radically cured by the knife, caustic, or ligature. But, occasionally, they repeatedly grow again after the employment of these means, becoming broader, more malignant, and even cancerous, and at length, changing into a spongy fungus, which is very painful, covers the whole anterior surface of the eye, and renders extirpation indispensable. This is the second species of cancer of the eye.

On several occasions, ulcers form on the front of the eyeball, which, though generally curable by proper means, sometimes are exceedingly inveterate, entirely destroying the eyesight, and becoming so malignant as to obtain the appellation of cancer. This is the third form of the disease."

According to Scarpa, we have no pathognomonic symptoms, excepting one, indicative of the exact period when the sarcoma of the eye changes from a benign fungus to carcinoma. The exquisite sensibility, darting pains, rapidity of growth, colour, and ichorous discharge, are by no means a sufficient criterion, and, says Scarpa, the only symptom, if not entirely pathognomonic, at all events less uncertain than any other, is the almost cartilaginous hardness of the malignant ulcerated fungus, which induration is not met with in the benign fungus, and never fails to precede the formation of cancer.

Cancer and fungus hæmatodes of the eye, however, are the two diseases, for which the extirpation of the eye is commonly required.

In the performance of the operation, there are two important circumstances to which attention ought to be paid. The first is, to remove every particle of the disease, and leave none of the affected parts behind. The second is, to avoid piercing or injuring the orbit, behind which the dura mater is immediately situated.

In order to be able to separate the eyelids far enough from each other, for the easy removal of an eye that is much enlarged, it is sometimes recommended, in the first instance, to make an incision through them at their external commissure. The patient should lie down on a table of convenient height, with his face exposed to a good light.

The best instrument for the operation is a common scalpel. When the diseased part is very large, a knife, somewhat curved, has been occasionally used for dividing the parts deeply situated in the orbit. Scarpa uses a knife for the division of the conjunctiva and superficial connections, and completes the rest of the incisions with a pair of curved scissors. The patient being placed in a horizontal posture, and the upper eye-lid raised by an assistant, and the lower one depressed by the surgeon himself, the conjunctiva, connecting the eye with the two eye-lids, is first to be divided.

As when the eye-ball is enlarged, it mostly falls towards the cheek, so that an incision between the diseased part and the lower eye-lid cannot easily be made, Richter recommends first, separating the globe from the upper eye-lid, then dividing the superior and lateral attachments of the eye; and, lastly, its connections with the lower eye-lid. This mode of operating is said to be the more easy, because the globe of the eye can always be more readily inclined downwards, so as to make room above, than pushed upwards for the purpose of making room below.

Scarpa, after dividing the external commissure of the eyelids, if the tumour be very large, perforates the conjunctiva at the external angle, and from thence, keeping the knife close to the upper plane of the orbit, as far as the caruncula lachrymalis inclusively, cuts through the elevator muscle of the upper eye-lid, the tendon of the greater oblique muscle, and the superciliary nerve. The diseased eye-ball being then raised, and the lower eye-lid depressed, the incision is next continued along the inferior segment of the orbit, from the external towards the internal angle; by doing which, the knife will penetrate between the orbit and lesser oblique

muscle, and not pass between the eye-ball and this muscle, as would happen in cutting in the opposite direction. The eye freed from these attachments, and from that formed by the nasal branch of the ophthalmic nerve, will fall on the external side of the orbit, and give the surgeon room on the internal side as far as the bottom of the orbit, where he is to divide, with one stroke of the scissors, the origin of the muscles of the eye and the optic nerve. He is then gently to bring his finger round to the external side of the orbit, and push its contents a little towards himself, while, with a second stroke of the scissors, he divides all the parts which enter the orbit through the sphæno-orbital fissure.

Until the optic nerve has been divided, the operator must avoid drawing the eye-ball too forcibly forwards.

As soon as the eye has been completely detached, all the inside of the orbit should be very carefully examined, and whatever indurated parts are found should now be diligently removed. In particular, the surgeon should introduce his finger along the inner side of the orbit, where he will feel the greater oblique muscle, which he must dissect away by means of a tenaculum and the scissors.

All writers agree concerning the propriety of cutting away one or both the eye-lids, whenever they are affected with cancerous disease; but in all other instances they should be spared.

The first appearances of a fungus hæmatodes of the eye, according to Mr. Wardrop, are in the posterior chamber. The pupil becomes dilated, of a dark amber, or greenish hue, instead of its natural deep black colour, and iris immovable. Mr. Ware states, however, that the first symptom is a white shining substance in the posterior part of the eye, visible through the pupil in some particular positions of the head; but not in all; an appearance compared to that of burnished iron. As the disease advances, this deviation from the natural appearance of the pupil is discovered to be produced by a solid substance, which is formed at the bottom of the eye, and gradually approaches the cornea. At length the excrescence occupies the whole interior of the eye behind the iris, and appears through the pupil to be of an amber or brown colour.

When the disease advances still further, the form of the eyeball begins to alter, acquiring an irregular knobby appearance; and at the same time, the sclerotic coat loses its natural pearly white colour, and becomes of a dark blue, or livid colour. The tumour, by its continued growth, finally occupies the whole anterior chamber; and in some cases a quantity of purulent matter collects between the diseased mass and the cornea.

At last, the cornea ulcerates, and a fungous tumour shoots out, or else the excrescence makes its way through the sclerotic coat, and is then covered with the conjunctiva.

The protruded fungus is generally rapid in its growth, often attains a large size, is of a dark red, or purple colour, has an irregular surface, and is frequently covered with coagulated blood. It bleeds profusely from the slightest causes, and when it is large, its most prominent parts are apt to slough.

In some cases, the optic nerve becomes thicker, firmer, and harder, than common, assumes a brownish ash-colour, and loses its natural tubular appearance. Sometimes, it is converted into a tumour, of the figure and size of an olive, the disorganized substance of which exactly resembles that of the fungus, which fills the orbit, and projects beyond the eyelids. In other instances, the nerve, besides being altered in its structure, is split into one or more pieces, the morbid growth filling up the intervening spaces, and surrounding the different portions of the nerve. The divided parts of the nerve are entirely deprived of their proper structure and colour.

Among many other particulars, Mr. Wardrop mentions, that when the optic nerve is diseased, the alteration in its structure generally extends as far up as its junction with the opposite nerve. In many cases, it extends further, the thalamus being converted into an irregular, soft pulpy mass, more or less blended with blood. Sometimes, the dura matter and

and pericranium exhibit dark red-coloured spots; and, on other occasions, the tunica arachnoides and pia mater are studded with numerous white spots, which, on being cut into, are found to be small bags, or abscesses containing a white viscid fluid, like cream.

It appears, that children are far more subject, than adults, to fungus hæmatodes of the eye; for out of 24 cases, with which Mr. Wardrop has been acquainted, 20 have been in children under 12 years of age. Bichat informs us, that more than a third of the patients, on whom Desault operated for carcinoma of the eye, were under the same early age; and this circumstance is not surprising, when we reflect, that this eminent surgeon did not discriminate fungus hæmatodes from cancer. The truth is, the latter distemper mostly afflicts persons advanced in years; while the former prevails most frequently in children; a circumstance strongly proving the dissimilarity of the two affections.

According to the observations of Mr. Wardrop, when the fungus hæmatodes takes place in children, they generally lose the sight of the affected eye, before the disease is at all noticed by the parents. In many cases, however, the appearance of the diseased substance at the bottom of the eye is preceded by a blow and inflammation of the organ. But when no external violence is concerned, the first perceptible symptom is merely a little fulness of the vessels of the white of the eye. Sometimes the iris is full of vessels, its colour changes and the pupil is considerably dilated and motionless. The child seldom complains of much pain; but sometimes appears languid and feverish.

In adults, the disease generally begins without any apparent cause; though, sometimes, it seems to arise in consequence of a blow. As in children, it commences with a slight redness of the conjunctiva, and an impairment of vision. These symptoms increase slowly, and at length are followed by headaches, which often become exceedingly agonizing, especially during the night, and continue with violence, until the eye bursts, and the humours are discharged.

In most cases, only one eye has been affected with the disease. In some examples, however, the distemper extends to both.

As surgeons are utterly unacquainted with any internal or external medicine which have the power of checking or curing the fungus hæmatodes of the eye; and as it is the nature of the disease to extend its ravages till the patient is destroyed, the only chance of preservation depends upon the early extirpation of the affected eye, care being also taken to remove every part in the orbit having any appearance of participating in the distemper. Hitherto, however, the disease has mostly recurred after the operation, and ultimately proved fatal. Indeed when we consider that the disorder generally spreads along the optic nerve, we must be prepared for this unfortunate truth.

A blindness which occurs when all the parts of the eye appear healthy, is called Amaurosis, or Gutta Serena. It arises from inaction of the optic nerve. If this inaction arise from any permanent change in the structure of the nerve, or of the part of the brain, to which it goes, the case is hopeless, but a mere debility of the nerve may be cured.

The blindness, produced by the gutta serena, is generally preceded by an appearance of numerous insects, or substances like pieces of cobwebs, interposing themselves between the objects and the eye. The origin of a cataract, on the other hand, is usually attended with a simple cloudiness in vision.

As Beer has observed, the various cases of gutta serena all admit of being comprised in two classes; one attended with a diminution in the irritability of the whole eye, and where the patient constantly seeks a strong and brilliant light; the other characterized by great tenderness and irritability of the organ, and an aversion to every light which is bright or vivid.

When amaurosis has prevailed several years in persons of advanced age, whose eyesight has been weak from their youth; when it has come on slowly; at first, with a morbid increase of sensibility in the immediate organ of sight,

then with a gradual diminution of sensation in this organ, to the state of utter blindness; when the pupil is motionless, and has lost its circular shape, without being very much dilated; when this aperture is dilated in such a degree, that the iris seems as if it were wanting, and its margin is irregular and fringed; and when the bottom of the eye, independently of any capacity of the crystalline, presents an unusual paleness, like that of horn, or else a greenish hue; the malady may generally be considered incurable. Those cases may also be deemed irremediable which are attended with universal headache, and a constant sense of tension in the eyeball; which are preceded by a violent, protracted excitement of the whole nervous system, and by general debility, and languor of the whole constitution. There is no remedy for such cases as are preceded or accompanied by epileptic fits, or frequent hemicrania; nor for such as are the consequence of severe, obstinate, internal ophthalmies. We may also set down those cases as incurable, which, besides being of long standing, have originated from violent concussions of the head, or blows on the eyeball. The same may be said of amaurosis, when it arises from a violent contusion, or laceration of the supra-orbital nerve: when it proceeds from the entrance of foreign bodies into the eyeball; when it is attended with exostoses on the forehead, sides of the nose, or os maxillare; and when conjoined with a manifest change in the figure and dimensions of the whole eyeball.

Recent and sudden cases, in which the pupil is not excessively dilated, and in which the disk of this aperture retains its regularity, while behind it the bottom of the eye is of a deep black colour; cases which are not accompanied by any acute and continual pain in the head and eyebrow, nor by any sense of constriction in the eyeball; cases which originate from violent emotions of the mind; excessive fulness of the stomach; irritating matter in the viscera; plethora; suppression of some habitual evacuation; great loss of blood; nervous debility, not of an inveterate nature and in young subjects; are all, generally speaking, curable.

All surgeons agree, that this disease, in its curable and incomplete state, commonly depends on a morbid irritation in the digestive organs, sometimes complicated with general nervous debility, in which the eyes participate.

Hence, the chief indications in the majority of recent, incomplete cases, is to empty the stomach and bowels; then to strengthen the tone of the digestive organs, together with that of the whole nervous system; while at the same time efforts are made to invigorate the action of the nerves of the eye in particular.

For the latter purpose, Scarpa directs the vapour of the aqua ammoniæ puræ to be applied to the organ, till a copious secretion of tears and redness are brought on; then the practitioner is to desist a little; but he must renew the application in this manner three or four times at once, and persevere till the amaurosis is cured.

The action of the ammoniacal vapours may be aided by other external stimulants, applied to such parts of the body as have a great deal of sympathy with the eyes. Blisters to the nape of the neck; frictions, with liniments on the eyebrow; sternutatories; and electricity; are the chief auxiliary means.

In the amaurosis, arising from the suppression of the menses, the first evident indication is to re-establish the evacuation of blood from the uterus.

When the crystalline lens, or its capsule, is affected with opacity, the species of blindness, thence resulting, is denominated a *cataract*. The opacity originates, for the most part gradually, and augments in the same manner. Sometimes, however, it makes its appearance suddenly, and in a very high degree. The first effect of an incipient opacity is a mist before the eyes, surrounding every object, and afterwards gradually increasing so much in density, as to render things quite invisible. The opacity, behind the pupil, increases in proportion as the cloudiness in vision augments. As the lens is thick at its centre, and thin at its edge, the incipient opacity, when viewed externally, always seems the greatest

greatest in the middle of the pupil; while the circumference of the lens appears like a black ring, surrounding the white nucleus of the crystalline. Some rays of light are capable of penetrating the thin margin of the lens in its most opaque state: and hence, patients with cataracts are almost always able to distinguish light from darkness, and in the early stage of the complaint, discern objects best when these are a little on one side of the axis of vision, and not immediately opposite the eye. Hence, such patients also see better in a moderate, than a brilliant light, which makes the iris contract over the thin circumference of the lens.

When the opaque lens is either more indurated than in the natural state, or retains a moderate degree of consistence, the case is termed a *firm* or *hard cataract*.

When the substance of the lens seems to be converted into a whitish, or other kind of fluid, lodged in the capsule, the case is denominated a *milky*, or *fluid cataract*.

When the opaque lens is of a middling consistence the case is termed a *soft*, or *caseous cataract*.

There is another variety of the disease, necessary to be noticed, the *secondary membranous cataract*, which is an opacity of the anterior or posterior layer of the crystalline capsule, taking place after the lens itself has been removed from this little membranous sac by a former operation.

Cataracts are usually cured, either by removing the opaque lens from the axis of vision by means of a needle, or by extracting the lens from the eye, through a semicircular incision made at the lower part of the cornea. The first operation is termed *couching*, or depression of the cataract; the second is named *extraction*. To these two methods may be added the mode of operating devised by Mr. Saunders, and which chiefly consists in lacerating the central part of the front layer of the capsule, without moving the lens at all out of its situation.

Couching is thus performed:—The operator may employ, with equal advantage, a common slender spear-shaped needle. If the curved couching needle be made use of, it is to be held with the convexity of its curvature forward, its point backward, and its handle parallel to the patient's temple. The surgeon, having directed the patient to turn the eye towards the nose, is to introduce the instrument boldly through the sclerotic coat, at the distance of not less than two lines from the margin of the cornea, in order to avoid the ciliary processes.

The exact place, to which the point of the needle should next be guided, is between the cataract and ciliary processes, in front of the opaque lens and its capsule; but, as the attempt to hit this delicate invisible mark borders upon impossibility, and may endanger the iris, it seems safer to direct the extremity of the instrument immediately over the opaque lens. Thus room is made for the safe conveyance of the instrument between the cataract and ciliary processes, in front of the diseased crystalline and its capsule. Care must be taken, in this latter step of the operation, to keep the marked side of the handle forward, so as to have the point of the instrument turned away from the iris. The needle will now be visible in the pupil, and its point is to be pushed in a transverse direction as far as the inner edge of the lens. Then the operator is to incline the handle of the instrument towards himself, by which means its point will be directed through the capsule into the substance of the opaque lens, and on inclining the needle downward and backward, the former will be lacerated, and conveyed, with the latter, deeply into the vitreous humour.

It is deemed of great importance to lacerate the front layer of the capsule in the operation; because this plan renders the subsequent absorption of the opaque lens more certain and quick.

When the case is a *fluid* or *milky* one, the contents of the capsule flow out as soon as the little membranous sac is pierced with the needle, and they sometimes completely conceal the iris, the pupil, and the instrument from the operator's view. The object now is to lacerate the capsule as much as possible.

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When the cataract is *soft*, the particles of which it is composed will frequently elude all efforts made with the needle to depress them. This, however, is quite unnecessary. The operator may either be content with a free laceration, and disturbance of them, or he may imitate Scarpa in pushing the fragments of the capsule, and the particles of caseous matter, into the anterior chamber, where absorption is observed to be carried on with more vigour, than behind the pupil.

When the case is a *secondary membranous* cataract, the surgeon is to turn the point of the needle cautiously towards the pupil, and pierce the opaque capsule. This is to be broken, as far as it is practicable, at every point of its circumference, and the fragments may either be left in their situation, or pushed forward through the pupil into the anterior chamber.

When the capsule is adherent to the iris, it may often be separated by skilful and delicate movements of the needle.

If the operator should prefer the straight needle, he must be careful to depress the cataract a little in the first instance, before making any attempt to place the instrument in front of the cataract, in order to be able to depress it downward and backward, in the most convenient manner.

In the extraction of the cataract, by dividing the cornea, the knife should be so constructed as to increase gradually in thickness from the point to the handle; by which means, as Mr. Ware has observed, the aqueous humour will be prevented from escaping before the section is begun downwards; for when the aqueous humour escapes prematurely, the accident causes the iris to fall forward beneath the edge of the knife, and be wounded.

The patient is to sit in a low chair, and not in too strong a light, as this makes the pupil contract too much. The sound eye is to be covered with a compress. An assistant is gently to raise the upper eyelid with his fore and middle fingers, and he is to press the tarsus against the upper edge of the orbit. The operator should be seated a little higher than the patient, resting his right foot on a stool, in order that his knee may be raised high enough to support the elbow. The knife is to be held like a writing pen, and the little finger of the hand is to rest steadily on the outside of the cheek.

When the eye is still, and so turned towards the outer angle that the inner and inferior part of the cornea can be distinctly seen, the operator is to plunge the knife into the upper and outer part of this tunic, at the distance of a quarter of a line from the sclerotic, and a little above the transverse diameter of the cornea.

The blade of the knife is now to be pressed slowly downwards, till it has cut its way out, and divided a little more than half of the circle of the cornea.

The incision of the cornea being accomplished, the next object is to divide the anterior layer of the capsule of the crystalline lens, in order to allow the opaque lens itself to escape. Wenzel used to puncture the capsule with the point of the knife, at the same time that he was dividing the cornea.

In general, the exit of the opaque lens very readily follows the division of its capsule, as soon as gentle pressure is made on the eye. If any fragments of opaque matter remain behind, they are usually taken away by an instrument resembling a minute spoon, termed a *curette*.

A very small pair of forceps is commonly employed for extracting the capsule itself, when deprived of its natural transparency.

OF THE BACK.

The bones of the spine are liable to fractures from blows, and to dislocations from falls. Superficial fractures of the vertebræ may be felt with the finger. Fractures of the more deeply situated parts of the vertebræ can hardly be detected with certainty; for the parts themselves cannot be examined and the various symptoms which usually occur, are not calculated to dispel all doubt, inasmuch as they may originate from a simple concussion of the spinal marrow. A blow,

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which has not been violent enough to break the vertebræ, may be sufficiently powerful to cause either a very dangerous commotion of the delicate production which they contain, or an effusion of blood within the theca, or the substance of the medullary matter itself. Some surgeons have cut through the skin and muscles, and raised a portion of the ring of the vertebræ, by means of Hey's saw, but the practice has been attended with no success; all that our art can do, is to keep down inflammation, by general treatment, and trust the rest to nature.

Dislocations of the vertebræ, when complete, are always fatal, and when higher than the origin of the phrenic nerve, immediately so. The danger is always proportionate to the height at which the column is dislocated. Persons with dislocation low down, live sometimes for a considerable period.

The spine is frequently diseased either in its osseous, ligamentous, or muscular structure, so that it does not properly support the superincumbent weight of the cranium; and consequently bending in various directions, deforms the whole trunk of the body, or, by its pressure on the spinal marrow, causes palsy of the limbs.

Children who grow fast, and otherwise are of a feeble constitution, especially if they live in great towns, and do not take much exercise, are liable to slight distortions of the spine: it is observed, that one of their shoulders is higher than the other. If they are removed into the country, induced to take exercise, bathed occasionally, and when they are fatigued, instead of being allowed to sit down, directed to take rest by lying on their backs, a cure may be soon effected. These measures should not be neglected, because, though many children outgrow these slight deformities, so great is the misery the disease inflicts, if it becomes established, that such an event should never be trusted to chance.

Curvature of the spine has often a deeper and more irremediable source. A caries of the bones, or ulceration of the intervertebral cartilages too often produce it.

The first symptom which engages the attention, in these cases, is palsy of the limbs—a palsy, however, in which the limbs are not flabby and relaxed, but permanently contracted or extended.—This symptom cannot, of course, exist until the disease of the skin has continued some time, and permanent disorganization is established. Unfortunately, the preceding or preliminary symptoms are very obscure. Mr. Brodie says, there is pain, and some tenderness over the affected vertebra, uneasiness at the pit of the stomach, and in the abdomen generally, with disturbance in the functions of that cavity, weakness, aching, and occasional cramp in the muscles of the leg.—These, however, are of course, symptoms that must rather follow some degree of irritation of the spinal marrow, than precede it. Pott states that lassitude, a sense of coldness in the thighs, and dull pain in the loins precede, with adults, the attack; and that in children, the coming of the disease may be foretold by the coming on of an incapacity of using the limbs steadily or with precision. The little patient being apt to totter, or to cross the legs involuntarily, when walking.

There does not appear to be any difference in the symptoms, whether the curvature be produced by caries of the bone, or supuration of the cartilages,—the former sort of disorganization is said, however, to advance more rapidly than the latter, but not to produce such extensive mischief. The disease, except when it arises from accident, which, however, is its rarest source, is mostly traceable to a disordered state of the general health, and especially to scrofula.

As to the treatment of curvatures of this kind, they are resolvable into three principles:—To improve the constitutional disorder which has given rise to the disease—to prevent the weight of the head from pressing down, and thereby still further distorting the spine—to promote ankylosis of the diseased vertebræ. The first indication would, of course, be best promoted by air and exercise. Unfortunately, active exercise, cannot be taken, or even attempted, on account of the state of the spine. A removal into good air is, however, one great step towards improving the general health, and passive exercise may be pushed to any extent. The second end may be

effected by placing the patient on his back, or on an inclined plane, and regulating its inclination by the severity of the disease. It is clear, that by means of machinery, a plane of this kind may be moved in any required direction, and with as much velocity as may be desirable. To the two great purposes of securing rest to the diseased parts, and improvement to the general health, there are still to be added the use of some agents which seem to expedite the cure. Thus issues, or moxa, applied to the back, on the sides of the spines of the vertebræ are very useful. Formerly these were entirely depended on; at present their use is confined to keeping down, by their counter-irritation, the inflammatory action of the bone or cartilage until the general treatment has had time to take effect.

Spina bifida is a swelling situated on the spines of infants, commonly on the lumbar vertebræ, occasionally on the dorsal, or cervical ones, and sometimes, though less frequently, on the os sacrum: it is filled with a limpid fluid, and arises from an imperfection of the bones, and a protrusion of the membranous lining of the spinal canal.

In spina bifida, the swelling is soft, and gradually diminishes, or even quite disappears on pressure; but, the tumour returns immediately the pressure is removed. The fluctuation of a fluid is distinctly perceptible to the touch. The integuments retain their natural colour and appearance. However, the children seem to experience pain, when the tumour is compressed, or when they are placed on their backs. The size of the swelling is very various.

The generality of children affected with spina bifida, are deficient in strength and vigour, and are subject to frequent diarrhœa. Some cannot retain their urine and fœces. A weakness and emaciation are often particularly observable in the lower extremities, which, indeed, are sometimes almost paralytic. Though most cases agree with this account, some children are, in every respect, except the tumour, perfectly healthy, and well formed.

The swelling consists of a sac, filled with an aqueous fluid, and composed of the integuments, and of the membranous sheath, which lines the canal for the spinal marrow. The lining of the spinal canal protrudes through a fissure in the vertebræ. This fissure is owing to an imperfect formation of these bones, and is commonly found at their posterior part, where the spinous processes would otherwise be. The preternatural opening is sometimes confined to one bone, and then the swelling often has a small base. In many instances, several vertebræ have not their ossification completed behind, so that the canal for the spinal marrow resembles an open furrow. Even the whole spine, from one end to the other, has been found thus imperfect.

The sac is commonly filled with a clear, transparent fluid; but, occasionally, it is turbid, yellowish, and bloody. The portion of the spinal marrow, surrounded by the fluid, is generally softened, and almost like mucus, or thin matter.

Children afflicted with this disease, seldom live longer than a year after birth; but are observed to live longest when the swelling is remote from the head. The instances of persons attaining a middle age with this disorder, are rare, and they have mostly had their lower extremities in a paralytic, useless state.

Experience has fully proved, that puncturing the tumour with a lancet, and thus discharging the fluid, either at once, or gradually, cannot be done without putting the patient in the greatest danger, the consequences being for the most part fatal in a very short space of time. Some years ago, Mr. Abernethy suggested the method of letting out the fluid, of closing and healing the puncture immediately afterwards, and repeating the same proceedings, as often as necessary.

Sir Astley Cooper tried the effect of thus puncturing spina bifida, but he did it with a fine pointed needle, instead of a lancet, and promoted a closure of the opening in the spine, by applying a compress and bandage. In one case he thus accomplished a perfect cure.

The region of the loins is liable to the formation of a very large abscess, called the psoas abscess, from its situation over that muscle. In the beginning, this disease is not, in general,

general, attended with any symptoms of acute pain and inflammation, nor with any febrile disturbance of the constitution. There is only a dull uneasiness in the region of the loins. The matter is formed slowly, and imperceptibly, and occasions, at first, no manifest swelling, nor fluctuation, and no material symptom whatever, excepting the uneasiness in the loins, and a slight weakness of the thigh and leg on the affected side.

The outward swelling, at length occurring, may take place in various situations. For the most part, the matter descends by its own gravity, in the course of the psoas muscle, passes forward under Poupart's ligament, and occasions an external, fluctuating tumour, quite free from pain and inflammation. The exemption from the latter circumstance is a clear indication, that the matter is not originally formed at the place where it first makes its appearance. The enlargement of the swelling, when the patient draws in his breath; its diminution in an horizontal posture, and on pressure being made; and lastly, the fluctuation perceptible to the surgeon's fingers, when the patient coughs, are circumstances which, combined with the other preceding complaints, clearly evince the nature of the case.

The swelling in the groin seldom becomes exceedingly large, because the matter in general soon insinuates itself beneath the femoral fascia. In some instances, it descends as far as the knee, and forms there a prominent swelling. Sometimes it makes its way downward, into the pelvis, and occasions a swelling in the neighbourhood of the anus. Sometimes it tends towards the loins and sacrum, giving rise to a swelling exactly in the place where abscesses often make their appearance in the disease of the hip joint. In a few instances, the matter causes a swelling in the vicinity of the vertebræ; and, less frequently still, it makes its way through the abdominal muscles, and occasions a tumour at some part of the abdomen.

The disease, even before it bursts, or is opened, is frequently attended with loss of appetite, weakness, nocturnal sweats, and other hectic complaints.

Lumbar abscesses are sometimes attended with a carious state of the vertebræ.

Experience shows, that, when a psoas abscess is opened in the common manner, death in general follows sooner than when the swelling is allowed to burst of itself. The formation of a large opening, but particularly the aperture being afterwards left unclosed, causes an inflammatory affection of the whole cyst of the abscess, and the most violent description of constitutional disturbance. The discharge is profuse, thin, and fetid. The patient's pulse becomes small, rapid, and irregular; copious perspirations, unremitting diarrhoea, and even delirium, ensue, and death very commonly closes the scene.

Mr. Abernethy's method, which is that universally followed, is to open the tumour with a broad abscess lancet, observing to introduce the instrument somewhat obliquely. Such an opening is generally sufficient for the discharge of the coagula, which are commonly blended with the contents of lumbar abscesses.

The abscess being completely emptied, the lips of the orifice are to be brought together by means of lint and sticking plaster, in the same way as after phlebotomy, and a compress and bandage are to be applied. The wound generally heals without trouble.

The matter of course collects again, and, regularly as it is secreted, descends to the lower part of the cyst, on which account the upper part of the cavity will remain a good while undistended, and have an opportunity of contracting. When the integuments are again sufficiently elevated to allow a puncture to be made, without hazard of wounding the subjacent parts, the abscess is to be emptied again, and the wound healed, in the manner above described. Thus the operation is to be repeated as often as may be necessary.

By this method, the cyst of the abscess, particularly its upper part, gradually unites.

OF THE LOWER EXTREMITY.

Of the Thigh.—The thigh may be dislocated upwards on the dorsum of the ilium; downwards on the foramen ovale, backwards and upwards or into the ischiatic notch, and forwards and upwards or upon the pubis. Dislocations downwards and backwards are improbable, though some have (through mistake perhaps) described them. Upwards—The bone is here shortened from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches, as we see by comparing the malleoli of each limb. The toe is turned inwards, resting against the tarsus of the opposite foot; the thigh cannot be drawn outwards, but may be brought over the other limb a little way, unless there is much tumefaction; we may feel the round head of the femur on the dorsum ilii, and when we roll the thigh bone inwards, we feel this head rolling also. The trochanter is not quite so distinct as in a natural state, but is placed nearer the anterior superior spine of the ilium; the natural curve of the hip is nearly lost, and the knee advances a little over its fellow. This accident is distinguished from fracture of the neck of the femur, by these marks. In fracture of the cervix femoris, the knee and foot are generally turned outwards; the trochanter drawn upwards and backwards on the dorsum ilii; the limb can, though with pain, be bent freely on the trunk, but above all, the limb can be pulled down to its original length, with a slight force, in which reduced state crepitus is felt on rotation, but when this force is removed, the deformity returns, and now crepitus on rotation is of course not perceived; the limb is shortened from one to two inches. Whether the cervix be fractured within or without the ligament, the position is the same. Fractures within the ligament rarely occur, but in the aged, and are effected by slight accidents. Fractures external to the capsule, occur at any period of life, and are easily detected, "if the limb be rotated, and the trochanter compressed with the hand." Dislocation of the hip may arise from disease, not violence; but here the history of the case is the safe guide. "The gradual progress of the symptoms, the pain in the knee, the apparent elongation at first, and real shortening afterwards; the capacity for motion, yet the pain given under the extremes of rotation, as well as of flexion and extension, are marks of difference which would strike the most careless observer." In this dislocation the pyriformis, glutei, triceps, pectineus, semitendinous semimembranosus, iliacus and one head of the biceps are shortened. The obturator externus is also shortened, but the obturator internus gemelli and quadratus are stretched. This accident happens when the patient falls, or receives a blow when the knee and foot are turned inwards. To reduce this dislocation (constitutional means, mentioned under the general head of dislocations, having been used) the patient is to lie on a table, between two strong posts, or on a floor with two rings fixed in it, about ten feet asunder; then a strong girth is to be passed between his pùendum and thigh, and fixed to one staple. A wet linen roller is put light round, just above the knee, and upon this a leather strap is buckled, "having two straps with rings at right angles with the circular part. The knee is to be slightly bent, but not to a right angle, and brought across the other thigh a little above the knee." The patient being thus adjusted, the pullies are slightly stretched, till pain is felt, then suffered to remain, then tightened, and so on. The surgeon, when he feels the bone approach the acetabulum, gently rotates the bone, which then slips into the socket, but seldom with a snap, when pullies are used. It is sometimes necessary to lift the bone, by placing the arm or a napkin under it close to the joint, and raising the head over the edge of the acetabulum. The dislocation downwards into the thyroid hole, is marked by lengthening of the limb to the extent of two inches; the head of the femur is felt at the inner and upper part of the thigh in very thin persons; the trochanter major is not prominent; the body bent forwards by the iliacus and psoas; the knee advanced if the body be erect; the leg adducted to a great extent and incapable of being brought inwards, without great difficulty; and the feet, though widely separated, neither inverted nor turned out. The head
bone

of the bone is a little below, and anterior to the axis of the acetabulum, and there is a hollow below Poupart's ligament.

The dislocation happens when the thighs are widely separated from each other. The ligamentum teres is torn; together with the lower part of the capsule.

The reduction is effected by fixing the pelvis, by means of a circular belt passed round it, and fixed to some point on the sound side; another round the thigh, to which pullies must be applied, so as to make extension outwards and slightly upwards when he is on his back, or directly upwards when he is on his side. The circular belt must be passed within the femoral one. The large one reduces the bone, by bringing the dislocated leg across the sound one, taking care not to raise it much anteriorly, lest the head of the bone slip back into the ischiatic notch, fig. 2. In recent cases, if the patient be laid on a bed and drawn down till the bed-post be in contact with the ramus of the ishium, the drawing the legs across may then reduce the bone.

In the dislocation backwards, the head of the thigh bone is placed on the pyiformis, between the edge of the bone which forms the upper part of the ischiatic notch, and the sacro-sciatic ligaments behind the acetabulum, and a little above the level of the middle of that cavity. The distortion and reduction are both difficult. The limb is generally half but sometimes one inch shortened. The trochanter behind its usual place, but still nearly at right angles with the ilium, and slightly inclining to the acetabulum. In very thin persons, if the bone is rolled far forwards, we may feel the head in the ischiatic notch. The toe is turned inwards till it rests against the ball of the opposite great toe, which is much less inverted than we find in the dislocation upwards. In the standing posture the toe touches the ground; not so the heel; the knee is not so much advanced as in the dislocation upwards, and is slightly bent. The limb is fixed.

This accident happens when the trunk being bent on the thigh, or, vice versa, force is applied against the knee, the reduction is effected by fixing the pelvis and drawing down the thigh, as in dislocation on the dorsum ilii; but further, a napkin must be placed round the thigh. Traction being then made in such a direction that the dislocated femur crosses its fellow about its middle, the surgeon, by means of the napkin or a towel long enough to pass over the neck, lifts the head of the bone over the acetabulum while he presses the spine of the ilium; the patient being on his side.

Dislocation on the pubis happens from falling backwards, while the foot is prevented from sliding forwards, as when a man slips into a hole and falls back. The limb is shortened an inch, turned outwards, cannot be rotated inwards, but slight flexion forwards and outwards remains; the grand criterion, however, is to feel the head of the bone, or the fore part of the pubis above the level of Poupart's ligament and outside of the femoral artery and vein. The situation of the bone is as follows:—The crural nerve passes over the fore part of the neck, upon the psoas muscle, so that the head rests between the crural sheath, and anterior inferior spine of the ilium; bony deposits growing from the pubis surround the cervix of the bone. The feeling of the head on the pubis distinguishes this accident from fracture of the neck of the femur. It is thus reduced:—In the dislocation upwards, put one girth round the innominatum, one round the lower part of the thigh; but fix the first in a line before the axis of the body, and the other considerably behind it: when it is drawn some way down, raise the head over the pubis and edge of the acetabulum, by means of a napkin passed round the thigh. The patient, being in this, as in the last accident, laid on his side. Of these dislocations the proportions may be thus stated:—12 in 20 on the dorsum ilii, 5 in the ischiatic notch, 2 in the foramen ovale, and 1 on the pubis.

Fractures of os innominatum must be carefully distinguished from femoral dislocations, because pulling down the thigh does in the former accident create much mischief. When the acetabulum is broken, the head of the thigh is

drawn up and the toes inverted; the trochanter being forwards. If the os innominatum be disjoined from the sacrum, and the pubis and ischeum broken, the limb is shortened but not altered in its axis.

Fractures of the upper part of the femur, which are much more common accidents than dissolution, are of three kinds: 1. When the fracture happens through the neck of the bone entirely within the capsule. 2. When at the junction of the neck, and trochanter when it is external to the capsule, and 3. When the fracture is through the trochanter beyond this junction.—In the first, the leg is shortened from one to two inches; for the connection being destroyed between the head and trochanter, the latter is drawn up as far as the ligament will allow, and thus rests on the acetabulum or dorsum ilii above it; the retraction of the limb to its original position may be made by slight pulling; and this repeatedly, till the muscles acquire a fixed contraction, which happens in some hours. The limb is turned outward with rare exceptions, (Mr. Langstoff had a case where it was inverted), a circumstance which happens from the power of the strong rotators; not, as some have thought, from the mere weight of the limb, as may be inferred from the difficulty of rolling the limb inwards. Pain is felt on rotation inwards, opposite the insertion of the psoas and iliacus, or, sometimes below that point.

Though extension of the limb may be made, flexion is difficult and highly painful, at least in the duration forwards and inward; outwards it is not so bad. In this accident the trochanter being drawn upwards on the ilium with the broken cervix nearer the spine of the ilium, the trochanter projects less on the injured side. Indeed it is much concealed till the wasting of the muscles allows it to be felt. In the patient he put in the erect position the shortening of the limb, smallness of the trochanter, eversion of the limb are rendered more apparent, and if directed to stand on his injured thigh the first attempt is attended with much pain, and there will be more or less projection of the trochanter. Crepitus is only felt when the limb is pulled down either by force or its own weight.

The horizontal portion of their cervix femoris, and the feebleness of their constitution, render women more liable to this accident than men. Weakness of the bones in the aged render them also liable to this fracture; hence it rarely occurs under fifty.

“For from the different state of the bone, the same violence which would produce dislocation in the adult, occasions fracture in old age.” Very slight injuries cause this accident. A person slipping from an elevated pavement, slips down on the carriage-way only a few inches in descent, and the muscles being off their guard, fracture takes place.

A frequent cause is a slight fall upon the trochanter. The bone thus broken never has been known to unite by bony union, but the possibility may be allowed, for there may be fracture through the head, which does not separate the fractured ends, or the bone may be broken without its periosteum, and the reflected ligament torn, or it may be broken obliquely; partly within and partly without the capsular ligament. The first cause why union does not regularly happen, is want of apposition in the fractured surface—this being prevented by those powerful muscles which pass from the pelvis to the thigh. The next reason is the want of pressure between the two broken surfaces, even when the length of the bone is preserved; for if the capsule be unbroken, it will be distended by synovia, and this distension will prevent the due apposition of the broken pieces. And when this fluid becomes absorbed, the inflammatory process has ceased, and ligamentous matter has been secreted. But the third and chief reason of want of union, seems to be, that the ossific action cannot take place from the inner fractured portion, because it receives blood only from the vessels of the ligamentum teres. Naturally the head and neck are supplied with blood by the periosteum of the cervix and reflected membrane which covers it, and so when these are torn, we find no ossific, but merely a ligamentous deposit

at the extremity of the fracture. On dissection, we find the ligamentum teres holding the head in the cavity, and upon this small white spots covered with the articular cartilage. The cervix broken transversely or obliquely; the cancellated structure of the inner portion hollowed or rendered smooth by the pressure of the extended pieces of the cervix. "The cancella are rendered firm and smooth by friction, as we see in other bones which rub upon each other when their articular surfaces are absorbed, giving the surface the appearance of ivory. Loose portions of bone covered with ligamentous matter are formed on the joint. When, however, these excite no inflammation, the external portion of the head of the bone is much absorbed, its surface is yellow, and bearing the character of ivory. Some ossific deposition often takes place round the trochanter cervix and even shaft of the bone. The capsular ligament is thickened, and the synovial membrane covering it, as well as the portion which covers the external cervix, is also very much thickened. Serous synovia is secreted in abundance, and flakes of ligamentous matter are seen proceeding from the synovial surface and uniting it with the edge of the head of the bone. The membrane separating from the cervix sometimes forms a bond of connection between this part and the inner fractured portion, and bands of ligamentous matter passing from one end of the fracture to the other, an union by ligament ensues. The head becomes lighter and more spongy than ordinary when macerated, except its smooth ivory surface."

The same want of union takes place in fractures of the condyles of the humeri and the coronoid process of the ulna within the capsule. In experiments on rabbits and dogs, it was found that union did not take place when the fracture was made within the capsule, but if it was across the cervix, in part within and part without the capsule, union took place (but then apposition was of course maintained, which could not be done in the other cases). This accident is distinguished from dislocation on the dorsum ilii or in the ischiatic notch, by the eversion of the limb, and from the dislocation forwards on the pubes, by the absence of the head under Poupart's ligament—from all these by the mobility of the limb. It is distinguished from fractures external to the capsule by its occurring at a very advanced age, by the limb being considerably shortened, by the absence of crepitus if the limb be not drawn down and rotated, by the slight causes which induce it, and by the absence of much constitutional irritation. To produce union these plans have been used.—First, a double inclined plane has been placed under the limb, by which means it has effectually stretched to the proper length, and a broad bandage thrown round the pelvis to keep the fractured portions in apposition. Secondly, a broad board has been fixed to the foot of the bed, and the sound leg rested against it to prevent the descent of the body. A cord was then put through a hole in the board with one end tied to a weight, and the other by bandage to the diseased foot, and thus gradual extension was maintained. Thirdly, both limbs have been extended and tied together with a roller, or an iron plate may be appended to the sole of the shoe on the sound foot, and by means of a screw through it, a bandage round the knit limb may be tightened *ad libitum*. Boyer's splint, which has been used for the same purpose, is hurtful, on account of the pressure of its band on the inner and upper part of the thigh. Mr. Amesbury's apparatus is doubtless the best that has been contrived, but, hitherto, it has not been applied to any case with success.—Union takes place when the head only is broken, so that the cervix remains in the acetabulum, or when the periosteum is unbroken, and in neither of these cases is the bone much drawn up. The limb should be kept extended for ten days or a fortnight, and then the patient may rise and sit in a high chair. A patient with the aid of crutches or a stick, may recover so far as to walk with a little sinking on the affected side. The accident is sometimes fatal on exhausted frames. Lameness is sure to follow, but the degree is various.

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Fracture of the cervix external to the capsule.—This fracture, like the former, has the leg shortened and everted—has pain at the hip and on the inner and upper part of the thigh, and the joint loses its soundness; but it is thus distinguished. 1st. It happens in the young and in the old till under 60. 2dly. It requires much severer force to effect it, as violent blows, falls from a great height, or the passage of heavy weights over the pelvis. 3dly. It is attended by crepitus when we rotate the limb, even when we do not draw it down. 4thly. There is much severer pain, especially on motion, the thigh and leg are swelled, and there is an high degree of irritative fever—recovery is tardy. The limb is not shortened so much as in the accident before noticed, rarely more than an inch; but this, of course, is subject to variation, according to the obliquity of the fracture and the degree of laceration in the muscular parts. On dissection, the fracture has various situations, but most commonly it is at the *root* of the neck of the femur.

Fracture through the trochanter, without injury of the cervix, occurs at any period of life.—Symptoms. The leg is very little or not at all shortened; the broken part of the bone sometimes is drawn forwards towards the ilium, sometimes it falls towards the outer ischium. The portions are, however, widely separated; the patient cannot sit; the foot is extremely everted; crepitus is with difficulty discovered by rotation. It unites firmly and quickly.

Fractures below the trochanter.—The iliacus internus and psoas magnus, as well as the pectinalis and top of the triceps, draw up the fractured portion of the bone in this accident to near a right angle with the body. If pressure be made on this fractured portion, it only adds to the pain of the sufferer, without at all depressing the bone. To prevent horrid distortion, the knee should be elevated very much over the double inclined plane, and the patient placed, well supported by pillows in the sitting position. Then the common splints may be used, or, what is better, a strong leather belt should be buckled round the limb.

Fractures of the patella are almost always transverse; seldom oblique; and still more rarely longitudinal, or perpendicular. The bone, however, is sometimes broken into three or four pieces.

There is no difficulty in ascertaining the existence of a transverse fracture of the patella. When the patient is standing up at the period when the force of the muscles breaks the bone, the subsequent fall is a consequence of the accident. In this case, as well as in the example in which the bone is broken by the fall itself, the patient cannot get up without succour; and if, when he is put upon his legs, he endeavour to walk a few paces forwards, he falls down again. But, if he be assisted with an arm, and keep his limb straight, he may hobble along a good way, drawing the member after him, and meet with no other fall, especially, if the ground be not too irregular. The transverse division of the bone, and the interspace between the two fragments, can be plainly distinguished under the integuments. Instead of the prominence of the patella in front of the knee, a flatness or even a depression may be remarked. When the leg is extended and the thigh bent, the two pieces of bone are brought near together again, and a very little pressure will then suffice for putting them in contact with each other. When this has been done, if they be moved laterally in opposite directions, they will rub against each other, and a crepitus be felt.

Fractures of the patella are very rarely united by bone, the connecting medium being in almost all cases a fibrous ligamentous substance. The possibility of a bony union, however, is admitted.

For the cure of fractures of the patella, Boyer employed a very simple, but effectual apparatus. It consists of a hollow wooden splint, long enough to reach from the middle of the thigh to below the calf, sufficiently deep to embrace two-thirds of the thickness of the limb; broader above, than below; and lined with wool, or other soft materials. On the outside of the edges of this splint, little round-headed pegs,

or nails, are arranged, the use of which is for fixing the straps, which serve for holding the fragments of the bone in a state of approximation. These straps are two in number, rather more than an inch wide, and about seven inches long. Their middle portions are quilted with wool, covered with chamois, and made of softer leather than their extremities, which are of calf-leather, and furnished with holes placed at the distance of about a quarter of an inch from each other. The limb is to be placed in the concavity of the splint, the ham occupying its middle; and the empty spaces, left between the limb and the apparatus, are to be nicely filled up with soft tow. Then, while an assistant presses the pieces of bone together, the straps are to be applied in such a way, that the one which lies above the upper fragment of bone, is to be fastened to two of the pegs lower down; and that which crosses immediately under the lower fragment is to be fastened to two pegs situated higher up. By this contrivance, the straps, the ends of which cross each other, leave between them a transverse space, in which is comprehended the broken patella. Any resolvent lotion may now be applied to the injured part; and, lastly, the limb is secured in the splint by means of a roller, or four or five pieces of broad tape, doubled, and tied over one side of the wood.

Boyer generally enjoins his patients not to begin to bend their knees earlier than two months after the accident.

Dislocations of the patella happen either upwards, when the ligament that attaches this bone to the tibia, is ruptured, or to the side; the second kind of dislocations are far more frequent than the first, and the displacement is oftener to the outer than to the inner side of the limbs. External force is a common cause of all these accidents; but the bone is often displaced outwards, by the action of the muscles in bandy-legged people.

In the dislocation outwards, which is the most common, the leg is extended, and cannot be bent without seriously increasing the pain, which the patient already suffers; the inner margin of the articular pulley, off which the patella has slipped, can be plainly felt under the skin; over the outer part of the same pulley, the patella itself forms a remarkable swelling, and the outer edge of this bone is quite perceptible. Were the luxation complete, the extended position of the leg, the depression in the natural situation of the bone, the facility of distinguishing the articular pulley, and the tumour caused by the luxated bone itself upon the side of the outer condyle, would leave no chance of mistaking the nature of the accident.

A dislocation inwards may happen, when an external force propels the outer edge of the patella in this direction: but, the case is hardly ever complete. The patella forms a considerable prominence upon the internal condyle; its front surface is inclined outwards, and its posterior one inwards; while its outer edge is turned backwards, and its inner one forwards. In the depression observable in the situation, from which the patella is removed, the outer condyle may be plainly felt with the finger. The leg is extended, and an attempt to bend the knee produces a great increase of pain. To reduce these dislocations, the surgeon having fully relaxed the exterior of the leg, by raising the heel until it forms a right angle with the pelvis, presses down that edge of the patella which is most remote from the joint, whether the luxation be outwards, or inwards. This pressure raises the inner edge of the bone over the condyle of the femur, and the patella is immediately drawn into its natural situation by the muscles.

Of fractures of the leg.—The cases in which both bones of the leg are broken together, are more frequent than those, in which only one of them is fractured. When the two bones are broken, the solutions of continuity are sometimes parallel; sometimes at different heights. The direction of the fracture of each bone is also subject to variety, in some cases being transverse, which is most common in children; in other instances, being oblique; and, what is remarkable, the obliquity of fractures of the tibia has something determinate about it, usually extending from below upwards, and from

within outwards, so that the end of the upper fragment is generally manifest below the integuments at the front and internal part of the leg. Lastly, either of the bones may be broken in several places, and the soft parts more or less contused, or lacerated, either by the ends of the broken bone, or the same force which occasioned the fracture itself.

Cases in which the two bones are broken, are frequently the consequence of falls upon the feet, and then the fracture is mostly oblique, and that of the tibia happens a little below its middle portion. However, when the tibia gives way at this point, it often happens, that the fibula breaks towards one of its extremities. As the tibia alone sustains the weight of the body, it is evident, that when both bones are broken by a force, which acts perpendicularly, the tibia gives way first, its fragments are displaced, and the force continuing to operate, then bends the fibula, the fracture of which is subsequent to that of the other bone. Both bones of the leg may also be fractured by violence applied directly to the seat of the injury, as when the wheel of a carriage passes over the limb, while this is extended on the ground, or a heavy body falls upon the member.

In fractures of the leg, the displacement of the fragments depends upon the direction of the division of the bones, and the nature of the cause of the injury. When the fracture is transverse, the displacement can only take place in the diameter of the fragments, particularly when the injury is situated high up, where the surfaces of the broken part of the tibia, which are applied together, are large. In fractures of both bones of the leg, however, it is remarked, that the ends of the bone seldom remain long in their natural situation; even when their surfaces are broad, and the solution of continuity is transverse, because every movement of the limb has a tendency to produce displacement. When the fracture is oblique, and has been produced by a fall on the foot, the ends of the fracture must inevitably pass beyond each other. In the majority of instances, the end of the upper piece of bone presents under the integuments of the shin a sharpish point directed downwards and inwards; while the extremity of the lower portion is drawn backwards and outwards by the muscles of the calf. However, notwithstanding the obliquity of the surfaces of the fracture, and the tendency to displacement necessarily resulting from it, experience proves, that these cases are never followed, as broken thighs are, by any subsequent increased shortening of the member, excepting where the tibia has been driven out through the skin.

The lower portions of the broken bones are also liable to a rotatory displacement; an inconvenience facilitated by the foot being naturally turned outwards, and the greater portion of its mass and weight being external to the axis of the limb.

Fractures of both bones of the leg are readily ascertained; for the slightest deformity is obvious along the sharp ridge termed the spine of the tibia, as well as upon its anterior flat surface, usually called the shin. The gentlest movement of the member will also produce a very plain crepitus.

Dislocations of the tibia happen either forwards, backwards or to one side. In the first case, according to Sir A. Cooper, while the tibia projects forwards, the thigh-bone is depressed and thrown somewhat laterally as well as backwards; the pulsation of the popliteal artery is stopped by the pressure of the condyles of the femur, and the tibia and patella are both turned forwards.—The dislocation backwards (a rare accident) is marked by depression of the patella, projection of the condyles of the femur and flexion of the leg *forwards*, according to Sir A. Cooper; *backwards* according to Heister.—Lateral dislocations, though commoner than the preceding, are nevertheless rare, and they are always incomplete; for in the dislocation inwards, the inner condyle of the femur is merely thrown into the external articular cartilage, so as to leave the the head of the tibia projected half way towards its fellow; and in the dislocation, outwards, the outer condyle is thrown on the inner cartilage: in both these cases, according to Sir A. Cooper, the femur is somewhat twisted on the tibia, so that

that its outer condyle in dislocations inwards and its inner condyle in dislocation outwards are turned backwards as well as sideways. These accidents are all to be reduced by a very obvious process—namely, extension and pressure in that direction that will replace the bones. There are partial or subluxations in this situation which are troublesome to recognize or reduce. The limb can be bent or straightened by the surgeon without creating much pain, but the patient has not himself a perfect command of it. It should be bent and extended, and then sometimes turned inwards, sometimes outwards, and, by a little management of this kind, may often, but not always, be reduced. The fibula is rarely dislocated from the top of the tibia by violence, but sometimes from relaxation. It is in either case easily replaced, but requires a long continued support to retain it in its situation.

Accidents about the ankle joint.—The lower end of the tibia may be displaced backwards, forwards, or to either side. The dislocation of this bone inwards, is the commonest. Here the inner malleolus violently stretches, and often bursts the skin; the ligaments connecting it with the astragalus are torn, and the fibula necessarily broken, a fracture which takes place about two or three inches from its lower articulation. The foot is everted and turned upwards. The reduction is effected by bending the leg on the thigh, which relaxes the muscles producing distortion; by extension in a slight degree; and by lateral pressure. The retention of the bone in its situation, is effected by splints and by a foot-board, to which the foot should be laced.—In dislocation outwards, the inner malleolus is necessarily broken from the tibia, either directly or by a fracture which involves the centre of the bone and passes into the midst of its articulation with the astragalus. Even the astragalus may be broken; and unless the fibula itself be broken, the external lateral ligament must be torn. Here again reduction must be effected by relaxing the muscles of the calf, by bending the leg on the thigh, and gently extending the leg. Then if we press the tibia inwards, the bone may be restored to its place, and a splint with a foot-board attached, will secure it in its proper station. The foot-board should be raised at the part next the toes, in order to prevent the leg-bones slipping from their articulation.—The complete dislocations of the tibia forwards, cannot occur until the outer and inner malleoli are broken; then the tibia is thrown forwards in the navicular and internal cruciform bones, and the heel, abandoned to the action of the gastrocnemii, is accordingly drawn behind the bones of the leg, and the toes necessarily turned downwards. The reduction is here very difficult, and the retention of the displaced bones, in situ still more so. Extension and the bending the toes upwards, are the obvious means to be employed for reduction, and our apparatus must be so arranged as to keep the heel supported forwards, the leg retained in its due place backwards, and their apposition secured by properly raising the metatarsus.—There is also a partial dislocation of the tibia forwards, that has been occasionally met with. In this the tibia rests in part of the navicular bone, whilst its other half remains attached to the astragalus; the fibula is of course broken, the leg altogether seems a little shortened, and the toes are turned downwards, and are stiff. This accident, easily rectified in its early stages, produces so perfect a change in the state of the joint and the muscles, that, when long established, no efforts for its relief can be effectual. The appearance of a dislocation of the tibia backwards and its treatment, are obvious, but it is the rarest of these rare accidents—so much so, that Sir A. Cooper has never seen a case of the kind.—The astragalus is sometimes dislocated; and so difficult is this bone of replacement, that surgeons have been usually content either to advise its entire removal, or to allow it to remain unreduced. It has, however, been reduced thus:—In a dislocation inwards, the knee was fixed; the foot straightened to a line with the leg, the toes forcibly bent outwards, and the astragalus pressed inwards: an entirely opposite case was similarly successful, simply by bending the toes in the opposite direction. Other dislocations of the tarsus produce no very serious

deformities, and those of the phalanges are easy of reduction.

The arteries of the lower extremity require to be tied for aneurism or injury, in various situations. The tying of the internal iliac is thus described by Mr. Steevens, the first who performed it:—

“An incision about five inches in length, was made on the left side, in the lower and lateral part of the abdomen, parallel with the epigastric artery; and nearly half an inch on the outer side of it. The skin, the superficial fascia, and the three thin abdominal muscles were successively divided; the peritoneum was separated from its loose connection with the iliacus internus and psoas magnus, it was then turned almost directly inwards, in a direction from the anterior superior spinous process of the ilium, to the division of the common iliac artery. In the cavity which I had now made I felt for the internal iliac, insinuated the point of my forefinger behind it, and then pressed the artery between my finger and thumb. I then passed a ligature behind the vessel, and tied it about half an inch from its origin. I found no difficulty in avoiding the ureter: when I turned the peritoneum inwards, the ureter followed it. Had it remained over the artery, I could easily have turned it aside with my finger. The woman did not complain of much pain, and I am certain she did not lose one ounce of blood.”

The external iliac.—The hairs being previously shaved from the part, begin the incision about an inch within, and rather below the anterior and superior spinous process of the ilium; continue it, in a semilunar form, in the direction of Poupart's ligament, for a little more than three inches, so as to make it terminate just above the external abdominal ring: this exposes the tendon of the external oblique muscle, which being divided to the same extent, and turned aside, lays bare the internal oblique, where it arises with the transversalis from the outer half of Poupart's ligament. With your finger, or the handle of the scalpel, turn up the borders of these muscles, and the spermatic cord becomes exposed; pass your finger behind it, push the peritoneum upwards, and you feel the artery with the vein on its inner side; they are closely connected by cellular membrane, and must be carefully separated with the handle of the scalpel, or a blunt probe. After having cut through the tendon of the external oblique, be careful to use the knife as little as possible, lest you wound the epigastric artery, which is generally situated near the inner extremity of your incision, crossing behind the spermatic cord.

The femoral artery in the groin.—The patient being placed on his back, separate the thigh to be operated on from the other, and let the leg hang over the edge of the table; this renders the artery more superficial, by putting the integuments and sartorius muscle on the stretch. Begin the incision half inch below the middle of Poupart's ligament; continue it downwards for three inches, inclining it slightly to the inner side of the thigh, taking care to avoid the saphena vein, which is rather superficially seated, and nearly over the artery. Having cut through the integuments, fat, aponeurosis, and fascia lata, you come to the sheath of the vessels. This being cautiously opened, as in the last operation, exposes the artery, which has the vein on its inner side, but separated from it by a process of the sheath: the anterior crural nerve not included in the sheath, is a little to its outer side.

The femoral artery in the thigh.—Put the sartorius in action by placing the leg in the tailor's position; then make an incision, three inches in length, rather above the middle of the thigh, in the oblique direction of the muscle, and on its inner edge: continue it through the integuments and fat, till the border of the muscle is exposed. Observe the direction of the fibres to ascertain that you have not come upon the vastus; then elevate the sartorius, drawing it a little outwards, which brings the femoral sheath into view; open this with care by a small incision, and then dilate it by cutting from within outwards; this exposes the artery, which has the vein rather behind and to its outer side.

The posterior tibial.—A little below the middle of the leg, begin

begin an incision on the inner edge of the gastrocnemius; continue it obliquely for three inches in the direction of that muscle, so as to separate it from those beneath; elevate it with the upper part of the tendo Achillis, and on the first division of the muscle beneath, you find the artery with the nerve rather behind and to its outer side, and an accompanying vein on each side.

Peroneal.—Let the incision be three inches long, parallel with the fibula, but behind its outer edge; a few muscular fibres will require to be divided; the artery may then be felt by passing the finger across the bone to its posterior and inner border, where it is situated; as it is small and deeply seated, there will be some difficulty in passing the ligature.

The anterior tibial.—Begin an incision rather below the middle of the tibia on its outer edge; continue it upwards and outwards, for three inches, in the direction of the interspace of the tibialis anticus, and extensor longus digitorum muscles; cut through the fascia to the same extent, then separate the muscles, between which, on the interosseus ligament, you find the artery, having before it a branch of the peroneal nerve, and an accompanying vein on each side. These arteries, like the smaller of the upper extremity, require, when wounded, to be secured by two ligatures.

OF THE UPPER EXTREMITY.

The arteries of the upper extremity require to be tied for aneurisms, in operations, or for great wounds. To tie the arteria innominata, make an incision from the middle of the upper edge of the first bone of the sternum obliquely upwards, along the inner margin of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus muscle, about three inches; the muscular fibres of the sterno-hyoid and sterno-thyroideus being now divided, the finger may be passed under the sternum to where the artery may be felt lying on the fore-part and right side of the trachea.—There is great difficulty in passing the ligature round the vessel.

The subclavian above the clavicle.—Mr. Hodgson has given the following rules for performing this operation:—

“The patient being seated in a chair, or placed upon a table, in a horizontal position, with the shoulder of the diseased side drawn downwards as much as possible, the operator divides the skin immediately above the clavicle, from the external margin of the clavicular portion of the mastoid muscle, to the margin of the clavicular insertion of the trapezius. The edges of this incision being separated, the platysma myoides will be exposed, and its fibres are to be cut through, so as to avoid wounding the external jugular vein, which will be found immediately under them, near to the middle of the incision. When this vein is discovered, it is to be detached from the surrounding parts, and drawn towards the shoulder with a blunt hook. The operator then divides with his knife, or separates with his finger, the cellular membrane in the middle of the wound, until he arrives at the acromial margin of the anterior scalenus muscle. He passes his finger down the margin of this muscle, until he reaches the part where it arises from the first rib, and in the angle formed by the origin of the muscle from the rib he will feel the artery. The ligature is now to be passed underneath the artery, either with a common aneurism-needle, or that recommended by Desault.”

The subclavian below the clavicle.—Put the pectoral muscle on the stretch by raising the arm and extending it backwards; then observe the depression formed by the junction of its clavicular with its sternal portion, the direction of which must be the course of the incision. Begin it half an inch from the sternal extremity of the clavicle, and continue it through the integuments for three inches in the above direction; separate the two portions of muscle from each other exactly in the course of its fibres, then bring the arm to the side, which, by allowing of a wider separation, exposes more readily the parts beneath; at exactly one third of the length of the clavicle from its sternal extremity, you find

the vein which is situated directly anterior to the artery, often concealed by fat and cellular membrane. To avoid wounding the vein, the greatest care is requisite.

The axillary artery.—The part being shaved, or the hairs cut closely off with a pair of scissors, place the patient on his side, and let the arm be raised up by an assistant; then feel in the axilla for the head of the bone, which is thus lowered by the position of the arm; over it make an incision, in the direction of the limb, three inches long, the middle part of which should be exactly over the head of the bone; this will expose a part of the axillary plexus, behind the largest nerve of which, the median, the artery will be found: the vein passes rather below the artery at this part.

The brachial.—Make an incision through the integuments two inches long on the inner edge of the biceps muscle: this first exposes the median nerve, which has the artery on its inner side between its two accompanying veins; the internal cutaneous nerve is situated on the inner side of the artery, diverging from it, as it descends in the arm.

The radial near the elbow joint.—In the axis of the angle formed by the two condyles of the os humeri, and the extensors and flexors of the hand, an incision is to be made through the integuments, commenced a little below the joint, and continued downwards for three inches. This exposes the fascia of the forearm, which is to be divided to the same extent; when the artery will be laid bare.

The radial.—Feel for the styloid process of the radius, at which point begin your incision; continue it through the integuments for two inches, in the direction of a line which, if continued, would pass between the condyles of the os humeri; the artery will be found superficially situated, having the tendon of the supinator radii longus muscle on its outer side.

The ulnar.—Feel for the pisiform bone, half an inch above which, and on the outer side of the flexor carpi ulnaris muscle, make a straight incision of two inches in extent through the integuments; cut through the fascia, an assistant drawing the internal edge of the wound to the inner side; dissect carefully by the side of the tendon, and you find the artery situated on the outer side of the nerve.

Of fractures and dislocations of the upper extremity. —The exposed situation, and natural slenderness of the clavicle, render it very liable to be broken, either at its middle, its sternal, or its scapular extremity. Its middle part, however, where its curvature is greatest, most frequently suffers.

Fractures of the clavicle, besides being oblique, or transverse, may be divided into two different kinds, according as they happen to be situated at some point between the coracoid process of the scapula and the sternal extremity of the clavicle; or more towards the scapular end of the bone.

The first case is most frequently the consequence of a fall upon the outer part of the shoulder, or upon the palm of the hand; for, anatomy teaches us, that the clavicle receives the impulse of every force, which is applied to the whole upper extremity. The second kind of fracture is generally produced by a blow directly on the part, and is attended with but a very trivial displacement of the fragments. On the contrary, in the former case, the displacement is very conspicuous; being caused by the weight of the arm, and the action of the pectoralis major and latissimus dorsi. Hence, the shoulder is depressed nearer to the trunk: the arm falls downwards and inwards; the inner end of the fracture is made to project partly by the action of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus, but chiefly by the external portion of the bone descending below it, the latter being displaced in the direction downwards, inwards, and forwards. In general, the fragments are still in contact, but, in such a manner, that the extremity of the outer piece touches only the lower side of the sternal portion.

The symptoms of a fracture of the clavicle are, pain at the injured part; all motion of the arm difficult, but not very painful; impossibility of raising the hand to the head; the arm hangs close to the side, and is rotated inwards; the shoulder

shoulder is lowered, and drawn towards the median line of the body; the head is inclined towards the injured shoulder; the patient supports the weight of his arm with the hand of the sound side; the internal fragment projects upwards and backwards; the external is situated below it, directed downwards and forwards; the natural position of the shoulder may be restored by taking hold of the upper part of the humerus, and carrying it upwards, backwards, and outwards, which manœuvre also puts the ends of the fracture in due contact, and sometimes produces a crepitus; lastly, the displacement returns immediately the arm is left unsupported.

Fractures of the middle or inner part of the clavicle are rarely united, without some degree of deformity being left; but those which happen towards the acromion are both more easily and more perfectly cured.

For this purpose, let a large pad be placed in the arm and well secured in its situation; let a bandage so broad, as effectually to enclose the elbow, be placed round the lower part of the humerus of the affected side, and over the opposite shoulder. When it is properly tightened, it will raise the shoulder, and, at the same time, it will employ the pad as a lever so as to pull the clavicle outwards. A few turns of the roller round the breast, may be used to steady the whole.

Fractures of the clavicle are much more common than dislocations. A dislocation can more readily happen at the sternal, than the scapular, extremity of the clavicle, on account of the greater degree of motion, which takes place in the former situation, and the weaker structure of the ligaments. When a dislocation happens at the sternum, the clavicle is usually thrown forward; sometimes, however, backward; in which event, the symptoms may be severe and even dangerous, on account of the pressure produced by the bone on the parts in the neck.

The dislocation of the sternal end of the clavicle forwards may arise from the sudden application of considerable force with a view of drawing back the shoulder, in which state the ligaments, and perhaps even a part of the lower tendon of the sterno-cleido-mastoideus muscle, are ruptured, and the inner head of the clavicle propelled forwards.

The luxation of the inner end of the clavicle forwards may also arise from a fall, in which the shoulder is forcibly driven backward.

The luxation of the inner end of the clavicle forwards is reduced in the following way:—the surgeon is to apply one hand to the inner and upper part of the arm, and the other to the external lower side of it above the elbow. The latter part is now to be inclined towards the trunk, while the upper end of the humerus is propelled outwards, by which means this bone is made to answer the purpose of a lever, the action of which immediately operates upon the clavicle. By these combined efforts of both hands, the shoulder is to be carried backwards and upwards, and the elbow forwards, so that the extension may be made in the oblique direction of the clavicle; that is to say, outwards, backwards, and a little upwards. The wedge-like cushion, used for fractures of this bone, is to be put under the axilla, as a point d'appui, which will tend to do permanently what the surgeon does with both his hands. However, if this extension should fail to bring the inner end of the clavicle into the articular cavity on the sternum, the reduction must be promoted by pressing the displaced part backwards. As soon as this is in its place again, the shoulder is to be inclined forwards, and the elbow backwards, in order to lessen the risk of the head of the bone slipping forwards again. Lastly, the arm is to be confined in the eligible posture over the cushion by means of a roller applied round the member and the trunk, and the elbow and forearm are to be well supported in a sling.

The dislocation of the scapular end of the clavicle is always upwards; for, the root of the coracoid process will not allow the bone to descend below the acromion. The accident is generally the consequence of a fall upon the shoulder, the scapula being then suddenly and violently depressed, and fixed, as it were, against the ground, while the powerful action of the trapezius muscle pulls the clavicle upwards. The displacement, however, cannot happen, unless the liga-

ments tying the bones together be torn, and even some of those ligamentous bands, which connect the clavicle to the coracoid process.

The reduction of a luxation of the outer end of the clavicle upwards is easily accomplished: for this purpose, the trapezius is to be relaxed, and the shoulder is to be inclined outwards, and raised, by making the humerus act in the desirable direction. At the same time, pressure is to be made upon the outer end of the clavicle, in order to adapt it to the inner and upper part of the acromion.

But, easy as the reduction is, the maintenance of it is extremely difficult. The apparatus advised for the fractured clavicle is the best when used with a slight modification, which consists in alternately carrying the roller that goes under the elbow, both to the shoulder of the injured, and that of the uninjured side.

The body of the scapula is rarely fractured; and when this occurs, it is easily discovered by the crepitus and deformity it causes, and requires nothing but keeping the bone quiet to effect its union.

The acromion is the part which is most exposed, and most frequently broken; but the coracoid process, neck and glenoid cavity, may be similarly injured.

When the acromion is broken, the solution of continuity mostly happens across its base. The external fragment is drawn downwards by the weight of the arm, through the medium of the deltoid muscle. The displacement, however, is not very considerable, amounting merely to a simple inclination of the point of the bone downwards; a change, which may be rectified either by raising the arm from the trunk, or elevating it in a parallel line to its axis. These circumstances, together with the crepitus, suffice for denoting the nature of the accident.

Fractures of the acromion may generally be cured, without any deformity, either by keeping the humerus close to the side, raised in a line parallel to its axis, or by placing and maintaining it at nearly a right angle to the trunk. In the first case, it is necessary to interpose between the arm and the side a cushion, which is thicker below than above, because a very close approximation of the elbow to the body has a tendency to bring on a displacement of the outer fragment of the bone, by rendering the deltoid muscle tense. The head of the humerus should also be kept well up against the acromion, an object, which may be fulfilled by means of a good sling, and a bandage extending from the elbow on the injured side over the opposite shoulder. The difficulty, however, of maintaining the arm constantly in the right position, unless the patient be confined in bed, is generally acknowledged.

In fractures of the coracoid process, the arm should be put in such a position as will relax the coraco-brachialis muscle, a tense state of which must produce displacement of the detached point of that process. The humerus should therefore be inclined towards the sternum, and confined in this situation by means of a sling and a roller. When the neck of the scapula is broken, the glenoid cavity, and os brachii, fall downwards, and a crepitus is usually felt on raising the limb, which descends again immediately it is left unsupported. The evident indications are, to keep the elbow and whole arm properly elevated in a sling, and to forbid all exercise of the limb. The shoulder may be dislocated in various directions.

The most common dislocation of the head of the humerus is that, in which it is thrown downwards into the axilla. This is what might be expected from a review of the structure of the joint, the capsular ligament being in this direction very loose and thin, and unsupported by any muscle. A displacement downwards would even be a more frequent accident than it is, were it not that the elevation of the arm, by which the head of the bone is inclined downwards, is not the most common movement of the limb; and that a sufficiently oblique position of the bone on the glenoid cavity for a dislocation to happen, is usually prevented by the scapula following and adapting itself to all the movements of the humerus.

In the dislocation downwards, the arm is lengthened, the elbow separated from the side, and the forearm is extended in consequence of the tension of the triceps muscle; the arm cannot be put near the body, nor the forearm bent without pain; the acromion projects more than natural; a vacancy is distinguishable under this process; the fulness of the shoulder is lost, the deltoid muscle not being now duly supported by the head of the bone; the arm cannot be raised to a level with the acromion; and, lastly, the swelling caused by the head of the bone may be plainly felt in the axilla.

The dislocation into the axilla is usually the consequence of external violence, combined with a powerful sudden contraction of the pectoralis major, latissimus dorsi, and teres major muscles. The accident frequently happens from falls, in which the elbow strikes against the ground, while separated from the side of the trunk. When a person falls sideways, he naturally puts out his arm in order to hinder his head from striking the ground. In this situation, the weight of the body is upon the shoulder-joint; and, as, at the same instant, the pectoralis major, latissimus dorsi, and teres major, act strongly and pull the arm forcibly towards the chest, they make the head of the humerus slip out of its cavity, because the elbow rests upon the ground as a fixed point, while the upper end of the bone is the moveable one.

On many occasions, however, the head of the humerus is dislocated downwards, not exactly in the foregoing manner, in which the elbow is fixed against the ground, or some other surface with which it comes into contact in the fall: thus, an ostler, in putting on a bridle, often has his arm dislocated by the horse suddenly throwing up its head, and striking the under part of the elbow, while raised from the side of the body. In this last instance, the lower end of the humerus is violently thrown up, and its head propelled down into the axilla, the movement being like that of a lever.

In the dislocation downwards, the tendon of the subscapularis is ruptured. The tendons of the supra and infra-spinatus muscles may likewise be torn from the bone, and with them a shell of the head of the humerus may be detached. Writers do not agree in their accounts of what becomes of the long head of the biceps.

The dislocation next in frequency to that downwards, is the case, in which the head of the humerus breaks through the internal portion of the capsular ligament, and passes immediately under the great pectoral muscle, constituting the *luxation inwards*. Thus, when the arm is raised so as to form nearly a right angle with the trunk, and the elbow is inclined backwards, a fall on the side may drive the head of the humerus through the inner part of the capsular ligament. In this kind of accident, the resistance of the ground operates very obliquely upon the elbow, and, consequently, a great part of the violence is lost.

In the dislocation inwards, the length of the limb is not much altered, and, if changed at all, it is somewhat diminished. The forearm is not fixed in the half-bent position, because the muscles are less stretched, than in the luxation downwards. The direction of the arm is downwards and backwards. The flatness of the shoulder, and the depression formed by the glenoid cavity, are not very obvious, excepting towards the back of the joint. The head of the humerus seems to be as much under the coracoid process, as in the axilla, and that it is situated more towards the median line, than the neck of the scapula, is quite manifest. The movement, in which the elbow is carried forwards, is attended with the greatest difficulty, and that, in which the limb is inclined in the opposite direction, the least painful.

Many surgical authors believe, that the head of the humerus cannot be dislocated backwards. But, a few cases, in which the head of the humerus was dislocated backwards, under the spine of the scapula, may now be found in the records of the profession. Thus, M. Fizeau has detailed one rare instance, which was also witnessed by Professor Boyer.

In the case here alluded to, the bone, after its reduction, was observed to have a remarkable tendency to slip out of its place again: and, in one case dissected by Delpech, the head of the bone lay under the infraspinatus muscle, in immediate contact with the scapula.

Paralysis of the arm is sometimes the consequence of a dislocation downwards, or inwards, and is supposed to proceed from injury done to the axillary-plexus of nerves by the head of the humerus. This paralytic affection may remain for ever incurable, may get well spontaneously, or yield to stimulating liniments, blisters, issues, or the moxa. A still more frequent ill effect of luxations of the shoulder is paralysis of the deltoid muscle; an infirmity ascribed by some writers to laceration of the circumflex nerve.

To reduce these dislocations, the trunk is usually fixed by means of a sheet, or table cloth, put round the chest, and the ends of which are either held by one or more assistants, or fastened to a post, or any other immovable point. The scapula may be kept back by a napkin folded longitudinally, placed over the shoulder and tied to the sheet.

Whether the extension be made at the wrist, or at the lower end of the humerus, the soft parts should be protected from the effects of the pressure with flannel, or a few turns of a wet calico roller, over which the longitudinally folded table-cloth or sheet, or the quilted leather of the multiplied pulley employed for making the extension, may be placed.

When the dislocation is downwards, the extension should be made directly outwards, and the arm afterwards inclined downwards, and a little forwards, until it touches the side. The surgeon must be careful to guide the movement, by which the assistants change the direction of the extension; and, in proportion as the wrist is inclined downwards, he is to press with his abdomen on the external side of the elbow, while, with both his hands applied to the inner and upper part of the humerus, he inclines the head of the bone upwards and a little backwards. The success of these manœuvres will depend in a great measure upon the extension and counter-extension being well proportioned to each other, and regulated so as to promote the movements, which it is the duty of the surgeon to communicate to the limb during the operation.

When the dislocation is inwards, Boyer recommends the extension to be made horizontally outwards and a little backwards; and the limb is afterwards to be inclined forwards and downwards, until it is brought obliquely over the front of the chest. But, previously to the arrival of the member in the last position, the operator is to press with one of his hands upon the back of the elbow, and with the other, upon the front and upper part of the humerus, in order to push the head of the bone outwards, and direct it into the glenoid cavity of the scapula.

Were the case originally a dislocation downwards, or inwards, but the head of the bone now in a state of consecutive, or secondary displacement inwards, or upwards, the aim of the surgeon should be first to bring the head of the humerus down into the axilla, and then to guide it over the lower part of the brim of the glenoid cavity, where the capsular ligament was torn at the moment of the accident.

Whether the extending force to be applied to the wrist, or just above the elbow, the position and inclination of the humerus during the operation should be the same. In short, while the extension and counter-extension are kept up by the assistants, the limb, or the humerus itself, is to be employed by the surgeon as a lever for moving the head of the bone gradually towards the glenoid cavity. In Boyer's account, we see, that this principle is acted upon, the elbow and wrist being inclined in particular directions, while the surgeon forms with his hands a kind of fulcrum, or active resistance at the upper part of the humerus. When the extension has been performed in a certain degree, many surgeons make a still more efficient fulcrum by directing one of the assistants to draw up the upper portion of the humerus with a towel placed under the member just on the outside of the axilla. Others execute the same purpose by letting the ends of the towel, or table-cloth, be fastened over the back part of their necks,

necks, which they drew back at the period, when it is desired to keep well up the superior portion of the humerus.

When a dislocation is accompanied with a fracture of the humerus, the reduction is generally impracticable, especially when the solution of continuity in the bone happens to be very near the shoulder joint.

Fractures of the os humeri, are distinguished into three kinds; first, those which happen above the insertion of the deltoid muscle; second, those which occur below that point; and, thirdly such as take place towards the lower end of the bone.

In the first example, the pectoralis major, latissimus dorsi, and teres major, draw the upper fragment inwards; while the deltoid pulls the lower one outwards.

In the second instance, the displacement happens in the inverse of the former manner.

In the third, if the fracture be not situated in the broadest portion of the humerus, but where the bone is covered by the triceps and brachialis, without their being attached to it, the ends of the fracture may be displaced in any direction by external force. On the contrary, if the injury be very near the elbow joint, the displacement can only happen backwards or forwards, on account of the considerable transverse extent of the bone at this point, and the resistance of the muscles of the forearm, which almost all arise from the external and internal condyles, and of course are connected with both the fragments. The lower one is mostly found drawn forwards and rotated outwards.

A fracture of the head of the bone can only be distinguished by a very careful examination; but, when any other part of the os brachii is broken, the case is in general plainly indicated by the grating of the surfaces of the fracture against each other, the inability to use the arm, and the manifest change in its figure. The ends of the broken part may be in contact with each other; or they may be drawn asunder, and the limb be more or less shortened. When the lower end of the fracture is retracted, the biceps muscle, brachialis internus, and coraco-brachialis, are to be relaxed, and moderate extension made; but, in consequence of the extension of the forearm, it is sometimes drawn forwards and rotated outwards. When the external, or internal, condyle is fractured, the muscles, arising from the part, should be relaxed; a piece of soap-plaster, a figure-of-eight bandage, and a splint, to the side of the arm, on which the injury is situated, should be applied and the fore arm placed in a sling. The external condyle cannot be broken, without the fracture communicating with the joint, and, in every instance in which there is reason to suspect this event, it is necessary, after all risk of inflammation is past, to move the joint occasionally, in order to prevent the formation of adhesions within the capsular ligament, and an irremediable stiffness of the articulation.

In ordinary fractures of the arm it is usual to apply two pieces of soap-plaster, which together surround the limb, at the situation where the accident has happened. Extension, if necessary, being now made by an assistant, who at once draws the lower portion of the bone downward, and bends the elbow, the surgeon is to apply a roller round the limb. The external splint is to extend from the acromion to the outer condyle, and being lined with a soft pad, the wood cannot hurt the limb by pressure. The internal splint is to reach from the margin of the axilla to a little below the inner condyle, and is to be well guarded with a pad, filled with tow, or any other soft materials.

When the humerus is fractured near or above its tuberosities, the only useful measures are to keep the arm well supported, and perfectly quiet in a sling, to confine the member close to the side, and make the patient avoid moving about.

When the fracture is oblique, and situated precisely at the part of the bone where the pectoralis major, latissimus dorsi, and teres major are inserted, such failure is observed to be most disposed to happen, and the circumstance is accounted for by the fragments being drawn away from each other for-

wards and backwards by the action of the foregoing muscles, combined perhaps with that of the deltoid.

The dislocation of the elbow forwards cannot take place unless the olecranon be broken. The kind of dislocation most frequently occurring at the elbow, is that in which the upper heads of the radius and ulna are displaced backward. This accident is facilitated by the small size of the coronoid process, which slips behind the os humeri into the lower portion of the cavity, naturally destined for the reception of the olecranon in the extended state of the forearm. However, in some instances, the coronoid process is fractured; a complication, which is said not to admit of the ulna being preserved in its natural situation. The lower end of the humerus is situated upon the anterior surface of the radius and ulna, between the coronoid process and the insertion of the tendon of the biceps muscle; and the lateral ligaments are torn. The fibres of the anconeus and brachialis also probably suffer the same fate. The olecranon and part of the biceps project backward to an unusual distance, causing an appearance, as if the arm were broken above its lower third. The biceps, pronator teres, supinator brevis, and triceps, are all in a state of tension; and, in consequence of the forearm being thus drawn in opposite directions by the antagonist muscles, it remains in a half-bent position. There are particular instances of this kind of dislocation, where the displacement is much more extensive, and the injury of the soft parts far more considerable, than what is above described. Thus, the lower end of the humerus may be thrown further from the elbow, along the anterior surface of the radius and ulna, which displacement cannot happen without the laceration of several of the preceding muscles. In cases of this description, the humerus has sometimes been driven through the integuments, and even the brachial artery has been ruptured, which last injury one would expect to be more frequent than experience proves it to be, considering the relative situation of the vessel to the elbow-joint.

The next most frequent dislocation at the elbow consists in the ulna being pushed into the place of the radius upon the lower end of the humerus. In this case, the olecranon is brought nearer to the external condyle, the distance between the olecranon and internal condyle being of course much greater than natural; and, as these projecting points of bone can hardly ever be obscured by any degree of swelling of the soft parts, they are, in accidental injuries of the elbow-joint, important sources of information to every surgeon.

In the lateral luxation of the head of the ulna outwards, the radius is invariably pushed off the lesser articular surface of the humerus; this surface and the outer side of the articular pulley being now in contact with the sigmoid cavity of the ulna. The internal portion of the trochlea of the humerus is no longer applied to the ulna, and forms a prominence at the inner side of the elbow, while the olecranon and coronoid process, being propelled outwards, do not correspond to the cavities in the humerus naturally intended for their reception; and hence, they seriously limit the flexion and extension of the forearm. As the point of the olecranon constantly touches the back of the humerus, the forearm remains slightly bent; and the brachialis, biceps, and triceps, are in a state of tension, drawn outwards. A similar derangement of the pronator teres, and of nearly all the muscles situated on the palmar side of the forearm, will also explain the fixed pronation of the hand, and the bent state of the fingers.

The lateral dislocation of the heads of the ulna and radius inwards, is more uncommon and generally incomplete. Lateral dislocations of the upper heads of the radius and ulna are always attended with rupture of the lateral ligaments, and generally also with a laceration of the annular ligament of the radius, which is so intimately connected with the external lateral ligament, so as to be as it were a part or production of it. That it is frequently torn, is proved by the fact, that after a lateral dislocation of the elbow has been reduced, it is not at all uncommon for the surgeon to perceive

ceive a distinct luxation of the radius yet claiming his assistance. And, as Delpsch observes, the radius and ulna can only preserve their due relation to each other in dislocations of the elbow, when the external lateral ligament happens to break above its connection with the annular ligament of the radius.

When extension is made, recent dislocations of the elbow are easily reduced. For this purpose, an assistant is to take hold of the arm above the joint and fix the humerus, while another assistant makes the requisite extension at the wrist in the axis of the displaced forearm. At the same time the surgeon is to promote the reduction by pressing the heads of the ulna and radius in the desirable direction.

The arm should afterwards be kept in a sling; and if there be much swelling of the soft parts, venesection, leeches, cold washes, low diet, and purging, will be proper. In these cases, there is not much tendency to displacement again.

The radius and ulna may be broken at their middle, or extreme portions; and the injury most frequently happens to the radius. The latter circumstance is accounted for by the different relations of these two bones to the hand, and by the naturally curved form of the radius. They are both most liable to be broken at their narrowest parts, and hence, when fractured together, the injury seldom happens at a parallel point of the two bones. In some instances, however, the radius is broken at its lower end, and the ulna at its upper one. When the radius breaks, it is mostly from a fall on the hand, but, when the ulna alone suffers, or both bones are fractured together, it is generally in consequence of violence applied directly to the forearm.

In fractures of the forearm, the fragments are generally displaced, both with regard to the diameter and direction of the injured bone. The ends of the fracture are mostly inclined towards the centre of the limb. It is to be observed, however, that the upper portion of a broken ulna is not susceptible of this kind of displacement, on account of the manner in which it is articulated with the humerus. When both bones are broken, the member is sometimes bent forwards, or backwards.

Fractures of the radius are easily detected; for, on endeavouring to rotate the bone, or, in other words, to place the hand alternately in a prone and supine posture, a crepitus is immediately perceptible. When the two bones are broken, the nature of the accident is indicated both by the crepitus and the distortion of the forearm. Fractures of the ulna, especially when high up, are not always immediately obvious. However, if the surgeon make pressure on each side of the suspected point, with his thumbs alternately, he will generally distinguish a grating sensation.

As the fragments do not pass over each other, scarcely any extension is necessary for their reduction; but, the surgeon must incline them away from the interosseous space by pressure gently exercised on the dorsal and palmar sides of the limb.

During the treatment, the elbow is to be bent, and the hand put in the mid-state, between pronation and supination; that is to say, the palm of the hand is to face the patient's breast. Only two splints are necessary; one is to be placed along the inside, the other along the outside of the forearm; and soft pads must be interposed between the skin and the splints.

The olecranon may be broken by falls, or blows upon the elbow, or by the violent action of the triceps muscle; the injury may take place at various distances from the extremity of this process; the solution of continuity may be single; or the part may be broken into several pieces. In consequence of the action of the triceps and the effect of bending the elbow, the detached fragment of a broken olecranon would always be drawn up a considerable distance from the rest of the bone, were it not for the aponeurosis, which is extended from the tendon of the triceps over the posterior surface of the olecranon; for, it mostly happens, that this tendinous expansion is not ruptured, or, at all events, not completely; and what remains entire has the

effect of limiting the separation of the fragment or fragments from the main part of the bone.

The member having been slightly bent, a pad filled with tow, and thicker in its centre than at its ends, in order to fill up the hollow in front of the elbow, is to be laid along the forepart of the arm and forearm, and then a splint is to be put over it, and fixed (but not too tightly) with a common roller. When the inflammation of the soft parts is very considerable, I think the immediate use of the bandage and splint should be deferred for a few days, until the swelling has been diminished by leeches, venesection, cold applications, and other antiphlogistic remedies. Were the fascia derived from the tendon of the triceps, entirely lacerated, and the fragment of bone drawn very far up the arm, it might be necessary to have recourse to a compress and bandage for hindering such retraction; but, in this case, the movements of the elbow after the cure would probably be somewhat weak and imperfect.

Fractures of the metacarpal bones, and fingers.—The metacarpal bone of the little finger is said to be most frequently broken. In the treatment of fractures of the metacarpal bones, the only object is to keep the adjacent joints perfectly motionless.

Fractures of the carpus are, for the most part, produced by such extreme violence, as perfectly jams the limb and causes immediate amputation to be necessary. In milder cases, to extract splinters of bone, to keep the parts perfectly immovable and reduce inflammation, is all that can be done. Dislocations of the carpus are, of course from the slowness of the coverings of the bones at this part, easily detected; and, in most instances, at first may be easily reduced by the obvious means of extension and pushing the displaced bones into their place. The same may be said of other dislocations of the hand, with the exception of luxation of the thumb, which is very difficult of reduction.

The phalanges of the thumb are most liable to be dislocated backwards. In this case, the base of the phalanx glides backward behind the head of the first metacarpal bone, lacerating the capsular ligament, stretching the tendons of the extensor muscles, and changing the direction of the lateral ligaments, without breaking them.

The nature of the case may be known by the head of the first phalanx of the thumb projecting back, so as to form nearly a right angle with the metacarpal bone; by the tumour produced in front of the joint by the head of the latter bone; by the bent position of the second phalanx caused by the tense state of the tendon of the flexor longus pollicis; and by the impossibility of either bending or extending the first phalanx.

Extension should be made, not however so as to bring the bones in a straight line, but so as to bring forward the phalanx in its distorted condition. The articular surface may now be pressed into contact, the bones straightened, and then the reduction effected. If this plan does not succeed, a couching-needle may be introduced under the shin, so as to divide one of the lateral ligaments.

SURGICAL, *adj.* Pertaining to the art and skill of a surgeon; *chirurgical*.

SURGOOJA. See **SIRGOOJA**.

SURGUT. See **SOURGOUT**.

SURGY, *adj.* Rising in billows.

Do public or domestic cares constrain
This toilsome voyage o'er the *surgy* main?

Pope.

SURHUYS-TERVEEN, a petty town of the Netherlands, in the province of Friesland, with 1100 inhabitants.

SURIANA [so named by Plumier, in honour of Joseph Donat Surian, physician at Marseilles, who accompanied him in his travels], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia, natural order of succulentæ rosaceæ. (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, acuminate, permanent. Corolla: petals five, obovate, length of the calyx, spreading. Stamina: filaments ten, filiform, shorter than the corolla; anthers simple.

Pistil :

Pistil: germs five, roundish. Styles solitary, filiform, erect, length of the stamens, inserted into the middle and inner side of the germ. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp none. Seeds five, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Calyx: five-leaved; petals five. Styles inserted into the inner side of the germs. Seeds five, naked.

Suriana maritima.—Stem shrubby, a fathom high, unarmed. Branches erect, subdivided, round, cicatrised with the fallen leaves, glaucous, pubescent. Leaves clustered, in bundles towards the ends of the branchlets, erect, wedged, nerveless, veinless, villous-pubescent, pale green: on very short petioles. Peduncles terminating and axillary, shorter than the leaves, from three to five-flowered. Flowers small, yellow. Number of stamens always five.—Native of the sea-coast of South America and the islands in the West Indies.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds on a hot-bed early in the spring; when the plants come up, weed them and refresh them frequently with water. In the winter these plants must be kept very warm, especially whilst they are young. They must also be frequently refreshed with water, but it must not be given them in large quantities in cold weather. These plants make slow progress the first year, but afterwards will grow pretty freely.

SURIMENA, a populous settlement of New Granada, in the province of Los Llanos de Neiba, on the shore of the river Meta.

SURINAM, a flourishing colony of Guiana, in South America, settled and improved by the Dutch. It is bounded on the north by the Atlantic, on the east by the river Marawina, on the south by a country of Indians, and on the west by the river Corentin; about 150 miles from east to west, and 60 from north to south. The principal rivers that belong to this settlement are the river Surinam, from which the colony takes its name, the Corentin, the Copename, the Seramica, and the Marawina. Of those rivers the first only is navigable; the rest, not excepting the Marawina, being, though very long and broad, so shallow, and so extremely crowded with rocks and small islands, that they are of little consequence to Europeans, nor are their banks inhabited, except by some of the Indians or natives of the country. The other branch into which this large river is divided, is named Commewina, and keeps due east for about 16 miles, with a depth of about three or four fathoms at high-water mark; but as the tide makes a difference of 15 feet, it is not considered as navigable for any ships of burden, though its breadth may be computed at about two miles. The banks of this river, though later cultivated than those of the river Surinam, are in a more flourishing condition; and as it runs parallel with the sea-coast, they enjoy the benefit of the sea breezes, and are reckoned more healthy. Coffee is mostly planted on the estates which lie on the side of this river; and as its preparation requires many buildings, the plantations have a fine appearance. At the distance of 16 miles, the river Commewina is again divided into two branches, one of which bears the same name to the south-east, for a length of above 50 miles, and that of Cottica to the east-south-east, for more than 40 miles, when this last takes a meandering course to the south-south-west for the distance of 24 or 30 miles. Into all these rivers, the courses of which are not straight, but serpentine, are discharged a number of very large creeks or rivulets, the banks of which are inhabited by Europeans, and cultivated with sugar, cocoa, cotton, and indigo plantations, which form the most delightful prospects that can be imagined to those who travel by water, the universal mode of journeying in this country, as the soil is in general ill adapted for the construction of roads; and in some places the woods, &c., are absolutely impenetrable, a small path of communication between Paramaribo and the river Seramica, being the only passable road in the settlement. The rivers whose banks are uncultivated, such as the Corentin, Copename, Seramica, and Marawina, afford but little matter for description. It is therefore only necessary to remark, that they are generally from two to four miles in breadth, exceedingly shallow, and crowded with

quick-sands, small islands, and rocks, which form a number of beautiful cascades. In the river Marawina is frequently found a curious stone or pebble, which is known by the name of the Marawina diamond, and which, being polished, bears a very near resemblance to that most valuable gem, and is consequently often set in rings, &c. In all the above rivers, without exception, the water rises and falls for more than 60 miles from the mouth, occasioned by the stoppage of the freshes by the tide, yet fresh water may generally be met with about 24 or 30 miles from the mouths of these rivers, for watering the ships. The climate of Surinam, which was formerly extremely fatal to Europeans, has within the last 20 years been considerably improved. The great population of the colony, and the better clearing of the ground, has been the principal cause of this happy change. Formerly extensive swamps exhaled thick clouds of vapour, and being shaded by immense forests, the breezes had little or no power of dispersing them, so that in the time of the heavy rains, they became stationary the greatest part of the year. But now a more serene atmosphere prevails. The year is divided into two dry and two wet seasons. When the sun is advancing from the tropic of Cancer, within 12 or 10 degrees, light showers refresh the land; this begins about the middle of April, and increases till about the middle of June, when the rain falls in torrents, and greatly surprise those who have lately come from the north of Europe; but in the southern part, as Portugal and Italy, the showers are sometimes as heavy, though sooner over. At the beginning of July these heavy rains begin to decrease, and in August the long dry season begins, and continues till November. When the sun is approaching to the line from the tropic of Capricorn, the second wet season begins; but as at that time the sun is more distant from this part of the globe, the showers do not then last so long. Captain Stedman found no difference in the two rainy seasons; but as he was most of his time in the forest in the interior parts of the colony, where it always rains more than in the vicinity of Paramaribo, he had no opportunity of observing the distinction. December and January constitute the short rainy season. February and March the short dry season. The highest degree of heat during the dry season is stated to be 91 degrees; but in general the thermometer ranges between 84 and 75. This equal degree of heat is owing to the sea-breezes, which regularly set in at 10 o'clock, and continue till 5 in the afternoon, cooling the atmosphere, and refreshing all nature with an equable and constantly flowing stream of delightful air. Of the animal and vegetable productions, an account will be found under the general article GUIANA. The uncultivated parts are covered with immense forests, rocks, and mountains; some of the latter enriched with a great variety of mineral substances; and the whole country is intersected by very deep marshes or swamps, and by extensive heaths or savannas. The stream along the coast flows continually towards the north-west, and the whole shore is rendered almost inaccessible, from its being covered with dangerous banks, quicksands, bogs, and rocks, with prodigious bushes, and a large quantity of brush-wood, which are so closely interwoven as to be impenetrable. That part of Terra Firma which is called Guiana, or *The Wild Coast*, and in which lies the colony of Surinam, is said by some to have been first discovered by the justly celebrated Christopher Columbus, in the year 1498, when he was sent home in chains; though others contend, that it was not discovered till the year 1504, by Vasco Unes, a Spaniard: In 1579, it was visited by Sir Walter Raleigh, under queen Elizabeth, who also sailed up the river Orinoco above 600 miles, in search of the supposed El Dorado, and in hopes of discovering the gold mines, of which he had the most lively expectations, from samples of a marcasite, which the Spaniards call *madre de oro*. In the year 1634, a Captain Marshal, and about 60 English, were discovered in Surinam, employed in planting tobacco, according to the relation of David Pitease de Vries, a Dutchman, who conversed with them upon the spot. In 1640, Surinam was inhabited by the French, who were obliged to leave it soon

after, on account of frequent invasions which they justly suffered from the Carribean Indians, for having, like their neighbours the Spaniards, treated them with the most barbarous cruelties. In the 1650, this colony being vacant, Francis Lord Willoughby of Parham, by king Charles II.'s permission, sent thither one vessel, equipped by himself, to take possession of it, in the name of his royal master: a little after which he dispatched three vessels more, one of them carrying 20 guns. All these were well received by the Indians or inhabitants of the country, with whom they entered into friendly treaties, and a kind of negotiation. In the year 1662, the colony of Surinam was granted by charter of Charles II. to Francis Lord Willoughby, and at that lord's desire, to be divided with Laurence Hyde, second son of Edward Earl of Clarendon, for them and their descendants for ever. In the year 1665, Surinam was successfully cultivated, mostly by planting tobacco. They had also raised above forty fine sugar-plantations, and erected a strong fortress of hewn stone for their defence. It is proper, however, to remark, that some suppose these improvements were effected by the Portuguese, though at what period is uncertain; while the French strenuously dispute the point, and insist that they were the work of Monsieur Ponsert de Breigny, when France had possession of that country. However this may be, the fortress is situated about 16 or 18 miles from the mouth of the river Surinam; and these industrious settlers found themselves perfectly happy, in a small town which they had built under the walls. Their felicity was not of long duration; for in the wars between Charles II. and the United Provinces, the Dutch having been driven, in 1661, from the Brazils by the Portuguese, took the colony of Surinam from the English in 1667, under the command of a Captain Abraham Criuvon, who was dispatched for that purpose with three ships of war and 300 marines. The English commander, William Biam, lost the settlement of Surinam by surprise, when above 600 of the best men in the colony were at work on the sugar-plantations. This neglect appears from the trifling loss of the Dutch, who in storming the citadel had but one man killed. They immediately planted the Prince of Orange's flag on the ramparts, and gave to this fortress the name of Zelandia, and that of Middleburgh to the town of Paramaribo, after making the inhabitants, amongst other contributions, pay 100,000 pounds weight of sugar, and sending a number of them to the island of Tobago. This event took place in February; and in July following, the peace was concluded at Breda; but most unluckily for the new possessors of Surinam, it was concluded unknown to the English commodore, Sir John Harman, who in October, that same year, having first taken Cayenne from the French, entered the river with a strong fleet of seven ships of war, two bomb-ketches, &c., and retook the colony from the Dutch, killing on this occasion above fifty of their men, and destroying nine pieces of cannon in Fort Zelandia. The new inhabitants were now in their turn laid under contribution, and the Dutch garrison were transported to the island of Barbadoes. At the discovery in Surinam, that the peace had been concluded between the contending powers, before Commodore Harman retook the colony from the Dutch, considerable tumult and disorder took place among the inhabitants, who knew not whom they ought to acknowledge as their lawful sovereign. At length, by an order of king Charles, the settlement was ceded to the Dutch in 1669, when 1200 of the old inhabitants, English and negroes together, left it and went to settle on the island of Jamaica. At the close of the succeeding war, it was agreed by the treaty of Westminster, that Surinam should be the property of the Dutch for ever, in exchange for the province of New York, which accordingly took place in the year 1674. In 1799, Surinam was taken by the British. It was given up at the peace of Amiens in 1802, but was again taken in the subsequent war, and is now retained by Britain. Paramaribo is the chief town. Lat. 4. 45. to 6. N. long. 53. 40. to 56. 25. W.

SURINAM, a river in the above province or district, which rises in the mountains of the interior, and after a

winding course of about 150 miles from south to north, falls into the Atlantic Ocean, in Long. 55. 40. W. lat. 6. 25. N. It is at its entrance nearly the breadth of 4 English miles, and in depth from 16 to 18 feet at low water mark, the tide rising and falling above 12 feet. This breadth and depth is continued from its mouth upwards to the distance of 8 or 10 miles, when it divides itself into two branches, winding to the south-south-east, for the length of upwards of 120 miles. All this extent is navigable for small craft, but beyond this distance the river proceeds directly south, sometimes in its course surrounding small islands, and sometimes forming small cataracts. The source of this beautiful river has never yet been discovered by Europeans. All large vessels, after entering the Surinam, ought to keep rather near the east shore, the opposite side being very full of shoals, as far as the town of Paramaribo, which is about 18 miles from its mouth.

SURINGLA, a sea-port of Nippon, in Japan, capital of a province of the same name; 170 miles east of Meaco.

SURIRISSA, a river of Quito, in the province of Jaen, which runs from south-west to north-east, and enters the Tamora, in Lat. 4. 3. S.

SURKUK, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 8 miles north of Kastamouni.

SURLILY, *adv.* In a surly manner. *Sherwood.*—They were both hastily passionate; he was sometimes *surly* ill-natured, while she was apt to conceive what he never intended. *The Student.*

SURLINESS, *s.* Gloomy moroseness; sour anger.

Thus pale they meet; their eyes with fury burn;
None greets; for none the greeting will return;
But in dumb *surliness*, each arm'd with care
His foe profest, as brother of the war.

Dryden.

SURLING, *s.* A sour morose fellow. *Not used.*—As for these sour *surlings*, they are to be commended to sieur Gaulard. *Camden.*

SURLINGHAM, a village of England, in Norfolk, including the parishes of St. Mary and St. Saviour. Here is a ferry over the river Yare; 5½ miles east-south-east of Norwich.

SURLY, *adj.* [from *jup*, *sour*, Sax.] Gloomily morose; rough; uncivil; sour; silently angry.

'Tis like you'll prove a jolly *surly* groom,
That take it on you at the first so roundly.

Shakspeare.

SURMISAL, *s.* Imperfect notion; surmise.—From this needless *surmisal* I shall hope to dissuade the intelligent and equal auditor. *Milton.*

To SURMISE, *v. a.* [*surmise*, Fr.] To suspect; to image imperfectly; to imagine without certain knowledge.

It waited nearer yet, and then she knew
That what before she but *surmis'd*, was true.

Dryden.

SURMISE, *s.* [*surmise*, Fr.] Imperfect notion; suspicion; imagination not supported by knowledge.

My compassionate heart
Will not permit my eyes once to behold
The thing, whereat it trembles by *surmise*.

Shakspeare.

SURMISER, *s.* One who surmises.—I should first desire these *surmisers* to point out the time when, and the persons who began this design. *Lively Oracles.*

To SURMOUNT, *v. a.* [*surmonter*, Fr.] To rise above.—The mountains of Olympus, Atho, and Atlas, overreach and *surmount* all winds and clouds. *Ralegh.*—To conquer; to overcome.—He hardly escaped to the Persian court; from whence, if the love of his country had not *surmounted* its base ingratitude to him, he had many invitations to return at the head of the Persian fleet; but he rather chose a voluntary death. *Swift.*—To surpass; to exceed.

What *surmounts* the reach
Of human sense, I shall delineate so,
By lik'ning spiritual to corporeal forms,
As may express them best.

Milton.

SURMOUNTABLE,

SURMO'UNTABLE, *adj.* [*surmontable*, old Fr.] Conquerable; superable.

SURMO'UNTER, *s.* One that rises above another.

SURMO'UNTING, *s.* The act of getting uppermost.

SURMULLET, *s.* [*mugil*, Lat.] A sort of fish. *Ainsworth*.

SURNAME, *s.* [*surnom*, Fr. "It is a great dispute whether we should write *surname* or *sirname*; on the one hand, there are a thousand instances in court-rolls, and other ancient muniments, where the description of the person, *le Smyth, le Tayleur*, &c., is written over the Christian name of the person, this only being inserted in the line; and the French always write *surnom*. And certainly *surname* must be the truth, in regard of the patriarch or first person that bore the name. However, there is no impropriety, at this time of day, to say *sirname*, since these additions are so apparently taken from our *sires* or fathers. Thus the matter seems to be left to people's option." *Pegge, Anonym.*] The name of the family; the name which one has over and above the Christian name.—The epithets of great men, *monsieur Boileau* is of opinion, were in the nature of *surnames*, and repeated as such. *Pope*.—An appellation added to the original name.

Witness may

My *surname* Coriolanus: the painful service,
The extreme dangers, and the drops of blood
Shed for my thankless country, are requited
But with that *surname*.

Shakspeare.

To **SURNAME**, *v. a.* [*surnomer*, Fr.] To name by an appellation added to the original name.

How he, *surnam'd* of Africa, dismiss'd
In his prime youth the fair Iberian maid.

Milton.

SUROU', a fortified town of Hindostan, province of Agra, belonging to an independent chief. Lat. 26. 51. N. long. 77. 8. E.

To **SURPASS**, *v. a.* [*surpasser*, Fr.] To excel; to exceed; to go beyond in excellence.

The climate's delicate,

Fertile the isle, the temple much *surpassing*
The common praise it bears.

Shakspeare.

SURPASSABLE, *adj.* That may be excelled. *Dict.*

SURPASSING, *participial adj.* Excellent in an high degree.

O thou! that with *surpassing* glory crown'd,
Look'st from thy sole dominion like the god
Of this new world.

Milton.

SURPASSINGLY, *adv.* In a very excellent manner.

SURPLICE, *s.* [*superpellicium*; Lat.] The white garb which the clergy wear in their acts of ministration.—It will wear the *surplice* of humility over the black gown of a big heart. *Shakspeare*.—The *cinctus gabinus* is a long garment, not unlike a *surplice*, which would have trailed on the ground, had it hung loose, and was therefore gathered about the middle with a girdle. *Addison*.

SURPLICE-FEES, *s.* Fees paid to the clergy for occasional duties.

With tithes replete his barns he sees,
And chuckles o'er his *surplice-fees*;
Studies to find out latent dues.
And regulates the state of pews.

Warton.

SURPLICED, *adj.* Wearing a surplice.

Lo! as the *surplic'd* train draw near
To this last mansion of mankind.

The slow sad bell, the sable bier,
In holy musings wrap the mind.

Mallet.

SURPLUS or **SURPLUSAGE**, *s.* [*sur*, and Lat. *plus*,] A supernumerary part; overplus; what remains when use is satisfied.

That you have vouchsaf'd my poor house to visit,
tis a *surplus* of your grace.

Shakspeare.

SURPRI'SAL or **SURPRI'SE**, *s.* [*surprise*, Fr.] The act of taking unawares; the state of being taken unawares.

This let him know,

Lest, wilfully transgressing, he pretend
Surprisal, unadmonish'd, unforewarn'd.

Milton.

A dish, I suppose, which has nothing in it.
Few care for carving trifles in disguise,
Or that fantastic dish some call *surprise*.

King.

Sudden confusion or perplexity.

To **SURPRI'SE**, *v. a.* [*surpris*, Fr.] To take unawares; to fall upon unexpectedly.

The castle of Macduff I will *surprise*,
Seize upon Fife, give to the edge o' th' sword
His wife, his babes.

Shakspeare.

Bid her beware,

Lest, by some fair appearing good *surpris'd*.
She dictate false, and misinform the will.

Milton.

To astonish by something wonderful.—People were not so much frightened as *surpris'd* at the bigness of the camel. *L'Estrange*.—To confuse or perplex by something sudden.—Up he starts, discovered and *surpris'd*. *Milton*.

SURPRISING, *participial adj.* Wonderful; raising sudden wonder or concern.—The greatest actions of a celebrated person, however *surprising* and extraordinary, are no more than what are expected from him. *Addison*.

SURPRI'SINGLY, *adv.* To a degree that raises wonder; in a manner that raises wonder.—If out of these ten thousand, we should take the men that are employed in public business, the number of those who remain will be *surprisingly* little. *Addison*.

SURQUEDRY, *s.* [*sur* and *cuider*, old Fr. *to think*.] Overweening; pride; insolence. *Obsolete*.

They overcommen, were deprived

Of their proud beauty, and the one moiety

Transform'd to fish for their bold *surquedry*.

Spenser.

SURREBUTTER, *s.* [In Law.] A second rebutter; answer to a rebutter. A term in the courts.

SURRECTORIUM, the name of a surgical instrument, mentioned by Ambrose Paré, and intended to keep the arm in an erect situation when required.

SURREJOINDER, *s.* [*surrejoindre*, Fr. In Law.] A second defence of the plaintiff's action, opposite to the rejoinder of the defendant, which the civilians call *triplicatio*. *Bailey*.

To **SURRENDER**, *v. a.* [*surrender*, old Fr.] To yield up; to deliver up.—Recal those grants, and we are ready to *surrender* ours, resume all or none. *Davenant*.—To deliver up an enemy; sometimes with *up* emphatical.

Ripe age bade him *surrender* late,

His life and long good fortune unto final fate.

Fairfax

To **SURRENDER**, *v. n.* To yield; to give one's self up.—This mighty Archimedes too *surrenders* now. *Glanville*.

SURRENDER, or **SURRE'NDRY**, *s.* The act of yielding.

Our general mother, with eyes

Of conjugal attraction unprov'd,

And meek *surrender*, half-embracing lean'd

On our first father.

Milton.

The act of resigning or giving up to another.—If our father carry authority with such disposition as he bears, this last *surrender* of his will but offend us. *Shakspeare*.

SURREPTION, *s.* [*surreptus*, Lat.] Act of obtaining or procuring surreptitiously.—The *surreption* of secretly misgotten dispensations. *Bp. Hall*.—Sudden and unperceived invasion or intrusion.—Sins compatible with a regenerate estate, are sins of a sudden *surreption*. *Hammond*.

SURREPTITIOUS, *adj.* [*surreptitius*, Lat.] Done by stealth: gotten or produced fraudulently.—A correct copy of the Dunciad the many *surreptitious* ones have rendered necessary. *Letter to Publ. of Pope's Dunciad*.

SURREPTITIOUSLY,

SURREPTITIOUSLY, *adv.* By stealth; fraudulently. —Thou hast got it more *surreptitiously* than he did, and with less effect, *Gov. of the Tongue*.

SURREY, one of the inland counties of England, is situated in the southern part of the kingdom, and is bounded by Sussex on the south, by Kent on the east, by Berkshire and Hampshire on the west, and on the north is separated from Middlesex and a small part of Buckinghamshire by the river Thames. Surrey ranks below most of the other counties of England in extent; its greatest width from north to south being about 26 miles, and its utmost length from east to west about 38. The best modern authorities compute its contents at 811 square miles, or 519,000 acres.

The surface of almost the whole of this county consists of a gentle diversity of hill and dale, the hills in some parts rising to a considerable height, and presenting very bold and commanding views. It will be found, on a general survey, that Surrey presents as great a variety of scenery as any county in the kingdom. In some parts naked heaths impart a wildness to the prospect, which is strikingly contrasted with the numberless beauties scattered over the surface of the county by the hand of art; while the hills, aspiring to the bold character and picturesque scenery of mountains, gradually decline into richly wooded dales, and plains covered with luxuriant harvests. Its extensive downs also afford pasture to numerous herds of the finest sheep. The north-west corner of the county is diversified by several rising grounds: from these there are the most commanding prospects. Across the middle of the county, the downs rising with a gentle slope from the north, and broken in their eastern division into deep and waving valleys, form a striking object, and give variety to the appearance of the county. Towards the northern border of the downs there are several hills, which afford an extensive view. To the south of the downs, the surface of the county above rises into hills, that overhang the Weald. As we approach the western extremity of the county, these hills cover a greater breadth; and near Wonsley, Godalming, and Pepperharrow, covered with a rich foliage, and waving, with a graceful line, into intermediate valleys, watered by the different branches of the Wey, they present the most picturesque prospect that Surrey can afford. On Leith Hill, to the south-west of Dorking, Tilbuster Hill near Godstone, and Gratewood Hill near Godalming, the views are very extensive; but perhaps there is no part of the county in which the appearance of the richly wooded vale of the Weald is more strikingly pleasing than on the road from Albury to Ewhurst. After toiling up the deep and barren sands to the south of Albury, that present no object on which the eye can repose, even for a moment, we suddenly come to the southern edge of the hill, whence the whole extent of the Weald, clothed with wood, appears to the south, with an occasional peep of the sea, through the breaks of the Sussex Downs, which form the back-ground: on the south-west appears the rich and finely varied country about Godalming, backed by the wild heaths that stretch across from Farnham to Haslemere. Sometimes on a clear night, the light of the moon is to be seen glancing on the waves of the English channel, forming a singular and romantic feature in the prospect.

General Aspect, Soil, and Climate.—The soil of this county is greatly varied, the different species lying intermixed in small patches. These, however, may be reduced to the general heads of clay, loam, sand and chalk. The most extensive and uniform track of soil is that which occupies the whole southern border of the county, and forms what is denominated the Weald of Surrey; a district about 30 miles in length, and from 3 to 5 in breadth. This consists of a pale, cold, retentive clay, upon a sub-soil of the same nature: its surface is flat, covered with wood, and its elevation is said to be less than any other vale district in the whole island. Proceeding northwards, the soil is chiefly loam, stretching across the whole county. Near Godalming it runs to a great depth, and rests on a base of sand-stone, veined with iron-ore. Contiguous to this commences the most remarkable

district of the chalky downs, which lie nearly in the middle of the county, entering from Kent, into Surrey, by Croydon and Limpsfield, where their width is about seven miles. They, however, gradually decrease towards the west, till their termination near the border of Hampshire, where there is merely a narrow ridge, but little broader than the turnpike road. Along the elevated summit of the downs, particularly about Walton and Hedley, and between the Mole and the Wey, is a large extent of heath, which for a considerable depth separates the chalk of the northern from that of the southern compartment of the downs. From the eastern extremity of the downs, running northward, is a variety of soils, consisting chiefly of strong clay and sandy loam, with patches of gravel, which continue almost to Dulwich, from which place to the extremity of the county, near Rotherhithe, is a strong mixed clay.

Climate.—In a county where the soils and elevations are so various, the climate also must of course vary considerably. It is the general opinion, that less rain falls in most parts of Surrey, than in the metropolis, or in the vale of London; so that the climate may, upon the whole, be regarded as dry, as far as respects the quantity of rain merely; but the southern border must necessarily be moist and damp, from the nature of the soil, the flatness of the surface, and the immense number of trees which cover it and obstruct ventilation. From the like causes, the low parts near the Thames must be considered as rather damp. On the other hand, the atmosphere of the chalk hills, which run across the whole county from east to west, is dry, rather keen, and bracing. On the wide and exposed heaths about Bagshot, Aldershot, and Hind-head, a similar climate prevails; so that the whole west side may, with a very small exception, be said to have a dry, and rather cold atmosphere. The spring is in general early, and here vegetation is not so often checked by frosty mornings, and cold, raw, easterly winds, as in some of the more southern counties. The summers are commonly dry and warm, and the harvest early, generally commencing in the first ten days of August; and from the steadiness of the weather at that important time, there is seldom any corn out in the fields after the first week of September. The wind blows most steadily from the west and south-west, seldom keeping long in any point between the north-west and north-east. In the spring, and frequently towards the end of autumn, the easterly winds prevail; and the weather is then cold and raw, with a drizzling moisture; but the greatest quantity of rain falls when the wind blows from the south-south-west, or south. The climate is deemed very healthy in most parts of the county, between the southern district called the Weald, and the Thames, particularly near the northern foot of the chalk hills. The dryness of the soil and atmosphere, and the entire freedom from the smoke of the metropolis by the prevalence of the westerly winds, have deservedly conferred the character of salubrity on this division of the county. Even in the Weald, where the surface is low, and the soil moist, diseases are by no means frequent, neither is the ordinary duration of human life abridged.

Mineralogy.—Iron-ore is found in considerable quantities in the south-west part of the county, about Haslemere, Dunsfold, and Cranley; and in the south-east quarter, about Lingfield and Horne; but in consequence of the high price of fuel, the iron-works of Surrey have been totally neglected. Fuller's earth is discovered both to the north and south of the downs, but the former is of inferior quality to the latter. This mineral has been dug for a great length of time in Surrey, as the oldest pit now wrought is said to have lasted for 50 or 60 years. Extensive quarries of stone, of a peculiar quality, are worked near Godstone and its vicinity. When first taken from the quarry, it is incapable of bearing a damp atmosphere; but after being kept covered for a few months, it becomes sufficiently firm to resist the heat of a common fire, and is thence called fire-stone. In consequence of this property, it is much in demand for fire-places in the metropolis and its neighbourhood. These stones are procured



SURREY.
 Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

T. Lucas sc.

5° Longitude W from 45 Greenwich



procured of various sizes, from 10 inches thickness to 72 superficial feet. There are large quarries of lime-stone near Dorking, which afford lime equal in purity and strength to any in the kingdom, and which is particularly serviceable in the construction of works under water. Lime-stone is also dug and burnt in various other parts. Chalk is abundant, and is in general use as a manure. The sand is in great request for hour-glasses; and the brick earth produces those articles denominated fire-bricks, from their property of resisting heat. Camden and Evelyn notice jet-pits in Surrey, but no traces of them can be now discovered.

Rivers.—The principal rivers of this county are the Wey, the Mole, and the Wandle; whilst the Thames also washes its northern border. The former streams, after watering the county in different directions, finally discharge themselves into the Thames. A considerable branch of the Medway rises in the parishes of Godstone and Horne, and passing through the parish of Lingfield, quits Surrey, and enters Kent. The river Loddon skirts Surrey on its west side; its waters are used for the supply of the Basingstoke canal. In the western and south-eastern parts of the county are several ponds, some of which are preserved as stew-ponds, to keep fish to supply the London market. The mineral waters of Surrey were at one period in very high repute, but are now wholly neglected. This county is in general well furnished with springs; but for wells it is sometimes found necessary to perforate to the depth of 300 feet.

Surrey may be considered inferior in agricultural improvement to many other districts. The drill husbandry has not found many followers, except in the west part of the county, in some parts of which it is very general. The produce of wheat is from two to five, and sometimes six quarters an acre, and that of barley from four to seven and a half. The latter is used only for malting, for which purpose it is reckoned equal in quality to any in the kingdom. The climate of Surrey seems to be less favourable to oats than to wheat or barley. As the former is often grown on foul land, the produce is sometimes very low, not exceeding three quarters per acre; but when sown on clean ley, or after turnips, it frequently yields from six to eight quarters. Garden peas and beans are cultivated in the immediate neighbourhood of the metropolis and the sandy loams near the Thames, about Mortlake; while the field varieties of both are extensively grown in most other parts of the county, and especially on the chalk hills. Turnips are here raised in large crops. Hops are largely cultivated about Farnham, where they occupy about 900 acres. The crops which are only partially cultivated in Surrey are those of cabbages, potatoes, lucerne, and grass, of which latter it has a much smaller proportion than most other counties in England. Carrots, clover, sainfoin, and hops, are extensively cultivated; and a greater quantity of land is employed in raising physical herbs, than in any other shire in Britain. Those which are chiefly reared are peppermint, lavender, camomile, aniseed, liquorice, and poppy. Upwards of 350 acres of land in Surrey are thus given to medicinal purposes. The whole quantity of garden ground employed for the London market in this county, amounts to about 3500 acres. Surrey is not celebrated for any particular kind of cattle. The Holderness, or short-horned breed of cows, is preferred, of which there are kept about 600, for the supply of London with milk. Rearing of calves for the market of the metropolis was once a common employment in this county, but this system is now disused. The cattle chiefly bred in Surrey are sheep, oxen, and hogs; many geese are also kept on the commons, and in the Weald. Within the last 10 or 12 years, large tracks of the heath-lands have been inclosed and cultivated; before which period it was calculated that nearly one-sixth part of Surrey was in this unprofitable state. The whole amount of waste lands is still computed at about 73,000 acres.

It has been ascertained, that the first locks used in England were those erected on the river Wey, in Surrey. This county contains four canals, entitled the Basingstoke, Vol. XXIII. No. 1606.

which runs from that place to the Wey; the Wey and Arun Junction canal, which falls into the Wey about a mile above Guildford, thus opening a direct communication with the sea; the Surrey, which communicates with the Thames at Rotherhithe; and the Croydon, which commences there, and enters the Surrey canal at Deptford.

The situation of this county being contiguous to the capital of the Roman settlements in Britain, numerous antiquities are found within its limits. St. George's Fields, Southwark, where coins and pavements have been found at different periods, was the centre of several Roman ways. Remains of Roman encampments are to be seen on Holmbury hill, in the parish of Ockley, about two miles to the west of the Stanestreet; and on Bottle Hill, in the parish of Warlingham, near another military way, which also bore the denomination of Stanestreet, and passed through the eastern part of the county. But the most extensive work of this nature is that of St. George's Hill, near Walton-on-the-Thames. Here Cæsar seems to have encamped, previous to his crossing the Thames at Coway Stakes, so named from the contrivance of the Britons to obstruct his passage over that river. At Walton-on-the-Hill, also, great quantities of Roman bricks and other relics have been discovered within an inclosure of earth work; and on Blackheath are the remains of a Roman temple, surrounded with embankments. Various other military antiquities are to be found in Surrey.

Surrey is divided into thirteen hundreds, which together contain one county town, fourteen boroughs and market towns, and 140 parishes, all of them in the diocese of Winchester, with the exception of nine parishes, which are peculiar of the see of Canterbury. According to the population report of 1811, the number of houses in the whole county was 55,484, and that of the inhabitants 323,851. In 1821 the number of males amounted to 189,871; of females to 208,787. Surrey is represented in parliament by fourteen members; two for the county, and two for each of the boroughs of Southwark, Guildford, Ryegate, Haslemere, Blechingly, and Gatton.

To SURROGATE, v. a. [surrogo, Lat.] To put in the place of another.—By the report of a French writer, very ancient, king Pepine of France was *surrogated* into the place of Childericke by the whole nation of the Franks. *Proceed. against Garnet.*

SURROGATE, s. [surrogatus, Lat.] A deputy; a delegate; the deputy of an ecclesiastical judge.—The quality of *surrogates. Const. and Canons Eccl.*

SURROGATION, s. [surrogatio, Lat.] The act of putting in another's place. *Cockeram.*—This St. Peter gives as the reason why there should be a *surrogation* and new choice of an Apostle to succeed into the room of Judas the traitor, viz., That he might be a witness with them of the resurrection. *Killingbeck.*

SURROOL, a town of Bengal, district of Birbhoom. The East India Company have or had here a factory for white cottons. Lat. 25. 39. N. long. 87. 42. E.

To SURROUND, v. a. [surround, Fr.] To environ; to encompass; to enclose on all sides.

Yelling monsters that with ceaseless cry,
Surround me, as thou sawest.

Milton.

SURRY, a post township of the United States, in Hancock county, Maine; 257 miles north-east of Boston. Population 360.

SURRY, a township of the United States, in Cheshire county, New Hampshire; 62 miles west-south-west of Concord. Population 564.

SURRY, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded north by Prince George county and James river, north-east by Isle of Wight and Southampton counties, and south-west by Sussex county. Population 6855, including 3440 slaves.

SURRY, a county of the United States, in the north-west

part of North Carolina. Population 10,366, including 1469 slaves.

SURRY, a county in the island of Jamaica, which contains seven parishes, the two towns of Kingston and Port Royal, and eight villages.

SURSEE, a small town of the Swiss canton of Lucerne, on the river Sur, near the lake Sempach. It is well built, and contains 1000 inhabitants; 13 miles north-west of Lucerne, and 26 east of Soleure.

SURSEFF, a small town of Tunis, in Africa, the ancient *Sarsara*; 38 miles east of Kuirwan.

SURSK, a small town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Simbirsk, on the river Sura; 77 miles north-north-east of Penza.

SURSO'LID, *s.* [In Algebra] The fourth multiplication or power of any number whatever taken as the root. *Tre-vout.*

SURSO'LID PROBLEM, *s.* [In Mathematics.] That which cannot be resolved but by curves of a higher nature than a conic section. *Harris.*

SURSUTTY, a river of Hindostan. It rises in the mountains on the north-east boundary of the province of Delhi, and running to the south-west, is lost in the sands of Ajmeer. It is celebrated for being the scene of battle between Sultan Mohammed Ghory and the allied Hindoo chiefs, in the year 1191, when the latter obtained a signal victory over their invaders.—It is the name of several other rivers in Hindostan.

SURSUTTY, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Delhi. It is situated on the western bank of the above-mentioned river, and now belongs to an independent chief. It was first taken by the Mahometans in the year 1191. Lat. 29. 13. N. long. 75. 27. E.—There is also a strong fortress of this name in the province of Cashmere.

SURTOU'T, *s.* [Fr.] A large coat worn over all the rest.

The *surtout* if abroad you wear,
Repels the rigour of the air;
Would you be warmer, if at home
You had the fabric, and the loom?

Prior.

SURUBIA, a river of Guiana, which runs south, and enters the Amazons between the strait of Pauxis and the river Curapatuba.

TO SURVE'NE, *v. a.* [*survenir*, Fr.] To supervene; to come as an addition.—Hippocrates mentions a suppuration that *survenes* lethargies, which commonly terminates in a consumption. *Harvey.*

TO SURVEY, *v. a.* [*surveoir*, old French.] To overlook; to have under the view; to view as from a higher place.

Round he *surveys*, and well might where he stood,
So high above.

Milton.

To oversee as one in authority. To view as examining.

With alter'd looks

All pale and speechless he *survey'd* me round.

Dryden.

To measure and estimate land or buildings.

SURVEY, *s.* [The accent on this substantive is now, usually, on the first syllable; formerly, it was uniformly on the last.] View; prospect.

Her stars in all their vast *survey*

Useless besides!

Milton.

Superintendence. Mensuration; which see.

SURVE'YAL, *s.* The same as survey.—The truth of this doctrine will further appear by the declaration and *surveyal* of those respects, according to which Christ is represented the Saviour of men. *Barrow.*

SURVE'YOR, *s.* An overseer; one placed to superintend others.

Were't not madness then,
To make the fox *surveyor* of the fold?

Shakspeare.

A measurer of land.

Should we survey
The plot of situation, and the model;

Question *surveyors*, know our own estate,
How able such a work to undergo,
To weigh against his opposite.

Shakspeare.

SURVE'YORSHIP, *s.* The office of a surveyor.

TO SURVE'EW, *v. a.* [*surveoir*, old French.] To overlook; to have in view; to survey. *Not in use.*

That turret's frame most admirable was,
Like highest heaven compassed a round,
And lifted high above this earthly mass,
Which is *surview'd*, as hills do lower ground.

Spenser.

SURVE'EW, *s.* Survey. *Obsolete.*—After some *surview* of the state of the body, he is able to inform them. *Sanderson.*

TO SURVISE, *v. a.* To look over. *Not in use.*—The most vile and ridiculous escutcheon that ever this eye *survis'd*. *B. Jonson.*

SURVIVAL, or **SURVI'VANCE**, *s.* [*survivance*, Fr. Hume has somewhere used *survivancy*. *Survivance* is the old word; *survival*, modern.] Survivorship.—His son had the *survivance* of the stadtholdership. *Burnet.*

TO SURVIVE, *v. n.* [*supervivo*, Lat.; *survivre*, Fr.] To live after the death of another.

I'll assure her of
Her widowhood, be it that she *survives* me,
In all my lands and leases whatsoever.

Shakspeare.

To live after any thing.—Now that he is dead, his immortal fame *surviveth*, and flourisheth in the mouths of all people. *Spenser.*—To remain alive.

No longer now that golden age appears,
When patriarch-wits *surviv'd* a thousand years;
Now length of fame, our second life, is lost,
And bare threescore is all ev'n that can boast;
Our sons their father's failing language see,
And such as Chaucer is, shall Dryden be.

Pope.

TO SURVIVE, *v. a.* To outlive.—The rhapsodies, called the *Characteristicks*, would never have *survived* the first edition, if they had not discovered so strong a tincture of infidelity. *Watts.*

SURVIVER, or **SURVI'VOR**, *s.* One who outlives another.

Your father lost a father,
That father his; and the *survivor* bound
In filial obligation, for some term,
To do obsequious sorrow.

Shakspeare.

SURVIVERSHIP, or **SURVI'VORSHIP**, *s.* The state of outliving another.—Such offices granted in reversion were void, unless where the grant has been by *survivorship*. *Ayliffe.*

SURY LE COMTAT, a town in the east of France, department of the Loire, with 1800 inhabitants; 12 miles north-west of St. Etienne, and 6 south-east of Montbrison.

SUS, the Hog, in Zoology, a genus of the class and order mammalia belluæ, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—The four upper fore-teeth are convergent; the lower six are prominent; the two upper tusks are shorter, the two lower standing out; the snout prominent; truncate, and moveable; and the feet are mostly cloven. The individuals of this genus dig in the earth with the snout, which is furnished at the end with a strong, round cartilage; they feed indifferently upon almost every thing, even the most filthy; they wallow in the mire, and are in general extremely prolific.

1. *Sus scrofa*, or hog.—Back bristly on the fore part; the tail is hairy. There are two varieties:—1. Tail hairy; ears short, roundish; being the wild hog:—2. Tail hairy; ears long, acute; being the common hog; which is subdivided into those that have their hoofs undivided; and into those whose backs are nakedish, belly reaching almost to the ground.—This is the Chinese hog, as it is denominated.

The

The common hog is found, either in a wild or domestic state, in almost all the temperate parts of Europe and Asia; but it is not met with in the most northern parts of these continents. It is found in many parts of Africa. Dr. Shaw remarks, that it is not indigenous to the British isles; but Mr. Pennant asserts that the wild boar was formerly a native of this country, as appears from the laws of Hoeldda, who permitted his grand huntsman to chase that animal from the middle of November to the beginning of December. William the Conqueror punished with the loss of eyes those that were convicted of killing the stag, or the roe-buck; and it is asserted by Fitz-Stephens, that the vast forest which in his time grew on the north side of London, was the retreat of stags, wild boars, and bulls.

The wild boar inhabits woods, living on various kinds of vegetables, such as roots, mast, acorns, &c. It also occasionally devours animal food: it is in general considerably smaller than the domestic hog, and is of a dark brindly-grey colour, sometimes blackish; but when only a year or two old, it is of a pale red or dull yellowish-brown cast; and when quite young, it is marked with alternate dusky and pale stripes, disposed longitudinally on each side the body. Between the bristles, next the skin, is a finer or softer hair, of a woolly or curling nature. The snout is somewhat longer in proportion than that of the domestic animal; but the principal difference is in the superior length and size of the tusks, which are often several inches long, and capable of inflicting the most severe and fatal wounds.

Of the tame hog, white is the most general colour; but other colours are often intermixed in various proportions. In some respects, the hog seems to form an intermediate link between the whole and the cloven-footed animals; in others, he seems to occupy the same rank between the cloven-footed and digitated. Destitute of horns; furnished with teeth in both jaws; with only one stomach; incapable of ruminating; and producing at one birth a numerous progeny; the union of these faculties confers on the hog a remarkable peculiarity of character. He does not, like other animals, shed his fore-teeth, and put forth a second set, but retains his first set through life.

Hogs seem to enjoy none of the powers of sensation in eminent perfection. They are said to hear distant sounds; and the wild boar distinguishes the scent of the hunter and his dogs, long before they can approach him. But so imperfect is their feeling, that they have suffered mice to burrow in the fat of their backs without discovering any uneasiness, or appearing even to notice it.

The Chinese hog is distinguished from the common, by having the upper part of its body almost bare, its belly hanging nearly to the ground; its legs are very short, and its tail still more disproportionately short. The flesh of this variety is whiter and more delicate. The colour is commonly a dark grey. It abounds in China; and is diffused through New Guinea, and many islands in the South Sea. The New Hebrides, the Marquesas, the Friendly and the Society islands possess this animal, and cultivate it with great care, as it is almost the only domestic animal of which they can boast.

2. *Sus porcus*, or Guinea hog.—Back bristly on the hind parts; tail reaching to the ground. A variety has erect ears, a little pointed; the tail reaching nearly to the ground.—It inhabits Guinea; and the variety is found chiefly at Siam. It is less than the hog; the tail is naked; ears long and pointed; the body is red; hair longer on the head and buttocks.

3. *Sus tajassu*, peccary, or Mexican hog.—Back with a glandular orifice; it has no tail. The tusks of this species are scarcely conspicuous, when the mouth is shut; the ears are short, erect, pointed; the eyes are sunk in the head; the neck is short and thick; the bristles are nearly as large as those of the hedge-hog, longest on the neck and back; in colour it is hoary, black, annulate with white; from the shoulders to the breast is a collar of white. In size and figure this animal bears an imperfect resemblance to the hog

of China. From the gland on the back constantly distils a thin fetid liquor, which is the most remarkable peculiarity of this species.

The habits of the Mexican hog are not very different from those of Asia and Europe. It is found in great abundance in all the warm climates of South America. Their instincts, and arms of offence and defence, are the same as those of our own hog, but they seem to possess dispositions much more gregarious. They are usually found associating together in parties. Though only an individual be singled out, the whole body join together against an enemy. They grunt with a stronger and harsher voice than the hogs of Asia and Europe. Forests are their favourite haunts; they do not resort, like our own hogs or the wild boar, to marshes and mires. Fruits, seeds, and roots, are their chief food; but they will devour, with great eagerness, serpents, toads, and lizards; and they display great dexterity in tearing off the skins of those reptiles; but they do not wallow and become fat, like the common hog. They produce a number of young at each litter, and the mother treats them with the tenderness and solicitous care of a kind parent. Though existing in a wild state, they are susceptible of domestication, but nothing can overcome their natural stupidity. Beasts of prey, no less than man, are hostile to this species. The American leopard, or jaguar, one of their most formidable enemies, often attacks them, and commits upon the herd the most cruel slaughter. If killed in the night season, provided the gland on the back be taken off, and the liquor which it secretes carefully washed away at the instant of death, the flesh of the Mexican hog is reckoned agreeable food.

4. *Sus Africanus*, or Cape hog.—Two fore-teeth in the upper jaw. This hog is of a superior size, and peculiar to Africa. The head is long; the snout slender; tusks large, and hard as ivory; and that in the upper jaw thick, and truncated obliquely; the ears are narrow, erect, and pointed; the tail is slender, and terminating in a tuft reaching down to the highest point of the leg; both jaws furnished with twelve grinding teeth; the body is covered all over with long fine bristles. This species has sometimes been confounded with the Ethiopicus; but the form of the head, the structure of the mouth, and the manner in which the body is covered, establish a sufficient difference.—It is found in abundance between the Cape de Verde and the Cape of Good Hope.

5. *Sus Ethiopicus*, or Ethiopian hog.—This species has no fore-teeth; under the eyes is a soft wrinkled pouch. The manners and economy of this species are but very imperfectly known. They live chiefly under ground, where the texture of their snout enables them to make their way as readily as the mole.—It inhabits Madagascar, and the hot parts of Africa. They are, in fact, diffused from Sierra Leone to Congo.

The Ethiopian hog is nearly five feet long, and between 24 and 30 inches in height; the body is thick and broad; the snout is somewhat horny; the mouth is narrow, as well as destitute of fore-teeth, but it is furnished with hard gums to supply their functions: the tusks in the lower jaw are small, in the upper very large; the eyes are small, and situated high in the fore-head, the horizontal lobe or wattle under them intercepting from the sight of the animal all objects placed immediately below. The skin is of a dusky hue; the bristles thinly dispersed in separate parcels over the body, between the ears and on the shoulders longer than on any other parts.

6. *Sus Babyrussa*.—Two crooked tusks piercing through the upper part of the face.—It inhabits the islands of the Indian ocean; is gregarious; feeds on herbs and leaves; of quick scent; swims and dives well; grunts: it is the size of a stag, and the flesh is good.

SUSA, a province of the Sardinian states, in Piedmont, with a superficial extent of 700 square miles, and 65,000 inhabitants. It consists of a broad valley, situated at the foot of the Cottian Alps, and interspersed with steep rocks and pleasant

pleasant eminences. Its principal products are wine, chestnuts, fruit, silk in some districts, and a little corn. Grazing forms an important branch of its industry; and in several of the petty districts are manufactures of linen and leather. It contains likewise mines of iron and marble.

SUSA, a small town situated at the foot of the Alps, on the great road leading across Mount Cenis. The valley in which it stands is watered by the Dora-Piccola, and presents the most romantic appearance. The town itself is meanly built, and contains only 1700 inhabitants. It is, however, a place of great antiquity, and must have been formerly of importance in a military view, from its situation on the only road, or rather passage, then known from Gaul into Italy, to defend which it had extensive works, and a castle at a small distance, now called La Brunette. It has several relics; but the only monument at present existing in a state of preservation, is a beautiful triumphal arch in honour of Augustus, erected by a Roman prefect, called Cottius, from whom the contiguous portion of the Alps probably took the name of Cottian; 23 miles west-north-west of Turin.

SUSA, a town of Korassan, in Persia; 130 miles south-east of Nishapour.

SUSAO, a small town in the north of Portugal, in the west of the province of Beira, near the Douro; 17 miles west of Oporto. It has 2300 inhabitants.

SUSCEPTIBILITY, *s.* Quality of admitting; tendency to admit.—The *susceptibility* of those influences, and the effects thereof, is the general providential law whereby other physical beings are governed. *Hale.*

SUSCEPTIBLE, *adj.* [*susceptible*, Fr.] Capable of admitting; disposed to admit.—Children's minds are narrow, and usually *susceptible* but of one thought at once. *Locke.*

SUSCEPTIBLENESS, *s.* Susceptibility.

SUSCEPTION, *s.* [*susceptus*, Lat.] Act of taking.—I see the *susception* of our human nature lays thee open to this condition. *Bp. Hall.*

SUSCEPTIVE, *adj.* [*susceptus*, Lat.] This word is more analogical, though less used than *susceptible*. *Dr. Johnson.* Capable to admit.—Since our nature is so *susceptive* of errors on all sides, it is fit we should have notices given us how far other persons may become the causes of false judgments. *Watts.*

SUSCEPTIVITY, *s.* Capability of admitting.—Nor can we have any idea of matter, which does not imply a natural discernibility, and *susceptivity* of various shapes and modifications. *Wollaston.*

SUSCEPTOR, *s.* [*susceptor*, Lat.] One who undertakes; a godfather. *Coler.*—In our church, those who are not secular persons, are not forbid to be godfathers (as in the church of Rome), nor are any *susceptors* supposed to contract any affinity, as that such an undertaking should hinder marriage between the sponsors and the persons baptized, if otherwise it be lawful. *Puller.*

SUSCIPENCY, *s.* Reception; admission.

SUSCIPIENT, *s.* [*suscipiens*, Lat.] One who takes; one that admits or receives.—The sacraments and ceremonies of the Gospel operate not without the concurrent actions, and moral influences, of the *suscipient*. *Bp. Taylor.*

SUSCIPIENT, *adj.* [*suscipiens*, Lat.] Receiving, admitting.—Effecting miracles, superior or contrary to the law and course of nature, without any preparatory dispositions induced into the *suscipient* matter, in the same manner, by mere willing, saying, or commanding, doth persuade the same. *Barrow.*

To SUSCITATE, *v. a.* [*suscito*, Lat.] To rouse; to excite.—He shall *suscitate* or raise the courage of all men inclined to virtue. *Sir T. Elyot.*

SUSCITATION, *s.* [*suscitation*, Fr.] The act of rousing or exciting. *Bullokar.*—The temple is supposed to be here dissolved; and, being so, to be raised again: therefore the *suscitation* must answer to the dissolution. *Pearson.*

SUSDAL, a small town in the interior of European Rus-

sia, government of Vladimir. It contains 2200 inhabitants, is a bishop's see, and has a seminary for the education of priests. Eudoxia Federovna, the first wife of Peter the Great, was long confined in a convent here; 24 miles north-north-east of Vladimir.

SUSE, a province of Morocco, situated at its southern extremity, immediately bordering on the desert. It is the most extensive, and, unless in grain, the most fertile of any in the empire. There is not, perhaps, a finer climate in the world; its fruits are exquisite, particularly olives, the plantations of which are so extensive, that a man may travel uninterruptedly through them for several days. The sugarcane is said to grow spontaneously. Cotton, indigo, and gums, are abundant. Stick-liquorice abounds to such a degree, as to be called the root of Suse. Almonds and olive oil are produced more plentifully for exportation than in all the rest of the empire put together. The population consists of many wandering tribes of Arabs and Shelluchs. The principal town is Agadur, or Santa Cruz, situated at the mouth of the river of Suse; but the whole province has suffered materially, since its trade, by a capricious order of the emperor, was transferred to Mogodor.

SUSE, RIVER OF, rises in a branch of the Atlas, and traversing the above province, falls into the Atlantic to the south of Cape Geer. The breadth at the mouth is not in proportion to the length of its course, as a great part of it is drawn off for irrigation.

SUSEDON, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, situated near the ancient canal of Sultan Feroz, and now possessed by an independent chief. Lat. 29. 20. N. long. 76. 30. E.

To SUSPECT, *v. a.* [*suspicio*, *suspectum*, Lat.] To imagine with a degree of fear and jealousy what is not known.—Nothing makes a man *suspect* much, more than to know little; and therefore men should remedy suspicion by procuring to know more. *Bacon.*

Let us not then *suspect* our happy state,
As not secure.

Milton.

From her hand I could *suspect* no ill. *Milton.*—To imagine guilty without proof.—Though many poets may *suspect* themselves for the partiality of parents to their youngest children, I know myself too well to be ever satisfied with my own conceptions. *Dryden.*—To hold uncertain; to doubt.—I cannot forbear a story which is so well attested, that I have no manner of reason to *suspect* the truth. *Addison.*

To SUSPECT, *v. n.* To imagine guilt.—If I *suspect* without cause, let me be your jest. *Shakspeare.*

SUSPECT, *part. adj.* [*suspect*, Fr.] Doubtful.—Sordid interests or affectation of strange relations are not like to render your reports *suspect* or partial. *Glanville.*

SUSPECT, *s.* Suspicion; imagination without proof. *Obsolete.*

No fancy mine, no other wrong *suspect*,
Make me, O virtuous shame, thy laws neglect. *Sidney.*

SUSPECTABLE, *adj.* That may be suspected. *Col-grave.*

SUSPECTEDLY, *adv.* So as to be suspected; so as to excite suspicion.—[They] have either undiscernibly as some, or *suspectedly* as others, or declaredly as many, used such additaments to their faces, as they thought most advanced the beauty or comeliness of their looks. *Bp. Taylor.*

SUSPECTEDNESS, *s.* State of being suspected; state of being doubted.—Some of Hippocrates' aphorisms transplanted into our nations, by losing their lustre, contract a *suspectedness*. *Dr. Robinson.*

SUSPECTER, *s.* One who suspects.—A base *suspecter* of a virgin's honour. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SUSPECTFUL, *adj.* Apt to suspect; apt to mistrust. *Bailey.*

SUSPECTLESS, *adj.* Not suspecting; without suspicion.—Eighty of them being assembled, and *suspectless* of harm, were all knocked down. *Sir T. Herbert.*—Not suspected.

pected.—*Suspectless* have I travell'd all the town through.
Beaum. and Fl.

To SUSPEND, *v. a.* [*suspendre*, Fr.; *suspendo*, Lat.] To hang; to make to hang by any thing.

As 'twixt two equal armies, fate

Suspends uncertain victory;

Our souls, which to advance our state,

Were gone out, hung 'twixt her and me.

Donne.

To make to depend upon.—God hath in the Scripture *suspended* the promise of eternal life upon this condition, that without obedience and holiness of life no man shall ever see the Lord. *Tillotson*.—To interrupt; to make to stop for a time.

The harmony

Suspended hell, and took with ravishment

The thronging audience.

Milton.

To delay; to hinder from proceeding.—*Suspend* your indignation against my brother, till you can derive from him better testimony of his intent. *Shakspeare*.—To keep undetermined.—A man may *suspend* his choice from being determined for or against the thing proposed, till he has examined whether it be really of a nature to make him happy or no. *Locke*.—To debar for a time from the execution of an office or enjoyment of a revenue.

SUSPENDER, *s.* One who suspends or delays.—I may add the cautiousness of *suspenders* and not forward conclusions. *Mountagu*.

SUSPENSE, *s.* [*suspensus*, Lat.] Uncertainty; delay of certainty or determination; indetermination.

Ten days the prophet in *suspense* remain'd,

Would no man's fate pronounce; at last constrain'd

By Ithacus, he solemnly design'd

Me for the sacrifice.

Denham.

Act of withholding the judgment.—Whatever necessity determines to the pursuit of real bliss, the same necessity establishes *suspense*, deliberation, and scrutiny, whether its satisfaction misleads from our true happiness. *Locke*.—Stop in the midst of two opposites.

For thee the fates, severely kind, ordain

A cool *suspense* from pleasure or from pain.

Pope.

SUSPENSE, *adj.* [*suspensus*, Lat.] Held from proceeding.

The great light of day yet wants to run

Much of his race, though steep, *suspense* in heaven

Held by thy voice.

Milton.

Held in doubt; held in expectation.

This said, he sat; and expectation held

His looks *suspense*, awaiting who appear'd

To second or oppose.

Milton.

SUSPENSION, *s.* Act of making to hang on any thing.—True and formal crucifixion is often named by the general word *suspension*. *Pearson*.—Act of making to depend on any thing. Act of delaying.

Had we had time to pray,

With thousand vows and tears we should have sought,

That sad decree's *suspension* to have wrought.

Waller.

Act of withholding or balancing the judgment.—The mode of the will, which answers to dubitation, may be called *suspension*; and that which in the fantastick will is obstinacy, is constancy in the intellectual. *Grew*.—Interruption; temporary cessation.—Nor was any thing done for the better adjusting things in the time of that *suspension*, but every thing left in the same state of unconcernedness as before. *Clarendon*.—Temporary privation of an office: as, "the clerk incurred *suspension*."

SUSPENSIVE, *adj.* Doubtful. *An old and elegant word.*

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Psyche, snatch'd from danger's desperate jaws

Into the arms of this illustrious lover,

The truth of her condition hardly knows,

But in *suspensive* thoughts awhile doth hover. *Beaumont.*

SUSPENSORY, *adj.* [*suspensus*, Lat.] Suspending; belonging to that by which a thing hangs.—There are several parts peculiar to brutes which are wanting in man, as the seventh, or *suspensory* muscle of the eye. *Ray*.—Doubtful.—This moves sober pens unto *suspensory* and timorous assertions. *Brown*.

SUSPICABLE, *adj.* That may be suspected; liable to suspicion.—I look upon these two last cures as done out of *susplicable* principles and upon extravagant objects. *More*.

SUSPICION, *s.* [*suspicion*, Fr.; *suspicio*, Latin.] The act of suspecting; imagination of something ill without proof.

Suspicion all our lives shall be stuck full of eyes;

For treason is but trusted like a fox,

Who ne'er so tame so cherish'd and lock'd up,

Will have a wild trick of his ancestors.

Shakspeare.

SUSPICIOUS, *adj.* [*suspiciosus*, Lat.] Inclined to suspect; inclined to imagine ill without proof.—Nature itself, after it has done an injury, will for ever be *suspicious*, and no man can love the person he suspects. *South*.—Indicating suspicion or fear.—A wise man will find us to be rogues by our faces: we have a *suspicious*, fearful, constrained countenance, often turning and slinking through narrow lanes. *Swift*.—Liable to suspicion; giving reason to imagine ill.

I spy a black *suspicious* threatening cloud,

That will encounter with our glorious sun.

Shakspeare.

SUSPICIOUSLY, *adv.* With suspicion. So as to raise suspicion.—His guard entering the place, found Plangus with his sword in his hand, but not naked, but standing *suspiciously* enough, to one already suspicious. *Sidney*.

SUSPICIOUSNESS, *s.* Tendency to suspicion.—To make my estate known seemed impossible, by reason of the *suspiciousness* of Miso, and my young mistress. *Sidney*.

SUSPIRAL, *s.* A spring of water passing underground towards a conduit or cistern; also, a breathing-hole or ventiduct. *Chambers*.

SUSPIRATION, *s.* [*suspiratio*, from *suspiro*, Lat.]

Sigh; act of fetching the breath deep.

Not customary suits of solemn black,

Nor windy *suspiration* of forc'd breath

That can denote me truly.

Shakspeare.

To SUSPIRE, *v. n.* [*suspiro*, Lat.] To sigh; to fetch the breath deep. To breathe.

By his gates of breath

There lies a downy feather which stirs not:

Did he *suspire*, that light and weightless down

Perforce must move.

Shakspeare.

SUSPIRED, *part. adj.* Wished for; desired earnestly: a *latinism*.—O glorious morning, wherein was born the expectation of nations; and wherein the long *suspired* Redeemer of the world did, as his prophets had cried, rent the heavens, and come down in the vesture of humanity! *Wotton*.

SUSQUEHANNAH, a county of the United States, on the north side of Pennsylvania, bounded north by New York, east by Wayne county, south by Luzerne county, and west by Ontario county. Chief town, Montrose.

SUSQUEHANNAH, a river of the United States, and the largest river of Pennsylvania, which is formed by two branches that come from the east and west. The east rises in Otsego lake, New York, and the west in Huntingdon county, Pennsylvania. They unite at Northumberland. The river then runs south-east into the head of the Chesapeake, in Maryland. It is $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile wide at its mouth, but is navigable only 5 miles. The Susquehannah was surveyed in 1817 by commissioners appointed by Pennsylvania, who

9 K

reported,

reported, that below Columbia no ascending navigation was practicable, but that, at the expense of about 20,000 dollars, every obstacle might be removed to the head of the two branches. It is contemplated to unite the waters of this river with those of the Schuylkill. By the Juniatta and its other tributary streams from the west, the Susquehanna also approaches near the waters of the Allegany, which forms one of the two branches of the Ohio; and there is no more than a short land carriage from the Tioga and its other confluent waters to the east, to reach Lake Seneca and the river Genesee, which fall into Lake Ontario.

SUSSEX, one of the southern counties of England, bounded on the west by Hampshire, on the north by Surrey, on the east and north-east by Kent, and on the south by the British channel. It is 76 miles in length, and nearly 20 in average breadth. Towards the boundary of Kent it is contracted to an obtuse point.

The aspect of Sussex is varied in a pleasing manner, by the inequalities of the downs, with the intervening valleys, through which the many little streams of the county pursue their respective courses to the sea. The wooded scenery which it presents, and the pasture land with which it is contrasted, give to the county in general a rural and a rich diversity of appearance. The tracks of land which come under the description of mere wastes in Sussex, are very considerable. They chiefly occupy the northern side of the county, where, in a district containing by computation 500,000 acres, these almost desert tracks form not less than 110,000. The climate upon the downs fronting the south-west is bleak, being exposed to violent winds, which are impregnated with saline particles, occasioned by the spray, driving against the beach. In the western part of the maritime district the climate is warm, and highly favourable to the purposes of vegetation; and in that division called the Weald, the circulation of air is impeded, and the climate is cold and damp.

In regard to minerals, Sussex is not inferior to most of the counties of England. In the easternmost parts of the Weald is found every sort of limestone. The Sussex marble, when cut into slabs for ornamental chimney-pieces, and highly polished, is equal to most kinds for beauty and quality. It is an excellent stone for square building, and for paving is not exceeded. It affords a very valuable manure, equal, and by some thought superior to chalk, and cheaper to those who live near the place where it is dug. It is found from 10 to 20 feet under ground, where it lies in strata, 9 or 10 inches thick. The Sussex lime-stone has been found superior to both that of Maidstone and Plymouth; and for cement it is thought to surpass any in the kingdom. Iron-stone abounds in this county; and to the ferruginous mixture with which its soil is in many places so highly impregnated, is to be ascribed, the sterility of so large a portion of its surface. Chalk is still more plentiful, a vast range of hills which occupy a considerable part of the county contiguous to the coast, being composed of that material. On the south side of these hills marl is dug in various places. Fuller's earth is found at Tillington, and consumed in the neighbouring mills; and red ochre at Graffham, Chidham, and other places on the coast, whence much of it is sent to the metropolis.

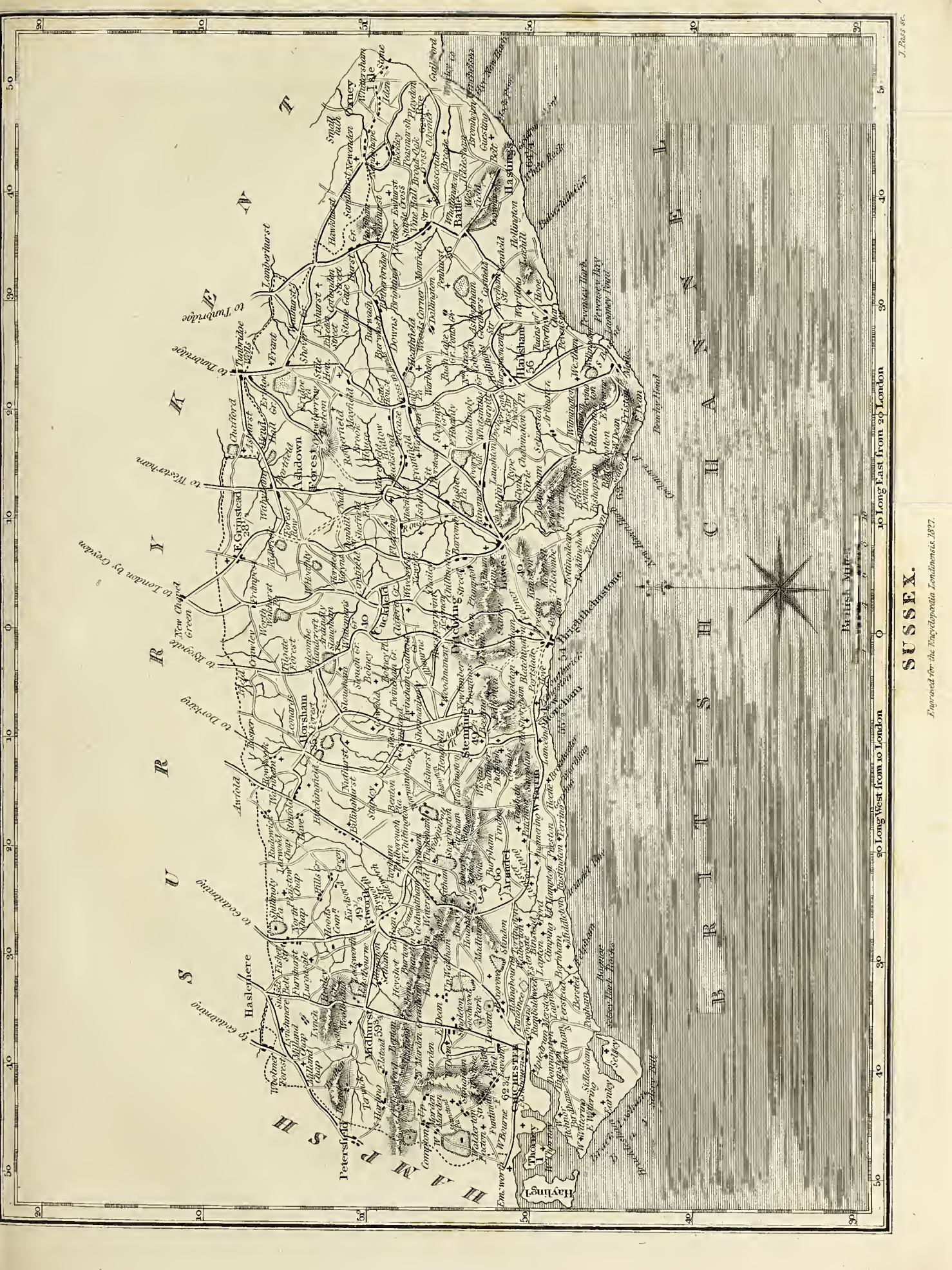
The rivers of Sussex are insignificant streams, when compared with those of some other provinces of the kingdom; but they are exclusively its own, as their origin and courses are confined within the limits of the county. All of them fall into the British channel.

Sussex is one of those counties which, from the remotest antiquity, has been celebrated for its timber, principally oak. Before the Norman conquest it was one continued forest; and the quantity of wood-land which it at present contains cannot be estimated at less than 170,000 or 180,000 acres. The reigning feature of the Weald is its timber, which over-spreads it in every direction; and so naturally is it adapted to the soil, that if a field were sown with furze only, the ground, in the course of a few years, would be covered with

young oaks, without any trouble or expense of planting. The quality of this timber may be collected from this circumstance, that the navy contractors stipulate for Sussex oak in preference to every other kind. The turnpike roads of this county are in general good, being composed of whinstone and Kentish rag; and where these have not been used, the roads are found to be inferior, as in some of the eastern parts where they are narrow and sandy. There are no canals in Sussex, but the river Arun has been made navigable from the sea to its junction with the New Cut, a distance upwards of 17 miles; and from thence a company of merchants have extended it to Newbridge. A similar process has also been taken with the Rother, a branch of the former river, which constitutes part of a grand plan for connecting London with Sussex, by means of the junction of the Arun with the Wey at Guildford. A plan has also been proposed for cutting another canal from Newbridge on the Rother to Horsham, and thence to the iron railway at Merstham, near Reigate in Surrey. The proportion between pasture and arable land varies in different parts of this county. In the Weald, one-third is pasture, one-third arable, and one-third wood and waste. On the south side of the downs, the arable exceeds the pasture in the proportion of thirty to one. The rotation of crops in Sussex entirely depends upon the district in which they are sown. Some instances have occurred on very rich land, where wheat has been repeated four or five years in succession, and the product amounted to four or five quarters per acre. The crops commonly raised in Sussex are wheat, oats, clover, turnip, pease, barley, and tares. The crops not commonly cultivated are beans, potatoes, buck-wheat, lettuces, hops, carrots, rhubarb, opium, sainfoin, lucerne, and chicory. The management of the meadow and pasture lands varies but little from the practices common in other counties; though here indeed there is but too much reason to complain of negligence with respect to the improvement of grazing land. Irrigation is but locally known; and it is only in the western parts of the county that any signs of it are to be observed. Very great improvements, however, have of late years been effected in the marshes situated along the coast, or in the neighbourhood of the rivers. In the western part of Sussex are some considerable orchards; and where the soil is adapted to the fruit, the plantations are thickly interspersed. The neighbourhood of Petworth yields the best cyder of any in the county. The manures used in Sussex, besides common dung, are chalk, lime, marl, sleet, soap-ashes, wood-ashes, peat-ashes, rags, sheep clippings, pilchards, paring-dust, and gypsum. The first three are applied in great abundance; the rest, from their nature, but partially.

Sussex is distinguished for its breed of cattle, which are universally allowed to be equal to any in the kingdom. It is also celebrated for its breed of sheep, which are fed on the south downs. They require but a very slight quantity of food for their subsistence, and the quality of their flesh is peculiarly sweet and tender. Their wool is little, if at all, inferior to that of the Hereford sheep, and their hardiness is demonstrated by their healthiness and freedom from losses, amid the storms to which they are exposed in winter and spring, on their bleak native hills. The total amount of all the sheep kept in the county is about 450,000. The largest estate in Sussex does not greatly exceed £7500 per annum, and most of the proprietors hold their land in their own occupation. The principal manufacture carried on in this county was the making of iron into bars; but this has decayed, on account of the great establishments in Scotland and Wales, where, by the use of pit coal, the article is supplied at a much cheaper rate.

The county of Sussex contains many Roman, and some British antiquities. The Ermine-street, one of the eight British roads, led from this coast to the south-east part of Scotland. Here also was the Stane-street of the Romans, which passed from east to west of the county, with a vicinal, or branching road, towards Porchester. There are also many remains of Roman encampments in this district; these are situated



British Miles

30 Long West from 10 London

10 Long East from 20 London

SUSSEX.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

J. Pass, sc.

situated in the vicinity of the downs, and overlook the Weald. Mr. Dallaway, in his "History of Western Sussex," recounts eleven of those relics of early encampment. Over the downs, and other parts of Sussex, are scattered various tumuli or barrows, which, when opened, have been found to contain either bones, urns, or entire skeletons. Sussex, and the adjoining counties of Hants and Surrey, were by the Romans denominated Belgæ, from the circumstance of their being inhabited by a people so called. These were afterwards joined by the Regni, who settled in the same district antecedent to the invasion of England by Julius Cæsar. After that event during the Roman dominion of Britain, there were four large stations or towns in Sussex, which included the minor tribes of the Bibroci and the Rhemi. Under the Britons, Sussex formed a part of the South-Seaxna-ricæ, as already mentioned in Surrey; and by a similar modulation has been reduced to its present sound. Like the other counties of England, Sussex was, at the Norman invasion, divided into lordships, and assigned to some of the followers of king William. At that period the title of Earl of Sussex was given to one of these, and the title continued till 1801, when it became extinct. It was then constituted a dukedom, and given to Augustus Frederick, the present Duke. The general division of Sussex is into rapes, a division peculiar to this county. These rapes, each of which is said to have had its particular castle, river, and forest, are Chichester, Arundel, and Bramber, forming the western; and Lewes, Pevensy, and Hastings, the eastern portion. The rapes are subdivided into sixty-five hundreds, and comprehend 313 parishes. Chichester is the chief town.

Sussex sends 28 members to parliament, two for the county, two for the city of Chichester, and two for each of the four Cinque Ports that are situated within the county. Population: males 116,605, females 116,314.

SUSSEX, a county of the United States, in New Jersey, bounded north-north-east by New York, south-east by Bergen, Morris, and Hunterdon counties, and west and north-west by the Delaware, which separates it from Pennsylvania. Population 25,749. Chief town, Newton.

SUSSEX, a county of the United States, in Delaware, bounded north by Kent county, east by Delaware bay and the Atlantic, south and west by Maryland. Population 27,750, including 2402 slaves. Chief towns, Georgetown and Lewistown.

SUSSEX, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded north-east by Surrey county, south-south-east by Southampton county, south-west by Greensville county, and north-west by Dinwiddie and Prince George counties. Population 11,362, including 6644 slaves.

SUSSMILCH (John Peter), a German Lutheran divine, was born about the beginning of the last century, and applied with diligence not only to the study of history, but to that of mathematics, so that he became an expert calculator in political arithmetic. He is principally known by a work, entitled "Die Gottliche, &c." i. e. "the order observed by God in the changes of the human race, demonstrated by the births, deaths, and propagation of man;" a fourth edition of which, improved and corrected by J. C. Bauman, was published at Berlin in the year 1775, in 3 vols. 8vo. In this work, the author first treats of the multiplications of men in general, and shews that the number of births is almost always greater than that of the deaths: he then enumerates the obstacles to the increase of mankind; examines how many persons live on the earth, and how many it could contain; treats on the different causes of fecundity; the propagation of the two sexes, and the proportion of one to the other; of the proportion of those who die at different ages; of diseases and their proportion, &c.

To SUSTAIN, *v. a.* [*sustineo*, Lat.] To bear; to prop; to hold up.

Vain is the force of man,
To crush the pillars that the pile sustain. *Dryden.*

To support; to keep from sinking under evil.—If he have

no comfortable expectations of another life to sustain him under the evils in this world, he is of all creatures the most miserable. *Tillotson.*—To maintain; to keep.—My labour will sustain me. *Milton.*—To help; to relieve; to assist.—They charged on pain of perpetual displeasure, neither to entreat for him, or any way sustain him. *Shakspeare.*—To bear; to endure.

Can Ceyx then sustain to leave his wife,
And unconcerned forsake the sweets of life? *Dryden.*

To bear without yielding.
Sacharissa's beauty's wine,
Which to madness doth incline;
Such a liquor as no brain
That is mortal can sustain. *Waller.*

To suffer; to bear as inflicted.
If you omit
The offer of this time, I cannot promise,
But that you shall sustain more new disgraces,
With these you bear already. *Shakspeare.*

SUSTAIN, *s.* What sustains or supports. *Not used.*

I lay and slept, I wak'd again,
For my sustain
Was the Lord. *Milton.*

SUSTAINABLE, *adj.* [*soustenable*, Fr.] That may be sustained.

SUSTAINER, *s.* One that props; one that supports.—The first founder, *sustainer*, and continuer thereof, [the church.] *More.*—One that suffers; a sufferer.

Thyself hast a sustainer been
Of much affliction in my cause. *Chapman.*

SUSTEAD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles south west of Cromer.

SUSTENANCE, *s.* [*soustenance*, Fr.] Support; maintenance.—Is then the honour of your daughter of greater moment to her, than to my daughter her's, whose sustenance it was? *Addison.*—Necessaries of life; victuals.—The experiment cost him his life for want of sustenance. *L'Estrange.*

SUSTENTACLE, *s.* [*sustentaculum*, Lat.] Support. *Not in use.*—God's the sustentacle of all natures. *More.*

SUSTENTATION, *s.* [from *sustento*, Latin.] Support; preservation from falling.—These steams once raised above the earth, have their ascent and sustentation aloft promoted by the air. *Boyle.*—Use of victuals.—A very abstemious animal by reason of its frigidity, and latiancy in the winter, will long subsist without a visible sustentation. *Brown.*—Maintenance; support of life.—When there be great shoals of people, which go on to populate, without foreseeing means of life and sustentation; it is of necessity that once in an age they discharge a portion of their people upon other nations. *Bacon.*

SUSTEREN, or SUSTERN, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Limburg, with 1400 inhabitants; 10 miles south-south-west of Ruremonde.

SUSTINENTE, a small town of Austrian Italy, on the Po; 12 miles south-east of Mantua.

SUSURRATION, *s.* [from *susurro*, Lat.] Whisper; soft murmur.

SUSZEN-KIRDHEN, a village of the west of Germany, in Baden, near Freyberg, where a partial action was fought in 1796, between the French and Austrians, in favour of the latter.

SUTALURY, a town of Bengal, district of Backergunge. It is advantageously situated, and carries on a considerable trade in grain, &c. Lat. 22. 38. N. long. 90. 10. E.

SUTCHANA, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, belonging to the jam or chief of Noonagur. It is situated on the eastern side of the gulf of Cutch, and carries on an extensive fishery. Some pearl oysters are also found in its vicinity. Lat. not ascertained.

SUTCOMBE,

SUTCOMBE, a parish of England in Devonshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-east of Holsworthy.

SUTE, *s.* Sort. I believe only misprinted.—Touching matters belonging to the church of Christ, this we conceive that they are not of one *sute*. *Hooker*.

SUTERA, or SUTERRA, a town of Sicily, in the Val di Mazzara, with 4000 inhabitants; it is 16 miles north-north-east of Girgenti, and nearly 20 miles from any part of the coast; so that its trade is limited, and it is seldom visited by travellers.

SUTHBURY HILL, a hill of England, in Wiltshire, between Everley Warren and Luggershall. It is the highest in the county, and has the traces of a vast fortification, supposed to have been Danish.

SUTHERLAND CREEK, a river of Upper Canada, which runs into the lake of St. Francis.

SUTHERLAND POINT, the south point of entrance into Botany Bay, so called for Forby Sutherland, one of Captain Cook's seamen, who was buried there in the year 1770.

SUTHERLANDSHIRE, one of the most northerly counties in Scotland, extending the whole breadth of the island, from the German to the Atlantic oceans. It is situated between Lat. 57. 53. and 58. 33. N. and between long. 3. 40. and 5. 13. W. from London. It was erected into a separate sheriffdom in the year 1633, having previous thereto, together with the other northern counties, been included within that of Inverness. It is bounded on the west for a distance of $40\frac{1}{2}$ miles, by the Mynch, an arm of the Atlantic ocean, which separates it from the islands of Harris and Lewis; on the north, for a distance of 50 miles, by the Northern ocean; on the east, for a distance of $37\frac{1}{2}$ miles, by the county of Caithness; on the south-east, for a distance of $32\frac{1}{2}$ miles, by the Moray frith; and on the south and south-west, for a distance of $52\frac{1}{2}$ miles, by the Dornoch frith, the Oickel, and some lesser streams, which separate it from the county of Ross. The name of Sutherland signifies the south part of Caithness; that province having originally included both counties. The name of Caithness signifies the Ness or promontory of the province of Catuibh, the Gaelic name for this district, which is the appellation by which Sutherland is still known in the dialect of the inhabitants; while Caithness is called Gallaibh, or the country of the Gauls or strangers. This county was inhabited by the three clans of Sutherland, Mackay, and Macleod. The clan of Sutherland is called Chattach, and their chief Moir-fhear Chattabibh, the lord or the great man of Sutherland. When that dignity is vested in the female, her designation is Ban Mhoir-fhear Chattaibh, the great lady of Sutherland, the patronymic by which Lady Stafford, as countess of Sutherland, is universally styled in the Highlands. This clan occupied the shores of the Moray frith and the glens terminating on that coast, with a considerable part of Caithness; and included, besides those of the name of Sutherland, the inferior sept of the Gunns, Bannermans, Murrays, Matheisons, with many of the name of Gordon and Mackay. The northern and north-western coasts, and the adjoining straths, together with a part of Caithness, belonged to the Mackays, of whom lord Reay is the chief. Strathnaver, formerly the seat of his family, was acquired by the Earl of Sutherland in the 17th century. The south-west portion of the county, or Assynt, was the country of the Macleods, from whom it was conquered by the clan Kenzie, and came by purchase into the family of Sutherland towards the middle of the last century.

The county of Sutherland, though it never has been surveyed, is computed to contain 1,840,000 acres, deducting 32,000 for salt water lochs. The north-western districts, extending from the Kyles Ku of Assynt to the water of Borgia, is the property of lord Reay, and comprises about 400,000 acres. The greater proportion of the remainder comprises the estate of Sutherland, which is washed on one side by the Northern ocean, and on the other by the Moray and Dornoch friths, and is computed to contain more than

800,000 acres. The residue of the county is divided among ten other proprietors.

The face of the country is extremely mountainous and rocky towards its western extremity. At first view nothing appears but vast groups of mountains, towering in succession above one another, and covered with heath. The valleys diverge from the central mountains in every direction. Some of them are from 30 to 40 miles in length, and extremely narrow, forming separate districts, divided from one another by ridges of inaccessible mountains, and watered by rapid streams, which sometimes form mosses and lakes of various dimensions. Owing to the high northern latitude of the county of Sutherland, and its almost insular position, the air is moist and sharp, and the exposure to the sea-breeze renders it adverse to the rapid growth of timber, especially near the coast. In sheltered bays and glens, where the soil is deep; trees reach a respectable size, such as at Dunrobin Castle, Tongue House, and Skibo. The wych-elm, the sycamore, and the ash, thrive best. Of the latter sort, there are two trees at Dunrobin, which measure twelve feet in circumference at the height of eight feet from the ground. The climate is variable; but though the winters are tedious and boisterous, it is seldom that the snow lies long upon the coast, and even in the interior it prevails less than in the central Highlands of Inverness and Perthshire. The springs are cold and ungenial, and are frequently prolonged late into the year, so that the summers are consequently short. But as the sun at this season has great power during the day, owing to the length of time it is above the horizon, and the heat being much increased by the intense reflection from the hills, a most rapid vegetation takes place, and the harvest, upon the coast side, is got in earlier than in a large proportion of Scotland. Indeed, the wheat upon the coast side, has been housed, more than once, before that of a considerable district of England. The evenings, however, are never warm, and among the mountains are always very cold, piercing, and chilly, frequently accompanied with mildews and early frosts, which, sweeping down the glens and the courses of the burns, destroy every sort of crop and cultivated vegetable. The commencement of October is generally fine clear weather, but the remainder of the year is boisterous and unsteady.

This county may be considered as divided into three districts, namely, the eastern, near the German ocean; the western, on the coast of the Atlantic; and the middle, or central district. The eastern district consists of a strip of level land, which runs along the coast side, and is from a quarter to a mile in breadth. The climate here is more favourable than that in Morayshire, for bringing corn to maturity, and is said not to differ materially from East Lothian, except that it has a somewhat later spring, and an earlier winter. It is sheltered from the northern blast by a ridge of mountains, from the Ord of Caithness to the vicinity of the Little Ferry, or Strath-fleet, whose bold and heathy front affords shelter, and reflects the rays of the meridian sun upon the cultivated ground between them and the Moray frith. These mountains are from 300 to 800 feet above the level of the sea. The middle district resembles the other parts of the North Highlands: it consists of the four straths or valleys of the rivers of Helmsdale, Brora, Fleet and Oickel, with their tributary streams issuing from the adjoining mountains. The soil between the mountains is a sharp loam. Black cattle and sheep are the staple commodities on which the farmers and tacksmen depend for the payment of their rent.

The shores bordering the Atlantic are bold; and the whole district is wild, rocky, and mountainous. The Assynt mountains, viz., Ben-mor Assynt, Glass-bhein, Bencanap, Ben-choinag, or the Sugar loaf mountains, Ben-erie, Craig-Rou; also the Ben-mor, and Stack-ben of Edderachylis, are huge barren mountains of immense height, without scarcely a stalk of heath to be seen on their barren surface; even their bases, and the track of country that borders the Atlantic,

Atlantic, are so rugged and rocky, that hardly any vegetation can be discovered; yet the glens, ravines, and hollows, betwixt these mountains, are extremely favourable to pasturage, and under the improved system of management adopted by the Marquess of Stafford and other great proprietors, have been converted into extensive sheep farms. It is well known that the western coasts of Britain are more subject to heavy rains, brought by the westerly winds from the Atlantic Ocean, than the eastern; and on the coast of Sutherlandshire, whenever the wind blows from the west or north-west, heavy rains constantly ensue; and it is supposed that there is no part of Scotland more subject to rain than the western district of the county of Sutherland. On the coasts of the numerous bays, there are many rugged and partially arable fields; but the climate, from the constant rains and mists, does not second the favourable properties of the soil. From this prevalence of rain, the west and north-west sides of the county are damp, and the interior, though in a less degree, is the same, in consequence of its high mountains, lakes, and swampy mosses; but on the south-east side, which is generally termed the coast side, they complain, that in the summer months in general they experience too little rain. Each shore is fringed with a narrow border of arable soil, and on the south-east coast it extends from a few hundred yards to about one mile in breadth. The valleys are occupied by numerous lakes and rivers, the chief of which are Loch Shin, which stretches 20 miles from north-west to south-east, and is about 1 mile broad, and abounds with salmon and trout; Loch Assynt, 6 miles long and 1½ broad; Loch Naver, Loch Hope, Loch Lyal, Loch More, Loch Brora, and Baden Loch, all abounding with trout. The rivers and streams, as may be supposed in such a mountainous country, are numerous. The most considerable of the rivers is the Oikel, or frith of Dornoch, which is navigable 12 miles for vessels of 50 tons; the water of Fleet, or Strathfleet; the water of Brora; the water of Helmsdale. On the northern and western coasts is the water of Hallidale, the water of Strathy, the river Naver, the waters of Kenloch, Hope, and Eribol. The north-west and west coasts are indented by numerous bays of great extent, and have many promontories extending into the ocean. These are Cape Wrath, Far-out-head, Whiten-head, and Strathy-head. Some small islands are scattered along the coast, few of which are inhabited. Rock crystals and pebbles are found in many parts; and beautiful garnets are found on the coast, in the parish of Tongue; and specimens of native gold have been found in the parish of Kildonan. Sutherland has been an earldom in the Sutherland family since the year 1057. It sends one member to parliament; and Dornoch, the county town, is classed with the burghs of Tain and Dingwall in Ross-shire, Wick in Caithness, and Kirkwall in Orkney. There are three great deer forests; and other kinds of game are found in great plenty, as common and alpine hares, moorfowl, black cocks, ptarmigans, wild pigeons, and partridges.

The valued rent of the county is divided among the several heritors as follows:—

Earldom of Sutherland, lordship of Strathnaver, and barony of Assynt, including Wadsetters, }	16,951	2	2
Lord Reay	3,720	8	5
Skibo	1,975	11	6
Bighoun	900	0	0
Poyntzfield	466	13	4
Balnagowan	431	18	0
Lord Ashburton	400	0	0
Cadboll	354	0	0
Embo	346	8	0
Opisdale	253	6	8
Creech	200	0	0
Achany	194	2	8
	<hr/>		
	£26,193	10	9

The real rent has been estimated at about 40,000*l.* per annum.

In consequence of the peculiar situation of the property in this county, the right of voting for the commissioner of the shire differs from the rest of Scotland, being vested in all persons having 200*l.* Scots of valued rent, whether holding of the crown or a subject superior.

In no part in Scotland have greater changes and improvements taken place within the last 20 years, than in the county of Sutherland, which, from a variety of causes, both moral and physical, long laboured under peculiar disadvantages, in comparison with other parts of the country. It was here that the feudal system appeared to make its last stand; and, while in other parts the last traces of that rude and ancient state of property and manners were fast disappearing, they still prevailed in Sutherlandshire in all their vigour; nor was it easy to see how a breach could be made in the system, while this county continued to be in a manner debarred, both by physical obstructions, and by the want of all practicable communications, from all intercourse with the more civilized parts of the country. By the enterprize and exertion, however, of the landed proprietors, these obstructions to a free and extended intercourse were at length done away; and this advantage, while it tended in every view to improve the trade and agriculture of the county, paved the way also for a total change in the tenure by which property was held, and for the gradual abolition, in consequence, of that state of manners to which the feudal system gave rise. In order to give a clear view of these changes, and their effects, it will be proper to describe the state of the county antecedent to the year 1800, taking for our guide Mr. Loch's judicious account of the improvements made in this rude and remote part of the island.

One of the most important obstacles to the improvement of Sutherlandshire was its secluded situation, being cut off from all intercourse with the rest of the kingdom. On referring to the map of Scotland, it will be observed, that the island narrows towards its northern extremity, and that the four northern counties of Ross, Cromarty, Sutherland, and Caithness, are detached from the more southern counties of Scotland by the Moray frith, which almost crosses the county. This district, it will be observed also, is still more cut off from the southern counties, and intersected in itself by four inlets of the sea, stretching into the country, to the very base of the mountains, which constitute by far the larger portion of this part of the island. These inlets, or friths, are the Beaully frith, which, extending from Fort George to Beaully, separates Ross-shire from the county of Inverness; the frith of Cromarty, which intersects the counties of Ross and Cromarty; the frith of Dornoch, which divides the counties of Ross and Sutherland; and Loch Fleet, which intersects this latter county. From a mere inspection of the map, however, no adequate idea can be formed of the practical obstacles which these friths opposed to the communications between different parts of the country. Ferries were indeed necessarily established at these different inlets of the sea; but they were totally unprovided with every thing necessary for the accommodation of passengers. There was only one of them, that nearest to Inverness, provided with piers. There were no inns; nothing to shelter the traveller from the inclemency of this variable and boisterous climate, while the natives were slowly and unskilfully putting his horse and carriage into the wretched boats; not to mention the risk of crossing these narrow friths, hemmed in between mountains, and exposed to violent gusts, which, suddenly bursting forth from the hollow glens, leave little time to prepare for the storm; while the various eddies and currents also added to the delay, if not to the dangers of the passage. Equally rude and unfit for travelling were the roads which connected these ferries. Beyond the Dornoch frith, indeed, no road existed; so that the county of Sutherland was not only cut off from all means of communication with the rest of the kingdom, but its interior means of communication were even more deficient. On the coast side road, the track for a carriage to follow was traced out by two narrow ruts along the ground;

and in a county so much intersected by water, there was only one bridge, that at Brora, the span of which does not exceed 24 feet. Consisting as this county does, almost entirely of one uninterrupted succession of wild mountain or deep morass, the intercourse between one district and another was confined exclusively, or nearly so, to the exertions of those who could travel on foot; and even this mode of communication, except to the natives, who were brought up to such toil and exertion, was almost impracticable. Besides the fatigue of such an exertion, it was accompanied by considerable difficulty and danger to a person accustomed to such exercise, to which he was exposed in passing precipices or struggling through swamps. Being, moreover, like all mountainous countries, intersected by deep and rapid rivers, and numberless lesser streams, which, although at one moment nearly dry and easily fordable, are apt, in the course of a few hours, to be so swollen, as to remain for days impassable; the adventurous traveller was exposed to the chance of being cut off from all shelter, or subjected to the sad accommodation of a Highland hut. So long as this rude state of things continued, all improvement was impossible; and as the communication of Sutherland with the south lay through the counties of Ross and Inverness, it was evident, that until the proprietors of these counties opened the communication, all that could be done in Sutherlandshire would be of little avail.

Such was the state of this district until the year 1803, when parliament having agreed to advance half the expense of constructing certain roads and bridges in the Highlands of Scotland, the proprietors of Ross-shire and Inverness embraced the offer, and in consequence, a line of road has been constructed according to the best principles of the art, from the town of Inverness by Beaully and Dingwall, to the boundaries of the county of Sutherland; two excellent stone bridges, consisting of five arches each, having been built across the Beaully and Conon rivers. This line of communication, with the above exception, was opened for the public accommodation in the years 1816 and 1817.

The county of Sutherland was still more forward in availing itself of the liberality of parliament. The two principal obstacles to a free communication, arose from the friths of Dornoch and Loch Fleet, over which it was a difficult undertaking to construct bridges; though, without this, the communication by means of ferries must have been tedious and imperfect. After a careful survey of the frith of Dornoch, it was determined to construct an iron bridge across it, at a place called Bonar, where the breadth of the frith is considerably diminished, though above this point it again expands. The work was accordingly begun in June, 1811, and finished in November, 1812, at an expense of £13,971. It consists of an extensive embankment on the Ross-shire side, with two stone arches, of 50 and 60 feet span respectively, and one iron arch of 150 feet span, which was cast in Denbighshire, and being there first erected, it afterwards was taken to pieces, and sent to the Highlands of Scotland. From this point different roads have been constructed, one to the seat of Lord Reay, situated upon the Northern Ocean, a distance of about 50 miles, which was commenced in 1810, and completed in 1820; and another towards the county of Caithness, which is separated from Sutherland by a lofty range of mountains, intersected by deep and almost impassable ravines, terminating in a vast precipice, jutting into the sea, well known by the name of the Ord of Caithness. The new road is conducted across these ravines, and over the mountain, with such skill, that the traveller is unconscious of the height to which he has ascended, until the diminished sight of the objects below him point out to him the reality. The length of this road is about 41 miles. It was undertaken in different portions, and begun in the several years of 1807, 1809, 1811, and 1813, and finished respectively, in the years 1811, 1813, and 1814. In the line of this road occurs the arm of the sea called Loch Fleet, or the Little Ferry. Across this inlet of the sea it was necessary to have the means of an easy and uninterrupted communication; and for this pur-

pose, in place of a bridge, a mound with a bridge at one end of it, was constructed across the narrow part of the channel, by which the sea was excluded, and some good land was thus recovered for cultivation. The extreme length of this mound is 995 yards, exclusive of the bridge; its width at the base 60 yards, sloping to about 20 feet at the top; its perpendicular height being about 18 feet. The highest tide which has happened since its construction, rose ten feet five inches on the mound, perpendicular height. At the north end it terminates in a strongly built bridge, 34 yards long, consisting of four arches, of 12 feet span each, fitted with strong valve gates. It is, in all probability, one of the most complete structures of the kind in the island. The expense of this work, including some additions and alterations, amounted to near 11,000*l*. The roads thus formed became the bases of other roads, which have been since made out in other directions, and which have been found of incalculable benefit for the improvement of the country. In many places these roads are cut through the hardest rock; in others they are obliged to be supported on bulwarks of solid masonry. Expensive drains to protect them from the mountain floods, and bridges over the innumerable streams that rush from the hills in every direction, are required. These must be formed of the most durable materials, and the best workmanship, to resist the impetuosity of the torrents. Nothing will set this in so striking a point of view, as to state, that, upon the projected road to Assynt, a distance of 46 miles, three bridges of three arches each, two bridges consisting of one arch of 40 feet span, five of 20 feet span each, three of 24, six of 18, two of 12, besides many others of inferior dimensions, would be required. When to this is added, that the lime and timber necessary for their construction had to be imported; that huts had to be constructed for the workmen; that artificers had to be brought from a great distance; and a supply of food, carefully stored up, and purchased from the neighbouring counties, a correct idea will be obtained of the obstacles which were encountered, in carrying these improvements into effect, and which still, in a great degree, stand in the way of the progress of those which remain to be done. To complete these improvements, a mail coach began running in July, 1819; and thus, at the distance of 802 miles, a constant and regular communication is now maintained with London, by the county of Sutherland, which not many years back had no means of intercourse even with the contiguous counties. To obtain this advantage, horses had to be brought from Edinburgh, a distance of 400 miles; and inns and stabling, and also post-offices, had to be built in different parts.

Sutherlandshire, as has been already remarked, was one of the last strongholds of the feudal system in Scotland, where that ancient state of manners prevailed, after it had been banished from the other parts of the country, by the progress of improvement and increased rents. So long as the lands were held by the well understood term of military service, and the landlord was considered as the head of the clan which was spread over his estate, it would have been reckoned altogether inconsistent with the relation in which he stood to his tenants, to have raised their rents. But when, from the change of manners, and the progress of society, these services were of no further use, the landlords, immediately disregarding those family ties which had formerly bound together the chief and his clan, began to think how they could turn their lands to the best account; and it was obvious, that by disencumbering their estates of all the superfluous population which the feudal system had brought together, and letting them to improving tenants, who would convert them to the purposes of sheep pasturage, for which they were best fitted, they would greatly increase their rents. Such was precisely the state of matters in Sutherlandshire. A hardy race of ancient tenants were scattered over the sides, and through the glens, of the various mountains, where from time immemorial their fathers were settled, and to which they were attached, as to a paternal inheritance. It now became the policy of the landlords to follow the same system

system as had been heretofore adopted in the more southern Highlands, by removing all this numerous tenantry from their native glens and mountains, which were to be converted into sheep-walks, and measures for this purpose were adopted as soon as the great works undertaken for facilitating the communications of the country opened a reasonable prospect of successfully carrying through these other improvements. The plan was to transfer the inhabitants of the mountains and glens to certain situations on the sea-shore; to grant them small lots of land; and to engage them also in the herring and white fishery. Such a change was against all the habits, prejudices, and fondest affections of those rude mountaineers, who clung to their mode of life, and to the ancient habitations of their fathers, with an attachment which nothing could break. The removing of the tenants commenced in 1807, and has been since continued as the different tacks expired.

In the years 1818, 1819, and 1820, when a great proportion of the tacks expired, numerous removals took place, which produced great agitation in the country, and gave rise to a violent controversy as to the propriety of these measures, and as to the manner in which they were carried into effect, but into which it is not our purpose to enter. It is quite obvious that the Marquess of Stafford had a right to adopt whatever measures he should deem expedient for the improvement of his property; and that he was only following the mode of management which had been adopted by every other landlord before him. It is also clear that those who were instructed to carry these improvements into effect, had no interest whatever to inflict any unnecessary hardship on the unfortunate people who were to be removed from their abodes, for the interest of the landlord and the improvement of the estate; nor is it to be believed that any unnecessary hardship was inflicted. On the contrary, every expedient was adopted, and the most liberal measures proposed, to reconcile the inhabitants to the change, and to render it as easy to them as possible. On the other hand, it is most manifest that they were, with some exceptions, most averse to the change; that to the last moment they clung to their native spots with the fondest affection; and that, though all persuasion was used, and the most liberal arrangements proposed, they could not be induced, voluntarily, to quit their ancient abodes. It became necessary, in consequence, to call in the civil authorities, in order to enforce their removal, and on some occasions the county was thrown into great agitation, and tumults were occasioned. Though due notice was given to the tenantry, yet in many cases they could not be prevailed on to make the least preparations for a removal; and at one place, after they had retired at the approach of the sheriff's officers, they re-occupied their dwellings which they had quitted, as soon as the officers left them, on the notion that if they again entered them, they were entitled to remain for a year. A new ejection became necessary, and to prevent a second resumption, the timber employed in the construction of the emigrants' habitations was burnt. In lieu of this, new timber was furnished them by the landlord, in the settlements to which they were removed, and other advantages were given them, to reconcile them, as much as possible, to the change. In 1820, the removals were all quietly effected.

In consequence of these arrangements, adopted for the improvement of the lands, the inhabitants of the interior mountains and glens have, with some exceptions, been settled; those from Lord Reay's property on the shores of the Western and Northern oceans, in small towns, or as near to the various towns as it was possible to arrange; and those from the Sutherland estate partly on the shores of the Northern, and partly on those of the German ocean; while some have emigrated to Caithness, and some to America. The estates of the other proprietors have been let in the same manner, and a similar distribution of their inhabitants has also been made. Those tenants who have been settled on the coasts, have betaken themselves to the herring and the cod and ling fishing, with great industry and success, and have likewise been equally persevering and successful in the

cultivation of the lots of ground assigned them. As a proof of the rapid progress of the herring fishery, it appears, that at the village of Helmsdale there were caught in 1814, 2400 barrels of herrings: the quantity has been since increasing every year, until in 1819, it amounted to 20,600 barrels. The shipping has also increased in a similar proportion. In 1814, there was not a single boat belonging to this creek; and in 1819, there entered 5246 tons of shipping. A regular trade has been established with Leith, and other branches of industry have also begun to flourish. On the coast side of Sutherland great agricultural improvements have been effected, to which every encouragement has been given, by inducing artizans and ploughmen to settle in the country; by procuring the most approved implements, and importing seeds of the best description. The consequence has been, that extensive fields of wheat (some of them drilled according to the most improved system of Norfolk husbandry), several hundred acres of turnips sown upon the ridge, and well horse-hoed, with excellent crops of barley (the seed of which was imported from Norfolk), and clover, are now seen, where, a few years back, there was nothing to be found but some patches of the most miserable oats and bear, with which the land was alternately cropped, until it was brought into such a state of exhaustion, that it would not even produce the seed that was bestowed upon it. These improvements commenced in 1809, since which period no less than 27 sets of farm offices have been constructed upon the estate of Sutherland. Lord Ashburton has, in like manner, planted, inclosed, and constructed roads and buildings to a considerable extent. New farm-houses have been built in the most inaccessible parts of the Reay country. Upon the properties of Creech, Ospisdale, and Skibo, inclosures have been made; and plantations and cultivation have been extended over the most unpromising and barren spots. To carry forward these improvements on the Moray frith coast, a search was made for limestone, which was at length discovered in sufficient quantity for all local purposes. The west coast is in a great measure formed of this mineral, but being in many instances combined with magnesia, it is rendered little serviceable as a manure, and not useful to the sculptor. Marble quarries in Assynt were worked for some years by Mr. Joplin, of Newcastle, but have been abandoned on this account. Coal has also been discovered, which, though it does not answer so well for household purposes, is employed in burning lime, and also in making of bricks and salt, which manufactures have lately been established, and the demand of the Moray frith for salt is almost exclusively supplied from the Sutherland salt-pans. Population 4,844 families.

SUTHIALI, a sea-port of Abascia, on the Black Sea.

SUTILE, *adj.* [*sutilis*, Lat.] Done by stitching.—The fame of her needle work, the "sutile pictures" mentioned by Johnson. *Boswell*.

SUTTLER, *s.* [*socteler*, Dutch; *sudler*, German.] A man that sells provisions and liquor in a camp.

I shall *sutler* be

Unto the camp, and profits will accrue. *Shakspeare*.

SUTORS OF CROMARTY, two rocky promontories in Scotland, one on each side of the opening of the frith of Cromarty.

SUTRI, a small town of the Ecclesiastical State, in the Patrimonio di St. Pietro, on the river Pozzolo. It is the see of a bishop, has a cathedral and several other churches, and contains 4000 inhabitants; 12 miles south of Viterbo. Lat. 42. 13. N. long. 12. 15. E.

SUTTERBY, a decayed parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4½ miles west-south-west of Alford.

SUTTERTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 9½ miles north-by-east of Spalding. Population 860.

SUTTIKO, or SETTICO, a town of the kingdom of Woolly, in Western Africa, near the Gambia.

SUTTON, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 3 miles north-east-by-east of Biggleswade.—2d, A parish in the Isle of Ely, Cambridgeshire; 6½ miles south-west-by-west of the city

city of Ely. Population 1019.—3d, A village in Cheshire; 2 miles north-east-by-east of Frodsham.—4th, Two hamlets in Cheshire; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles from Chester.—5th, A hamlet in Essex, near Rochford.—6th, A parish in Gloucestershire, commonly called Sutton-under-Brails; 7 miles east of Camden.—7th, A parish in Kent; 4 miles south-west-by-west of Deal.—8th, A township in Lancashire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of Prescott. Population 2014.—9th, A hamlet in Leicestershire; 6 miles north-by-west of Lutterworth.—10th, A parish in Norfolk; 8 miles east-north-east of Coltishall.—11th, A parish in Lincolnshire; 4 miles from Alford.—12th, A hamlet in Northamptonshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile east-south-east of Wandsford.—13th, A hamlet in Middlesex, near Hounslow.—14th, A hamlet in Nottinghamshire, near Granby.—15th, A township in Nottinghamshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-west of East Retford.—16th, A parish in Suffolk, near Manning-tree. Population 420.—17th, A parish in Suffolk, near Woodbridge. Population 440.—18th, A parish in Salop, near Shrewsbury.—19th, A parish in Surrey; 3 miles north-north-east of Ewell. Population 638.—20th, A parish in Sussex; 5 miles south of Petworth.—21st, A hamlet in Worcester; 3 miles south-east-by-south of Tenbury.—22d, A parish in the East Riding of Yorkshire, commonly called Sutton-in-Derwent, being seated on that river; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-south-west of Pocklington.—23d, A parish in the East Riding of Yorkshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-east of Kingston-upon-Hull. Population 3065.—24th, A township in the North Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north of Rippon.—25th, A parish in the North Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles from Thirsk.—26th, A hamlet in the West Riding of Yorkshire, adjacent to Ferry Bridge.—27th, A township in the West Riding of Yorkshire; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-north-west of Doncaster.—28th, A hamlet in the parish and liberties of Rippon, West Riding of Yorkshire.

SUTTON IN AREDALE, or **CRAVEN**, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles west-north-west of Keighley.—2d, **SUTTON IN ASHFIELD**, a township of England, in Nottinghamshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Mansfield. Population 3336.—3d, **SUTTON, Bassett**, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 6 miles west-by-south of Rockingham.—4th, **SUTTON, Benger**, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 4 miles north-north-east of Chippenham. Population 404.—5th, **SUTTON, Bingham**, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-west of Yeovil.—6th, **SUTTON, Bishops**, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 2 miles east-south-east of Alresford. Population 445.—7th, **SUTTON, Bonnington**, a village of England, in Nottinghamshire, including the parishes of St. Anne and St. Michael. Population 862.—8th, **SUTTON, Cheney**, a township of England, in Leicestershire; 2 miles south-south-east of Market Bosworth.

SUTTON COLDFIELD, a market-town of England, in the county of Warwick, situated near the north-western boundary of Staffordshire. It stands near a chase or forest, as it was formerly called. The name Coldfield is taken from an extensive district of barren land, of a bleak and cheerless aspect, which lies to the west of the town. The town has a neat appearance, and contains many dwellings of an ornamental character. Within the last century, some manufactures connected with Birmingham have been introduced into the town, much to the advantage of the inhabitants. According to the constitution procured by bishop Vesey, the municipal power of the town consists of a warden, 24 assistants, a town-clerk, steward, &c. The warden for the time being is the coroner.

SUTTON, Courtney, a township of England, in Berkshire; 3 miles south-by-east of Abingdon. Population 757.—2. **SUTTON-IN-LE-DALE**, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 4 miles east-south-east of Chesterfield. Population 619.—3. **SUTTON, Downs**, a township of England, in Cheshire; 2 miles south-south-east of Macclesfield. Population 2096.—4. **SUTTON, East**, a parish of England, in Kent: 6 miles south-east of Maidstone.—5. **SUTTON, St. Edmond's**, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Sutton St. Mary, Lincolnshire, containing 433 inhabitants.—6.

SUTTON IN THE FOREST, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles north-by-west of York. Population 457.—7. **SUTTON, Freene**, a township of England, in the parish of Marden, Herefordshire.—8. **SUTTON, Full**, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-west of Pocklington.—9. **SUTTON, Great**, a parish of England, in Essex; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-east of Rochford.—10. **SUTTON, Guilden**, a parish of England, in Cheshire; 3 miles east-north-east of Chester.—11. **SUTTON ON THE HILL**, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 8 miles west-by-south of Derby.—12. **SUTTON AT HONE**, a parish of England, in Kent; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-east of Dartford. Population 733.—13. **SUTTON, St. James**, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; 9 miles south-east-by-south of Holbeach. Population 307.—14. **SUTTON, King's**, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 6 miles west-by-south of Brackley. Population 1020.—15. **SUTTON, Little**, a township of England, in Cheshire; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-west of Chester.—16. **SUTTON, Long**, a parish of England, in Somerset; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-south-west of Somerton. Population 725.—17. **SUTTON, Long**, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of Odiham.—18. **SUTTON, Maddock**, a parish of England, in Salop; 6 miles north of Bridgenorth. Population 394.—19. **SUTTON, Mallet**, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles east of Bridgewater.—20. **SUTTON, Mandeville**, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 7 miles west-south-west of Wilton.—21. **SUTTON IN THE MARSH**, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east-by-east of Alford.—22. **SUTTON, St. Mary**, a township of England, in Lincolnshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-by-south of Holbeach. Population 1801.—23. **SUTTON, St. Michael**, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 4 miles north-north-east of Hereford.—24. **SUTTON, Montis**, or **Montacute**, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles south-by-west of Castle Cary.—25. **SUTTON, St. Nicholas**, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 4 miles north-east-by-north of Hereford.—26. **SUTTON UPON TRENT**, a small town of England, in Nottinghamshire, upon the Trent, with a market on Monday. Population 731; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Tuxford.—27. **SUTTON, Valence**, or **Town Sutton**, a parish of England, in Kent, with a free grammar school. Population 827; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east-by-south of Maidstone.—28. **SUTTON, Veney**, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Warminster. Population 620.—29. **SUTTON, Waltrond**, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 5 miles south of Shaftesbury.—30. **SUTTON UNDER WHITSTONE CLIFF**, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-by-north of Thirsk.—31. **SUTTON, Wick**, a township of England, in Berkshire; 2 miles south-by-west of Abingdon.

SUTTON, a post township of the United States, in Caledonia county, Vermont; 15 miles from Danville.

SUTTON, a post township of the United States, in Hillsborough county, New Hampshire; 24 miles west-north-west of Concord. Population 1328.

SUTTON, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 9 miles south of Worcester, and 46 south-west of Boston.

SUTTON, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Bedford. Population 1200.

SUTTULEGE, SETLEGE, or SUDLEGE, a celebrated river of Hindostan, being the easternmost of the five rivers which are called the Punjab. It rises in the lofty Himalaya mountains, and running to the south-west, is joined by the Beyah or Hyphasis, in the latitude of 30° N. The united streams fall into the Indus, near the 29th degree. It is estimated to be about 600 miles in length, and to be navigable by large boats for 200 miles above its junction with the Indus.

SUTURATED, *adj.* [from *sutura*, Lat.] Stitched or knit together.—These are by oculists called "orbite," and are each of them compounded of six several bones, which, being most conveniently *suturated* among themselves, do make up those curious arched chambers in which these
lookers

lookers or beholders dwell; in which, and from which, they may be haply said to perform their offices. *Smith*.

SUTURE, *s.* [*sutura*, Lat.] A manner of sewing; or stitching, particularly of stitching wounds.—Wounds, if held in close contact for some time, reunite by inosculation; to maintain this situation, several sorts of *sutures* have been invented; those now chiefly described are the interrupted, the glovers, the quill'd, the twisted and the dry *sutures*, but the interrupted and twisted are almost the only useful ones. *Sharp*.—A particular articulation: the bones of the cranium are joined to one another by four *sutures*. *Quincy*.—Many of our vessels degenerate into ligaments, and the *sutures* of the skull are abolished in old age. *Arbuthnot*.

SUURSAY, a small island of the Hebrides, in the west of Harris.

SOWAIDA, a small town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 30 miles north of Medina.

SUWALKI, a small town in the north-east of Poland; 17 miles north of Augustowo, and 149 north-north-east of Warsaw. Population 1200.

SUZANNE, *Str.*, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Mayenne, on the small river Erve, with 1400 inhabitants; 27 miles south-west of Alençon.

SUZARA, a small town of Austrian Italy, between Mantua and Guastalla; 14 miles south of the former.

SUZE, a small manufacturing place in the north-west of France, on the river Sarthe, with 1600 inhabitants; 12 miles south-west of Le Mans.

SWAB, *s.* [*swabb*, Swedish.] A kind of mop to clean floors.

To SWAB, *v. a.* [ʃpebban, Saxon.] To clean with a mop. It is now chiefly used at sea.—He made him *swab* the deck. *Shelvoek's Voyage*.

SWABBER, *s.* [*swabber*, Dutch.] A sweeper of the deck.

The master, the *swabber*, the boatswain and I, Lov'd Mall, Meg, and Marian, and Margery. *Shakspeare*.

SWABY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles west-north-west of Alford.

SWACLIFFE, a parish of England, in Kent; 5½ miles north of Canterbury.

SWAD, *s.* [from ʃpeðan, Sax. fasciare, quia scil. folliculis, tanquam fasciis, pisa obvolvuntur. *Skinner*.] A peasecod. *Still a northern word*.—Take pulse out of the *swads*. *Cotgrave*.—A squab, or short fat person.

Now I remember me,
There was one busy fellow was the leader,
A blunt squat *swad*, but lower than yourself. *B. Jonson*.

To SWA'DDLE, *v. a.* [ʃpeðan, Saxon.] To swathe; to bind in clothes, generally used of binding newborn children.

Invested by a veil of clouds,
And *swaddled* as new-born in sable shrouds;
For these a receptacle I design'd. *Sandys*.

To beat; to cudgel. *A low ludicrous word*.
Great on the bench, great in the saddle,
That could as well bind o'er as *swaddle*. *Hudibras*.

SWA'DDLE, *s.* [ʃpæðl, Sax.] Clothes bound round the body.—I begged them to uncase me: no, no, say they; and upon that carried me to one of their houses, and put me to bed in all my *swaddles*. *Addison*.

SWADLINBAR, a neat smart village of Ireland, in the county of Cavan, agreeably situated on the Clodah river.

SWA'DLINGBAND, **SWA'DLINGCLOTH**, or **SWADLINGCLOUT**, *s.* Cloth wrapped round a new-born child.—That great baby you see there is not yet out of his *swaddling-clouts*. *Shakspeare*.

SWADLINGCOTE, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 12½ miles south-south-west of Derby.

SWAFFHAM, a market town of England, in the county of Norfolk, a populous, respectable, and genteel town. The

great butter market which was formerly kept at Downham, has been removed to this place. Near the town is an extensive heath, which forms an admirable race-ground. Swaffham races are annually held about the end of September; 15 miles south-east of Lynn, and 94 north-north-east of London.

SWAFFHAM, **BALBECK**, or **GREAT SWAFFHAM**, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 5 miles west-south-west of Newmarket. Population 571.

SWAFFHAM, **PRIOR**, or **LITTLE SWAFFHAM**, a village of England, in the above county, including the parishes of St. Cyric and St. Mary. It has an endowed free school, and is about 1 mile distant from Great Swaffham. Population 803.

SWAFIELD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 1½ mile north-by-east of North Walsham.

To SWAG, *v. n.* [ʃagan, Sax.; *swiegia*, Icelandic.] To sink down by its weight; to hang heavy. See *To SAG*.—They are more apt, in *swagging* down, to pierce with their points, that in the jacent posture, and crevice the wall. *Wotton*.—Being a tall fish, and with his sides much compressed, he hath a long fin upon his back, and another answering to it on his belly; by which he is the better kept upright, or from *swagging* on his sides. *Grew*.

SWA'GBELLIED, *adj.* Having a large belly.—Your Daue, your German, and your *swag-bellied* Hollander are nothing to your English. *Shakspeare*.

To SWAGE, *v. a.* [from *assuage*; which see.] To ease; to soften; to mitigate; to appease; to quiet.

I love thee,
Though my distracted senses should forsake,
I'd find some intervals, when my poor heart
Should *swage* itself, and be let loose to thine. *Otway*.

To SWAGE, *v. n.* To abate.—It *swageth*, or waxeth cold. *Barret*.

To SWA'GGER, *v. n.* [*swadder*, Dutch, to make a noise; ʃpezan, Saxon.] To bluster; to bully; to be turbulently and tumultuously proud and insolent.—'Tis the gage of one that I should fight withal, if he be alive; a rascal that *swagger'd* with me last night. *Shakspeare*.

SWA'GGERER, *s.* A blusterer; a bully; a turbulent noisy fellow.—He's no *swaggerer*, hostess; a tame cheater; you may stroke him as gentle as a puppy greyhound. *Shakspeare*.

SWA'GGY, *adj.* Dependent by its weight.—The beaver is called animal ventricosum, from his *swaggy* and prominent belly. *Brown*.

SWAIN, *s.* [ʃpein, Saxon and Runic; *swen*, Su. Goth. puer, minister; *swaina*, Lappon. famulus; ʃpan, Sax. bubulcus. See Lye, and Serenius.] A young man.

That good knight would not so nigh repair,
Himself estranging from their joyance vain,
Whose fellowship seem'd far unfit for warlike *swain*. *Spenser*.

A country servant employed in husbandry.
It were a happy life
To be no better than a homely *swain*. *Shakspeare*.

A pastoral youth.
Blest *swains*! whose nymphs in every grace excel;
Blest nymphs! whose *swains* those graces sing so well. *Pope*.

SWAINBY, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles east-south-east of Bedale.

SWAINE, **CAPE**, a cape on one of the numerous islets on the north-west coast of North America. Lat. 52. 13. N. long 231. 40. E.

SWAINISH, *adj.* Rustic; ignorant.—[It] argues both a gross and shallow judgment, and withal an ungentle and *swainish* breast. *Milton*.

SWA'INMOTE, *s.* [*swainmotus*, law Lat. *Dr. Johnson*.—From ʃpan, Sax. bubulcus; *swainmote*, curia quædam forestæ, ita dicta, quasi *ministorum forestæ*, scil. agistorum aliorumque conventus. Lye, edit. Manning, in

V. span.] A court touching matters of the forest, kept by the charter of the forest thrice in the year. This court of *swainmote* is as incident to a forest, as the court of piepowder is to a fair. The *swainmote* is a court of freeholders within the forest. *Cowel*.—A forest hath her court of attachments, *swainmote-court*, &c. *Howell*.

SWAINSCOE, a township of England, in Staffordshire; 8½ miles east-north-east of Cheadle.

SWAINSTHORPE, a village of England, in Norfolk, containing the parishes of St. Mary and St. Peter; 4½ miles north-north-east of St. Mary Stratton.

SWAINSWICK, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3 miles north-by-east of Bath.

To SWAIP, *v. n.* To walk proudly; our northern dialect for *sweep*.

SWALCLIFFE, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 6 miles west-south-west of Banbury.

To SWALE, or To SWEAL, *v. n.* [ʃpelan, Saxon, *to kindle; to burn*.] To waste or blaze away; to melt: as, the candle *swales*.

Into his face the brond he forst, his huge beard brent a light,
And *swcaling* made a stinke. *Phaer*.

To SWALE, *v. a.* To consume; to waste.

Nor has our hymeneal torch

Yet lighted up his last most grateful sacrifice,
But dash'd with rain from eyes, and *swail'd* with sighs,
Burn dim. *Congreve*.

SWALE, a river of England, which rises in the north-western hills of Yorkshire, on the confines of Westmoreland, and running south-east, passes by Richmond and Thirsk, and falls into the Ure, about 4 miles below Borough-bridge.

SWALE, EAST and WEST, two branches of the river Medway, in England, which run into the Thames, the former below Sherless, and the latter, or main stream, at Sheerness. The oyster fishing chiefly lies upon the coasts of the former, from Colemansole to the Snout Wears, and so to the Ride.

SWALLET, *s.* [*swall*, Swed. the swell of the sea. *Serenius*.] Among the tin-miners, water breaking in upon the miners at their work. *Bailey*.

SWALLOW, *s.* [ʃpalepe, Saxon; *swala*, Su. Goth. idem; sic dict. à Su. Goth. *swale*, porticus, subdivale, quippè ubi nidum struere solet hæc avis. *Serenius*.] A small bird of passage; or, as some say, a bird that lies hid and sleeps in the winter.—The *swallow* follows not summer more willingly than we your Lordship. *Shakspeare*.

To SWALLOW, *v. a.* [ʃpelʒan, Saxon; *swelgen*, Dutch.] To take down the throat.

If little faults

Shall not be wink'd at, how shall we stretch our eye,
Whose capital crimes chew'd, *swallow'd*, and digested,
Appear before us? *Shakspeare*.

To receive without examination.—Consider and judge of it as a matter of reason, and not *swallow* it without examination as a matter of faith. *Locke*.—To engross; to appropriate: often with *up* emphatical.—Homer excels all the inventors of other arts in this, that he has *swallowed up* the honour of those who succeeded him. *Pope*.—To absorb; to take in; to sink in any abyss; to engulph: with *up*.

Though you unite the winds, and let them fight,
Against the churches, though the yesty waves
Confound and *swallow* navigation *up*. *Shakspeare*.

To occupy.—The necessary provision for life *swallows* the greatest part of their time. *Locke*.—To seize and waste. Corruption *swallow'd* what the liberal hand
Of bounty scatter'd. *Thomson*.

To engross; to engage completely. The priest and the prophet are *swallowed up* of wine. *Isaiah*.—*Swallow* implies, in all its figurative senses, some nauseous or contemptuous idea, something of grossness or of folly.

SWALLOW, *s.* [*swalg*, Su. Goth.] The throat; voracity. Had this man of merit and mortification been called to account for his ungodly *swallow*, in gorging down the estates of helpless widows and orphans, he would have told them that it was all for charitable uses. *South*.—A gulf; a whirlpool.

This Æneas is come to paradise
Out of the *swolowe* of hell.

Chaucer.

SWALLOW, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles east-north-east of Caistor.

SWALLOW BAY, a bay on the north coast of Egmont island, between Hanway's point and Swallow point.

SWALLOW HARBOUR, a very convenient harbour on the shore of Terra del Fuego. It is well sheltered from all winds, and excellent in every respect. There are two channels into it, which are both narrow, but not dangerous, as the rocks are easily discovered by the weeds that grow upon them. It is surrounded by steep mountains, covered with snow, which have a most horrid appearance, and seem to be altogether deserted by every thing that has life. Lat. 53. 40. S. long. 74. 30. W.

SWALLOW ISLAND, one of those called Queen Charlotte's islands, in the South Pacific ocean; about 6 leagues in length. Lat. 10. 8. S. long. 165. 58. E.

SWALLOW POINT, a cape on the north coast of the island of Egmont in the South Pacific ocean. Lat. 10. 42. S. long. 164. 26. E.

SWALLOWCLIFFE, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 5½ miles south-east of Hindon.

SWALLOWFIELD, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 6 miles south-by-east of Reading. Population 365.

SWALLOWTAIL, *s.* A species of willow.—The shining willow they call *swallowtail*, because of the pleasure of the leaf. *Bacon*.

SWALLOWWORT, *s.* [*asclepia*.] A plant.

SWALLY, a sea-port town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat. It is situated at the mouth of the Taptee river, and is the anchoring place for ships having cargoes on board for Surat, of which it may be considered as the port. Lat. 21. 5. N. long. 72. 50. E.

SWALUVE, or ZWALUWE, a village of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, containing 2100 inhabitants; 10 miles north-north-west of Breda.

SWAM, [ʃpam, Sax.] The preterite of *swim*.

SWAMMERDAM (John), a distinguished anatomist and naturalist, was born at Amsterdam in 1637, and designed by his father, who was an apothecary in that city, for the church: but his own inclinations were directed to physic, which became the object of his study, together with several branches of natural history, particularly entomology. At an early age he made many excursions for the purpose of enlarging his collection of winged insects. At Leyden, where he studied physic, he was distinguished by his skill and assiduity in anatomical experiments and the art of making preparations. At Paris he was intimate with Nicholas Stenonius in 1664, whilst he visited that city and France with a view to further improvement: On his return to Leyden he took the degree of M.D. in 1667, publishing on the occasion a thesis on respiration. At this time he began to practise his invention of injecting the vessels with ceraceous matter: a method from which anatomy has derived very important advantages. He applied very closely to dissection with Van Horne: and in the dissection of insects he was singularly dexterous by the aid of instruments of his own invention. The grand duke of Tuscany, who visited Holland in 1668, and who was introduced to Swammerdam by Thevenot, made him a liberal offer for his share of the collection, on condition of his removal to Florence; but he rejected the offer, on account of his abhorrence of the restraints of a court-life, and impatience of any controul in his religion. Entomology was his favourite and principal pursuit; and in 1669 he published, in Dutch, "A General History of Insects," Utrecht, 4to.; afterwards reprinted, and translated into French and Latin.

the latter with splendid figures. In 1672, he published, as a medical anatomist, a work entitled "Miraculum Naturæ, seu Uteri Muliebris Fabrica, notis in I. V. Horne Prodromum illustratum," Leid. 4to., many times reprinted. By intense application he became hypochondriac, and wholly unfit for society. In this state he was so impressed by the reveries of Antoinette Bourignon, as to be plunged into the depth of mysticism, and to be induced to abandon all his scientific pursuits. At her desire he presented to the world, in 1675, his last publication, which was an account, in Dutch, of the insect called Ephemera. He followed this fanatical female to her retreat in Holstein; and on his return to Amsterdam, his constitution was worn out by his mortifications, and he died in 1680. In one of the paroxysms that seized him not long before his death, he burned all his remaining papers; but in a state of indigence he had disposed of the greater part to Thevenot for a trifling sum. On the lapse of about half a century, these came into the possession of Boerhaave, who caused them to be published in Dutch and Latin by Gaubius, under the title of "Biblia Naturæ, sive Historia Insectorum in certas classes reducta, &c. &c." 2 vols. large folio, 1737, with plates; translated also into German, English, and French. The history of bees in this work is highly esteemed, as peculiarly valuable.

Life by Boerhaave. Haller.

SWAMP, *s.* [*swamms*, Goth.; *ppam*, Sax.; *suamm*, Icel.; *swamme*, Dutch; *suomp*, Danish; *swamp*, Swed.] A marsh; a bog; a fen.

Behold the duteous son, the sire decay'd,
The modest matron, and the blushing maid,
Forc'd from their homes, a melancholy train,
To traverse climes beyond the western main;
Where wild Oswego spreads her *swamps* around,
And Niagara stuns with thundering sound. *Goldsmith.*

To SWAMP, *v. a.* To whelm or sink as in a swamp.
A modern word.

SWAMPY, *adj.* Boggy; fenny.—*Swampy* fens breathe destructive myriads. *Thomson.*

SWAMPY BAY, on the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 35. 42. N. long. 76. 7. W.

SWAMSCOT, the Indian name of Exeter river, in the United States, as far as the head of the tide.

SWAN, *s.* [*ppan*, Saxon; *swan*, Danish; *swaen*, Dutch; *cygnus*, Lat. from the Celt. *gwyn*.]—The swan is a large water fowl, that has a long neck, and is very white, excepting when it is young. Its legs and feet are black, as is its bill, which is like that of a goose, but something rounder, and a little hooked at the lower end of it: the two sides below its eyes are black and shining like ebony. *Swans* use wings like sails, which catch the wind, so that they are driven along in the water. They feed upon herbs and grain like a goose, and some are said to have lived three hundred years. There is a species of swans with the feathers of their heads, towards the breast, marked at the ends with a gold colour inclining to red. The swan is reckoned by Moses among the unclean creatures; but it was consecrated to Apollo the god of music, because it was said to sing melodiously when it was near expiring; a tradition, generally received, but fabulous. *Calmet.*

Let music sound, while he doth make his choice;
Then if he lose, he makes a *swan* like end. *Shakspeare.*

SWAN CREEK, a river of the United States, in the Michigan territory, which falls into the Miami of the lakes; 4 miles from its mouth.

SWAN ISLAND, an island of the United States, on the coast of Maine; 4 miles south-west of Mount Desert. It is 7 miles long, and has a navigable channel on both sides. It contains about 6000 acres. Population 51.

SWAN ISLANDS, a group of islands at some distance from the north coast of Honduras, being chiefly barren rocks.

SWAN ISLES, a cluster of small rocky islets, which lie between the north coast of Van Diemen's Land and the south coast of New Holland. The largest is 2½ miles long, and

about 1 mile in breadth, and appears uninhabited either by man or beast.

SWAN POINT, a cape of the United States, on the coast of Maryland, in the Chesapeake. Lat. 38. 11. N. long. 76. 22. W.

SWAN PORT, a harbour in Derwent river, on the south-east coast of Van Diemen's Land, so called from the numerous flocks of black swans by which it is frequented. The shores are covered with lofty trees and rich verdure, the sea is replete with fish of every description, and there are innumerable cockatoos and parroquets of the richest plumage in the woods.

SWAN RIVER, a river of North America, which takes its rise in Etowwemahmeh lake, from whence it passes through Swan lake into the little Winnipic lake. This latter is connected, by a considerable river, with the lake of Manitoba, which, by the river Dauphin, finally discharges its waters into Lake Winnipic, the common reservoir for the waters of a great number of the adjacent rivers and lakes. All the country in the neighbourhood of this, and of Red Deer river, to the south branch of the Laskatchiwine, abounds in beaver, moose deer, fallow deer, elks, bears, buffaloes, &c. The soil is good, and wherever any attempts have been made to raise the esculent plants, it has been found productive. On this river a fort is erected for the convenience of the fur trade.

SWAN RIVER, a river of North America, which falls into the Mississippi about 40 miles from its source. Its course is from the east, and it is navigable for canoes 90 miles.

SWANBOURNE, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 3 miles east-by-south of Winslow. Population 499.

SWANEVELT, or SWANEFELD, (Herman,) was born at Woerden in 1620, and, as it is said, was a disciple of Gerard Douw, whose style, however, he did not long follow; but as his disposition inclined him to landscape, he travelled to Rome, and there, in 1640, became acquainted with Claude de Lorraine.

He was among the few artists who receive the due meed of praise and profit during their lives; his works were eagerly coveted, and he received very high prices for them. Since his time, a greater honour has been rendered to many, at the expense of amateurs, and cognoscenti, who have not unfrequently purchased as the works of Claude de Lorraine, pictures which were completed on the easel of Swanevelt.

Swanevelt was not only an agreeable and excellent painter, but he also handled the etching-needle and the graver with great taste and skill; and has left us many plates of landscapes and animals, which rival the best with considerable effect.

SWANINGTON, a township of England in Leicestershire; 4 miles east-by-south of Asby de la Zouch. Population 427.

SWANINGTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3½ miles south-east of Reephan.

SWANLAND, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, 6½ miles west-by-south of Kingston-upon-Hull.

SWANLOW, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Whitegate, Cheshire.

SWANSBOROUGH, a post township of the United States, and capital of Onslow county, North Carolina, on White Oak river; 40 miles south-south-west of Newbern. Population 100. Lat. 34. 41. N. long. 77. 17. W.

SWANSCOMBE, a parish of England, in Kent. Population 848; 4 miles east-by-south of Dartmouth, and 2 west of Grangemouth.

SWANSEA, a market town and borough of Wales, in the county of Glamorgan. It is a place of great trade and importance, has increased of late years with extraordinary rapidity in size and population, and is now ranked as the chief town of the county, if not the metropolis of the whole principality. It stands on a beautiful bay of the Bristol channel, on the western side of the river Tawe, near the junction of that river with the sea, and hence in the Welch it is named *Abertawe*. The English name is supposed to have

have been originally written Swinsea or Swinsey, and to have been derived from the number of porpoises which frequent the Bristol channel. The appearance of the town, both from the bay and from the high grounds in the neighbourhood, is very striking and picturesque, and the general aspect of the interior is much superior to that of most Welch towns. The climate is mild and healthy, and the beach remarkably well adapted for sea-bathing. The vicinity also affords agreeable walks and rides; while the bay, which in itself forms so great an ornament to the town, and may be regarded, indeed, as one of the finest in Europe, presents ample opportunities for the enjoyment of excursions by water. Nor is the situation of the place less eligible for the purposes of trade and commerce. The neighbouring country is rich in mineral treasures, and the town in fact stands in the midst of the most inexhaustible mines of coal and of iron; while by means of its harbour, and of the navigable river Tawe, it commands a ready outlet for these productions of the interior. The town extends in length about a mile and a half or two miles, if we include the suburb of Greenhill; the greatest width does not exceed half a mile. The streets are numerous, and contain a large proportion of well built houses, occupied by opulent individuals, among whom are many professional men of eminence, merchants, and substantial tradesmen. The influx of strangers during the summer season for sea-bathing is very considerable, and this circumstance has led to the erection of a great number of lodging houses, which are in general very handsome, and many of them adapted for the reception of families of the first distinction. The castle of Swansea is situated on an elevated spot in the middle of the town, and might still present a bold and picturesque appearance, but for the houses, which, being built up against it, conceal it on every side. The town-hall of Swansea is a spacious and handsome modern building, erected on a part of the castle inclosure, in the middle of the town. The commerce and manufactures of Swansea are very considerable. The mineral riches of the neighbourhood afford not only a direct source of export trade of great extent, but the abundance of coal and iron have drawn hither immense manufacturing establishments in iron, copper, brass, spelter, tin, and earthenware. The produce of these manufactories forms an important addition to the exports of the town, while the consumption of the numerous population that they employ, causes a vast influx of commodities for their supply. Of the potteries at Swansea, there are at present two on a large scale. The ware, which comprises almost every article in this department produced by the Staffordshire works, is of prime quality, and large quantities are annually shipped for the English market. The coal exported from Swansea is chiefly of the kinds called stone-coal and culm, brought down by the canal, which conveys them to shipping quays by the river side. The manufactured shop goods, and articles of consumption, are chiefly imported from Bristol and other English towns.

The corporation of the town have been laudably exerting themselves for many years in improving the harbour. In the year 1791, they obtained an act of parliament to enable them to raise the necessary funds; and since this period prodigious sums have been expended in clearing and deepening the bed of the river, and removing some obstacles at its entrance from the sea. Two large and handsome piers have also been run out, one from the eastern, and the other from the western side, to confine the channel; but not having been laid out with due skill and judgment, a cross pier was added in 1814 within the harbour, to remedy the inconveniences which were still felt by the shipping. About five miles south of the town a light-house has been erected on the outer Mumble rock. Besides its commerce and trade, Swansea derives considerable benefit from the great resort of visitors to the sea-bathing. For the accommodation of invalids, warm and cold salt water baths have been made in the Burrows, and also near the pottery, by the river side. Swansea is a corporate town, and shares the privileges of Cardiff as a contributory borough, in the return of the mem-

ber of parliament for that place. Market on Wednesday and Saturday, and several annual fairs; 45 miles west of Cardiff, and 205 west of London. Lat. 51. 37. F. long. 3. 55. W.

SWANSEY, a post township of the United States, in Cheshire county, New Hampshire; 6 miles south of Keene. Population 1400. Here is a cotton manufactory.

SWANSEY, a post township of the United States, in Bristol county, Massachusetts; 38 miles south of Boston. Population 1839.

SWANSKIN, *s.* A kind of soft flannel, imitating for warmth the down of a swan.

SWANTON, ABBOTS, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles south-south-west of north Walsham. Population 374.

SWANTON, MORLEY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3½ miles north-east of East Dereham. Population 571.

SWANTON, NOVERS, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles south-west of Holt.

SWANTON, a post township of the United States, in Franklin county, Vermont, on Lake Champlain, and bordering on Canada; 32 miles north of Burlington. This town has some trade in timber, and contains a quarry of coarse marble.

SWANTOWN, a village of the United States, in Kent county, Maryland; 3 miles from Georgetown.

SWANWICH, a town and parish of England, situated in Purbeck isle, Dorsetshire. It consists of one street about a mile in length, with small and low stone buildings. The inhabitants carry on a brisk trade in exporting stone; immense quantities, for various purposes, being annually quarried in the neighbourhood; 6 miles east-south-east of Corfe Castle.

SWANWICH, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 2 miles south-by-west of Alfreton.

To SWAP, *v. a.* [*swipa*, Icel. *to snatch*; *ƿapan*, Sax., *to sweep*.] To strike with a long or sweeping stroke; to strike against; to throw violently.—*Swap* off his hed, this is my sentence here. *Chaucer*.

To SWAP, *v. n.* To fall down.—Al sodenly she *swapt* adoun to ground. *Chaucer*.—To ply the wings with noise; to strike the air.

When fowls fly by, and with their *swapping* wings Beat the inconstant air.

More.

SWAP, *s.* A blow; a stroke. *Prompt. Parv.*

If't be a thwack, I make account of that;

There's no new fashion'd *swap* that e'er came up yet,

But I've the first on 'em.

Beaum. and Fl.

SWAP, *adv.* Hastily; with hasty violence; as, he did it *swap*. It seems to be of the same original with *sweep*. *A low word.*

To SWAP, *v. a.* To exchange. See *To Swop*.

Thy works purchase thee more

Than they can *swappe* their heritages for.

Verses.

SWARBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-west-by-north of Folkingham.

SWARCHA, a small town of the Austrian states, in Croatia, in the military district of Carlstadt, and the usual residence of the commandant general.

SWARD, *s.* [*sward*, Swedish; *ƿearð*, Sax., *cutis*.]—The skin of bacon.—Brandish no swords but *swards* of bacon! *Brewer*.—The surface of the ground: whence *green sward*, or *green sword*.

The noon of night was past, and then the foe

Came dreadless o'er the level *swart*, that lies

Between the wood and the swift streaming Ouse. *A. Philips*.

To SWARD, *v. n.* To breed a green turf.—The clays that are long in *swerding*, and little subject to weeds, are the best land for clover. *Mortimer*.

SWARDESTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles south-south-west of Norwich.

SWARE. The preterite of *swear*.

SWARFORD,

SWARFORD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 5 miles north-east of Chipping Norton.

SWARKESTONE, a parish of England, in Derbyshire, situated on the Trent, on the road from Derby to Ashby-de-la-Zouch. The bridge across the Trent is supposed to be the largest in Europe. It consists of 39 arches, and extends across the meadows near a mile to Stanton.

SWARLAND, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-west of Alnwick.

SWARM, *s.* [*ŷ*yeapm, Saxon; *swerm*, Dutch; *swaerm*, Swed., *swærma*, tumultuari, ab antiq. *hurra*, in gyrum agitari. Stiernh. and Serenius.]—A great body or number of bees or other small animals, particularly those bees that migrate from the hive.

A swarm of bees that cut the liquid sky,
Upon the topmast branch in clouds alight.

Dryden.

A multitude; a crowd.

From this swarm of fair advantages,
You grip'd the general sway into your hand. *Shakspeare.*

To SWARM, *v. n.* [*ŷ*peapman, Sax., *swermen*, Dutch.] To rise as bees in a body and quit the hive.—When bees hang in swarming time, they will presently rise, if the weather hold. *Mortimer.*—To appear in multitudes; to crowd; to throng.

Our superfluous lacqueys, and our peasants,
Who in unnecessary action swarm
About our squares of battle.

Shakspeare.

To be crowded; to be over-run; to be thronged.—These garrisons you have now planted throughout all Ireland, and every place swarms with soldiers. *Spenser.*—To breed multitudes.

Not so thick swarm'd once the soil
Bedropp'd with blood of Gorgon.

Milton.

It is used in conversation for climbing a tree, by embracing it with the arms and legs.

To SWARM, *v. a.* To press close together, as bees in swarming; to throng.

How did thy senses quail,
Seeing the shores so swarm'd!

Fanshaw.

SWARRATON, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-west of New Alresford.

SWART, or SWARTH, *adj.* [*swarts*, Gothic; *ŷ*peapt, Saxon; *swart*, Dutch.] Black; darkly brown; tawny.

Whereas I was black and swart before;
With those clear rays which she infus'd on me;
That beauty am I blest with, which you see.

Shakspeare.

In Milton it seems to signify gloomy; malignant.

Ye valleys low,

On whose fresh lap the swart star sparely looks.

Milton.

To SWART, *v. a.* To blacken; to dusk.—The heat of the sun may swart a living part, or even black a dead or dissolving flesh. *Brown.*

SWARTESLUYS, a small fort in the north-east of the Netherlands, in Friesland, in the quarter of Vollenhoven, on the Schwartzwasser.

SWARTEWATER. See VECHTE.

SWARTH, *s.* A row of grass or corn cut down by the mower; a different spelling of *swath*. See SWATH. *Phillips.*—Here stretch'd in ranks the levell'd swarths are found. *Pope.*

SWARTH, or SWAIRTH, *s.* [perhaps from *ŷ*peapt, Sax., *block*, dark, pale, wan. *Ray.*] The apparition of a person about to die, as pretended in parts of the North.—There are the exact figures and resemblances of persons then living, often seen not only by their friends at a distance, but many times by themselves: of which there are several instances in Aubrey's Miscellanies. These apparitions are called fetches, and in Cumberland *swarths*; they most commonly appear to distant friends and relations, at the very instant preceding

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the death of the person, whose figure they put on. Sometimes there is a greater interval between the appearance and death. *Grose.*

SWARTHILY, *adv.* Blackly; duskily; tawnily.

SWARTHINESS, *s.* Darkness of complexion; tawniness.—Discontent disjoins mankind, and sends him, with beasts, to the loneliness of untrod deserts, who was by nature made a creature sociable. Nor is it the mind alone that is thus mudded; but even the body suffers: it thickens the complexion, and dyes it into an displeasing *swarthiness*: the eye is dim in the discoloured face; and the whole man becomes as if statued into stone and earth. *Feltham.*

SWARTHY, *adj.* [See SWART.] Dark of complexion; black; dusky; tawny.

Did they know Cato, our remotest kings
Would pour embattled multitudes about him;
Their swarthy hosts would darken all our plains,
Doubling the native horror of the war,
And making death more grim.

Addison.

To SWARTHY, *v. a.* To blacken; to make swarthy or dusky.—Now will I and my man John swarthy our faces over as if that country's heat had made 'em so. *Cowley.*

SWARTISH, *adj.* Somewhat dark or dusky; inclining to black.—Melancholy, that cold, dry, wretched saturnine humour, creepeth in with a leane, pale, or *swartysh* colour, which reigneth upon solitarye, carefull, musyng men. *Bullein.*

SWARTINESS, or SWARTNESS, *s.* Darkness of colour, duskiness. The first is in Sherwood's Dict. The latter in the Prompt. Parv.

SWARTY, *adj.* Swarthy: than which it is an older word.

Divine Andate, thou who hold'st the reins
Of furious battles and disorder'd war,
And proudly roll'st thy swarty chariot-wheels
Over the heaps of wounds and carcasses, &c. *Beaumont and Fl.*

SWARTZIA [so named by Schreber, in honour of Olof Swartz, M.D. Prof. instit. Berg. Acad. Cæsar, Nat. Cur. Reg. Holm, &c.] in Botany, a genus of the class polyadelphia, order polyandria.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, inferior, coriaceous, coloured internally; four or five-parted, permanent; segments ovate, sharpish, reflexed, almost equal. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments numerous, capillary, flexuose, longer than the calyx, ascending, united at the base; inserted into a semicircular receptacle surrounding the base of the pedicel of the germ, and two longer and thicker, by the side of the pedicel on each part, before the other filaments, adnate, free, declined. Anthers roundish, flat, emarginate above and below, fastened by the back; on the longer filaments larger and oval. Pistil: germ oblong, compressed, villose, placed on a thickish, declining pedicel. Style none. Stigma oblique, acute. Pericarp: capsule coriaceous, obliquely ovate, pedicelled, one-celled, two-valved. Seed single, ovate, covered at the base with a pulpy pitcher-shaped oblique aril, and pedicelled. *Essential Character.*—Calyx: four-leaved. Petals single, lateral, flat. Legume one-celled, bivalve. Seeds arillated.

1. Swartzia simplicifolia.—With simple leaves; and roundish ovate petal, larger than the calyx; and polyandrous flowers. A shrub.—Native of Trinidad.

2. Swartzia grandiflora.—With simple, oblong-ovate leaves; subtriflorous foot-stalks; round, reniform, very large petal; and oblong legumes.—Native of Trinidad.

3. Swartzia dodecandra.—With simple leaves; dodecandrous flowers; and oblong petal, of the length of the cup. A shrub of a smaller kind than the simplicifolia.—Native of South America.

4. Swartzia triphylla.—With ternate leaves; and margined foot-stalks. This is a small tree, rising to the height of eight feet or more, and branching towards the top; flowers corymbose and axillary. Native of the Caribbee islands.

5. Swartzia pinnata.—With pinnate leaves, and round common footstalk.—Native of Trinidad.

6. *Swartzia alata*.—With pinnate leaves, and winged common footstalk.—Native of Guiana.

To SWARVE, *v. n.* To swerve; which see.

So all at once they on the prince did thonder,
Who from his saddle *swarved* not asyde. *Spenser.*

SWASH, *s.* A figure, whose circumference is not round, but oval: and whose mouldings lie not at right angles, but oblique to the axis of the work. *Maxon.*

To SWASH, *v. n.* [perhaps from *swetsen*, Teut. to make a shrill noise. Our old lexicographers define *swash*, "to clash with words and armour." Sherwood; "to make a noise with swords against targets." Barret.] To make a great clatter or noise; to make a show of valour; to vapour; to bully: whence a *swashbuckler*. *Not in use.*—Draw, if you be men: Gregory, remember thy *swashing* blow. *Shakspeare.*

SWASH, *s.* A blustering noise, in order to make a show of valour.—I will flaunt and brave it after the lusty *swash*. *The Three Ladies of London.*—Impulse of water flowing with violence. *Johnson.*

SWASH, or SWASHY, *adj.* Soft, like fruit too ripe. Derbyshire. *Pegge.*

SWASH, LOWER, a shoal near the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 33. 47. N. long. 78. 9. W.

SWASH, UPPER, a shoal near the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 33. 40. N. long. 78. 10. W.

SWASH, NINE FEET, a shoal near the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 34. 21. N. long. 76. 50. W.

SWASHBUCKLER, *s.* [See To SWASH.] A kind of swordplayer; a braggadochio; a bully.—A *swashbuckler* against the pope, and a dormouse against the devil. *Milton.*

SWA'SHER, *s.* One who makes a show of valour or force of arms. *Obsolete.*—I have observed these three *swashers*; three such anticks do not amount to a man. *Shakspeare.*

SWATCH, *s.* A swathe. *Not in use.*

One spreadeth those bands so in order to lie,
As barlie in *swatches* may fill it thereby. *Tusser.*

SWAT, or SWATE, *pret.* of To sweat.—His hakeney so *swatte*. *Chaucer.*

That far sought wealth, for which the noxious gale
He drew, and *swate* beneath equator suns. *Thomson.*

SWATH, *s.* [*swade*, Dutch.] A line of grass or corn cut down by the mower.

The strawy Greeks, ripe for his edge,
Fall down before him, like the mower's *swath*. *Shakspeare.*

A continued quantity.—An affection'd ass, that cons state without book, and utters it by great *swaths*. *Shakspeare.*—[*puæðe*, *puæðil*, Sax. from *puæðan*, to bind; so our word was *swathel*; then, *swaddle*. See Huloet's Dict.] A band; a fillet.—Long pieces of linen, they folded about me, till they had wrapped me in above an hundred yards of *swathe*. *Guardian.*

To SWATHE, *v. a.* [*puæðan*, Saxon.] To bind, as a child with bands and rollers.

He had two sons: the eldest of them at three years old,
I' the *swathing* clothes the other, from their nursery
Were stol'n. *Shakspeare.*

To SWAY, *v. a.* [*schweben*, German, to move; *swæigia*, Icel. to bend; *swiga*, Su. Goth. the same; which Serenius deduces, prefixing *s*, from the ancient word *vega*, to move.] To wave in the hand; to move or wield any thing massy: as, to *sway* the sceptre.

Glancing fire out of the iron play'd,
As sparkles from the anvil rise,
When heavy hammers on the wedge are *sway'd*. *Spenser.*

To bias; to direct to either side.

Heav'n forgive them, that so much have *sway'd*
Your majesty's good thoughts away from me. *Shakspeare.*

To govern; to rule; to overpower; to influence.

The lady's mad; yet if 'twere so,
She could not *sway* her house, command her followers,
With such a smooth, discreet, and stable bearing.

Shakspeare.

To SWAY, *v. n.* To hang heavy; to be drawn by weight.—In these personal respects, the balance *sways* on our part. *Bacon.*—To have weight; to have influence.—The example of sundry churches, for approbation of one thing, doth *sway* much; but yet still as having the force of an example only, and not of a law. *Hooker.*—To bear rule; to govern.

Had'st thou *sway'd* as kings should do,
They never then had sprung like summer flies. *Shakspeare.*

To incline to one side.

This battle fears like to the morning's war,
When dying clouds contend with growing light:—
Now *sways* it this way, like a mighty sea,
Forc'd by the tide to combat with the wind;
Now *sways* it that way, like the self-same sea
Forc'd to retire by fury of the wind. *Shakspeare.*

SWAY, *s.* The swing or sweep of a weapon.—To strike with huge two-handed *sway*. *Milton.*—Any thing moving with bulk and power.

Are not you mov'd, when all the *sway* of earth
Shakes like a thing unfirm? *Shakspeare.*

Weight; preponderation; cast of the balance.

Expert

When to advance, or stand, or turn the *sway*
Of battle. *Milton.*

Power; rule: dominion.

Only retain

The name and all the addition to a king;
The *sway*, revenue, execution of th' hest,
Beloved sons, be yours. *Shakspeare.*

Influence; direction; weight on one side.

They rush along, the rattling woods give way,
The branches bend before their sweepy *sway*. *Dryden.*

To SWEAL. See To SWALE.

To SWEAR, *v. n.* preter. *swore* or *sware*: part. pass. *sworn*. [*swaran*, Gothic; *puþuan*, Saxon; *swereien*, Dutch.] To obtest some superior power; to utter an oath.

Thee, thee an hundred languages shall claim,
And savage Indians *swear* by Anna's name. *Tickell.*

To declare or promise upon oath.

I gave my love a ring, and made him *swear*
Never to part with it; and here he stands,
I dare be sworn for him, he would not leave it,
Nor pluck it from his finger. *Shakspeare.*

To give evidence upon oath.

At what ease

Might corrupt minds procure knaves as corrupt
To *swear* against you? *Shakspeare.*

To obtest the great name profanely.

Obeys thy parents, keep they word justly;
Swear not. *Shakspeare.*

To SWEAR, *v. a.* To put to an oath; to bind by an oath administered.—Sworn ashore, man, like a duck; I can swim like a duck, I'll be *sworn*. *Shakspeare.*—To declare upon oath: as, He *swore* treason against his friend.—To obtest by an oath.

Now by Apollo, king, thou *swear'st* thy gods in vain.
—O vassal! miscreant! *Shakspeare*

SWE'ARER, *s.* A wretch who obtests the great name wantonly and profanely.—And must they all be hang'd that *swear* and lie?—Every one—Who must hang them?—Why, the honest men.—Then the liars and *swearers* are fools; for there are liars and *swearers* enow to beat the honest men and hang them up. *Shakspeare.*

SWE'ARING,

SWE'ARING, *s.* The act of declaring upon oath; the act or practice of using profane oaths.

All those sayings will I over-swear,
And all those *swearings* keep as true in soul,
As doth that orb'd continent the fire
That severs day from night.

Shakspcare.

SWEAT, *s.* [ʃpeət, Saxon; *swett*, Su. Goth. *æct*, Hebrew.] The matter evacuated at the pores by heat or labour. Soft on the flowery herb I found me laid
In balmy *sweat*.

Milton.

Labour; toil; drudgery.

The field

To labour calls us, now with *sweat* impos'd.

Milton.

Evaporation of moisture.—Beans give in the mow; and therefore those that are to be kept are not to be thrashed 'till March, that they have had a thorough *sweat* in the mow.

Mortimer.

To **SWEAT**, *v. n.* pret. *swat* or *swate*, *swet*, *sweated*; partic. pass. *sweaten*; [ʃpætan, Saxon.] To be moist on the body with heat or labour.

Let them be free, marry them to your heirs,
Why *sweat* they under burdens?

Shakspcare.

To toil; to labour; to drudge.

How the drudging goblin *swet*

To earn his cream bowl duly set;

When in one night, ere glimpse of morn,

His shadowy flail hath thresh'd the corn.

Milton.

To emit moisture.—Wainscots will *sweat* so that they run with water. *Bacon.*

To **SWEAT**, *v. a.* To emit as sweat.

Grease that's *sweaten*

From the murderer's gibbet, throw

Into the flame.

Shakspcare.

To make to sweat.

SWE'ATER, *s.* One who sweats, or makes to sweat.—These *sweaters* seem to me to have at present but a rude kind of discipline amongst them. *Spectator.*

SWE'ATILY, *adv.* So as to be moist with sweat; in a sweaty state.

SWE'ATINESS, *s.* The state of being sweaty. *Ash.*

SWE'ATING, *s.* [ʃpætuŋ, Sax.] The act of making to sweat. Moisture emitted.—In cold evenings there will be a moisture or *sweating* upon the stool. *Mortimer.*

SWE'ATY, *adj.* [ʃpæti, Sax.] Covered with sweat; moist with sweat.—The rabblement hooted and clapped their chopp'd hands, and threw up their *sweaty* night-caps. *Shakspcare.*—Consisting of sweat.

And then, so nice, and so genteel,

Such cleanliness from head to heel;

No humours gross, or frowsy steams,

No noisome whiffs, or *sweaty* streams.

Swift.

Laborious: toilsome.

Those who labour

The *sweaty* forge, who edge the crooked scythe,

Bend stubborn steel, and harden gleening armour,

Acknowledge Vulcan's aid.

Prior.

SWEDE, *s.* A native of Sweden.—What the *Swede* intends, and what the French. *Milton.*

SWEDEN, an extensive kingdom in the north of Europe which has experienced great territorial changes since 1809. It lost in that year the valuable province of Finland, and in 1814 received the accession of Norway, on ceding the comparatively insignificant province of Swedish Pomerania. Sweden, exclusive of Norway, but inclusive of Swedish Lapland, is a country of great length, stretching from 55. 20. to 69. of N. lat. about 1000 miles; its breadth, though not proportioned to its length, is between 200 and 300 miles, in one part from 11. 10. to 23. 20. of east long; and the whole contains an area of 172,000 square miles, of which about one-third belongs to Swedish Lapland.

Norway, though a distinct kingdom, is governed by the same sovereign; and the extent of this country, including Norwegian Lapland, is so great as to carry the total surface of the two kingdoms to 343,000 square miles, constituting them the most extensive monarchy in Europe after Russia; but as the population hardly exceeds 3,300,000, its rank, in this far more essential point, is not above the twelfth of the European states.

Sweden is bounded on the north by Norwegian Lapland, on the east by the gulf of Bothnia and the Baltic, on the south and west by portions of the Baltic and by Norway. The statistics of Sweden have been an object of attention with a government office since 1746, when returns of the population were ordered to be made once in five years. They are on the whole tolerably correct. In regard to territorial divisions there prevails at present a degree of perplexity in maps and geographical works, from an indiscriminate use of the old and new divisions. Sweden consisted originally of three kingdoms, Gothland, Sweden proper, and Norland, the last including Swedish Lapland. Each of these was divided into provinces, but this distinction is now abolished, and the whole kingdom divided into 23 districts, called *læns* or governments.

The number of inhabitants for each square mile is in Gothland or the southern provinces, 38; in the central part of the kingdom, nearly 21; but in Norland, only 1½, giving for the whole kingdom little more than 14 persons per square mile, which is not above one-fourteenth of the relative density of population in Great Britain. The ratio of increase is not rapid, but is understood to be least slow in the northern provinces.

Sweden, though inclosed by mountains on the west and north, is in general a very flat country; and it is remarkable that along the whole road from Gottenburg in the west to Stockholm in the east, there is not a single acclivity of consequence, till within a few miles of the latter. The great mountain chain on the west begins at a short distance from Gottenburg, and extends northward many hundred miles, forming the limit, first between Sweden and Norway, next between Swedish and Norwegian Lapland, and finally terminating in the direction of the North Cape. From this vast range, several subordinate chains separate and traverse both Swedish Lapland and Sweden in an easterly direction; but in the latter they are in general so insignificant as to do little more than vary the aspect of the country, and determine the course of the rivers. In the south of Sweden, a small but distinct range crosses the country (Smaland) from sea to sea, and in particular provinces, as West Gothland, there are insulated mountains of considerable height.

The climate of Sweden is less severe than might be expected in so high a latitude. In Stockholm the average of temperature throughout the year is four degrees higher than at St. Petersburg—a difference arising, not from greater heat in summer, but from less intensity of cold in winter. Winter is in Sweden by no means an unpleasant season: the winds are seldom violent; the cold, without being extreme, is steady, and being very rarely interrupted by a thaw, the snow remains unmelted, the roads dry, and travelling is both agreeable and expeditious. The summer is, in like manner, free from intense heat; while the long duration of sunshine in the northern provinces brings forward the crop with a rapidity that counterbalances the shortness of the season. The most inconstant and most unhealthy part of the year is spring. The quantity of rain that falls annually in Sweden is not great, having been found not to exceed 19 inches, even in the southern provinces.

The most striking feature in the appearance of Sweden is the number and extent of its lakes, which are computed to occupy 9200 square miles, nearly an eighteenth of the whole surface. These lakes are vast sheets of water, pure, transparent, abounding in fish, and in several cases of great importance to navigation. The lake of Wenner, the largest of all, and situated in the south-west of the kingdom, communicates with Gottenburg by the canal of Trohætta, and is likely ere long to communicate with Stockholm, as soon

as the canal shall be extended to the Malar lake. The other great lakes are the Wetter and the Hjelmars, both to the southward of the capital, and at some distance from it. Of the rivers of Sweden, the Ljusna, the Dal, and the Clara, rise in the mountains bordering on Norway, and flow, the first two into the gulf of Bothnia, the last into the lake of Wetter. From that lake issues the Gotha, which flows southward with a full stream, but not a long course, until reaching the Cattogat; while the waters of the Wetter lake are conveyed to the Baltic by the Mottala. The other rivers of Sweden are of secondary size; but approaching Lapland we meet with several streams of magnitude, all flowing into the gulf of Bothnia, viz., the Angerman, the Umea, the Skeleftea, the Pitea, the Lulea, the Torneo. In winter these waters, flowing from frost-bound mountains, are, like the Rhone and other rivers in Switzerland, comparatively inconsiderable; but in summer the melting of the snow often swells them prodigiously, and makes them overflow large tracks of country adjacent to their banks.

The plants of Sweden are similar to those of Britain, with the exception, however, of several, such as broom, furze, and walnut trees, which have not strength to withstand the continued cold of a Swedish winter. The list of these deficiencies increases the farther we proceed to the northward, but throughout all the temperate part of Sweden, the oak, the elm, the alder, thrive as in England, while some trees, such as the spruce and Scotch fir, succeed better. Apple, pear, and cherry trees grow here but languidly; while berries of many different kinds are produced spontaneously, and spread luxuriantly. As to corn, wheat succeeds only in the southern provinces; oats are raised more generally, and in larger quantities; but rye and barley are the species of grain most frequently met with.

In the domestic animals, there is very little difference between Sweden and Britain. Horses, oxen, cows, and sheep are spread over the kingdom as in that country, and the chief difference consists in a marked inferiority of size, the consequence of poorer pasture, and of less skill and capital on the part of the agriculturists. The Swedish horses are well shaped, and uncommonly sure-footed; and it is remarked that all the domestic animals of this country, without excepting the watch dog, possess a great share of tameness. As to beasts of game, hares and foxes are as abundant as in Britain, with a long list of animals, the natural inhabitants of wilds, unknown in Britain, such as beavers, wolves, and, in the cold provinces of the north, bears. In the birds there prevails a greater similarity between Britain and Sweden. The naturalists of the latter have calculated the different species of the winged tribe in their country at about 300. Fish is plentiful, as well along the coast as in the rivers and lakes: in the latter salmon and pike are the principal fish, trout being found only in the mountain streams. On the coast of the Baltic is caught the strämning, a species of herring peculiar to that sea.

Hardly a thirtieth part of the surface of this country is arable, and if the wilds of Norrland were included, it would not be a sixtieth. The farms are here, as in many parts of the continent, miserably small, not exceeding on an average 27 or 28 English acres. The quantity of corn sown on each averages only $4\frac{1}{2}$ Winchester quarters, and the average crop does not amount to a quarter per English acre, owing in a great measure to the scarcity of manure. The chief part of Sweden resembles a great forest, where, as in North America, a farm is a small cultivated patch, with a wood of many hundred acres attached to it, and appropriated in summer to the pasture of the cattle. All improvements requiring the application of capital, are of course excluded from Swedish agriculture, but there are many requiring less capital than skill, which are seldom thought of.

Manufactures are in no better state than agriculture in Sweden, and seem to have a more doubtful prospect of improvement; the thinness of the population, and the limited supply of raw produce raised within the country, being evils not easily remedied. As yet, the metals, particularly iron and copper, have been the staple articles of manufacture.

In the latter half of the 18th century, Sweden exported copper to an annual value of £100,000, but that is since diminished, a number of the mines, at Fahlun and elsewhere, having become less productive. The iron works employ a much greater number of hands; the forges are small, but the ore, and consequently the iron is in general of superior quality. A stagnation has, however, been produced in this important branch, by the very great extension, during the present age, of the iron works of England, where the abundance of coal, and the command of inland navigation, form more than a counterpoise to the cheap labour and the wood fuel of Sweden.

Commerce.—The foreign trade of Sweden, favoured for a time by her neutrality in the war of the French revolution, became after 1807 exposed to great losses from participating in hostilities; and since the peace of 1814, it has had its full share of the fluctuations and distress so general throughout Europe.

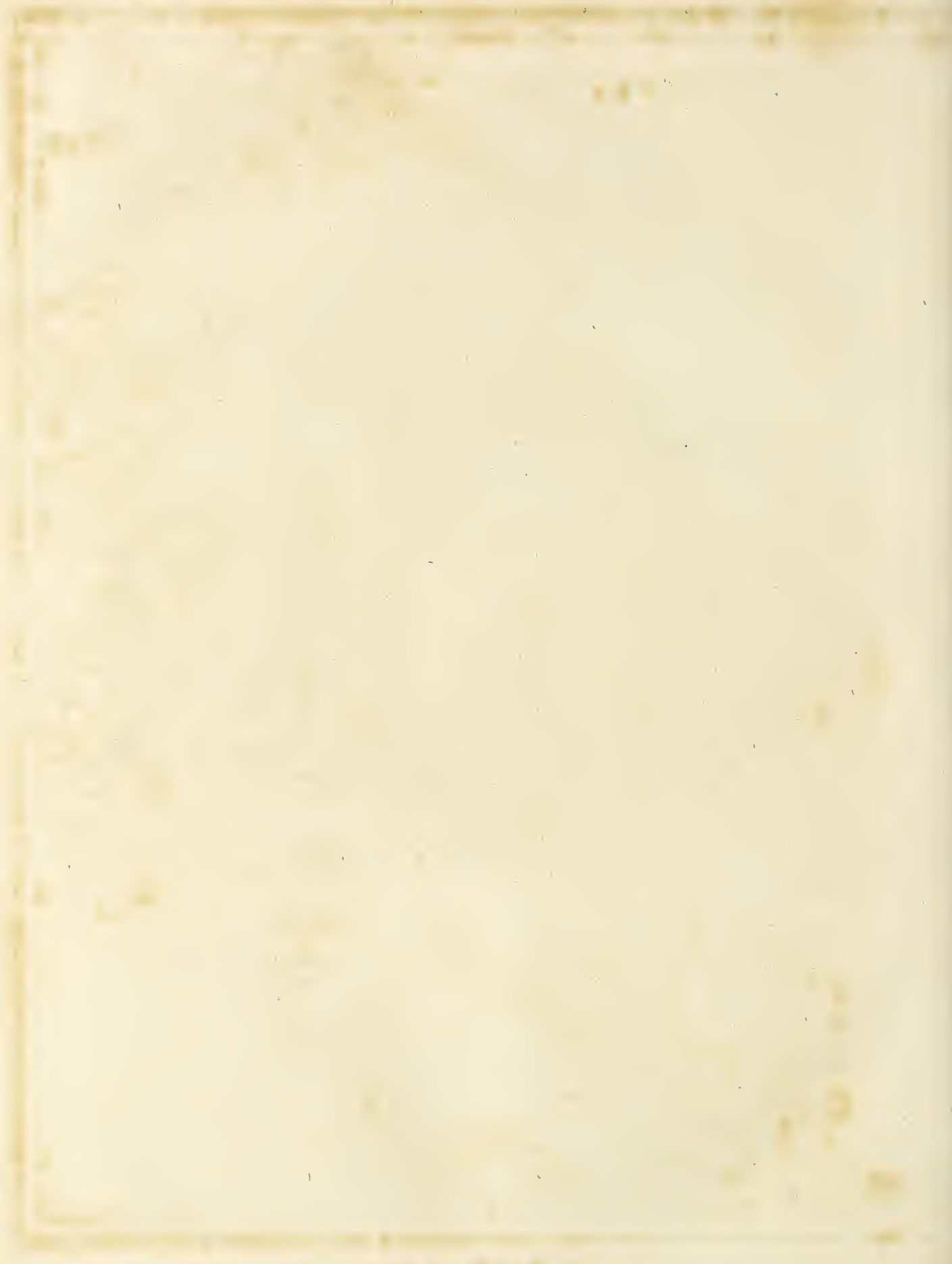
The revenue of Sweden is derived from various sources; the rent of the royal domains, a portion of the great tythes, duties on imports and exports, a tax on spirituous liquors, and one, of more questionable policy, on mines, forges, and chimnies, along with a poll tax and a few monopolies. The amount of revenue is about one million sterling, and as it never was greater, the military force of Sweden has at no time been so large as might have been imagined from the brilliancy of its achievements. The troops which crossed the Baltic along with Gustavus Adolphus, did not exceed 10,000 men; and though they subsequently received reinforcements from Sweden, the chief part of his army were Germans. A progressive increase took place towards the close of the 11th century; but even in the splendid exploits of Charles XII., a large proportion of his military followers were foreigners, supported by the resources of the conquered territory. In the reign of Gustavus III., assassinated in 1792, the Swedish army was larger; and in 1808, the aid of a British subsidy, 1,200,000*l.* a year, carried it to 50,000 regulars, and a reserve of 30,000. At present it is thus organized: the corps of the army is one of engineers, three regiments of artillery, seven of cavalry, 28 of infantry. The officers are 18 generals, 29 major-generals, and a staff of somewhat more than 100. This forms the regular army; but there is also a national force or militia, for the levy and support of which, the whole country is divided into petty districts, called *hemmans*, each of which is bound to furnish a soldier, and a spot of land for his maintenance. This land the soldier, in time of peace, cultivates himself, being pledged to attend at exercise only a specified number of days in each year. When permanently absent, the inhabitants of the district are bound to cultivate the land for him. The officers are supported in the same manner; the colonel by a property placed in the centre of his regiment; the captain by a less extensive lot in the centre of his company, and so on down to the corporal. When in the field, these troops receive the same pay as the rest of the army, but at other times the government expense on them is limited to clothing.

Religion and Education.—The Swedes have long been accounted among the most vigorous supporters of the reformed faith, having adopted it with almost complete unanimity in the reign of Gustavus Vasa, and having subsequently made the most signal exertions for its maintenance in Germany. The established creed is Lutheranism; and though particular sects, such as the Swedenborgians, have arisen, the dissenters are, on the whole far from numerous. To the Catholics there prevails a general and decided antipathy, nor would it have been prudent, before the latter part of the 18th century, for a Catholic priest to have shewn himself openly in the provincial part of Sweden.

The Swedish language bears a great resemblance to the Danish, and not a little to the English, or rather Scottish. It is evidently sprung from the same source as the Saxon or German; but being very little known out of the country, and the circulation of literary works at home being very limited, men of letters have been frequently led to adopt Latin as the medium of their publications. The necessity of seeking



SWEDEN, DENMARK, & NORWAY.



seeking for information in other languages, has made the Swedish literati in general familiar with German, French, English, and Italian. Antiquities, formerly the favourite object of their attention, have been exchanged within the last century for the physical sciences. These have been cultivated with great success; witness Linnæus, Bergman, Scheele, and a long list of other naturalists. In poetry and in history the Swedes have several late writers of great merit, though little known out of their own country.

The scientific and literary societies of Sweden are numerous, and belong chiefly to Stockholm.

In Sweden the royal prerogative being limited, a considerable share of power is vested in the nobility and the people. The diet, which, however different in its formation, bears in its object a resemblance to the British parliament, consists of four orders; the nobles, the clergy, the peasants, and the burghers. The nobles are too numerous for so thinly peopled a country, a title of nobility granted to an individual conferring rank on his whole family, the head of which has a seat in the diet as its representative. The clerical body is represented by one archbishop (of Upsal), the eleven bishops of the kingdom, and by deputies from the inferior clergy. The peasants consist of delegates from that body, and the burghers of deputies from the royal free towns. To be eligible as a representative of the peasantry, it is necessary to belong to a family permanently employed in agriculture, and either to hold land from the crown during life, or to possess a portion of it in perpetuity. The expenses of the deputies of the clergy, the peasantry, and the towns, are all defrayed by their constituents. It is optional with each district or town to depute its special representative, or to join with one or more towns, and choose a representative for them all. It is not here as in France and the Netherlands, where the proposition of a new law is confined to the ministers of the crown: in the Swedish, as in the British parliament, any member may bring in a bill for such an object. Each order deliberates separately, and the decision, as in Britain, requires only a simple majority: a bill is in a fit state for the royal assent when agreed to by three out of the four orders. The great drawback on the Swedish representation lies in the want of a middle class between the nobles and the peasants, and in the venality of the former.

The executive administration of Sweden is equally complicated with the legislative. The king is, as in Britain, at the head of the whole, and each department has its board or commission. Thus the royal chancery has, in one division, the home, in another the foreign affairs. The treasury is managed by a chamber or exchequer; trade is superintended by a council; the mines by a board called a college. The army and navy have, in like manner, their respective heads; while, in the administration of justice, the highest court is called the royal tribunal, having subordinate to it two courts of appeal. The lower jurisdictions are the *landshofadinger* or governors in each province. There are separate jurisdictions for the military, the clergy, the physicians, the servants of the crown, and the inhabitants of particular towns, all recapitulated in a code of laws published in 1731, and amended in 1778. The territorial divisions of the kingdom are, first, the *läns*, before mentioned; next, the *vogderies* or *bailliwics*; thirdly, the *harads* or smaller districts; and, finally, the *parishes* or *sokens*.

HISTORY.

The early history of Sweden is not less involved in fable than that of most other nations. Some historians have pretended to give regular catalogues of the princes who reigned in Sweden in very early times; but they differ so much that no credit can be given to them. All indeed agree that ancient Scandinavia was first governed by judges, elected for a certain time by the voice of the people. Among these temporary princes the country was divided, until, in the year of the world 2054, according to some, or 1951, according to others, Eric, or if we believe Puffendorf, Sueno, was raised to the supreme power, with the prerogatives of all the tem-

porary magistrates united in his person for life, or until his conduct should merit deposition.

From this very early period till the year 1366 of the Christian era, the histories of Sweden present us with nothing but what is common to all nations in their early periods, viz., the endless combats of barbarians. At the time just mentioned, however, Albert of Mecklenburg was declared king. He was engaged in frequent wars with Denmark and Norway, and at last was forced to surrender to Margaret of Norway.

Margaret was, in 1415, succeeded by Eric, a cruel tyrant, who was, however, formally deposed. Canutson was chosen regent; but beginning to oppress the people, and aspiring openly to the crown, the Swedes and Danes revolted; in consequence of which a revolution took place, and Christopher, duke of Bavaria, nephew to Eric, was chosen king of Denmark, Sweden and Norway, in 1442.

In 1448, Christopher having died, Canutson was raised to the throne to which he had so long aspired. The kingdoms of Denmark and Norway, however, refused allegiance to him; on which a war immediately commenced. In 1454, peace was concluded, and Denmark, for the present, freed from the Swedish yoke. But Canutson did not long enjoy the crown of Sweden. Having quarrelled with the magistrates and the archbishop of Upsal, the latter formed such a strong party, that the king could not resist him. Canutson died in 1470 after a long and turbulent reign.

The Swedish affairs continued to be involved in great confusion till the year 1520, when a great revolution was effected by Gustavus Ericson, a nobleman of the first rank, who restored the kingdom to its liberty, and laid the foundation of its future grandeur. The occasion of this great revolution was as follows:—In 1518, Christiern, king of Denmark, invaded Sweden, with a design to subdue the whole country; but being defeated with great loss, he was reduced to the utmost distress; one half of his forces having perished with hunger, and the rest being in the most imminent danger by the approach of a rigorous winter. He then thought of a stratagem, which was to invite the regent to a conference, at which he designed either to assassinate or take him prisoner. The regent was about to comply, had not the senate, who suspected the plot, interposed and prevented him. Christiern then offered to go in person to Stockholm, on condition that six hostages should be sent in his room. This was accordingly done; but the wind happening then to prove favourable, he set sail for Denmark with the hostages, of whom Gustavus Ericson or Vasa, was one. Next year the Dane returned; and having defeated the regent, advanced into the heart of the kingdom, destroying every thing with fire and sword; but on his arrival at Stragnez, he granted a suspension of arms, on condition that the people would elect him king. Gustavus was confined by Christiern for a long time, but he continued to nourish the hope of enfranchising his country. At length he effected his escape, hired himself to a cattle merchant, and in this disguise escaped out of the Danish territories, and arrived at Lubec. He now applied to the regency for a ship to convey him to Sweden, where he hoped he should be able to form a party against the Danes. He likewise endeavoured to draw the regency of Lubec into his measures; and reasoned with so much zeal and ability, that Nicholas Gemins, first consul, was entirely gained; but the regency could not be prevailed on to declare for a party without friends, arms, money, or credit. Before his departure, however, the consul gave him assurances, that if he could raise a force sufficient to make head against the enemy in the field, he might depend on the services of the republic, and that the regency would immediately declare for him. Gustavus next proceeded to Calmar, where he made himself known to the principal officers of the garrison, who were mostly Germans, and his fellow-soldiers in the late administrator's army; but, they, seeing him without troops and without attendants, refused to embrace his proposals.

Disappointed in his expectations, Gustavus departed to an old family castle in Sudermania. Hence he wrote to his

friends, intimating his return to Sweden, and beseeching them to assemble all their forces, in order to break through the enemy's army into Stockholm, at that time besieged; but they refused to embark in so hazardous and desperate an attempt.

Gustavus next applied himself to the peasants; but they answered, that they enjoyed salt and herrings under the government of the king of Denmark; and that any attempts to bring about a revolution, would be attended with certain ruin, without the prospect of bettering their condition; for peasants they were, and peasants they should remain, whoever was king. At length, he formed the resolution of trying the courage and affection of the Dalecarlians. Attended, therefore, by a peasant, to whom he was known, he travelled in disguise through Sudermania, Nericia, and Westermania, and, after a laborious and painful journey, arrived in the mountains of Dalecarlia. Scarcely had he finished his journey, when he found himself deserted by his companion and guide, who carried off with him all the money which he had provided for his subsistence. Thus forlorn and destitute, he entered among the miners, without relinquishing his hopes of one day ascending the throne of Sweden. His whole object for the present was to live concealed, and gain a maintenance, till fortune should effect something in his favour: nor was it long before this happened. A woman in the mines perceived, under the habit of a peasant, that the collar of his shirt was embroidered. This circumstance excited curiosity; and the graces of his person and conversation, which had something in them to attract the notice of the meanest of the vulgar, afforded room for suspicion. Some gentlemen relieved his necessities; but when he made known his projects, he was near being betrayed into the hands of the Danes. At length a priest advised him to apply directly to the peasants themselves; told him that it would be proper to spread a report, that the Danes were to enter Dalecarlia in order to establish new taxes by force of arms; and as the annual feast of all the neighbouring villages was to be held in a few days, he could not have a more favourable opportunity: he also promised to engage the principal persons of the diocese in his interest.

In compliance with this advice, Gustavus set out for Mora, where the feast was to be held. He found the peasants already informed of his designs, and impatient to see him. He instantly led them against the governor's castle, which he took by assault, and put the garrison to the sword. This inconsiderable enterprise was attended with the most happy consequences. Great numbers of the peasants flocked to his standard; some of the gentry openly espoused his cause, and others supplied him with money. Gustavus advanced with 5000 men, and defeated a body of Danes. Christiern, unable to suppress the revolt, wreaked his vengeance on the mother and sisters of Gustavus, whom he put to death. His barbarities served only to make his enemies more resolute.

Gustavus, after various successes, was chosen king of Sweden in 1523. Gustavus embraced the doctrines of the reformed religion, and did all in his power to establish the reformation in his new kingdom. His design could not fail to raise against him the enmity of the clergy, and of all the more superstitious part of his subjects. Accordingly, the first years of his reign were embittered by internal disturbances and revolts, which were aided and fomented by Christiern, who was at one time very near regaining possession of the Swedish dominions: but in 1542, Gustavus, having happily extricated himself out of all his troubles, prevailed on the states to make the crown hereditary in his family; after which he applied himself to the encouragement of learning and commerce. A treaty was set on foot for a marriage between his eldest son Eric and Elizabeth, queen of England; but this negociation failed of success.

Gustavus Vasa died in 1560, and was succeeded by his son, Eric XIV. This king created the first nobility that were ever known in Sweden. The whole course of his reign was disturbed by wars with Denmark, and disputes with his own subjects. In the former he was unfortunate,

and towards the latter he behaved with the greatest cruelty. He was soon dethroned by his brothers; of whom Duke John succeeded him.

This revolution took place in the year 1568, but with no great advantage to Sweden. Disputes about religion between the king and his brothers, and wars with Russia, threw matters into the utmost confusion. At last Prince Sigismund, the king's son, was chosen king of Poland, which proved the source of much trouble to the kingdom. In 1590, king John died; and as Sigismund was at a distance, every thing fell into the utmost confusion: the treasury was plundered, and the royal wardrobe quite spoiled, before even Duke Charles could come to Stockholm to take on himself the administration until King Sigismund should return. This, however, was far from being the greatest disaster which befel the nation at this time. The king refused to confirm the Protestants in their religious privileges, and showed such partiality on all occasions to the Papists, that a party was formed against him, at the head of which was Duke Charles, his uncle. The latter assumed the sovereign power, and in 1604, Sigismund was formally deposed, and his uncle, Charles IX., raised to the throne. He proved a wise and brave prince, restoring the tranquillity of the kingdom, and carrying on a war with vigour against Poland and Denmark. He died in 1611, leaving the kingdom to his son, the celebrated Gustavus Adolphus.

Soon after his accession, Gustavus received an embassy from James I. of Britain, exhorting him to make peace with his neighbours. This was seconded by another from Holland. But as the king perceived that the Danish monarch intended to take every opportunity of crushing him, he resolved to act with such vigour, as might convince him that he was not easily to be overcome. Accordingly, he invaded Denmark with three different armies at once; and though the enemy's superiority at sea gave them great advantages, and the number of the king's enemies distracted his attention, he carried on the war with such spirit, that in 1613, a peace was concluded on good terms. This war being finished, the king applied himself to civil polity, and made some reformation in the laws of Sweden. In 1615, hostilities were commenced against Russia, on account of the refusal of that court to restore some money which had been formerly lent them. The king entered Ingria, took Xexholm by storm, and was laying siege to Plescov, when, by the mediation of James I., peace was concluded, on condition of the Russians repaying the money, and yielding to Sweden some part of their territory. In this and the former war, notwithstanding the shortness of their duration, Gustavus learned the rudiments of the military art for which he soon became so famous.

Peace was no sooner concluded with Russia, than Gustavus was crowned with great solemnity at Upsal. Soon after this he ordered his general La Gardie to acquaint the Polish commander Cudekowitz, that as the truce between the two kingdoms, which had been concluded for two years, was now expired, he desired to be certainly informed whether he was to expect peace or war from his master.

Immediately after this, Gustavus made a tour in disguise through Germany, and married Eleonora the daughter of the elector of Brandenburg. He then set sail for Riga with a great fleet, which carried 20,000 men. Riga was besieged and taken; the poles defeated, and several provinces taken; events which occupied Gustavus till the year 1629, when the Poles were to consent to a truce for six years. Gustavus kept the port and citadel of Memel, the harbour of Pillau, the town of Elbing, Brunsberg, and all that he had conquered in Livonia.

Gustavus having thus brought the war with Poland to an honourable conclusion, began to think of resenting the conduct of the emperor in assisting his enemies and oppressing the Protestant states. Before embarking in such an important undertaking, it was necessary that he should consult the diet. In this the propriety of engaging in a war with Germany was warmly debated; but, after much altercation, Gus-

tavus





J. Piss sc.

CHARLES XII.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

tavus in a very noble speech determined the matter, and set forth in such strong terms the virtuous motives by which he was actuated, that every thing was granted which he could require.

A sanguinary series of battles, managed by the Swedish king, with consummate address took place, and in these, in various successes and defeats, and in the siege and capture of many of the finest towns in Germany, the time was consumed, until the year 1633, when Gustavus was killed at the battle of Lutzen, and the crown devolved on Christiana, daughter of Gustavus, an infant of six years old; the nation was engaged in an expensive foreign war, without any person equal to the arduous task of commanding the armies, or regulating domestic affairs. Christiana was immediately proclaimed queen. The regency devolved on the grand bailiff, the marischal, the high admiral, the chancellor, and the treasurer of the crown. And Oxtenstiern was invested with the chief management of affairs.

The chief that employed Christiana while she was upon the throne, was the peace of Westphalia, in which many clashing interests were to be reconciled, and many claims to be ascertained. It was concluded in the month of October, 1648. The success of the Swedish arms rendered Christiana the arbitress of this treaty; at least as to the affairs of Sweden, to which this peace confirmed the possession of many important countries. No public event of importance took place during the rest of Christiana's reign; for there were neither wars abroad, nor troubles at home. This quiet might be the effect of chance; but it might also be the effect of a good administration, and the great reputation of the queen; and the love her people had for her ought to lead us to this determination. Her reign was that of learning and genius; and she drew about her, wherever she was, all the distinguished characters of her time.

Charles Gustavus, Count Palatine, having gained the favour of Christiana, was appointed generalissimo of the forces, and heir-apparent to the crown. A marriage was proposed between them; but the queen would never listen to this or any other proposal of the kind. In 1650, the ceremony of the queen's coronation was performed; but in four years after, she resigned the crown in favour of Gustavus.

The new king found himself involved in considerable difficulties on his accession to the throne. The treasury was quite exhausted; great part of the revenue was appointed for the support of Christiana's household; the people were oppressed with taxes; and the nation having been disarmed for several years, began to lose its reputation among foreigners. To remedy these evils, Charles proposed to resume all the crown-lands which had been alienated by grants to favourites during the late reign; to repeal a duty which had been laid on salt; to put the kingdom in a posture of defence; and to enter on a war with some neighbouring state. Under a pretence that Casimir king of Poland had questioned his title to the throne, he prepared to invade that kingdom. The Poles were defeated, and the kingdom reduced.

In 1656, a war took place with the elector of Brandenburg. While Charles was employed in the conquest of Poland, that prince had invaded Royal and Ducal Prussia, and reduced the most considerable towns with little opposition. The kind of Sweden took umbrage at his progress; and having marched against him, defeated his forces in several slight encounters, and obliged him to acknowledge himself a vassal of Sweden. These rapid conquests alarmed all Europe; and the Poles were no sooner assured that they should be assisted by foreign powers, than they every where revolted and massacred the Swedes. Charles immediately marched from Prussia to chastise the insolence of the Poles, and totally defeated a body of 12,000 men. This did not hinder all the Poles incorporated with his troops to desert; which considerably reduced his army; and the campaign being performed in the depth of winter, he was at last obliged to retreat to Prussia. In his march he was harassed by the Poles; and a body of 4000 Swedes was surprised and defeated by them at Warka. This loss, however, was soon after recompensed by a complete victory gained by Adolphus the king's brother, and General Wrangel.

Charles now gained over the elector of Brandenburg, by ceding to him the sovereignty of Prussia, that he might be at liberty to turn his whole strength against Poland; but the elector had so procrastinated matters, that the Poles having obtained assistance from the Tartars, had reduced the city of Warsaw. The Poles and Tartars were defeated with great slaughter. A more formidable enemy than the Poles now began to make their appearance. The Russians invaded the provinces of Carelia, Ingermania, and Livonia; they were repulsed in the provinces of Carelia and Ingermania; but in Livonia they had better success. For seven months, however, they battered the walls of Riga, without venturing to pass the ditch or storm the practicable breaches.

The king of Hungary, the Turks, the town of Austria and the Danes united the Poles in attacking Charles. After many brilliant and successful campaigns, he died of an epidemic fever, and was succeeded by his son Charles XI. in 1660.

The new king was a minor at the time of his father's death; and as the kingdom was involved in a dangerous war with so many enemies, the regency determined to conclude a peace, if it could be obtained on reasonable terms. A treaty was accordingly concluded at Oliva; and during the minority of the king, nothing remarkable occurs in the history of Sweden. In 1672, he entered into alliance with Louis XIV., which two years after involved him in a war with the elector of Brandenburg; and from this time the Swedes continued to fight with various success, during his reign. When he made peace with Denmark, a marriage took place between Charles and Ulrica Eleonora, daughter to the king of Denmark. From this time the Swedish monarch applied himself to the reformation of the state; and by artfully managing the disputes between the nobility and peasants he obtained a decree empowering him to alter the constitution as he pleased.

On the 15th of April, 1697, died Charles XI., leaving his crown to his son, the celebrated Charles XII., at that time a minor. On his accession he found himself under the tuition of his grandmother Eleonora, who had governed the kingdom during the minority of the late king. Though Charles was at that time only 15 years of age, he showed a desire of taking the government into his own hands; and was invested with absolute authority in three days after he had expressed his desire. He was scarcely seated on the throne when a powerful combination was formed against him. Augustus, king of Poland, formed designs on Livonia; the king of Denmark revived the disputes he had with the duke of Holstein, as a prelude to a war with Sweden, and Peter the Great of Russia began to form designs on Ingria, formerly a province of Russia. In 1699, the king of Denmark marched an army into Holstein. Charles sent a considerable body of troops to the duke's assistance; but before their arrival the Danes had ravaged the country, taken the castle of Gottorp, and laid close siege to Tonningen. Here the king of Denmark commanded in person; and was assisted by the troops of Saxony, Brandenburg, Wolfenbuttle, and Hesse Cassel. England and Holland, as guarantees of the last treaty with Denmark, in concert with Sweden, joined Charles against this confederacy, and sent fleets to the Baltic.

In the year 1700, Charles, having entrusted the affairs of the nation with a council chosen out of the senate, set out on the 8th May from his capital, to which he never afterwards returned. He embarked at Carlsroon, and defeated the fleet of the allies. Having made a descent on the island of Zealand, he defeated a body of cavalry that opposed his march, and then proceeded to invest Copenhagen by sea and land, and obliged the Danes to make peace; then he marched against the Russians. The contest that ensued between Charles and Peter, with the celebrated battles of Narva and Pultava, have been already related under RUSSIA, so that we shall here confine ourselves chiefly to those events in which Peter the Great was not immediately concerned.

In 1701, as early as the season permitted, Charles, having received a reinforcement from Sweden, marched against the Saxons, and entirely defeated them. He then formed a scheme for dethroning Augustus; and in 1704, this king was formally

formally deposed by the diet, and the crown conferred by Charles on Stanislaus Leczinsky palatine of Posnania. Augustus, however, did not yet tamely give up his kingdom. His adherents daily skirmished with the Swedes, and, assisted by the Russians, continued for a long time a desultory war.

After his defeat at Pultava by the Russians, Charles fled in a mean calash, attended by a little troop inviolably attached to his person, some on foot, and some on horseback. In the Turkish dominions he was treated with hospitality; but Augustus recovered the kingdom of Poland, and the Danes invaded Sweden; the latter were, however, repulsed. In the mean time, Charles succeeded in procuring a rupture between the Porte and Russia. In 1711, the grand signior gave orders to the vizir to fall on the Russians with an army of 200,000 men. The vizir promised obedience; but at the same time professed his ignorance in the art of war, and dislike to the expedition. The khan of Crim Tartary, who had been gained over by the reputation and presents of the king of Sweden, had orders to take the field with 40,000 of his men, and had the liberty of assembling his army at Bender, that Charles might see that the war was undertaken on his account. The little success of these wars has been stated in the article *RUSSIA*.

The treaty of the Pruth was most violently opposed by Count Poniatoffski and the khan of Tartary. The former had made the king acquainted with the situation of both armies; on which he instantly set out from Bender, filled with the hopes of fighting the Russians, and taking ample vengeance. Having ridden 50 leagues post, he arrived at the camp, just as the czar was drawing off his half-famished troops. He alighted at Poniatoffski's tent; and being informed of particulars, instantly flew in a rage to the vizir, whom he loaded with reproaches, and accused of treachery. The violent behaviour of Charles did not promote his interest. The vizir perceived that his stay in Turkey might prove fatal to himself; and therefore determined to get him out of the country as soon as possible. Succeeding vizirs adopted the same plan; and at last the grand signior himself, wrote a letter to Charles, in which he desired him to depart by next winter, promising to supply him with a sufficient guard, with money, and every thing else necessary for his journey. Charles gave an evasive answer, and determined to procrastinate his journey, as well to gratify his own stubborn temper, as because he discovered a correspondence between Augustus and the khan of Tartary, the object of which, he had reason to believe, was to betray him to the Saxons. When he was again pressed to fix the day of his departure, he replied, that he could not think of going before his debts were paid. Being asked how much was necessary for this purpose, he replied 1000 purses. He obtained twelve hundred purses, and then demanded 1000 purses more before he would set out. It was now unanimously agreed that such a troublesome guest ought to be removed by force, should other means fail. Positive orders were therefore sent to Charles to depart; and in case of refusal to attack him in his quarters. Nothing could equal his obstinacy on this occasion: in spite of the menaces of his enemies, in spite of the entreaties of his friends, he persisted in his resolution; and at last determined to resist, with 300 Swedes, being all the attendants he had, an army of 20,000 janissaries well armed and furnished with cannon. At length he was attacked in earnest. Most of the Swedes surrendered at once; but, with 40 menial servants only, and the generals Hord and Dardorff, he determined to defend himself to the last extremity. Though the house was burnt over his head, he continued to fight like a madman, but was taken prisoner at length with all his followers.

On the 14th of October, 1714, Charles set out for Sweden. This kingdom was now in the greatest distress. On the news of his defeat at Pultava, the Danes had invaded Schonen, but were defeated by general Steenboeck. This victory, however, did not put an end to the war. On the contrary, the kings of Denmark and Poland with the czar of Russia, entered into stricter bonds of amity than ever. They dreaded the return of Charles to his own dominions,

and apprehended that numberless victories would soon efface the remembrance of Pultava. They determined, therefore, to make the best use of their time; and perhaps Charles never took a more imprudent resolution than obstinately to remain so long in the Turkish dominions. The return of Charles seemed to give new life to the whole nation. Though the number of inhabitants was visibly diminished, the levies he had ordered were completed in a few weeks; but the hands left to cultivate the earth consisted of the infirm, aged, and decrepid; so that a famine was threatened in consequence of the military rage which had seized all the youth of the kingdom.

The presence of Charles did not now produce those consequences which the allies had feared. And though the king's courage and military skill were not in the least diminished, the efforts he made, instead of restoring Sweden to its splendour, served more completely to exhaust it. In 1715, the king of Prussia declared against him, on account of his demanding back the town of Stetin, which that monarch had seized. To complete his embarrassment, the elector of Hanover, George I. of Britain, also became his enemy. The forces of Denmark, Prussia, Saxony, and Hanover, joined to invest Wismar, while a body of 36,000 men formed the siege of Stralsund; at the same time that the czar, with a fleet of 20 large ships of war, and 150 transports, carrying 30,000 men, threw every part of the Swedish coast into the greatest consternation. The heroism of Charles could not prevail against so many enemies; yet he was still so much dreaded, that the prince of Anhalt, with 12,000 brave troops, did not think himself a match for this furious enemy when at the head of only 2000, till he had entrenched his army behind a ditch, defended by chevaux-de-frize. It appeared, indeed, that his precaution was not unnecessary: for in the night Charles with his men clambered up the ditch, and attacked the enemy in his usual manner. Numbers, however, at last prevailed; and Charles was obliged to retire, after having seen his favourite Grot-husen, General Dardorff and Doring, the companions of his exile, killed by his side; he himself being wounded in the breast.

Stralsund was now besieged and taken, in spite of the utmost efforts of the king. He retreated, however, in safety.

To revenge himself for these losses, Charles invaded Norway with an army of 25,000 men. The Norwegians were every where defeated and pursued with that vigour for which the king of Sweden was so remarkable; but strong reinforcements arriving from Denmark, and provisions failing, he was at last obliged to retire. He returned, however, the next year, and with 18,000 men he formed the siege of Frederickshall, though the severity of the frost rendered it almost impossible to break ground. Charles resolved to form trenches; and his soldiers cheerfully obeyed, digging into ground with the same labour as if they had been piercing a rock. On the 11th of December the king visited the trenches in the midst of a terrible fire from the enemy, imagining that his men might be animated by his presence. He took his post in a most dangerous station, whence he was entreated to retire; but he remained obstinate. At last he was seen to fall on the parapet with a deep groan, and soon afterwards expired, having been mortally wounded by a cannon ball.

Charles XII. was succeeded in 1717 by his sister the princess Ulrica Elconora, wife to the hereditary prince of Hesse. On this occasion the states took care to make a previous stipulation for the preservation of their liberties, and obliged the princess to sign a paper to this purpose before entering on the government. Their first care was to make a peace with Great Britain, which the late king intended to have invaded. The Swedes then, to prevent their farther losses by the progress of the Russian, the Danish, the Saxon, and other arms, made many great sacrifices to obtain peace from those powers. The French, however, about the year 1738, formed a dangerous party in the kingdom, which not only broke its internal quiet, but led it into a ruinous war with Russia, by which it lost the province of Finland.

Their



GUSTAVUS IV.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

Their Swedish majesties having no children, it was necessary to settle the succession; especially as the duke of Holstein was descended from the queen's eldest sister, and was, at the same time, the presumptive heir to the empire of Russia. Four competitors appeared; the duke of Holstein Gottorp, Prince Frederic of Hesse-Cassel, nephew to the king, the prince of Denmark, and the duke of Deux-Ponts. The duke of Holstein would have carried the election, had he not embraced the Greek religion, that he might mount the throne of Russia. The tzarina interposed, and offered to restore all the conquests she had made from Sweden, excepting a small district in Finland, if the Swedes would receive the duke of Holstein's uncle, Adolphus Frederic bishop of Lubec, as their hereditary prince and successor to their crown. This was agreed to; and a peace concluded at Abo, under the mediation of his Britannic majesty. Adolphus died dispirited in 1771, after a turbulent reign of twenty years; and was succeeded by his son Gustavus. The most remarkable transaction of this reign is the revolution which took place in the government in the year 1772, by which the king, from being the most limited became one of the most despotic monarchs in Europe. Ever since the death of Charles XII., the whole power of the kingdom had been lodged in the states; and this power they are said to have abused. Gustavus therefore determined either to seize on that power of which they made such a bad use, or perish in the attempt. The revolution was effected in the following manner. On the morning of the 19th of August, 1772, a considerable number of officers, as well as other persons known to be attached to the royal cause, had been summoned to attend his majesty. At the moment when one detachment which was to mount guard was drawn up, together with that which was to be relieved, his majesty addressed them with all that eloquence of which he is said to have been a perfect master. All the officers but three, and all the soldiers but one, answered him with loud acclamations. The senators were now immediately secured, and the new constitution proclaimed.

The power thus obtained was employed by the king for the good of his subjects. He took care that the law should be administered with impartiality to the richest noble and the poorest peasant, making a severe example of such judges as were proved to have made justice venal. He gave particular attention and encouragement to commerce, was a liberal and enlightened patron of learning and science, and laboured strenuously to introduce into his kingdom the most valuable improvements in agriculture that had been made in foreign countries.

But while thus active in promoting the arts of peace, he was not inattentive to those of war. The fleet, which he found decayed and feeble, he in a few years restored to a respectable footing, and, besides changing the regulations of the navy, he raised a new corps of sailors, and formed them to the service by continual exercise. The army, which, as well as the navy, had been neglected during the aristocracy, was next to be reformed. The king began by giving cloaks, tents, and new arms to all the regiments. Afterwards, under the direction of Field Marshal Count de Hessenstein, a new exercise was introduced, and several camps were formed, in which the soldiery were manœuvred by the king himself. The sale of military offices, which had been permitted for many years, was entirely suppressed; and the king provided not only for the re-establishment of discipline and good order in the army, but for the future welfare of the individuals which composed it. These warlike preparations were necessary to a plan which he had formed for entirely abolishing the power of the aristocracy, and freeing Sweden from the factions which had long been formed in it by the court of St. Petersburg. The change which he had introduced was very inimical to the intrigues of that court; and the Russian ambassador exerted himself openly to bring about a rupture between the king and the discontented nobles. Gustavus ordered him to quit the kingdom in eight days, and immediately prepared for war with Russia. To

this apparently rash enterprise he was incited by the Ottoman Porte, at that time unable to oppose the armies of the two empires; and his own ambition, together with the internal state of his kingdom, powerfully concurred to make him lend every assistance to his ancient ally. It is needless for us to enter into a detail of the particulars of that war. Suffice it to say, that neither Gustavus Adolphus nor Charles XII. gave greater proofs of undaunted courage and military conduct in their long and bloody wars than were given by Gustavus III. from the end of the year 1787 to 1790, when peace was restored between the courts of St. Petersburg and Stockholm.

The king of Sweden was now at liberty to cherish again the arts of peace, and to humble the haughty spirit of the nobles. But the revolution which he effected, though calculated to promote the general good of the people, produced a conspiracy against his life, among the nobles. On the 16th of March, 1792, at a masquerade, he was surrounded by several persons in masks, one of whom fired a pistol at the back of the king, and lodged the contents in his body. On the 28th of March, a mortification was found to have taken place, and he expired on the following day.

The king had by his will appointed a council of regency; but convinced by recent experience how little dependence was to be placed on the attachment of his nobles, and aware of the necessity of a vigorous government in times of such difficulty and danger, he appointed his brother, the duke of Sudermania, sole regent, till his son, then a minor, should attain the age of 18 years. In his dying moments he desired that all the conspirators, except the perpetrator of his murder, might be pardoned.

The young king, who was about 14 at his father's death, was proclaimed by the name of Gustavus IV.

From the accession of Gustavus IV., to the end of his reign, few transactions of any importance occurred. Soon after the king had taken on himself the administration of affairs, he engaged warmly in the war against France, and till the time of his deposition, continued a most faithful ally of Britain. The efforts of the Swedish monarch towards humbling the power of Buonaparte, have been already noticed under the articles BRITAIN and FRANCE; and the war with Russia, in which his alliance with Britain had involved him, has been sufficiently touched on in the article RUSSIA. This prince seems to have been endowed with great and amiable qualities, but he was certainly rash and imprudent in a high degree, and he thus materially injured his kingdom.

The discontented nobles of Sweden found, in a temporary derangement in the mind of Gustavus, an excuse for de-throning him. His uncle, the duke of Sudermania, who had been at the head of the conspirators, was proclaimed king on the 29th of June, 1809, under the title of Charles XIII. His first measures were to convoke a general diet, and proclaim a new constitution; but as he was compelled to continue in amity with England; he was attacked by France, and by the same measure was embroiled with Russia. This powerful enemy obtained a series of advantages, which were only checked by the occasional naval exploits of the British. At length Sweden was forced to yield the governments of Kynnemegard, Nyland and Tawastland, Abo and Biorneboj, with the isles of Aland, Savolax, Carelia, Wasa Heleaboy and West Bothnia, as far as the river. So that Russia obtained during the abovementioned wars, nearly a fourth of her territory, and a sixth of her population from Sweden.

The Swedes now chose, under the title of Crown Prince, a successor for Charles XIII., but he shortly after dying, and no other competitor of equal talents and interest appearing, they raised to this high station Bernadotte, a distinguished general of Napoleon's army. Sweden soon became entirely under the direction of the Crown Prince, and he finding the people universally favourable to amity with Napoleon, since the emperor would hear of no peace without a declaration of war against England. But a forced war of this

kind was, of course, carried by neither party with vigour, and trade continued in an underhand manner between the countries. But the impatient and clear-sighted emperor of France was not to be deluded by these measures. He incessantly and vehemently urged on Bernadotte, the necessity for commencing active war, and at length marched 20,000 men into Swedish Pomerania. The Crown Prince contrived to get these forces withdrawn, but he held off, and prevaricated until, in 1813, he joined the emperor of Russia, who had taken part against Napoleon, and made peace with England. The successful issue of the war that these powers exercised against France, produced for Denmark the loss, and to Sweden the accession, of Norway.

In the year 1817, a futile attempt was made to overthrow the power of Bernadotte, by a party who favoured the son of Gustavus; but it produced no success, though the country in general, was, from misery and privation, in a disturbed state.

In the year 1818, Charles XIII. died, and Bernadotte, under the name of Charles John, ascended the throne of Sweden, and then proceeded to Norway, and was crowned sovereign of that country.

In the year 1823, the transactions which took place in the Diet, indicated a free and liberal mode of going about business, which promised much improvement. A decree was passed to give publicity to the speeches made by the Diet, and some stand was made against voting a large sum for military expenses. But it appears from the same authority, that the country was in a miserable condition, especially that occupied by the land-holders. This year the prince royal was married to the daughter of Eugene Beauharnois, and these powers were given to this potentate—two votes in the Diet, and the administration of the kingdom, in the event of the king's absence.

In the year 1824, arrangements were made with the Swedish government for facilitating the commercial intercourse between that kingdom and Great Britain. On the 24th of April, two declarations were issued at Stockholm, in which the Swedish minister stated, that having received from the English plenipotentiary the assurance of a perfect reciprocity, he declared, "That English merchant ships arriving in the ports or waters of the kingdom of Sweden, should in future be placed upon the same footing as national vessels, with respect to pilot, light-house, and tonnage dues, and, in general, with respect to all those duties which are included in the denomination of port-dues payable to the crown, of whatever description they may be." It was declared, "That English merchant ships should be equally assimilated to national vessels, with respect to salvage dues, without any restriction or difference." "And that, as Swedish commerce was already in the enjoyment of reciprocal advantages in the ports of Great Britain, the above-mentioned arrangements in favour of English commerce should be put in force in all the ports of the kingdom of Sweden, without delay, and with as much expedition as possible."

The second document equally proclaimed, "That all articles, the growth, produce, or manufacture of the kingdom of Great Britain and of its colonies, which, according to the existing regulations, might be imported into Sweden on board of Swedish vessels, may be imported into Sweden in English ships direct from the ports of Great Britain, without being subject, on their entry, to other or higher duties to the crown than if imported on board a Swedish vessel.

"That all articles, the exportation whereof was not prohibited, might be exported from the ports of the kingdom of Sweden on board of English vessels, to any place whatever, without being subject, on their export, to other or higher duties to the crown than if exported on board a Swedish vessel.

"But that, as Swedish merchant vessels did not enjoy the liberty of visiting the ports of the colonies and foreign possessions of England, it was understood that the privileges above specified were not applicable to goods imported into

the ports of Sweden, in vessels belonging to the said colonies and foreign possessions, or in vessels strictly English, coming direct from the English colonies."

The speech of the king at the closing of the Diet this year, described much improvement in the commerce of the kingdom, proclaimed the rapid progress of many internal improvements, and of a plan for a new code of civil law. Since this period no events of great or general interest have reached us. The state of Norway is much more prosperous than that of Sweden, and its superior happiness in this respect may doubtless be traced to the excellent system by which its inhabitants have contrived to have it governed.

"When the power over Norway was assumed by the Swedish monarch, its independence of Sweden was secured by resolutions of the States, or the Storting, guaranteed by the king on the 4th November, 1814. These fundamental rules decree, 1st. That only citizens of Norway, of the Lutheran religion, shall be nominated to fill any office. 2d. That Norway shall be answerable for its own national debt alone. 3d. That none shall be judged but by the law, and that torture shall not be practised. 4th. That no retrospective law shall be enacted. 5th. That no one shall be arrested, or confined, but in cases specified by the law. 6th. The liberty of the press shall not be infringed. 7th. Landed property shall not become forfeited. 8th. No nobles shall be created. 9th. Each Norwegian, without regard to rank or wealth, is bound to serve a certain time. 10th. Norway shall retain its own bank and coins. 11th. Norwegian merchant ships may carry their own national flag.

Under these stipulations, Norway is a limited hereditary monarchy, in which the executive power is vested in the king, and the legislature in the States, or Storting. The king exercises his power through a Viceroy, who resides in the royal palace at Christiania. The members of the legislature are chosen by electors, who are nominated for that purpose by those who have a right to vote. In the cities, the number of electors to be chosen is one to every fifty voters; in the country, one to every hundred votes. These electors choose the deputies for the respective districts; from five to fourteen electors choose one deputy; from fifteen to twenty-four, two deputies; from twenty-five to thirty-four, three deputies; and from thirty-five upwards, four deputies, which is the greatest number that any electoral assembly can nominate. The deputies must be thirty years of age, and have resided the last ten years within the kingdom. Whoever is chosen is bound to serve. They are free from arrest, and are paid for their time and travelling expences. The number of the representatives of the country are as two to one of those from the cities. The whole number is from 75 to 100. The servants of the crown, the members of the council, and pensioners, are ineligible. The assembly meets every third year on the first working day in February. There are two chambers, or bodies; one called the Lagthing, consisting of one-fourth the members, the other called the Odelsting, comprehending the other three-fourths. All laws must originate in the Odelsting, from its own members, or from the suggestion of the king; but the assent of the other body is required for their enactment. The forms of passing laws are complicated, but they insure great deliberation. The assembly continues its session three months, but the king may prolong it beyond that period, or call it together in the intervals of the regular assemblies. The Senate, appointed by the king, is rather an executive than a legislative body, but must consist of Norwegians."

SWEDEN, a post township of the United States, in Oxford county, Maine; 25 miles west-south-west of Paris.

SWEDEN, a township of the United States, in Genesee county, New York.

SWEDENBORG (Emanuel), the son of a Swedish bishop, was born at Stockholm in the year 1689, and educated under the tuition of his father. In 1716, Charles XII., by whom he was highly esteemed, appointed him assessor to the college of mines; and having directed his attention to physical and mathematical subjects, he published



J. Duss sc.

CHARLES JOHN I.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

lished a work, entitled "Dædalus Hyperboreus," containing an account of experiments made by himself and others in mechanics and natural philosophy; and also a proposal for determining, in a new manner, the longitude of places by the moon. He also printed a treatise on algebra; and he is said to have been the first person who, in Sweden, wrote on the subject of the integral and differential calculus. His name was most deservedly enrolled among those of the members of the academies of Upsal, Stockholm, and Petersburg; and several distinguished foreigners wished to have the honour and advantage of corresponding with him. In 1743, his views were directed to subjects which he conceived to be of much higher importance than those of science. "Whatever of worldly honour and advantage," says he, "may be in these things, I hold them as matters of low estimation, compared with the honour of that holy office to which I have been called by the Lord himself, who was graciously pleased to manifest himself to me, his unworthy servant, in a personal appearance, in the year 1743; to open to me a sight of the spiritual world, and to enable me to converse with spirits and angels; and this privilege has continued with me to this day." He taught that after death a man is so little changed, that he does not know but he is still living in the present world; he eats and drinks, and enjoys conjugal delight as in this world; and so great is the resemblance between the two worlds, that in the spiritual world there are cities with palaces and houses, and also books and writings, employments and merchandize, gold, silver, and precious stones. He died in London, in the month of March, 1772; and his remains, after lying in state, were deposited in a vault at the Swedish church, in Princes square.

SWEDESBOROUGH, a post township of the United States, in Gloucester county, New Jersey, on Raccoon creek; 20 miles south-south-west of Philadelphia. It contains an Episcopal church, a woollen manufactory, and 50 or 60 houses. Raccoon creek is navigable for boats to this place.

SWE'DISH, *adj.* Respecting the Swedes.—The Icelandic is the mother of the modern *Swedish* and Danish tongues. *Percy.*

To **SWEEP**, *v. a.* pret. and part. pass. *swept*. [*ſpapan*, *ſpæopan*, Sax.] To drive away with a besom. To clean with a besom.—What woman, having ten pieces of silver, if she lose one, doth not *sweep* the house, and seek diligently till she find it? *St. Luke.*—To carry with pomp.

Let frantic Talbot triumph for a while,
And, like a peacock, *sweep* along his tail. *Shakspeare.*

To drive or carry off with celerity and violence.

Though I could,
With barefac'd power, *sweep* him from my sight,
And bid my will avouch it; yet I must not. *Shakspeare.*

To pass over with celerity and force.—Then *sweep* they the blue waves. *May.*—To rub over.

Their long descending train
With rubies edg'd, and sapphires *swept* the plain. *Dryden.*

To strike with a long stroke.
Descend, ye nine; descend and sing;
The breathing instruments inspire;
Wake into voice each silent string,
And *sweep* the sounding lyre. *Pope.*

To **SWEEP**, *v. n.* To pass with violence, tumult, or swiftness. Perhaps in the first quotation we should read *swoop*.

Haste me to know it, that I with wings as swift
As meditation or the thoughts of love,
May *sweep* to my revenge. *Shakspeare.*

To pass with pomp; to pass with an equal motion.
She *sweeps* it through the court with troops of ladies,
More like an empress than duke Humphrey's wife. *Shakspeare.*

To move with a long reach.
Nor always errs; for oft the gauntlet draws
A *sweeping* stroke along the crackling jaws. *Dryden.*

SWEEP, *s.* The act of sweeping. The compass of any violent or continued motion.

A torrent *swell'd*
With wintry tempests, that disdains all mounds,
Breaking away impetuous, and involves
Within its *sweep*, trees, houses, men. *Philips.*

Violent and general destruction.—In countries subject to great epidemical *sweeps*, men may live very long; but where the proportion of the chronical distemper is great, it is not likely to be so. *Graunt.*—Direction of any motion not rectilinear.—Having made one incision a little circularly, begin a second, bringing it with an opposite *sweep* to meet the other. *Sharp.*

SWEETPER, *s.* One that sweeps. *Barret.*
SWEET'PINGS, *s.* That which is swept away.—Should this one broomstick enter the scene, covered with dust, though the *sweepings* of the finest lady's chamber, we should despise its vanity. *Swift.*

SWEET'NET, *s.* A net that takes in a great compass.—She was a *sweepnet* for the Spanish ships, which happily fell into her net. *Camden.*

SWEET'PSTAKE, *s.* Originally perhaps a game at cards: it is now applied to the winner of the whole that is staked or wagered, and is a common phrase at horse-races, usually called *sweepstakes*.

Is't writ in your revenge,
That *sweepstake* you will draw both friend and foe,
Winner and loser? *Shakspeare.*

SWEESTAKE'S FORELAND, a cape in the straits of Magellan. Lat. 52. 40. S. long. 71. 24. W.

SWEET'PY, *adj.* Passing with great speed and violence over a great compass at once.

They rush along, the rattling woods give way,
The branches bend before their *sweepy* sway. *Dryden.*

Wavy.
Behind
The *sweepy* crest hung floating in the wind. *Pope.*

Strutting; drawn out.
Behold their swelling dugs; the *sweepy* weight
Of ewes, that sink beneath their milky freight. *Dryden.*

SWEERS ISLAND, an island on the north coast of New Holland, about 8 miles in length, at the bottom of the gulf of Carpentaria. Long. of a hill on the island, called Inspection Hill by Captain Flinders, 139. 44. 52. E. lat. 11. 8. 15. S.

SWEET, *adj.* [*ſwete*, Sax.; *soet*, Dutch. Our old word was *sute*, *sote*, or *soote*. "My prechynge was not in *sutely* styrynge wordis of manny's wisdom." Wicliffe, I Cor. ii. "On the *sote* grasse I sate me down." Chaucer, Fl. and Leaf. "They dauncen deffly, and singen *soote*." Spenser, Shep. Cal.] Pleasing to any sense.—*Sweet* expresses the pleasant perceptions of almost every sense: sugar is *sweet*, but it hath not the same sweetness as music; nor hath music the sweetness of a rose; and a *sweet* prospect differs from them all: nor yet have any of these the same sweetness as discourse, counsel, or meditation hath; yet the royal Psalmist saith of a man, we took *sweet* counsel together; and of God, my meditation of him shall be *sweet*. *Watts.*—Luscious to the taste.—This honey tasted still is ever *sweet*. *Davies.*—Fragrant to the smell.

Balm his foul head with warm distilled waters,
And burn *sweet* wood to make the lodging *sweet*. *Shakspeare.*

Melodious to the ear.—The dulcimer, all organs of *sweet* stop. *Milton.*—Beautiful to the eye.

Heav'n bless thee!
Thou hast the *sweetest* face I ever look'd on. *Shakspeare.*
Not salt.

The sails drop with rain,
Sweet waters mingle with the briny main. *Dryden.*
Not

Not sour.—Trees whose fruit is acid, last longer than those whose fruit is *sweet*. *Bacon*.—Mild; soft; gentle.

Let me report to him

Your *sweet* dependency, and you shall find
A conqueror that will pray in aid for kindness. *Shakspeare*.

Grateful; pleasing.—*Sweet* interchange of hill and valley.
Milton.—Not stale; not stinking: as, that meat is *sweet*.

SWEET, *s.* Sweetness; something pleasing.

Hail! wedded love,
Perpetual fountain of domestic *sweets*! *Milton*.

A word of endearment.

Sweet! leave me here awhile,
My spirits grow dull, and fain I would beguile
The tedious day with sleep. *Shakspeare*.

A perfume.

As in perfumes,
'Tis hard to say what scent is uppermost;
Nor this part musk or civet can we call,
Or amber, but a rich result of all:
So she was all a *sweet*. *Dryden*.

SWEET EDINBURGH'S KEYS, a cluster of islets and rocks in the Spanish Main. Lat. 14. 55. N. long. 82. 5. E.

SWEET HERB LAKE, a lake of North America. Lat. 54. 40. N. long. 99. W.

SWEET SPRINGS, a post village of the United States, in Munroe county, Virginia; 28 miles south-east of Lewisburg and 42 south-west of Warm Springs. This place is celebrated for its mineral waters, which are much resorted to
SWEET WATER CREEK, a river of the United States, in Kentucky, which runs into Bear creek.

SWEETBREAD, *s.* The pancreas of the calf.

Sweetbread and collops were with skewers prick'd
About the sides; imbibing what they deck'd. *Dryden*.

SWEETBRIAR, *s.* A fragrant shrub.—For March come violets and peach-tree in blossom, the cornelian-tree in blossom, and *sweetbriar*. *Bacon*.

SWEETBROOM *s.* An herb, *grica*.

SWEETCELESTY, A plant, *myrrhus*.

SWEETCISTUS, *s.* A shrub, called also gumcistus.

A better claim *sweet-cistus* may pretend,
Whose sweating leaves a fragrant balsam send.
Tate's Cowley.

To SWEETEN, *v. a.* To make sweet.—Give me an ounce of civet to *sweeten* my imagination. *Shakspeare*.
—To make mild or kind.—All kindnesses descend upon such a temper, as rivers of fresh waters falling into the main sea; the sea swallows them all, but is not changed or *sweetened* by them. *South*.—Devotion softens his heart, enlightens his mind, *sweetens* his temper, and makes every thing that comes from him instructive, amiable, and affecting. *Law*.—To make less painful.

Thou shalt secure her helpless sex from harms,
And she thy cares will *sweeten* with her charms. *Dryden*.

To palliate; to reconcile.—These lessons may be gilt and and *sweetened* as we order pills and potions, so as to take off the disgust of the remedy. *L'Estrange*.—To make grateful or pleasing.

I would have my love.

Angry sometimes, to *sweeten* off the rest
Of her behaviour. *B. Jonson*.

To soften; to make delicate.—Corregio has made his memory immortal, by the strength he has given to his figures and by *sweetening* his lights and shadows, and melting them into each other so happily, that they are even imperceptible. *Dryden*.

To SWEETEN, *v. n.* To grow sweet.—Where a wasp hath bitten in a grape, or any fruit, it will *sweeten* hastily *Bacon*.

SWEETENER, *s.* One that palliates; one that represents things tenderly.

But you who, till your fortune's made,
Must be a *sweetener* by your trade,
Must swear he never meant us ill. *Swift*.

That which contemperate acrimony.—Powder of crabs' eyes and claws, and burnt egg-shells, are prescribed as *sweeteners* of any sharp humours. *Temple*.

SWEETHEART, *s.* A lover or mistress.

Mistress, retire yourself
Into some covert; take your *sweethearts*
And pluck o'er your brows. *Shakspeare*.

SWEETHOPE, a township of England, in Northumberland; 11½ miles north-by-east of Hexham.

SWEETING, *s.* A sweet luscious apple.—A child will chuse a *sweeting* because it is presently fair and pleasant, and refuse a runnet, because it is then green, hard, and sour. *Ascham*.—A word of endearment.

Trip no further, pretty *sweeting*;
Journeys end in lovers meeting. *Shakspeare*.

SWEETISH, *adj.* Somewhat sweet.—They esteemed that blood pituitous naturally, which abounded with an exceeding quantity of *sweetish* chyle. *Floyer*.

SWEETISHNESS, *s.* Quality of being somewhat sweet.—Tar-water—may extract from the clay a fade *sweetishness* offensive to the palate. *Bp. Berkeley*

SWEETLY *adv.* [*preclice*, Sax.] In a sweet manner; with sweetness.

He bore his great commission in his look;
But *sweetly* temper'd awe, and soften'd all he spoke. *Dryden*.

SWEETMARJORAM. See MARJORAM.

SWEETMEAT, *s.* Delicacies made of fruits preserved with sugar.

Why all the charges of the nuptial feast,
Wine and desserts, and *sweetmeats* to digest. *Dryden*.

SWEETNESS, *s.* [*pretnjje*, Sax. Not often found in the plural.] The quality of being sweet in any of its senses; fragrance; melody; lusciousness; deliciousness; agreeableness; delightfulness; gentleness of manners; mildness of aspect.

O our lives' *sweetness!*

That we the pain of death would hourly bear,
Rather than die at once. *Shakspeare*.

Whosoever obeys the laws of Jesus, bears with the infirmities of his relatives and society, seeks with *sweetnesses* to remedy what is ill, and to prevent what it may produce, and throws water upon a spark. *Bp. Taylor*.

SWEETWILLIAM, *s.* [*armeria*, Lat.] A plant. A species of gilliflower.

Sweet-william, sops in-wine, the champion, and to these
Some lavender they put. *Drayton*.

SWEETWILLOW, *s.* Gale or Dutch myrtle.

SWEFLING, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles west-north-west of Saxmundham.

SWEINI, a village on the northern frontier of Darfur, the first at which the caravans from Cairo arrive, and where they are obliged to wait, till they receive permission from the king to proceed; 45 miles north of Cobbe.

To SWELL, *v. n.* part. pass. *swollen*, [*prellan*, Sax. *swellen*, Dutch.] To grow bigger; to grow turgid; to extend the parts.

Propitious Tyber smooth'd his watery way,
He roll'd his river back, and pois'd he stood,
A gentle *swelling* and a peaceful flood. *Dryden*.

To tumify by obstruction.

Swoll'n is his breast; his inward pains encrease,
All means are us'd, and all without success. *Dryden*.

To be exasperated.

My pity hath been balm to heal their wounds,
My mildness hath allay'd their *swelling* griefs. *Shakspeare.*

To look big.—Here he comes, *swelling* like a Turkey-cock. *Shakspeare.*—To be turgid. Used of style.

Peleus and Telephus exil'd and poor,
Forget their *swelling* and gigantic words. *Roscommon.*

To protuberate.—This iniquity shall be as a breach ready to fall *swelling* out in a high wall. *Isa.*—To rise into arrogance; to be elated.

In all things else above our humble fate,
Your equal mind yet *swells* not into state. *Dryden.*

To be inflated with anger.
The hearts of princes kiss obedience,
So much they love it; but to stubborn spirits
They *swell* and grow as terrible as storms. *Shakspeare.*

To grow upon the view.
O for a muse of fire, that would ascend
The brightest heaven of invention!
A kingdom for a stage, princes to act,
And monarchs to behold the *swelling* scene. *Shakspeare.*

It implies commonly a notion of something wrong.—Immoderate valour *swells* into a fault. *Addison.*

To SWELL, *v. a.* To cause to rise or encrease; to make tumid.

Wind, blow the earth into the sea,
Or *swell* the curled waters 'bove the main. *Shakspeare.*

To aggravate; to heighten.—It is low ebb with his accuser, when such peccadillos are put to *swell* the charge. *Atterbury.*—To raise to arrogance.

The king of men, who *swoln* with pride,
Refus'd his presents, and his prayers deny'd. *Dryden.*

SWELL, *s.* Extension of bulk.

The swan's down feather,
That stands upon the *swell* at full of tide,
And neither way inclines. *Shakspeare.*

The fluctuating motion of the sea, after the expiration of a storm; also, the surf.

SWELL, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 4 miles west-south-west of Langport.

SWELL, LOWER and UPPER, two adjoining parishes of England, in Gloucestershire; 1½ mile west-by-north of Stow-on-the-Wold.

SWELLING, *s.* Morbid tumour.—There is not a chronic disease that more frequently introduces the distemper I am discoursing of, than strumous or serophulous *swellings* or ulcers. *Blackmore.*—Protuberance; prominence.—The superficies of such plates are not even, but have many cavities and *swellings*, which, how shallow soever, do a little vary the thickness of the plate. *Newton.*—Effort for a vent.—My heart was torn in pieces to see the husband suppressing and keeping down the *swellings* of his grief. *Tatler.*

To SWELT, *v. n.* To break out in sweat, if that be the meaning. *Dr. Johnson.*—I rather take it for a poetical variation of *swelled*. *Mason.*—With huge impatience he inly *swelt*. *Spenser.*

To SWELT, *v. n.* [ʃwɛltən, Sax. *to die*; *swiltan*, Goth.] To faint; to swoon. *Still a northern expression.*—We that made his heart to *swelt*. *Chaucer.*

To SWELT, *v. a.* To overpower as with heat; to cause to faint. This, according to Mr. Pegge, is at present a Derbyshire term.—Is the sun to be blamed that the traveller's cloak *swelts* him with heat? *Bp. Hall.*

To SWE'LTR, *v. n.* To be pained with heat.

If the sun's excessive heat
Makes our bodies *swelter*,

To an osier hedge we get
For a friendly shelter;

There we may
Think and pray,
Before death

Stops our breath.

Chalkhill.

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To SWE'LTR, *v. a.* To parch or dry up with heat.—Some would always have long nights and short days; others again long days and short nights; one climate would be scorched and *sweltered* with everlasting dog-days, while an eternal December blasted another. *Bentley.*

SWE'LTRY, *adj.* Suffocating with heat.

SWEPSTER, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4½ miles south-by-east of Ashby-de-la-Zouch. Population 520.

SWEPT. The participle and preterite of *sweep*.

SWERD, *s.* See SWARD.

To SWERD, *v. n.* See To SWARD.

SWERTIA [so named by Linnæus, in honour of Eman Swert, a cultivator of bulbs and flowers in Holland], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of rotacæ, gentianæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character:—Calyx: perianth five-parted, flat, permanent; segments lanceolate. Corolla, one-petalled, wheel-shaped; border flat, five-parted; segments lanceolate, bigger than the calyx, with the claws connected. Nectaries ten, as it were two dots in the base of each segment of the corolla within, excavated, girt with small erect bristles. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, from erect spreading, shorter than the corolla. Anthers incumbent. Pistil: germ ovate-oblong. Style none. Stigmas two, simple. Pericarp: capsule round, acuminate at both ends, one-celled, two-valved. Seeds numerous, small, fastened to the suture of the capsule. There are species with four-cleft flowers. The nectaries in one species project beneath in horns. *Essential Character.*—Corolla, wheel-shaped. Nectariferous pores at the base of the segments of the corolla. Caps, one-celled, two-valved.

1. *Swertia perennis*, marsh *swertia*, or *felwort*.—Corollas five-cleft; peduncles four-cornered, awl-shaped; stem undivided; root-leaves oval. This is a handsome plant, with a perennial root composed of long whitish fibres.—Native of Germany, Austria, Switzerland, France and Siberia, in alpine bogs. It is a doubtful native of Britain.

2. *Swertia difformis*.—Corollas five-cleft, the terminating one, six-cleft; peduncles, very long; leaves linear. The flowers are white.—Native of Virginia.

3. *Swertia decumbens*.—Corollas five-parted; leaves linear lanceolate; nectaries ten, bristly.—Native of Arabia Felix.

4. *Swertia corniculata*.—Corollas four-cleft, four-horned.—Native of Siberia, where, for its grateful bitterness, it is received among the domestic remedies of the inhabitants.

5. *Swertia dichotoma*.—Corollas four-cleft, hornless, peduncles nodding; leaves elliptic; stem branched.—Native of eastern Siberia: it flowers in August; the preceding in July.

6. *Swertia tetrapetala*.—Corollas four-cleft, hornless; peduncles erect; leaves lanceolate; stem simple.—Native of Kamtschatka.

To SWERVE, *v. n.* [*swerven*, Saxon and Dutch.] To wander; to rove.

The *swerving* vines on the tall elm prevail,
Unhurt by southern showers or northern hail. *Dryden.*

To deviate; to depart from rule, custom, or duty.

Were I the fairest youth
That ever made the eye *swerve*. *Shakspeare.*

To ply; to bend.
Now their mightiest quell'd, the battle *swerv'd*
With many an inroad gor'd. *Milton.*

To climb on a narrow body.
She fled, returning by the way she went,
And *swerv'd* along her bow with swift ascent. *Dryden.*

SWERVING, *s.* The act of departing from rule, custom, or duty.—Annihilation in the course of nature, defect, and *swerving* in the creature, would immediately follow. *Hakewill.*

SWETENHAM, a parish of England, in Cheshire, on the river Dane; 5 miles north-west of Congleton.

SWETOE, or DESWETOE, a small island in the Caspian sea, distinguished by the production of naphtha, which the inhabitants convey from the springs by means of troughs; 25 miles east of Baku.

SWEVEN, *s.* [ꝛꝛeꝛen, Sax.] A dream. *Obsolete.*—Nothing but vanities in *sweven* is. *Chaucer.*

SWIECZECZOW. See SCHWETZKO.

SWIETEN (Gerard Van), Baron, first physician to their imperial majesties at Vienna, was born at Leyden, on the 7th of May, 1700. He was descended of an ancient and reputable family of the Low Countries, but lost his parents at an early age, in consequence of which his early education was said to have been somewhat neglected. Having passed through the usual grammatical studies, he was sent at the age of sixteen to the university of Louvain, where he was soon distinguished by his industry and superior attainments in the philosophical classes. Determining, however, upon following the profession of medicine, he returned to Leyden, where he became a most zealous and favourite pupil of the illustrious Boerhaave. After seven years of study under this great master, he took the degree of doctor in 1725, and he was soon after appointed to a medical professorship, which he occupied for many years with great distinction. To his lectures, as well as to those of his celebrated colleague, the medical students of Germany, France, and England, resorted in crowds.

His constitution began to fail about the year 1769, and after three years of declining energy, he was attacked with a mortification in one of his toes in June, 1772, which terminated fatally, after he had prepared for death by an exemplary performance of all acts of devotion.

The great work, upon which the reputation of baron Van Swieten is built, is his copious and learned commentaries upon the aphorisms of his respected master; it is entitled "Commentaria in Hermanni Boerhaavii Aphorismos de cognoscendis et curandis Morbis," and extended to five volumes quarto. It is a vast magazine of medical practice and pathological research, the result of the author's extensive reading and of his personal experience: the immense mass of well-selected and well-arranged facts which it contains, and the judicious summary of the knowledge of the best ancient writers, as well as of his own time which it presents, renders it a work of great value.

SWIETENIA [so named by Jacquin, in honour of the illustrious Gerard, Van Swieten, Archiater to Maria Tercsa, Empress of Germany, who at his persuasion founded the botanic garden at Vienna], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of trihilatæ, melie (*Juss.*)—Generic Character:—Calyx: perianth one-leafed; five-cleft, obtuse, very small, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, obovate, obtuse, concave, spreading; nectary one-leafed, cylindrical, length of the petals; mouth ten-toothed. Stamina: filaments ten, very small, inserted below the teeth of the nectary. Anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germ ovate. Style awl-shaped, erect, length of the nectary. Stigma headed, flat. Pericarp: capsule ovate, large, woody, one-celled; at the top five-celled, five-valved; valves opening at the base. Seeds very many, imbricate, compressed, oblong, obtuse, having a leafy wing. Receptacle large, five-cornered. It is allied to *Cedrela* by the fruit.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx, five-cleft. Petals five. Nectary cylindrical, bearing the anthers at the mouth. Capsule five-celled; woody, opening at the base. Seeds imbricate, winged.

1. *Swietenia mahogany*, or mahogany tree.—Leaves pinnate, about four-paired; leaflets ovate-lanceolate, equal at the base; panicles axillary. The mahogany is a lofty and very branching tree, with a wide handsome head. Racemes subcorymbed, with about eight flowers in each, axillary, solitary, two inches long. Flowers small, whitish.

The mahogany tree is a native of the warmest parts of America, and grows plentifully in the islands of Cuba, Jamaica and Hispaniola; there are also many of the trees on the Bahama islands. In Cuba and Jamaica there are (or

rather were) trees of a very large size, so as to cut into planks of six feet breadth. Those on the Bahama islands are not so large; though these are frequently four feet diameter, and rise to a great height, notwithstanding they are generally found on the solid rock, where there seems to be scarcely any earth for their nourishment.

The wood which has been brought from the Bahama islands has usually passed under the name of Madeira wood. The Spaniards make great use of this wood for building ships, and it is better adapted to this purpose than most sorts of wood yet known, being very durable, resisting gun-shots, and burying the shot without splintering; nor is the worm so apt to eat this wood as that of the oak; so that for the West Indies, ships built of mahogany are preferable to any other. The excellency of this wood for all domestic purposes has been long known in England; and it is a matter of surprise that for a long time the only author who had noticed this tree was Mr. Catesby.

2. *Swietenia febrifuga*.—Leaves pinnate, about four-paired; leaflets elliptic-roundish emarginate, unequal at the base; panicle terminating, divaricate. This is a very large tree, with a straight trunk, rising to a great height and thickness, and covered with a gray, scabrous, cracked bark. Branches numerous; the lower spreading, the higher ascending, forming a very large shady head. Peduncles and pedicels round and smooth. Bractes very minute.—Native of the mountainous parts of Rajahmundry Cicar, north of Samulcotah and Peddapore. It flowers about the end of the cold, or beginning of the hot season; and the seeds ripen in three or four months after. The wood is of a dull red colour, remarkably hard and heavy; it is reckoned by the natives the most durable wood they know, and on that account is used for all the wood work in their temples; it is also very serviceable for various other purposes.

3. *Swietenia chloroxylon*.—Leaves pinnate, many-paired; leaflets halved-cordate obtuse; panicle terminating, spreading. This is a middle-sized tree, with the trunk tolerably erect; supporting a large spreading, evergreen, shady head: bark pretty smooth, of a dark rust-colour.—Native of the mountainous parts of the Circars; flowering at the beginning of the hot season. The wood of this tree is of a deep yellow colour, remarkably close-grained, heavy and durable: it is used for various economical purposes, and comes nearer to box wood than any other in that country. It is the Billoo of the Telingas.

Propagation and Culture.—In the West Indies this tree grows to a large size in a few years. The manner of their propagation in the Bahama islands, as described by Mr. Catesby, is as follows:—When the fruit is ripe, the outer hard shell separates next the foot-stalk, and thereby exposes the seeds; which being broad and light, are dispersed on the surface of the rocks. Such of them as happen to fall into the fissures, very soon send forth roots, and if these tender fibres meet with resistance from the hardness of the rock, they creep along the surface, and seek another fissure, into which they creep, and swell so as to break the rock, and thereby make way for the root to penetrate deeper.

Sow the seeds in small pots filled with light sandy earth, and plunge them into a hot-bed of tanner's bark, giving them a gentle watering once a week; if the seeds are good, the plants will appear in a month or five weeks, and when they are two inches high, fill a sufficient number of small pots with light earth, and plunge them into the tan-bed a day or two, that the earth may be warmed before the plants are put into the pots; then shake out the young plants, carefully separating them so as not to tear their roots, and plant each singly in the pots, shading them till they have taken fresh root: after which treat them in the same manner as directed for other plants from the West Indies; being careful not to give them much water, especially in winter; as also when they are shifted, to preserve the earth about their roots.

SWIFT, *adj.* [ꝛꝛꝛꝛꝛ, Sax.; *swipan*, Icel.; *citò agere*. *Serenius.*

Serenius. The Sax. *ppipan* means the same.] Moving far in a short time; quick; fleet; speedy; nimble; rapid.

Thou art so far before,
That *swiftest* wing of recompence is slow
To overtake thee.

Shakspeare.

Ready; prompt.—To mischief *swift.* *Milton.*

SWIFT, *s.* The current of a stream.—He can live in the strongest *swifts* of the water. *Walton.*

SWIFT, *s.* [from the quickness of their flight; *apus.*] A bird like a swallow; a martin.—*Swifts* and swallows have remarkably short legs, and their toes grasp any thing very strongly. *Derham.*

SWIFT (Jonathan), the celebrated Dean of St. Patrick's, was descended from the younger branch of an ancient family in Yorkshire, of no small note and considerable property. His grandfather, Thomas Swift, was a clergyman, possessed of a good estate near Ross, in Herefordshire, but by his sufferings in the cause of Charles I., his fortune was ruined. He had ten sons, one of whom, named Jonathan, married Abigail Erick, a lady of good family in Leicestershire, with little or no fortune. He died young, about two years after his marriage, seven months before the birth of his only son, the subject of this article, and left his widow in very distressed circumstances. Being kindly invited by her husband's eldest brother, Godwin, she removed to his house in Dublin, where her son Jonathan was born on the 30th of November, 1667. When he was but a year old, he was carried away by his nurse, without the knowledge of his mother or kindred, to Whitehaven, whither she went to visit a sick relation, from whom she expected a legacy; and here he continued for almost three years, his nurse taking care of him, and teaching him to spell, so that he could read any chapter in the Bible before he was five years old. At the age of six he was sent to the school of Kilkenny, founded and endowed by the Ormond family; and at the age of fourteen he was admitted into the university of Dublin, where the expense of his education was defrayed by his uncle Godwin Swift, the eldest of his father's brothers, who had settled in Ireland. His uncle, who impaired his fortune by expensive projects, could afford him but a small pittance; and the straightness of his circumstances restrained the efforts of his genius, and discouraged his application to those branches of literature to which his attention was directed. For mathematics, and the barbarous logic of that age, he had no taste; and as he had employed his hours of study in history and poetry, which were more suitable to his inclination, his proficiency had been so inconsiderable, that in his first examination for the degree of bachelor of arts, he was rejected, and it was at last conferred upon him "speciali gratiâ," or by favour rather than merit. In other pursuits adapted to his taste he was diligent, and employed eight hours a day in study. It was at this time, or at the age of nineteen, that he planned and partly executed his "Tale of a Tub," in which he displayed an uncommon stock of miscellaneous reading. Soon after this his uncle Godwin died; and the incompetent support he then continued to enjoy was derived from the bounty of another uncle (William), whose circumstances would not allow any very liberal contribution. A cousin, however, named Willoughby Swift, the eldest son of his uncle Godwin, who was then a considerable merchant at Lisbon, hearing of his destitute condition, sent him a supply; from this time he never knew what it was to want any thing in his purse.

Swift was now in his twenty-first year, altogether without prospect of advancement either in the church or in any secular department; without any great reputation as a scholar, from the disgraceful manner in which he obtained his degree, and with a splenetic, morose temper, occasioned, or at least aggravated, by his dependent, penurious, and distressed circumstances, and disqualifying him for making personal friends. Nevertheless, it is to these circumstances, says one of his biographers, that the world owes a "Swift;" to the want of money, want of learning, want of friends.

His poverty and his pride were the subordinate guards of his virtue at college; and hence it happened that during his residence there, no flaw was to be found in his moral character, however low his talents and attainments might be rated. In 1688, being then in his twenty-first year, Swift left Ireland, and determined to visit his mother, who had found an asylum among some of her relations in Leicestershire. His mode of travelling was that of a pedestrian, with an occasional relief in a carrier's waggon. His mother, altogether dependent, could afford him no permanent protection and assistance; but induced him to apply to the lady of Sir William Temple, who then lived in retirement at Moor Park in Surrey. Swift was kindly received, continuing with Sir William, as an inmate, at Moor Park and Sheene for two years. This circumstance greatly contributed to the prosperous events of his future life. In the company and conversation of Sir William Temple, he made considerable improvement, and was actually employed by him in the revival and correction of his works; and by him he was introduced to king William, and had repeated opportunities of intercourse with him. In the year 1692, he made a journey to Oxford, and took a master's degree. He returned to Moor Park, but finding no disposition in Sir William Temple to promote his settlement in the world, he left him in 1694, not without some tokens of displeasure. In 1695, Lord Capel, then Lord Deputy of Ireland, to whom he had been recommended, gave him the prebend of Kilroot, in the diocese of Connor, worth about 100*l.* year. A letter from Sir William himself determined him upon returning to England, and having resigned his Irish prebend, with about 80*l.* in his pocket, the whole stock which he then possessed, he embarked for England, and arrived at Moor Park in the year 1695. In this situation he remained about four years, in the greatest harmony, with tokens of mutual confidence and esteem, till the death of Sir William in 1699, who bequeathed to him a pecuniary legacy and his MSS. During this period of his life, Swift diligently prosecuted his studies, and regularly discharged his clerical functions in the family. He also became preceptor to a young lady, niece to Sir William Temple, who resided at the house; and at the same time Miss Johnson, afterwards well known by the name of "Stella," partook of the benefit of the same instruction. Miss Johnson was daughter to Sir William's steward, and being at that time about fourteen years of age, beautiful in her person, and possessed of fine talents, Swift took great delight in cultivating and forming her mind. At this time he also wrote his famous digressions, found in the "Tale of a Tub," and the "Battle of the Books," in honour of his great and learned friend. From the MSS. of Sir William Temple, Swift selected two volumes of letters, which he published, with a dedication to king William; to whom he also addressed a memorial, reminding him of the promise given by his majesty to the deceased, that the first vacant prebend of Canterbury or of Westminster should be conferred on himself; but no farther notice of him was ever taken by the king. Failing in his expectations from this quarter, he accepted an invitation from the Earl of Berkeley, appointed one of the lords-justices in Ireland, to accompany him in the quality of chaplain and private secretary. Upon their arrival at Dublin, the earl was persuaded to take a lay secretary; and as his lordship intended to present his chaplain to the deanery of Derry, just become vacant, Swift was again disappointed by an application which secured that preferment to another person: so that he was put off with the livings of Laracor and Rathbeggin, in the diocese of Meath, which conjunctly were not of half or one-third the value of the deanery. The effect of these disappointments was the increase of that irascibility and misanthropy, which are so strongly marked in Swift's writings, and in his general conduct. Swift continued in the family of Berkeley during that nobleman's stay in Ireland; and it was at this time that his true humorous vein in poetry began to display itself, in several little pieces, written for the private entertainment of the earl's family. After Lord Berkeley's removal from Ireland,

Ireland, Swift went to reside on his living at Laracor; where he continued for some time in the strict and constant discharge of his duty, occasionally diverging into strains of humour. Soon after his settlement at Laracor, Swift invited "Stella" to Ireland, and she came, accompanied by another lady of the name of Dingley, who was related to the family of the Temples. These ladies occasionally resided in the parsonage-house when Swift was absent; but they were never known to lodge in the same house, nor to see each other without a witness. This mysterious connection lasted till her death, and he usually celebrated her birth-day by verses, exhibiting almost the only strokes of tenderness that have ever fallen from his pen. Ambition now took full possession of his mind; and under the influence of this passion, he abandoned the duties of his parish, and the charming conversation of the amiable Stella, in hope of finding some favourable opportunity of distinguishing himself and pushing his fortune in the world. In 1701, being in his thirty-fourth year, he published his first political tract, without his name, entitled, "A Discourse of the Contests and Dissentions in Athens and Rome," the main scope of which seems to have been to bring discredit upon the impeachments then carrying on by the House of Commons against some of the whig-leaders, to which party Swift was then attached. Upon the accession of queen Anne, whom Swift found upon the throne in his next visit to London, his friends were in power, and he had gratified them by the before-mentioned publication. He declined, however, all overtures made to him by the heads of the whiggish party, and after some time determined to have no concern in their affairs. For several years he kept himself neutral, and abstained from meddling in politics. Finding that he could be of no use in his political capacity, he turned his attention to other matters; residing on his living for the greatest part of the year, performing his parochial duties, and hardly ever employed his pen, except in writing sermons. In 1703, however, he published his "Meditation on a Broomstick," for which he was much censured on account of the ridicule contained in it of the style and manner of so great and pious a man as Mr. Boyle, though it has been said that it was not his intention to ridicule Mr. Boyle, but merely to furnish occasion for much innocent mirth on lady Berkeley's enthusiasm and simplicity of heart, and to exonerate himself from the task of reading to her writings, which were not at all suited to his taste. In the same year he also published the "Critical Essay on the Faculties of the Mind." In 1704 he published, anonymously, the "Tale of a Tub," known to be his composition, though never avowed by him, a work which learned judges have pronounced to be rather indecorous than irreligious. The "Battle of the Books," printed with the former, is a burlesque composition of ancient and modern authors, to the disadvantage of the latter. The prominent object of ridicule is Dryden; but this poet was of too high a class to be permanently injured by Swift's wit. In 1708 he appeared as a professed author, by the publication of four different works. The first of these, entitled, "The Sentiments of a Church-of-England Man with respect to Religion and Government," appeared on a change in the ministry; and this, together with the "Letter concerning the Sacramental Test," afforded full proof of his adherence to the principles of the Tories. In his "Argument against the Abolition of Christianity," he exhibits a specimen of that talent for grave irony in which he was almost unrivalled. His other piece was a ridicule of astrology, under the title of "Predictions for the year 1708, by Isaac Bickerstaff, Esq.," the popularity of which induced Steele to borrow the name for his Tatler. In the following year he wrote a serious work entitled "A Project for the Advancement of the Christian Religion," dedicated to lady Berkeley, for whom he seems to have entertained an affectionate respect, and written (as Dr. Johnson says) with sprightliness and eloquence. Upon his return to Ireland, he cultivated an intimacy with Addison, then secretary to the earl of Wharton, lord lieutenant; but as for himself, he had no prospects of advancement, till the

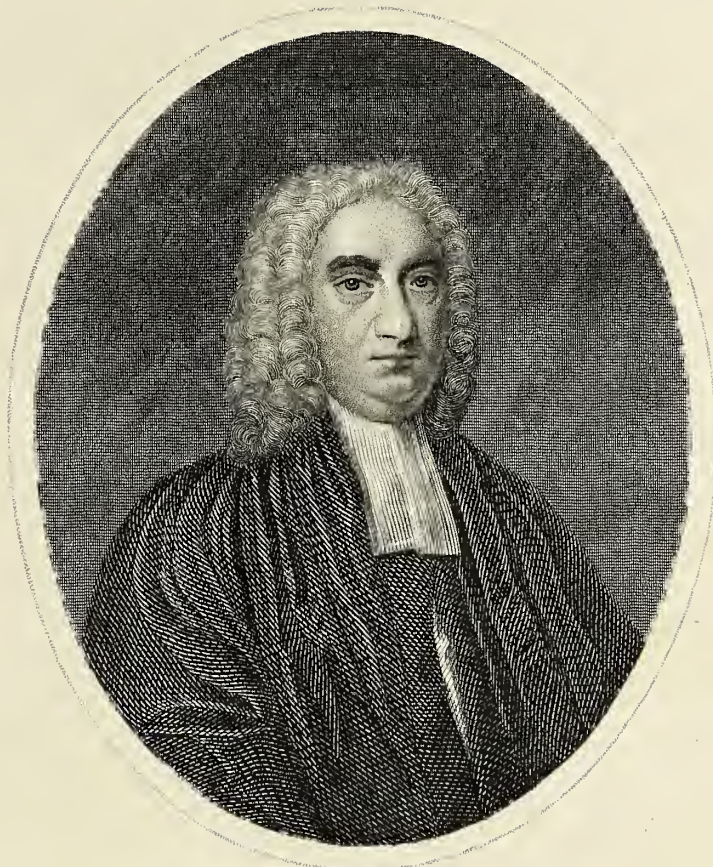
Tories came into power, in 1710. In a commission on the Irish prelacy for soliciting the queen to remit to the clergy of Ireland the first-fruits and twentieths, payable to the crown, he became acquainted with Harley, afterwards earl of Oxford, and secretary St. John, afterwards lord Bolingbroke; and having gained their confidence, he became one of the sixteen members of administration and their supporters, who called themselves "brothers," and dined weekly at one-another's houses. He wrote a number of papers in the "Examiner," concerning the late administration, but, as Dr. Johnson thinks, though he exerted his powers both of argument and wit, he did not, in the latter, equal the papers in which Addison opposed him. He published at this time "A Letter to the October Club," a set of Tory country gentlemen, who wished to stimulate Harley to more vigorous measures, and his address had the effect which he proposed of preventing cabals against his party.

Deeply immersed as he was in politics, he still adhered to the cause of literature, and in 1711 published "A Proposal for correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English Tongue," in a letter to the earl of Oxford. The institution of an academy for settling the language was a part of his project. Towards the close of the year 1711, he published the most celebrated of his political tracts, called "The Conduct of the Allies." This work, which was designed to dispose the nation to peace, was much applauded, and furnished the Tory members with all their arguments in parliament. The same strain of argument was pursued in his "Reflections on the Barrier Treaty," published in the following year. He also printed "Remarks on the Bishop of Sarum's Introduction to his Third Volume of the History of the Reformation," written by Burnet to excite in the nation an alarm of popery. In these remarks, Swift indulged the rancour of his personal aversion to that prelate. It has been observed of Swift, that no man of letters ever assumed and maintained so much consequence as he did, in his association with men of power. The services he rendered them induced them to gratify his pride in this respect. When Harley once sent him by his secretary 50*l.*, he returned it with a letter of expostulation and complaint; but he afterwards accepted a draft of 1000*l.* upon the treasury, which he was prevented from receiving by the death of queen Anne. When Harley desired Swift to introduce Parnell to him, he declined doing it upon the principle, that a man of genius was superior to a man of high station; and he obliged the treasurer to walk with his staff of office from room to room, searching for Parnell, to request the honour of his acquaintance.

Swift had been long aiming at a bishopric in England; and when a vacancy occurred, he was recommended to the queen by his ministerial friends; but archbishop Sharp, having infused into her mind suspicions of his faith, he was overlooked. The highest preferment which they could bestow upon him was that of the deanery of St. Patrick's in Dublin, which he obtained in the year 1713, and which he retained for life.

In a pamphlet, published in the next year, anonymously, "The Public Spirit of the Whigs," in answer to Steele's "Crisis," he reflected so severely and contemptuously on the Scots nation, that the peers of that nation went up in a body to the queen, and demanded reparation. A proclamation was issued, offering 300*l.* for the discovery of the author, and orders were given for the prosecution of the printer; but by some management, the storm was averted. The antipathy that prevailed between Oxford and Bolingbroke in the course of this year, caused him to be sent for, in order to reconcile the contending parties; but failing in his endeavours for this purpose, he withdrew from town, and wrote "Free Thoughts on the present State of Affairs," which it was not thought advisable to print: though they have since appeared among his works. The death of the queen terminated all contests among the Tory ministers, by annihilating their power; and Swift was constrained to take up his residence in a country which he always disliked.

On his return to Dublin, his haughty imperious temper



J. Bass sc.

S W I F T.

Engraved for the Encyclopaedia Londinensis. 1828.

was severely tried by the triumph of the Whigs, and the indignity with which he was treated. He, therefore, withdrew to the functions of his clerical office, and by the exercise of integrity and firmness, made many reforms, in the chapter of St. Patrick's, and obtained an authority never before possessed by any one in his station. He opened his house twice a week to good company, and extended his acquaintance among the most cultivated and respectable of both sexes. Mrs. Johnson, who had lodgings near the deanery, regulated his table on public days, though she sat at it merely as a guest. In 1716, he was privately married by Dr. Ashe, bishop of Clogher, to this lady, long known as his Stella; but before the event took place, he had formed another amorous connection, which was attended with circumstances more censurable than any other occurrence of his life. About the year 1712, he became acquainted, in London, with Miss Esther Vanhomrigh, an accomplished young lady of fortune, with a literary taste, which Swift took pleasure in cultivating by his instructions. She became enamoured of his person, and actually made proposals of marriage to him. The flame on his part seems to have been mutual, and dictated his "Cadenus and Vanessa," the longest and most finished of his poems. Although he was engaged to Stella, he had not resolution to terminate the intercourse. When absent, he corresponded with her, and she followed him to Ireland. After his marriage with Stella, he still visited Vanessa, and encouraged her hopes. Having questioned Stella whether or not she was really married, an answer was sent to her in the affirmative; and Stella sent her note to Swift, and went into the country, without seeing him. He went immediately to the house of Vanessa, threw a paper on her table with a very indignant aspect, and then left her without uttering a word. Thus their connection terminated. The shock was fatal to the lady, who died in 1723, leaving in charge to her executors to publish all the letters that had passed between Swift and herself, together with the poem of "Cadenus and Vanessa." The poem was published, but the letters were suppressed.

In 1720, the dean of St. Patrick's claimed an interest in the regard of his countrywoman, by publishing a pamphlet, entitled, "A Proposal for the universal Use of Irish Manufactures." In 1724, he resumed his political character, by exerting all his powers for defeating a scheme for supplying the currency of that country by coining a large quantity of copper money, a person named Wood, of Wolverhampton, having obtained a patent for this purpose. With this view he wrote a series of letters under the name of "M. B. Drapier," which caused the coin to be universally refused, to the great displeasure of the Irish government, which offered a large reward for the discovery of the author; but he was not betrayed.

In 1726, he published his "Gulliver's Travels," which was the product of spleen, as the author himself assured his friend Pope.

In the same year, Swift being in England, published three volumes of Miscellanies, in conjunction with Pope, to whom he relinquished the whole profits; for he seems never to have regarded his literary exertions as objects of pecuniary emolument.

On the death of George I. in 1727, Swift paid his duty to the new king and queen; he also paid his court to the favourite, Mrs. Howard; but eventually he gained nothing, and always afterwards spoke of queen Caroline with malevolence. His Stella had been long languishing in a state of decline; her complaint being probably mental, on account of her extraordinary situation, combined with her bodily malady. She died in January, 1728, bequeathing her fortune, in her own name, to charitable uses. Notwithstanding the doubts that have been thrown upon the reality of the marriage, the proof of it seems to be incontestible; his conduct with respect to both this lady and Miss Vanhomrigh fixes an indelible blot on his memory, nor can any talents he possessed, or popularity he acquired, ever efface it.

The death of Stella very much affected Swift, though he afterwards continued to vent his rancorous feelings in various

effusions, both in prose and verse, on public topics. As an Irish patriot, anxious to meliorate the condition of the poor, he distinguished himself; and with this view he devoted a third of his income to charity. The most finished and interesting of his poems, written about this time, was the "Verses on his own Death," formed on a misanthropic maxim of Rochefoucault. Having indulged his hatred and contempt of the Presbyterians in a bitter poem, in which he introduced the name of a counsellor Bettesworth, who was obnoxious to him as an active leader in the Whig party at Dublin, he was threatened with corporal retaliation; but his popularity was such, that the inhabitants of St. Patrick's district resolved to embody in his defence. In other instances he made little discrimination in the satires which he circulated; and such was the malignity of his temper, that it manifested itself in a kind of declared hostility against all mankind, a few of its own favourites excepted. At this time his most familiar associates were selected from the inferior class, and especially from among females, who were always ready to administer obsequious flattery. In 1736 his constitution sustained a shock from a severe fit of giddiness, to which, as well as deafness, he was habitually subject; so that after this period he undertook no work that required much thought or labour.

A total failure of speech for some months preceded his decease, which happened in October, 1744, in his 78th year. He bequeathed the greatest part of his property to an hospital for lunatics and idiots, the intention of which he had announced in the verses on his own death:

"To shew by one satiric touch,
No nation wanted it so much."

He was buried in St. Patrick's cathedral, under a monument, for which he wrote a Latin epitaph; one clause of which displays very forcibly the state of his own feelings; "Ubi sæva indignatio ulterius cor lacerare nequit."

"As a writer, Swift was original, and probably will always remain unparalleled. In wit, he stands first in the walk of grave irony, maintained with such an air of serious simplicity, that it would deceive any reader not aware of his drift. He also abounds in ludicrous ideas of every kind, with which his poems are abundantly interspersed, but which too often deviate into offensive grossness. His style in verse is the most perfect example of easy familiarity that the language affords; and his readiness in rhyme is astonishing, the most uncommon associations of sounds coming as it were spontaneously, in words the best adapted to the occasion. That he was capable of high polish and elegance, some of his pieces sufficiently prove; but the humorous, familiar, and sarcastic, was his habitual taste."

SWIFT, a river of England, in Leicester and Warwick shires, which runs into the Avon, above Rugby.

SWIFT, a river of the United States, in New Hampshire which runs east into the Saco, in Conway.

SWIFT'S CREEK, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Appomatox. Lat. 37. 20. N. long. 77. 37. W.

SWIFTFOOT, *adj.* Nimble.

Where now the valley greene, and mountain bare,
The river, Forrest, wood, and crystal springs,
The hauke, the hound, the hinde, the *swift-foot* hare?

Mir. for M ag

SWIFTGATE, a river of England, in Gloucestershire, which runs into the Avon below Tewkesbury.

SWIFTHEELED, *adj.* Swiftfoot; rapid; quick.

Vows are vain: no suppliant breath
Stays the speed of *swift-heel'd* death.

Habington.

SWIFTLY, *adv.* [ʃwɪft-lice, Sax.] Fleetly; rapidly; nimbly; with celerity; with velocity.

Pleas'd with the passage, we slide *swiftly* on,
And see the dangers which we cannot shun.

Dryden.

SWIFTNESS, *s.* [ʃwɪftneŋe, Sax.] Speed; nimbleness; rapidity; quickness; velocity; celerity.

Let our proportions for these wars
Be soon collected, and all things thought upon,
That may with reasonable *swiftness* add
More feathers to our wings.

Shakspeare.

To SWIG, v. n. [*swiga*, Icel. Serenius and Lye refer to this Icel. word; the latter to the Sax. *ƿilzan*, also, *to swill*.]
To drink by large draughts.

To SWIG, v. a. To suck greedily.

The flock is drain'd, the lambkins *swig* the teat,
But find no moisture, and then idly bleat.

Creech.

SWIG, s. A large draught: as, he took a good *swig*.
A low expression.

To SWILL, v. a. [*ƿilzan*, Sax.] To drink luxuriously
and grossly.

The wretched, bloody, and usurping boar,
That spoil'd your summer fields and fruitful vines,
Swills your warm blood like wash, and makes his trough
In your embowell'd bosoms.

Shakspeare.

The most common of these causes are an hereditary dis-
position, and *swilling* down great quantities of cold liquors.
Arbuthnot.

Such is the poet, fresh in pay,
The third night's profits of his play;
His morning draughts till noon can *swill*,
Among his brethren of the quill.

Swift.

To wash; to drench.
As fearfully as doth a galled rock
O'erhang and jutty his confounded base,
Swill'd with the wild and wasteful ocean.

Shakspeare.

To inebriate; to swell with plenitude.
I should be loth
To meet the rudeness and *swill'd* insolence
Of such late wassailers.

Milton.

To SWILL, v. n. To be intoxicated.—As though he
were delighted with drinking, and *swilling*, and gaming.
Whateley.

SWILL, s. Drink, grossly poured down; hogwash.—
Give swine such *swill* as you have. *Mortimer.*

Thus as they swim in mutual *swill*, the talk
Reels fast from theme to theme.

Thomson.

SWILLAND, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 6 miles
north-by-east of Ipswich.

SWILLER, s. A notorious drunkard; called also, in
our old lexicography, a *swilboat* and a *swilpot*. *Barret.*

SWILLINGS, s. Hogwash. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*
A northern term. *Gros.*

SWILLINGTON, a parish of England, West Riding of
Yorkshire; 6 miles east-south-east of Leeds. Population 490.

SWILLY, a river of Ireland, in the county of Donegal,
which runs into the Swilly Lough.

SWILLY, a small island or rock in the South ocean,
about 13 miles south from the south cape of New Holland,
surrounded with rocks and shoals. Lat. 43. 55. S. long.
147. 6. E.

To SWIM, v. n. preterite *swam*, *swom*, or *swum*. [*ƿym-*
man, Sax.; *swemmen*, Dutch.] To float on the water; not
to sink.—I will scarce think you have *swam* in a gondola.

Shakspeare.—To move progressively in the water by the
motion of the limbs.

Leap in with me into this angry flood,
And *swim* to yonder point.

Shakspeare.

To be conveyed by the stream.—I *swom* with the tide,
and the water under me was buoyant. *Dryden.*—To glide
along with a smooth or dizzy motion.

She with pretty and with *swimming* gait
Following.

Shakspeare.

To be dizzy; to be vertiginous. See *SWIMMING*.—To
be floated.—Sudden the ditches swell, the meadows *swim*!
Thomson.—To have abundance of any quality; to flow in
any thing.

They now *swim* in joy,
Ere long to *swim* at large, and laugh; for which
The world a world of tears must weep.

Milton.

To SWIM, v. a. To pass by swimming.

Sometimes he thought to *swim* the stormy main,
By stretch of arms the distant shore to gain.

Dryden.

SWIM, s. A kind of smoothly sliding motion.—Both
the *swim* and the trip are properly mine; every body will
affirm it that has any judgment in dancing, I assure you.
B. Jonson.—The bladder of fishes by which they are sup-
ported in the water.—The braces have the nature and use of
tendons, in contracting the *swim*, and thereby transfusing
the air out of one bladder into another, or discharging it
from them both. *Grew.*

SWIMBRIDGE, a parish of England, in Devonshire.
A brook runs from hence into the Taw. Population 1150:
4 miles south-east-by-east of Barnstaple.

SWIMMER, s. One who swims.—Birds find ease in
the depth of the air as *swimmers* do in a deep water. *Brown.*
—A protuberance in the leg of a horse.—The *swimmer* is
situated in the fore legs of a horse, above the knees, and upon
the inside, and almost upon the back parts of the hind legs,
a little below the ham; this part is without hair, and re-
sembles a piece of hard dry horn. *Farrier's Dict.*

SWIMMING, s. The act of floating on the water, or of
moving progressively in the water by the motion of the
limbs. Dizziness.—I am taken with a grievous *swimming*
in my head, and such a mist before my eyes, that I can
neither hear nor see. *Dryden.*

SWIMMINGLY, adv. Smoothly; without obstruction.
A low word.—John got on the battlements, and called to
Nick, I hope the cause goes on *swimmingly*. *Arbuthnot.*

SWINBROOK, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 2½
miles east of Burford.

SWINBURN GREAT, a township of England, in Nor-
thumberland; 6½ miles north-by-east of Hexham. Popula-
tion 387.

SWINBURN, LITTLE, a township of England, in the
above county; 9 miles north-by-east of Hexham.

SWINCOMBE, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 8
miles north-west-by-north of Henley-upon-Thames.

SWINDALE, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland;
8 miles west-north-west of Orton.

SWINDEN, a hamlet of England, West Riding of York-
shire; 8 miles south-south-east of Settle.

SWINDERBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire;
6½ miles south-west-by-west of Lincoln.

To SWINDLE, v. a. To cheat: to impose upon the
credulity of mankind, and thereby to defraud the unwary by
false pretences and fictitious assumptions. *A cant word.*
James.

SWINDLER, s. [from the Germ. *schwindler*.] A
sharper; a cheat.—With us, it signifies a person who is
more than thoughtless or giddy. We affix to the term the
character of premeditated imposition; so that a *swindler*
comes under the criminal code, and may be prosecuted ac-
cordingly. *James.*

SWINDON, a market town of England, in the county of
Wilts. It is a respectable town, and situated on the summit
of a considerable eminence, which commands a delightful
prospect over parts of Berkshire, and Gloucestershire. There
is no particular trade carried on here; but, as a number of
persons of independent fortune reside in the town, their con-
stant intercourse enlivens the place, while their dwellings
serve, in no small degree, to ornament it. The houses in
the town are mostly well built of stone. The church stands
at the south-east end of the town. The architecture is mean,
but the interior is neatly fitted up, and contains several monu-
mental erections, one of which, on the east side of the south
aisle, is of excellent design and exquisite workmanship. In
Newport-street is a very respectable free school, which was
established in 1764, for the instruction of 20 boys and 5
girls, and is supported entirely by voluntary contribution.
Adjoining the church-yard is a water-mill of peculiar con-
struction.

struction. Some very extensive quarries are wrought in this neighbourhood, which, together with the pursuits of husbandry, afford sufficient employment for the mass of inhabitants. The stones raised from these quarries are usually of great magnitude, and, in point of beauty and durability, scarcely yield, when cut, to the celebrated Portland Stone. Swindon house, a seat of the family of Goddard, stands at a short distance from the north side of the church-yard. It is a neat edifice. In a field at Brome, to the north of Swindon, is a stone called Long Stone, which, with several others, are supposed to be the remains of a Druidical temple. In 1811 Swindon contained 263 houses, and 1341 inhabitants.

SWINDON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles north-north-west of Cheltenham.

SWINDON, a village of England, in Staffordshire, north-west of King's Swinford. Here are blade-mills, where scythes, axes, reaping-hooks, &c., after being prepared by the white-smiths, are ground to a fine edge.

SWINDON, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles west-by-south of Wetherby.

SWINE, *s.* [ʃpɪn, Sax.; *swyn*, Dutch.] A hog; a pig.—O monstrous beast! how like a *swine* he lies! *Shakespeare.*

SWINE, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-north-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

SWINEBREAD, *s.* [*cyclaminus*.] A kind of plant; truffles.

SWINEFLEET, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the Ouse; 4½ miles south-by-east of Howden. Population 770.

SWINEFORD, an inconsiderable village of Ireland, in the county of Mayo; 103 miles west of Dublin castle.

SWINEGRASS, *s.* An herb.

SWINEHERD, *s.* [ʃpɪn and hɪpɔ, Sax.] A keeper of hogs.—There *swineherd*, that keepeth the hog. *Tusser.*

SWINEHOP, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6½ miles south-east-by-east of Caistor.

SWINEMUNDE, a small town of the Prussian states, in Pomerania, in the isle of Usedom, at the mouth of the river Swine. It is neatly built, contains 2400 inhabitants, chiefly fishermen, pilots, and sailors, and serves as a harbour to the town of Stettin; all ships of more than 100 tons burden being obliged to discharge or lighten their cargoes here. In 1757 this place was attacked by the Swedes, and suffered considerable injury; 15 miles north-north-east of Usedom. Lat. 53. 56. N. long. 14. 12. E.

SWINEPIPE, *s.* A bird of the thrush kind. *Bailey.*

SWINESHEAD, a market town of England, in the county of Lincoln. It is a small neat town. Market on Thursday. Population in 1811, 1561; 7 miles south-west of Boston, and 109 north-east of London.

SWINESHEAD, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Kimbolton.

SWINESTEAD, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2 miles south-east of Corby.

SWINESTY, *s.* A hogsty; a place in which swine are shut to be fed.

SWINESUND, a bay of the German ocean, which separates Norway from the province of Bahus in Sweden, and extends as far as Frederickshall. It is almost entirely surrounded by steep rocks.

SWINETHORPE, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; 8 miles west-by-south of Lincoln.

SWINEYARD, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 7 miles north-north-west of Nether Knutsford.

SWINFEN, a hamlet of England, in Staffordshire; 2 miles south-south-east of Lichfield.

SWINFORD, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles south-south-east of Lutterworth. Population 410.

SWINFORD, KING'S. See KING SWINFORD.

SWINFORD, OLD, a parish of England, in Worcester-shire; 1½ mile north-north-west of Hagley.

To SWING, *v. n.* [ʃpɪŋən, Sax.] To wave to and fro, hanging loosely.—Jack hath hanged himself: let us go

see how he *swings*. *Arbutnot*.—To fly backward and forward on a rope.

To SWING, *v. a.* Preterite *swang*, *swung*. To make to play loosely on a string. To whirl round in the air.

His sword prepar'd,

He *swang* about his head, and cut the winds. *Shakespeare.*

To wave loosely.

If one approach to dare his force,

He *swings* his tail, and swiftly turns him round. *Dryden.*

SWING, *s.* Motion of any thing hanging loosely.—In casting of any thing, the arms, to make a greater *swing*, are first cast backward. *Bacon*.—A line on which any thing hangs loose. Influence or power of a body put in motion.

The ram that batters down the wall,
For the great *swing* and rudeness of his poize,
They place before his hand that made the engine.

Shakespeare.

Course; unrestrained liberty; abandonment to any motive.

Take thy *swing*;

For not to take, is but the self-same thing.

Dryden.

Unrestrained tendency.—Were it not for these, civil government were not able to stand before the prevailing *swing* of corrupt nature, which would know no honesty but advantage. *South.*

To SWINGE, *v. a.* [ʃpɪŋən, Sax.] The *g* in this word, and all its derivatives, sounds as in *gem*, *giant*.] To whip; to bastinado; to punish.—Sir, I was in love with my bed; I thank you, you *swing'd* me from my love, which makes me the bolder to chide you for your's. *Shakespeare.*

—To move as a lash. *Not in use.*

He, wroth to see his kingdom fail,

Swinges the scaly horror of his folded tail.

Milton.

SWINGE, *s.* [ʃpɪŋən, Sax.] A sway: a sweep of any thing in motion. *Not in use.*

The shallow water doth her force infringe,

And renders vain her tail's impetuous *swinge*.

Waller.

SWINGEBUCKLER, *s.* A bully; a man who pretends to feats of arms.—You had not four such *swingebucklers* in all the inns of court again. *Shakespeare.*

SWINGER, *s.* One who swings; a hurler.—Holy-water *swingers*, and even song clatterers. *Bale*.—A great falsehood: a low expression.—How will he rap out presently half a dozen *swingers*, to get off cleverly! *Echard.*

SWINGFIELD, a parish of England, in Kent; 5 miles north of Folkestone.

SWINGING, *adj.* Great; huge. *A low word, but of ancient usage.*

The sea shall rock it,

'Tis the best nurse; 'twill roar and rock together.

A *swinging* storm will sing you such a lullaby.

Beaum. and Fl.

SWINGINGLY, *adv.* Vastly; greatly.

Henceforward he'll print neither pamphlets nor linen,

And, if swearing, can do't shall be *swingingly* maul'd;

Swift.

SWINGK, or ISMENE, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in the peninsula of Istria; 6 miles north-west of Mitterburg.

To SWINGLE, *v. a.* To dangle; to wave hanging. To swing in pleasure. To rough dress flax.

SWINHOE, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 7 miles south-east-by-east of Belford.

SWINHOLM, one of the smaller Shetland isles.

SWINISH, *adj.* Befitting swine; resembling swine; gross; brutal.

They clepe us drunkards, and with *swinish* phrase

Soil our addition.

Shakespeare.

To SWINK, *v. n.* [ʃpɪŋən, Sax.] To labour; to toil; to drudge. *Obsolete.*

Riches,

Riches, renown, and principality,
For which men *swink* and sweat incessantly.

Spenser.

To SWINK, *v. a.* To overlabour. *Obsolete.*

The labour'd ox.

In his loose traces from the furrow came,
And the *swink'd* hedger at his supper sat.

Milton.

SWINK, *s.* [ʃɪnc; Sax.] Labour; toil; drudgery.
Obsolete.

Ah, Piers, been thy teeth on edge, to think
How great sport they gaynen with little *swinke*?

Spenser.

SWINKER, *s.* A labourer; a ploughman. *Obsolete.*
—A trewe *swinker* was he. *Chaucer.*

SWINNA, a small island, about a mile long, and half a mile broad, lying nearly in the middle of the Pentland frith. It is a barren and inhospitable island, containing five or six families, who gain a livelihood by the high wages for pilotage through that dangerous strait. At each side of it are the dangerous whirlpools, called the wells of Swinna. Swinna belongs to the parochial district of South Ronaldshay and Burray.

SWINNERTON, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 3 miles west-by-north of Stone. Population 893.

SWINSCOE, a hamlet of England, in Staffordshire; 4 miles from Ashborne.

SWINTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles south-west-by-south of Bedale.—Also another township in the same Riding; 2 miles north-west-by-west of New Malton.

SWINTON, a parish of Scotland, in Berwickshire, to which, in 1761, that of Simron was united. It extends 4 miles in length from east to west, and from 3 to 3½ in breadth. Population 866.

SWINTON, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-north-east of Rotherham. Population 846.

SWINTROP, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10 miles from Louth.

SWIPES, *s.* Bad small-beer: a colloquial term.

SWIR, a river in the north of Russia, which issues from the lake Onega, and falls into the lake Ladoga. It is navigable for small vessels.

SWIRE, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 1 mile from the sea, and 6 south-east of Bridport.

SWISLOCZ, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Minsk; 50 miles south-east of Minsk.

SWISS, or SWITZER, *s.* A native of Switzerland.—Spinoza hath corrupted many among the *Switzers*. *Abp. Usher.*

SWISS, *adj.* Of or belonging to Switzerland.—A gentleman, hearing him talk of his *Swiss* compositions, cried out with a kind of laugh, Is our music then to receive further improvements from Switzerland? *Addison.*

SWITA, a small island in the Ionian sea, on the coast of Epirus.

SWITAWKA, a small town of the Austrian state, in Moravia, on the river Switawa; 28 miles west of Olmutz.

SWITCH, *s.* [*swaig, sweg, Su. Goth. surculus, baculus flexilis. Serenius.*] A small flexible twig.—Fetch me a dozen crabtree staves, and strong ones; these are but *switches*. *Shakspeare.*

To SWITCH, *v. a.* To lash; to jerk.

Lay thy bridle's weight

Most of thy left side; thy right horse then *switching*, all thy throat

Spent in encouragements, give him; and all the rein let float.

Chapman.

To SWITCH, *v. n.* To walk with a kind of jerk: *used in some parts of the north.*

SWITHA, one of the smaller Orkney islands. Lat. 58. 41. N. long. 2. 58. W.

SWITHE, *adv.* [ʃpīðe, Sax.] Hastily. *Obsolete.*—They sighen Marye that sche roos *swythe*, and wente out. *Wickliffe.*

SWITHLAND, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 3 miles south-west-by-west of Mount Sorrel.

SWITZERLAND, a well known country in the interior of Europe, bounded on the west by France, on the south by Italy, on the north and east by Germany. It extends from east to west nearly 200 miles, and from north to south about 140. Its surface is equal to nearly two-thirds of that of Scotland or Ireland. Its form may be called a medium between an oblong and an oval; and though the limits of its circumference are very irregular, it is, on the whole, a compact country. It consists, since 1815, of 22 cantons, of the following extent and population:—

Cantons.	Religion.	Extent in English square miles.	Population.
Schweitz,	Catholic,	470	28,900
Uri,	Catholic,	650	14,000
Unterwalden,	Catholic,	290	21,200
Berne,	Protestant,	3,700	297,600
Zurich,	Protestant,	970	182,200
Lucerne,	Catholic,	680	86,700
Glaris,	Chiefly Protestant,	410	19,300
Zug,	Catholic,	110	15,000
Appenzel,	Mixed,	220	55,000
Schaffhausen,	Protestant,	150	30,000
Fribourg,	Catholic,	820	67,900
Solothurn,	Catholic,	220	47,900
Bale,	Protestant,	240	47,200
Grisons,	Mixed,	2,430	74,800
Vaud,	Protestant,	1,500	145,300
Ticino,	Catholic,	1,160	88,800
St. Gall,	Chiefly Protestant,	1,120	130,400
Thurgau,	Chiefly Protestant,	340	77,300
Aargau,	Mixed,	780	134,500
Neuchatel,	Protestant,	350	49,800
Valais,	Catholic,	1,970	63,600
Geneva,	Protestant,	90	36,600

18,670 1,714,000

This table exhibits the cantons in a kind of historical succession, the first three being the nucleus of the confederacy formed so early as 1308; the next five having joined them in the course of that century, and the five succeeding cantons in the beginning of the 16th century. This gave to the Helvetic confederacy the form by which it is known in history, viz., 13 cantons in alliance with several neighbouring states, viz., the Grisons, the small town and territory of St. Gall, the petty republic of Valais, and the city of Geneva; while a district on the south side of the Alps, called the Italian bailiwics, was subject to the eight old cantons. Such was the form of the territory till 1798, when the French obtaining possession of the country, and desirous to increase the number of their partizans, formed six new cantons, viz., the Pays de Vaud and the district of Aargau, which till then had been subject to Berne; the Italian bailiwics, and the district of Thurgau, governed till then by deputies from the eight elder cantons; and finally, the Grisons, with the small town and territory of St. Gall, which from allies were made direct members of the confederacy. The Italian bailiwics received the name of canton of the Ticino. The number of cantons amounting thus to 19, remained the same during the sway of Buonaparte; but after his overthrow the confederacy received the further accession of Geneva and the Valais, hitherto separate states, and of Neuchatel, formerly subject to Prussia, carrying the cantons, without any material accession of territory, to 22, their present, and in all probability their permanent number.

The towns of Switzerland, neither large nor numerous, are situated in the western or comparatively level territory: they are—

Geneva,

	Population.
Geneva	22,800
Bale	15,000
Berne	13,340
Zurich	10,500
Lausanne	10,000
St. Gall	8,200
Neufchatel	4,800
Friburg	6,500
Lucerne	5,000
Solothurn	4,200

No part of Europe presents a higher interest than Switzerland. To the admirer of nature it offers scenes of grandeur almost unrivalled; to the observer of national manners, a people of great simplicity and firmness of character; while to the statesman it displays in a striking light the salutary effects of freedom and security of property. Nowhere has the mineralogist or botanist a wider field for investigation; in no country can the poet or the painter find scenes more calculated to exalt the imagination. Yet, though so often visited by travellers, Switzerland is, in a geographical sense, imperfectly described in their works; their inspection being almost always confined to the western or more fertile part of the country. Travellers from Germany commonly enter the Swiss territory by Schaffhausen or Bale; those from France, by Neufchatel or Geneva. The tours of either are in general confined to the Pays de Vaud, the canton of Friburg, and the level part of the canton of Berne. If extended to Italy, the route is generally uniform, viz., by the valley of the Rhone and the Simplon. A more prolonged tour to the northward is sometimes made to comprise Zurich and the majestic fall of the Rhine, after issuing from the lake of Zell; but it rarely happens that travellers proceed from north to south into the central part of Switzerland, by Mount St. Gothard, through the cantons of Schweiz and Uri, the rugged birth-place of Swiss liberty; and it is still more unusual to traverse by Coire and the Splugen, the wild and sequestered country of the Grisons. The British, when proceeding along the western half of Switzerland, have high mountains in prospect to the east, the south, and in some degree the west; but they seldom see the terrific grandeur of defiles and precipices. A more difficult course is indeed opened to those who, passing the limits of Switzerland, and entering on Savoy, approach Mont Blanc, visit the glaciers, travel to the eastward along the valley of Trient, and return by the course of the Rhone and the north side of the lake of Geneva.

Face of the Country.—Switzerland, by far the most mountainous country in Europe, has the Alps not only along the whole of its southern and eastern frontier, but throughout the chief part of its interior. The only extensive track of level ground, or rather of vales, with mountains of more moderate height, being to the westward, in the cantons of Bale, Zurich, and part of Berne; but even there the extreme frontier is formed by mountains, the Jura ridge extending in a long line from north to south. Of the valleys of Switzerland, the most remarkable is that of the Rhone, which is at once the widest, and surrounded by the highest mountains. The Alps vary in height, from 5000 to 15,500 feet. After Mont Blanc, computed at 15,000 feet, comes Monte Rosa, 14,200 feet. Mount St. Gothard, the great St. Bernard, and the Simplon, though well known as the route of travellers, are not equal in height to several mountains of the interior, such as Mont Cervin, 13,800 feet; the Jungfrau-horn, the Tursteraarhorn, the Furca, Schreckhorn, each nearly 14,000 feet; the Wetter-horn and Gallenstock, between 11,000 and 12,000, &c. The Alps branch out into a number of lateral chains, and exhibit at their base, on their ascent, and towards their summit, every variety of temperature and product; rich corn fields or luxuriant pastures extending along the lower part of many of these mountains. The middle consists of pastures less productive, but containing a great variety of plants; while

the summits are often composed of rocks, craggy, inaccessible, devoid of vegetation, and covered with enormous masses of ice and snow. In some parts the transition from pasture to sterility takes place very gradually; in others it is more rapid. Here is seen a mountain whose higher ridges contain hamlets above the range of clouds, and pasturages which appear suspended in the air. There the eye perceives nothing but rocks, precipices, and accumulations of snow and ice. Every mountain has its rivulets, which dash from rock to rock, and frequently form beautiful cascades. At Staubbach, in the valley of Lauter-bronnen, in the canton of Berne, is a stream which precipitates itself over a rock of nearly 1000 feet in height. Other parts offer a transition from scenes bleak and savage, to landscapes of luxuriant verdure. Thus, on crossing Mount St. Gothard, and coming out of the dark subterraneous passage of Urnerloch, the traveller enters a valley so fresh and beautiful as to appear almost an illusion of the fancy.

Switzerland is less remarkable for its minerals than might be expected from the extent of its mountains. Iron, however, is found in several parts, particularly in the district of Sargans, in the east; and there are mines, or rather quarries of rock salt in the canton of Berne. There are mines also of silver, copper, and lead, in different parts; but they have not as yet repaid the labour of working. Marble, porphyry, alabaster, crystal, and sulphur, are occasionally found in the mountains. Of mineral waters, the most considerable are those of Leuck and Schintznach, and the warm baths of Pfeffers.

Glaciers.—The glaciers occupy the plains or hollows which separate the peaks of the highest mountains, being lakes of frozen snow accumulated to a vast height, or rather depth, and detaching, from time to time, enormous masses called avalanches, which roll down with a frightful noise. The formation of glaciers takes place near the line of perpetual congelation (about 8000 or 9000 feet above the sea) although, in a winter of unusual rigour, their ramifications extend considerably lower. Their surface, in some cases smooth and unbroken, is in others marked by deep chasms and pinnacles of ice, rising in fantastic forms, and presenting to the eye the appearance of a city of crystal, with its glittering spires, domes, and turrets. In the long Alpine range, extending along the south of Switzerland, from Mont Blanc in the west, to the extremity of Tyrol in the east, are reckoned no less than 400 of these glaciers, differing greatly, of course, in relative magnitude, but frequently extending from 16 to 18 miles in length, by 1 or 2 in breadth. Their depth can with difficulty be ascertained, but is supposed to vary from 100 to 600 feet; the total extent of their surface has been calculated at 1000 square miles. To explain the manner of their formation, their periodical increase and diminution, and to discuss the question whether their extension continues to be considerable or not, is the province of the naturalist more than of the geographer. We shall merely add, that the formation of glaciers requires such an intensity of cold, that none are found in France, or in the interior of Germany, Russia, or Spain; the only parts of Europe, except the Alps, that contain them, being a few of the most elevated tracks of the Pyrenees, and the bleakest parts of the mountains of Norway and Lapland.

Rivers.—No country is better provided with water than Switzerland, particularly in the summer, when the melting of the snow affords a copious supply, and swells the rivers generally to a third or fourth above their size in winter. The Rhone, rising in the centre of the country, holds a westerly course, flowing through a beautiful valley, and pouring into the lake of Geneva a stream which, turbid at its influx, becomes pure and transparent when issuing out of the lake. The Ticino collects the waters flowing from Mount St. Gothard and the adjoining Alps, whose aspect is towards Lombardy. The Aar, rising on the northern slope of the central Alps, receives the tribute of numberless streams flowing towards the western or more level parts of

Switzerland; while the Rhine, holding at first a north-east course, encircles a part of the cantons, flows through the lake of Constance and Zell, and receives successively the Thur, the Limmat, the Reuss, and the Aar, which, joined to its own waters, render it, ere quitting the Swiss territory, the second river in Europe.

The lakes of Switzerland are numerous: the principal are those of Geneva, Constance, Neufchatel, Bienne, Zurich, Wallenstadt, Waldstadter and Lucerne, Thun, and Brienz. Most of them are navigable, an accommodation of great importance in a country where, from the unevenness of the surface, land carriage is both difficult and expensive. On this account a number of the towns of Switzerland are situated on the side of lakes; and the mountains, rising from the shore, frequently in an amphitheatrical form, render the scenery beautiful and romantic.

Climate.—No country exhibits a greater variety of temperature than Switzerland. While the valleys, or the bases of the mountains, enjoy the warmth of an Italian sun, the ascent discovers a scanty vegetation, and the summit is doomed to all the rigours of an Icelandic winter. In the Alpine cantons it is not unusual to observe, in the higher part of a mountain, the corn little advanced towards maturity while in the low grounds the peasantry are engaged in the labours of harvest. Such a contrast is not, however, exhibited in the northern and level part of the country, where the climate differs little from that of the south of Germany. In winter, however, the degree of cold is greater even in the valleys of Switzerland, than in most parts of France or Germany, in consequence, doubtless, of the accumulation of snow and ice on the adjacent mountains. Sudden storms, particularly of hail, occur frequently, and render the culture of the vine precarious.

Agriculture.—The most striking feature of Swiss husbandry to a foreigner is the care with which a number of lofty and uninviting tracks have been cultivated. In travelling through the country, one is surprised at seeing vines and rich pasturages in spots which at one time can have been little else than naked and sterile rocks. He observes the traces of the plough on spots where, to judge from appearances, even wild animals could hardly pass without hazard. The products of Switzerland are wheat, barley, oats, maize, flax, hemp, and tobacco. The fruits of most frequent occurrence are vines, chesnuts, prunes, peaches, walnuts, cherries; in the colder situations, apples and pears; and in the southern valleys the almond and fig; the latter, however, in small quantities. Wood, both for building and fuel, is found in most parts of the country. But the stock of corn raised is considerably below the consumption of the inhabitants. An annual import is necessary, and in some rugged and secluded districts it is so scarce, that the inhabitants are almost strangers to the use of bread, and subsist on the produce of their dairies. The breeding of cattle, a branch of industry pointed out by the abundance of pasture, and the difficulties attending tillage, forms the grand source of national subsistence in Switzerland. The herds are driven to the mountains in spring, and graze there until the approach of winter forces them to descend gradually into the more sheltered districts. Cheese, butter, tallow, hides, form the chief articles of export from the pastoral districts. After large cattle, the animals chiefly raised are goats, sheep, and hogs. The summits of the Alps are occupied by the chamois, the wild goat, the white and red fox, and a kind of hare which, in summer, resembles the hare of Britain, but in winter becomes as white as snow.

Trade and Manufactures.—Without possessing a productive soil, or the benefit of a maritime situation, Switzerland is less deprived of trade than might be expected in so mountainous a country. The conveyance of goods along the Aar, the Reuss, and the Rhine, facilitates its intercourse with Germany and the Netherlands. The Rhone, though more difficult of navigation, serves in some measure the same purpose in regard to France. The exports are linen, cotton cloth, woollens, and, in a small de-

gree, silks; also cattle, sheep, hides, tallow, butter, and cheese. The chief imports are corn from Germany; salt from Tyrol and Franche Comte; spices, dyewoods, groceries, and other colonial produce from Holland; raw silk from Italy, and some manufactured articles, such as hardware and cotton yarn, from England.

The manufactures of Switzerland are very diversified; linen, lace, thread, and woollens, are of old standing; cottons have been introduced, or at least extended, since the latter part of the 18th century; clocks and watches have long been staple articles at Geneva and Neufchatel; while leather gloves, silks, porcelain, pottery, toys, tobacco, and snuff, are made in various places.

Education.—Of the seminaries of Switzerland, the principal are the celebrated university of Geneva, and the university of Bale, which, though less comprehensive in its objects, and less known out of the limits of Switzerland, has given education to several men of eminence. There are academies or colleges at Zurich, Berne, and Lausanne, and schools of good repute in various towns, in particular Neufchatel, Schaffhausen, and St. Gall; also at Coire, the small sequestered capital of the Grisons. Among literary associations are to be mentioned the Helvetic society of Bale, the physical of Zurich, and the economical of Berne. The superiority of the Protestants over the Catholics in education, is as conspicuous here as in Germany. In regard to improvements in the plan of educating, it suffices to mention the names of Pestalozzi and Fellenberg, both inhabitants of Switzerland. Nor is there here any reluctance to borrow improvements from other countries, the method of Bell and Lancaster having been introduced in several of the principal towns.

Among the eminent men produced by Switzerland, since the revival of letters in Europe, one of the earliest was Zuinglius, the theologian and cotemporary of Luther, followed by Calvin, who, though born in France, was educated at Geneva. At the same time lived Paracelsus, the well known physician and alchymist; and at a much later date, Haller the naturalist; Gesner, who has been called the Theophrastus of Germany; the two Bernouillis, eminent mathematicians; Saussure the naturalist; along with Necker, Rousseau, and Lavater, all three of the last age, and all distinguished, though in a very different manner.

Few countries in the west of Europe have so great a diversity of language as Switzerland. French is spoken all along the western line, viz., at Geneva, in the Pays de Vaud, in the Valais, at Neufchatel, and in a part of the cantons of Berne, Friburg, and Soleure. In the southern canton of the Ticino, in the Valteline, and in a few valleys of the Grisons, Italian is in use; while in the remainder of the Grisons, the language spoken is the Romanesk, or *Romana rustica*. Throughout all the rest of Switzerland, the language used, both currently and for the publication of the acts of government, is German.

National Character.—The Swiss have in general the characteristics of an agricultural people, accustomed to independence; strangers in a great measure to the habits acquired in large towns, and still more to those that are engendered by connection with a court. Education is, in several of the Protestant cantons, as generally diffused as in Scotland; offences are not frequent, crimes extremely rare, and the infliction of capital punishment not often necessary. Hospitality, frankness, attachment to home when at a distance from it, are the well known characteristics of a people in a primitive state of society; they are those of the Swiss, at least of the majority of them; for in Bale and other trading towns, a foreigner would be at some loss to recognise the boasted disinterestedness of these republicans. From the necessity of maintaining their independence against powerful neighbours, the Swiss have long been formed into corps of national militia, and regularly called out to exercise; habits which, joined to the very limited field for industry at home, have led, during nearly three centuries, to the practice of letting troops for hire to foreign powers, in particular

particular the French and Dutch, on the plan of their constituting separate regiments, and not mixing with the troops of the country. On this footing they served in Spain until the revolution of 1820, when they were disembodied, in consequence of their attachment to the crown.

Government.—Switzerland, though a republic, has never, like Rome or Athens, formed one great community; it is, and has all along been, a confederacy of petty states, differing more from each other in their respective constitutions, than the Dutch provinces, or the component parts of the American union. In addition to other distinctions, there is the leading one of religion, a distinction subsisting during ages when a difference of creed constituted a much more decided line of demarcation than at present. In some cantons the form of government is democratic, but in most it is oligarchic, a certain number of families retaining the chief public offices among themselves, and managing all the internal affairs of the canton. The general concerns of the republic, such as the conclusion of foreign alliances, the organisation of the militia, the defence of the country, are managed by a general assembly or diet, composed of deputies from each of the cantons, and holding its meetings at Berne, Zurich, and Lucerne by rotation. In a financial view, the diet has very little to discuss, the contingent of the cantons being furnished, not in money but in men; so that, while the revenue of the union hardly exceeds the insignificant sum of 35,000*l.*, the military establishment ready at its call amounts to 33,000 men.

History.—The Helvetii are well known to the readers of the campaigns of Julius Cæsar, but are less frequently mentioned in Roman history after the empire consolidated its frontier on the side of Germany. After participating in the ravages brought on the Roman provinces by the irruption of the northern hordes, and passing a long period immersed in barbarism, the Swiss are recognized in history in connection with Germany, and as receiving from time to time certain privileges and immunities from the head of the empire. In imitation of the free towns of Germany, the districts of Switzerland entered into associations with their neighbours, to preserve their territory from invasion, and their property from seizure. The 13th century, the era of the election of the politic Rodolph of Hapsburg to the head of the empire, was that of the extension of the Austrian influence over the chief part of Switzerland. Rodolph's son, Albert, a prince of less caution, assumed a lofty tone towards the Swiss, and appointed as governors or high bailiffs, men of overbearing character. It was the tyranny of one of these, named Geyster, that led to the insurrection of the three mountainous districts of Schweiz, Uri, and Unterwalden, in 1308, when the imperial officers were seized, conducted to the frontier, and obliged to take an oath that they never should return. The intestine troubles of Austria prevented retaliatory measures; but at a subsequent date, in the year 1345, on some fresh provocation from these confederates, Leopold, brother of the reigning emperor, advanced at the head of an armed force. A small band of 1400 Swiss awaited his approach in the defile of Morgarten, between a lake and a steep mountain. The Austrians, relying on their superiority, marched forward; but, assailed by rocks and trees precipitated from the mountain, and attacked when in confusion by their intrepid opponents, they fled, with the loss of 1500 men. Encouraged by this success, the three cantons now converted their temporary association into a permanent league, formed an alliance with Bavaria, and were joined soon after (see the preceding table), by five other cantons, of which the largest, by much, was Berne. They were now sufficiently strong to repel invasion, and obtained, in 1476, at Morat in Friburg, a signal victory over an army of Burgundians. The confederacy, after consisting, during a century and a half, of eight cantons, received the addition of five more, making 13, the number by which the Swiss commonwealth is known in the history of Europe. Their military constitution, joined to the rugged and uninviting nature of their country, secured them from further attempts at invasion; so that, if we except some intestine quarrels about religion, happily short lived, the Swiss, during nearly five

centuries, saw very little of war, except in the service of foreign powers. At last, in 1798, the French directory, occupying Lombardy on the one side, and the Rhenish provinces on the other, determined to add Switzerland to their acquisitions, invaded it with a force which it was impossible even for the mountaineers to resist, and succeeded in new modelling the Helvetic constitution. Next year the success of the Austrians brought them and their Russian allies into the heart of Switzerland, but a reverse of fortune obliged them to retire. The treaty of Amiens provided for the evacuation of Switzerland by the French; but no sooner had the latter withdrawn, than the inhabitants began to re-assert their independence, by reverting to the former government; on this Buonaparte marched an armed force into the heart of their country, and imposed on them a constitution in which, under the plausible name of Mediator, he secured, on as large a scale as possible, the co-operation of the Swiss in his future wars. Numbers of this nation were led by him into Germany, Spain, Russia, and, after maintaining the high military character of their ancestors, fell the victims of his ambition. At last, in the spring of 1814, the allied armies approached the Swiss frontier, and entered it with an overpowering force, refusing to acknowledge the neutrality of Switzerland, but promising it future independence. They proved faithful to their engagement. The number of cantons, increased by the French to 19, was now carried, by the addition of the Valais, Geneva, and Neuchâtel, to 22, the integrity and independence of which were recognized in 1815 by the congress of Vienna. Austria, however, reserved to herself the Valteline, a mountainous district in the south-east of Switzerland, and formerly a dependency of the Grisons. For full particulars of the early history of Switzerland, see HELVETIA.

SWITZERLAND, a county of the United States, in Indiana, bounded west by Jefferson, south by the Ohio river, north in part by Indian lands, and east by Dearborn county. Its surface is, in some places, broken by the Ohio and Silver Creek hills, which, however, are of a pretty good soil. It is watered by Venoge and Plum creeks, and several small runs; some running into the Ohio, and others into White river. Vevay is the chief town. Population in 1815, 3500.

SWITZERLAND, New, a settlement of the United States, in Indiana, which was commenced by a few emigrants from the Pays de Vaud, in the spring of 1805, for the purpose of cultivating the vine. As early as the year 1810, eight acres of vineyard were under cultivation, from which were made 2400 gallons of wine, which in its crude state was thought excellent, and equal to the claret of Bourdeaux. A part of this wine was made out of the Madeira grape. The quantity of vineyard grounds has been since greatly augmented, and there is every prospect of still further improvements in this interesting and profitable branch of cultivation.

SWIVEL, *s.* [*sweif*, Icel., volva, instrumentum quo aliquid circumrotatur; *sweifla*, volutare. *Serenius.*] Something fixed in another body so as to turn round in it. A small cannon, which turns on a swivel.

SWO'BBER, *s.* A sweeper of the deck.

Cubb'd in a cabb'in, on a matrass laid,
On a brown george with lousy swo'bbers fed. *Dryden.*

Four privileged cards that are only incidentally used in betting at the game of whist.—The clergyman used to play at whist and swo'bbers: playing now and then a sober game at whist for pastime, it might be pardoned; but he could not digest those wicked swo'bbers. *Swift.*

SWOJANOW, a small town in the east of Bohemia; 94 miles east-south-east of Prague, and 9 south-east of Politzka. Population 1100. Plumbago is found in the environs.

SWO'LLEN, or SWOLN. The participle passive of *swell*. [*pollen*, Sax.]

Unto his aid she hastily did draw
Her dreadful beast, who, *swoln* with blood of late,
Came ramping forth with proud presumptuous gait. *Spenser.*
SWOM,

SWOM, The preterite of *swim*.—You never *swom* the Hellespont. *Shakspeare*.

To SWOON, *v. n.* [αἰσθητικόν, Saxon.] To suffer a suspension of thought and sensation; to faint.

So play the foolish throngs with one that *swoons*;

Come all to help him, and to stop the air

By which he should revive. *Shakspeare*.

If thou stand'st not i' th' state of hanging, or of some death more long in spectatorship, and crueler in suffering, behold now presently, and *swoon* for what's to come upon thee. *Shakspeare*.

SWOON, *s.* A lipthymy; a fainting fit.

SWOONING, *s.* The act of fainting.—Faintings, swoonings of despair. *Milton*.

To SWOOP, *v. a.* The same as *sweep*.—To seize by falling at once as a hawk upon his prey.

This mouldering piecemeal in your hands did fall,

And now at last you came to *swoop* it all. *Dryden*.

To prey upon; to catch up.—The physician looks with another eye on the medicinal herb than the grazing ox, which *swoops* it in with the common grass. *Glanville*.

To SWOOP, *v. n.* To pass with pomp. *Not used*.

The nine-ston'd trophy thus whilst she doth entertain,

Proud Tamer *swoops* along with such a lusty train,
As fits so brave a flood. *Drayton*.

SWOOP, *s.* Fall of a bird of prey upon his quarry.

All my pretty ones?

Did you say all? What, all? O hellkite! all!

What, all my pretty chickens and their dam,

At one fell *swoop*? *Shakspeare*.

To SWOP, *v. a.* [Of uncertain derivation. *Dr. Johnson*.]—To change; to exchange one thing for another. *A low word*.

When I drove a thrust home, he put it by,
And cried, as in derision, spare the stripling;
Oh that insulting word! I would have *swopp'd*
Youth for old age, and all my life behind,
To have been then a momentary man. *Dryden*.

SWOP, *s.* An exchange. See the verb.—These had made a foolish *swop* between a couple of thick bandy legs, and two long trapsticks. *Spect*.

SWORD, *s.* [ἰσθητικόν, Sax., *sweerd*, Dutch.] A weapon used either in cutting or thrusting; the usual weapon of fights hand to hand.

Old unhappy traitor, the *sword* is out

That must destroy thee. *Shakspeare*.

Destruction by war: as, fire and *sword*.—The *sword* without, and terour within. *Deut*.—Vengeance of justice.

Justice to Merit does weak aid afford,

She quits the balance, and resigns the *sword*. *Dryden*.

Emblem of authority.

This I, her *sword*-bearer, do carry,

For civil deed and military. *Hudibras*.

SWORDED, *adj.* Girt with a sword.

The *sworded* seraphim

Are seen in glittering ranks with wings display'd. *Milton*.

SWORDER, *s.* A cut-throat; a soldier. In contempt.

A Roman *sworder* and banditto slave

Murth'er'd sweet Tully. *Shakspeare*.

SWORDFISH, *s.* [αἰσθητικόν.] A fish with a long sharp bone issuing from his head.

SWORDGRASS, *s.* [*gladiolus*.] A kind of sedge; glader. *Ainsworth*.

SWORDKNOT, *s.* Ribband tied to the hilt of the sword.

Wigs with wigs, *swordknots* with *swordknots* strive,
Beaus banish beaus, and coaches coaches drive. *Pope*.

SWORDLAW, *s.* Violence; the law by which all is yielded to the stronger.

So violence

Proceeded, and oppression, and *swordlaw*,

Through all the plain, and refuge none was found. *Milton*.

SWORDMAN, or SWORDSMAN, *s.* Soldier; fighting man.—Worthy fellows, and like to prove most sinewy *swordmen*. *Shakspeare*.

SWORDPLAYER, *s.* Gladiator; fencer; one who exhibits in public his skill at the weapons by fighting prizes.—These they called *swordplayers*, and this spectacle a sword-fight. *Hakewill*.

SWORDS, a long irregularly built town of Ireland, in the county of Dublin. It has no manufacturing establishment, but abounds with houses for the entertainment of travellers. A pleasant brook winds round the town. Before the union with England, it returned two members to the Irish parliament. Near this town stands one of those round towers peculiar to Ireland. It is 73 feet high, and 55 feet in circumference; 7 miles from Dublin castle.

SWORE. The preterite of *swear*. [Sax. ἰσθητικόν.]

How soon unsay

What feign'd submission *swore*.

Milton.

SWORN. The participle passive of *swear*.

What does else want credit, come to me,

And I'll be *sworn* 'tis true. *Shakspeare*.

I am *sworn* brother, sweet,

To grim necessity; and he and I

Will keep a league till death. *Shakspeare*.

SWORTON, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Rosethern, Cheshire.

SWOSZOWICE, a village of the Austrian empire, in Eastern Galicia, circle of Muslenitz.

To SWOUND, *v. n.* To swoon. Formerly *swoon* was so written; and it is still sometimes vulgarly so spoken.—All in gore blood; I *swounded* at the sight. *Shakspeare*.

SWUM. Preterite and participle passive of *swim*.

Air, water, earth,

By fowl, fish, beast, was flown, was *swum*, was walk'd

Frequent. *Milton*.

SWUNG. Preterite and participle passive of *swing*.

Her hand within her hair she wound,

Swung her to earth, and dragg'd her on the ground. *Addison*.

SYANG, a small island in the Pacific ocean. Lat. 0. 25. N. long. 130. 9. E.

SYBARI'TICAL, or SYBARI'TIC, *adj.* [from the *Sybaritæ*, Latin, inhabitants of Sybaris, so given to voluptuousness, that their luxury became proverbial.] Luxurious; wanton.—Dine with me on a single dish, to atone to philosophy for the *sybaritic* dinners of Prior-Park. *Warburton*.

SYBILHEAD, a cape on the western coast of Ireland, in the county of Kerry; 8 miles west-north-west of Dingle. Lat. 52. 11. N. long. 10. 18. W.

SY'CAMINE, or SY'CAMORE, *s.* [συκομορος, Gr. ἰσθητικόν, Sax.] A tree.

Sycamores with eglantine were spread;

A hedge about the sides, a covering over head. *Dryden*.

SYCAMORE, a small stream of the United States, which enters the Ohio, in the state of Kentucky.

SY'COPHANCY, *s.* The practice of an informer.—One that best knew it [the condition of the collectors or farmers of taxes] branded it with *poling* and *sycophancy*. *Bp. Hall*.—The practice of a flatterer.—The *sycophancy* of A. Phillips had prejudiced Mr. Addison against Pope. *Warburton*.

SY'COPHANT, *s.* [*sycophanta*, Lat., συκοφαντης, Gr. from συκον, a fig, and φανω, to shew, to denounce.] To export

export *figs* from Athens was forbidden by law; and they, who *informed* against persons disregarding this law, were called *sycophants*.] A talebearer; a makebate; a malicious parasite.

To SYCOPHANT, *v. n.* [*συκοφαντω*, Gr.] To play the sycophant. *A low bad word.*—His *sycophanting* arts being detected, that game is not to be played the second time; whereas a man of clear reputation, though his barque be split, has something left towards setting up again. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

To SYCOPHANT, *v. a.* To calumniate. *Not in usc.*—He makes it his first business to tamper with his reader by *sycophanting* and misnaming the work of his adversary. *Milton.*

SYCOPHANTICAL, *adj.* Meanly officious; basely parasitical.—Henry the Eighth of England [was] led by the advice of some of his *sycophantical* popish prelates. *Sir Simonds D'Ewes.*

SYCOPHANTIC, *adj.* Talebearing; mischievously officious. *Fawning. Mason.*—'Tis well known, that in these times the illiberal *sycophantic* manner of devotion was by the wiser sort contemned. *Ld. Shaftesbury.*

To SYCOPHANTISE, *v. n.* To play the talebearer. SYCOPHANTRY, *s.* A malignant tale-bearing.—It is fit that the accused should be acquainted with this, that competent time and means may be allowed for his defence, that his plea should receive, if not a favourable, yet a free audience; the contrary practice is indeed rather backbiting, whispering, supplanting or *sycophantry* than fair and lawful judging. *Barrow.*

SYDABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra, belonging to the British. Lat. 27. 30. N. long. 77. 57. E.—There are several other towns of this name in Hindostan, but none of consequence.

SYDAPORAM, a town of the south of India, district of the Carnatic. Lat. 11. 14. N. long. 79. 45. E.—The descendants of Mahomet being called Syeds, there are many places beginning with this name, all through the East.

SYDE, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 5 miles east of Painswick.

SYDENHAM (Thomas), a physician of extraordinary genius, was born at Winford Eagle, in Dorsetshire, about the year 1624. He was the son of a gentleman of independent fortune, and was sent to Oxford in 1642, where he was admitted a commoner of Magdalen-hall. After pursuing his studies a few years, he quitted Oxford, and subsequently obtained the degree of doctor of physic at Cambridge, and settled in the practice of his profession in Westminster.

The extensive practice which he is said to have enjoyed from 1660 to 1670, is perhaps only to be accounted for by the greater success which his superiority of skill in the discrimination and treatment of diseases would necessarily command, and which from the novelty of his plans, would become more readily a matter of notoriety; for from this period, namely, after the restoration, his opinions and political connections must have been on the wrong side. He appears to have met with opposition, too, on the part of the college; since he never was admitted to the rank of a fellow, and was only made a licentiate at a late period of his life. It is certain, indeed that he experienced no small share of the enmity and calumny which is usually excited by innovation; yet he appears, from his dedications to Drs. Mapletoft, Brady, Paman, Cole, &c., to have possessed some intimate and valuable friends in the profession; and he seems to have conducted himself towards all without any of that arrogance which too often accompanies originality of talent.

An anecdote has been related, on the authority of Sir Richard Blackmore, in proof of Sydenham's contempt for all medical writings. He is said to have replied to an inquiry respecting the best books to be read to qualify a man for practice, "read Don Quixote." Sir Hans Sloane, however, who affirms that he never knew a man of brighter natural parts, believed this to be a joke. It is certain, indeed, that Sydenham paid little attention to the prevalent

medical doctrines. He tells us, that, on commencing practice, he was immediately convinced, that the only means of acquiring a correct knowledge of his art, was by a diligent and minute attention to the phenomena of diseases, by giving up his whole mind to the investigation of the changes and progress of symptoms, from which the true and natural indications of cure would be readily deduced; an opinion which every subsequent year served only to confirm, and which, he adds, his friend, Mr. Locke, approved of.

It was to febrile diseases that he first applied this inductive method, and he admits, that it was after several years of anxious attention and perplexity that he satisfied himself respecting the proper and successful mode of treating these maladies. In 1666, he published the result of his observations on these subjects, in a work entitled "Methodus curandi Febres, propriis Observationibus superstructa;" which he afterwards republished, with remarks, suggested by subsequent experience, under the new title of "Observationes Medicæ circæ Morborum Acutorum Historiam et Curationem," 8vo., 1675. In this work, however, as in some of his other writings, we find hypothetical language pretty largely intermixed with sound practical observation. He commences with a definition of *discase* after the Hippocratic doctrine, viz., that it is "a violent effort of nature, for the benefit of the constitution, to expel a morbid cause." Thus, the *plague* he deemed a struggle to drive out the contagious matter by means of buboes, perspiration, or various eruptions; and the *gout* a providential exertion to deplete the blood by expelling its impurities; and according to the degree of violence with which this is effected, and the rapidity with which the critical depuration takes place, the disease, he affirmed was *acute* or *chronic*. Nevertheless, in his practice he seems to have been little influenced by hypothesis; but to have regulated his views by an attentive consideration of the symptoms, and of the *juvantia* and *lædèntia*; and in this respect he was the author of much practical improvement. In the treatment of the small-pox especially, then a most frequent and fatal epidemic, he was led to adopt a most salutary method of cure, by repressing the eruptive fever, by means of cool air and antiphlogistic remedies, by which the subsequent eruption and consequent danger were greatly diminished; although this was in opposition, not only to the prevailing practice, which consisted in forcing the eruption by heat and stimulating medicines, but to the hypothetical doctrine, which he had himself admitted. Subsequent experience has not only fully confirmed the propriety and success of his practice, but has shewn the necessity of extending it to other eruptive and febrile diseases. The sagacity and sound observation of Sydenham were also particularly manifested in the correct histories of some diseases which he has left. His descriptions of the *small-pox*, *measles* and *gout*, have been deemed models of medical history; and his detail of the singular variety of deceptive appearances, which *hysteria* assumes in females, is a display of extraordinary acuteness. He was extremely attentive also to the varieties which occurred in diseases, especially of the febrile class, in different seasons, and which required a corresponding modification of the treatment; and he has pointed out what he terms the epidemic constitution of particular years, by which all the prevailing diseases were in some degree modified.

He died in December, 1689, at the age of sixty-five. After his death, a manual of practice, which he had composed for the use of his son, was published by a friend, to whom he had consigned the MS., under the title of "Processus Integri in Morbis fere omnibus Curandis," 1693; which contains a very brief notice of the symptoms of many diseases, both acute and chronic, with some familiar formulæ.

SYDENHAM, DAMERELL, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles west-by-north of Tavistock.

SYDERSTONE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles south of Burnham Westgate.

SYDLING, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 8½ miles north-west-by-north of Dorchester. Population 495.

SYDNEY, a town of New Holland, and the capital of

the British settlements in New South Wales, about 7 miles from the mouth of Port Jackson, in a cove to which it gives name. It stands principally on two hilly necks of land, with a proportion of flat ground intervening. These form together Sydney cove, which is one of the finest natural basins of water that can be imagined, and for safety and convenience rivals the finest works of art. It is perfectly secured against any wind, and ships of any dimensions lie there, and receive any repairs they may require, with the greatest security. The western side of the town extends to the water's edge, and occupies, with the exception of the small space reserved around Dawe's battery, the whole of the neck of land which separates Sydney cove from Lane cove, and extends a considerable distance back into the country besides. This part of the town, it may therefore be perceived, forms a little peninsula; and, what is of still greater importance, the water is in general of sufficient depth in both these coves, to allow the approach of vessels of the largest burden to the very sides of the rocks. On the eastern neck of land, the extension of the town has been stopped by the government-house, and the adjoining domain, which occupies the whole of Bennilong's point, a circumstance the more to be regretted, as the water all along this point is of still greater depth than on the western side of the cove, and consequently affords still greater facilities for the erection of warehouses, and the various important purposes of commerce.

The appearance of the town is rude and irregular. Until the administration of governor Macquarrie, little or no attention had been paid to the laying out of the streets, and each proprietor was left to build on his lease, where and how his caprice inclined him. He, however, succeeded in establishing a perfect regularity in most of the streets, and reduced to a degree of uniformity that would have been deemed absolutely impracticable, even the most confused portion of that chaos of building which is still known by the name of "the rocks," and which, from the ruggedness of its surface, the difficulty of access to it, and the total absence of order in its houses, was for many years more like the abode of a horde of savages than the residence of a civilized community. The town, upon the whole, may be now pronounced to be tolerably regular; and, as in all future additions that may be made to it, the proprietors of leases will not be allowed to deviate from the lines marked out by the surveyor-general, the new part will of course be free from the faults and inconveniences of the old. This town covers a considerable extent of ground, and would at first sight induce the belief of a much greater population than it actually contains. This may be imputed to two circumstances, the largeness of the leases, which in most instances possess sufficient space for a garden, and the smallness of the houses erected in them, which in general do not exceed one story. From these two causes it happens, that this town does not contain above seven thousand souls, whereas one that covered the same extent of ground in this country, would possess a population of at least twenty thousand. But although the houses are for the most part small, and of mean appearance, there are many public buildings, as well as houses of individuals, which would not disgrace the cities of more civilized countries. Here is a very good market, although it is of very recent date. It was established by governor Macquarrie in the year 1813, and is very well supplied with grain, vegetables, poultry, butter, eggs, and fruit. It is, however, only held three times a week; viz., on Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. It is a large oblong inclosure, and there are stores erected in it by the governor, for the reception of all such provisions as remain unsold at the close of the market, which lasts from six o'clock in the morning in summer, and seven o'clock in winter, until three o'clock in the evening.

This town also contains two very good public schools, for the education of children of both sexes. One is a day school for boys, and is of course only intended to impart gratuitous instruction:—The other is designed both for the education and support of poor and helpless female orphans.

This institution was founded by governor King, as long back as the year 1800, and contains about sixty children, who are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, sewing, and the various arts of domestic economy. When their education is complete, they are either married to free persons of good character, or are assigned as servants to such respectable families as may apply for them. At the time of the establishment of this school there was a large track of land (15,000 acres) attached to it; and a considerable stock of horses, cattle, and sheep, were also transferred to it from the government herds. The profits of these go towards defraying the expenses of this school, and a certain portion, fifty or a hundred acres of this land, with a proportionate number of them, are given in dower with each female who marries with the consent of the committee intrusted with the management of this institution. Besides these two public schools in the town of Sydney, which together contained, by the last accounts received from the colony, two hundred and twenty-four children, there are establishments for the gratuitous diffusion of education in every populous district throughout the colony. The masters of these schools are allowed stipulated salaries from the orphan fund. Formerly particular duties, those on coals and timber, which still go by the name of "the orphan dues," were allotted for the support of these schools; but they were found to be insufficient, and afterwards one-fourth, and more recently one-eighth, of the whole revenue of the colony was appropriated to this purpose. This latter portion of the colonial revenue may be estimated at about 2500*l.*, which, it must be admitted, could not be devoted to the promotion of any object of equal public utility. Independent of these laudable institutions thus supported at the expense of the government, there are two private ones intended for the dissemination of religious knowledge, which are wholly maintained by voluntary contribution. There are in this town and other parts of the colony, several good private seminaries for the board and education of the children of opulent parents. The harbour of Port Jackson is perhaps exceeded by none in the world. It is navigable for vessels of any burden for about seven miles above the town, i. e., about fifteen from the entrance. It possesses the best anchorage the whole way, and is perfectly sheltered from every wind that can blow. It is said to have a hundred coves, and is capable of containing all the shipping in the world. There can be no doubt, therefore, that in the course of a few years, the town of Sydney, from the excellence of its situation alone, must become a place of considerable importance. The views from the heights of the town are bold, varied, and beautiful. The strange irregular appearance of the town itself, the numerous coves and islets both above and below it, the towering forests and projecting rocks, combined with the infinite diversity of hill and dale on each side of the harbour, form altogether a *coup d'œil*, of which it may be safely asserted that few towns can boast a parallel. The value of land in this town is daily increasing, and rents are in consequence exorbitantly high.

SYDNEY, a river in the interior of New Holland, seen by Mr. Oxley in his second expedition for the purpose of exploring that country. Its course was northward, and the part of it seen by Mr. Oxley crossed the 31st degree of south lat. Long. 151. 15. E.

SYDNEY BAY, a bay on the south coast of Norfolk Island, in the South Pacific ocean. Lat. 29. 5. N. long. 168. 2. E.

SYDONAIA, a village of Syria, situated on the side of a hill, at the top of which is a celebrated nunnery, founded by Justinian. It has the appearance of a castle, with high walls round it. The nuns are twenty in number, who, with the abbess, are employed in hard labour, particularly the rearing of silk worms. A great part of the revenue of the convent arises from vineyards, which produce an excellent strong red wine; 12 miles north-east of Damascus.

SYENA, in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, three-leaved; leaflets linear-lanceolate, acute, spreading, permanent.

ment. Corolla: petals three, roundish, concave, spreading, length of the calyx. Stamina: filaments three, capillary. Anthers oblong. Pistil: germ superior, roundish. Style filiform. Stigma trifid. Pericarp: capsule globular, crowned with the style, one-celled, three-valved. Seeds six, globular, striated, two fastened to each valve, one above the other. It is allied to *Commelina*.—*Essential Character*. Calyx three leaved. Petals three. Anthers oblong. Capsule one-celled, three valved.

Syena fluviatilis.—This is a minute mossy plant. Stem somewhat branched decumbent. Leaves capillaceous, in whorls. Flowers axillary, white, peduncled, solitary.—Native of Guiana, in rivulets.

SYENE, a town of Upper Egypt, the most southerly in that country, and forming its frontier towards Nubia. It is celebrated, in the annals of ancient astronomy, by the attempt made by Eratosthenes to measure the height of the sun, according to which Syene was said to lie directly under the tropic. A well was formed, which was supposed to mark the precise moment of the summer solstice, by the image of the sun reflected in it. Bruce ascertained that Syene was not now, at least, immediately under the tropic, as he found the latitude 23. 28. ; and according to the more precise observation of Nouet, it is 24. 8. 6. There is still a small temple, supposed to be the ancient observatory; but it is so buried in dirt and rubbish, as to be inaccessible. There are also the remains of a Roman bridge, and a handsome stone quay. But the principal ruins of Syene are those of the Saracen town, which are very extensive, including the city wall, built of unburnt bricks, and flanked with square towers. Many large houses are still in a state of extraordinary preservation, as well as mosques, with lofty minarets, still entire, though resting on very frail foundations. In the Nile, opposite to Syene, is the island of Elephantina, remarkable for the very ancient ruins with which it is covered. The climate of this place is healthy, being free, in a great measure, from the intensely hot south-east and southerly winds, and the plague seldom making its appearance.

SYKEHOUSE, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles north-west-by-west of Thorne. Population 490.

SYKES, POINT, a cape on the west coast of North America, in Behm's Canal. Lat. 55. 6. N. long. 229. 4. E.

SYLAH, a fortified town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, district of Chalawara. It is a large place, is situated near an extensive lake, and belongs to an Hindoo chief, who is tributary to the Guicowar. Lat. not ascertained.

SYLEHAM, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5 miles north-east-by-east of Eye.

SYLLABICAL, *adj.* Relating to syllables; consisting of syllables.—The Christians have marked every the least various lection, even *syllabical*. *Leslie*.

SYLLABICALLY, *adv.* In a syllabical manner.—These and many like places, well considered, (upon which no brand of lie or falsity may be fixed,) though they do not literally and *syllabically* agree with the quotation, (but are verified either in a partial or concurrent sense), may sufficiently justify that place in the first front of the Liturgy to be no lie, but a divine scriptural truth. *Bp. Gauden*.

SYLLABIC, *adj.* [*syllabique*, Fr.] Relating to syllables.—In the responses also, which are noted for various voices, this *syllabic* distinction is sufficiently attended to. *Mason*.

SYLLABLE, *s.* [*συλλαβή*, Gr.; *syllabe*, Fr.] As much of a word as is uttered by the help of one vowel, or one articulation.

I heard

Each *syllable* that breath made up between them.

Shakspeare.

Any thing proverbially concise.

To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow,
Creeps in this petty pace from day to day,

To the last *syllable* of recorded time;
And all our yesterdays have lighted fools
The way to dusty death.

Shakspeare.

To SYLLABLE, *v. a.* To utter; to pronounce; to articulate. *Not in use.*

Airy tongues that *syllable* men's names
On sands, and shores, and wildernesses.

Milton.

SYLLABUB, *s.* Milk and acids.

No *syllabubs* made at the milking pail,
But what are compos'd of a pot of good ale.

Beaumont.

SYLLABUS, *s.* [*συλλαβος*, Gr.] An abstract; a compendium containing the heads of a discourse.

SYLLATIN, a parish of England, in Salop; 4 miles north-by-west of Oswestry.

SYLLOGISM, *s.* [*συλλογισμος*, Gr.; *sylogisme*, Fr.] An argument composed of three propositions: as, *every man thinks; Peter is a man; therefore Peter thinks*.—What a miraculous thing should we count it, if the flint and the steel, instead of a few sparks, should chance to knock out definitions and *syllogisms*? *Bentley*.

SYLLOGISTICAL, or SYLLOGISTIC, *adj.* [*συλλογιστικος*, Gr.] Relating to a syllogism; consisting of a syllogism.—Though the terms of propositions may be complex, yet where the composition of the whole argument is thus plain, simple and regular, it is properly called a simple syllogism, since the complexion does not belong to the *syllogistic* form of it. *Watts*.

SYLLOGISTICALLY, *adv.* In the form of a syllogism.—A man knows first, and then he is able to prove *syllogistically*; so that syllogism comes after knowledge, when a man has no need of it. *Locke*.

SYLLOGIZATION, *s.* The act of reasoning by syllogism.—From mathematical bodies, and the truths resulting from them, they passed to the contemplation of truth in general; to the soul, and its powers both of intuition and *syllogization*. *Harris*.

To SYLLOGISE, *v. n.* [*syllogizer*, Fr.; *συλλογίζεσθαι*, Gr.] To reason by syllogism.—Logic is in effect, an art of *syllogizing*. *Baker*.—Men have endeavoured to transform logic into a kind of mechanism, and to teach boys to *syllogize*, or frame arguments and refute them, without real knowledge. *Watts*.

SYLLOGIZER, *s.* One who reasons by syllogism.—Every *syllogizer* is not presently a match to cope with Belarmine, Baronius, Stapleton. *Sir E. Dering*.

SYLPH, or SYLPHID, *s.* [*syph*, *syphide*, Fr. "nom que les cabalistes donnent aux prétendus génies élémentaires de l'air. Ce mot peut venir du Gr. *σολφη*, (*silphé*), "nom d'une espèce d'insecte qui ne veillit jamais." Morin.] A fabled being of the air.

SYLT, an island of Denmark, on the west coast of the duchy of Sleswick, belonging to the bailiwick of Tondern. It is of a very irregular form, 14 miles in length, and from 3 to 7 in width. It contains about 2700 inhabitants, of Friesland origin, employed partly in cultivating the ground, partly in the oyster fishery.

SYLVAN, *adj.* [Better *sylvan*.] Woody; shady; relating to woods.

Eternal greens the mossy margin grace,
Watch'd by the *sylvan* genius of the place.

Pope.

SYLVAN, *s.* [*sylvain*, Fr.] A wood-god, or satyr; perhaps sometimes a rustic.

Her private orchards wall'd on ev'ry side;
To lawless *sylvans* all access deny'd.

Pope.

SYLVERLEY, a hamlet of England, in Cambridgeshire; 3¼ miles east of Newmarket.

SYLVES, or SILVES, a small town of the south of Portugal, in the province of Algarva, pleasantly situated on a small river; 15 miles east-north-east of Lagos, and 39 west of Tavira. Population 2000.

SYLVIVS,

SYLVIUS (Francis and James), two eminent physicians. See the introduction to the article **PATHOLOGY**.

SYMBOL, *s.* [*symbolic*, Fr.; *συμβολον*, Gr.; *symbolum*, Latin.] An abstract; a compendium; a comprehensive form.—Beginning with the *symbol* of our faith, upon that the author of the gloss enquires into the nature of faith. *Baker*.—A type; that which comprehends in its figure a representation of something else.—A sign or badge to know one by; a memorial.

That as a sacred *symbol* it may dwell

In her sonne's fliest to mind revengement.

Spenser.

SYMBOLICAL, *adj.* [*symbolique*, Fr.; *συμβολικος*, Gr.] Representative; typical; expressing by signs; comprehending something more than itself.—The sacrament is a representation of Christ's death, by such *symbolical* actions as himself appointed. *Bp. Taylor*.

SYMBOLICALLY, *adv.* Typically; by representation.—It *symbolically* teaches our duty, and promotes charity by a real signature and a sensible sermon. *Bp. Taylor*.

SYMBOLIZATION, *s.* The act of symbolizing; representation; resemblance.—The hieroglyphical symbols of scripture, excellently intended in the species of things sacrificed in the dreams of Pharaoh, are oftentimes racked beyond their *symbolizations*. *Brown*.

To SYMBOLIZE, *v. n.* [*symboliser*, Fr.] To have something in common with another by representative qualities.—Our king finding himself to *symbolize* in many things with that king of the Hebrews, honoured him with the title of this foundation. *Bacon*.

To SYMBOLIZE, *v. a.* To make representative of something.—Some *symbolize* the same from the mystery of its colours. *Brown*.

SYMI, a small island near the coast of Asia Minor, shutting in the mouth of a small bay of the same name. The whole population reside in the town, which is built near the top of a high rocky mountain, and containing from 1800 to 2000 houses. The streets are in general from three to five feet wide, unpaved, hilly, rocky, steep, and dirty; but the houses are neat, whitewashed outside, and comfortable within. The island consists almost exclusively of mountains of rock, producing nothing but a little fruit in the gardens of the rich. Every necessary of life being imported, and the sea being their only resource, all the men of the place are naturally seamen. There are belonging to the island fifty trading vessels, and as many small fishing boats.

SYMINGTON, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, of nearly a circular figure, 3 miles in diameter. The surface is in general level. Population 364.—A parish in Ayrshire; about 4 miles long, and 14 broad. Population 656.

SYMMACHUS (Q. Aurelius Avianus), a Roman senator of the fourth century, became prefect of Rome, pontiff and augur, and proconsul of Africa. He vigorously resisted the changes that were made in the national religion by the triumphs of Christianity, and headed a deputation from the senate to the emperor Valentinian II. The petition above-mentioned is preserved in ten books of Symmachus's Epistles, still extant. "The luxuriancy of Symmachus," says Gibbon, "consists of barren leaves, without fruits, and even without flowers. Few facts, and few sentiments, can be extracted from his verbose correspondence."

SYMMETRICAL, *adj.* Commensurable. *Phillips*.—It was both the doctrine of the apostles, and the practice of the church, while it was *symmetrical*, to obey the magistrate. *More*.

SYMMETRIAN, *s.* One eminently studious of proportion.—His face was a thought longer than the exact *symmetrians* would allow. *Sidney*.

SYMMETRICAL, *adj.* Proportionate; having parts well adapted to each other.—I have known many a woman with an exact shape, and a *symmetrical* assemblage of beautiful features, please nobody. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

SYMMETRIST, *s.* One very studious or observant of proportion.—Some exact *symmetrists* have been blamed for being too true. *Wotton*.

To SYMMETRIZE, *v. a.* To make proportionate.—He would soon have supplied every deficiency, and *symmetrized* every disproportion. *Burke*.

SYMMETRY, *s.* [*symmetrie*, Fr.; *συν* and *μετρον*, Gr.] Adaptation of parts to each other; proportion; harmony; agreement of one part to another.

She by whose lines proportion should be

Examined, measure of all *symmetry*;

Whom had that ancient seer, who thought souls made

Of harmony, he would at next have said

That harmony was she.

Donne.

SYMONDSBURY, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 1 mile west of Bridport. Population 860.

SYMPATHETICAL, or **SYMPATHETIC**, *adj.* [*sympathetique*, Fr.] Having mutual sensation; being affected either by what happens to the other; feeling in consequence of what another feels.

To you our author makes her soft request,

Who speak the kindest, and who write the best:

Your *sympathetic* hearts she hopes to move,

From tender friendship and endearing love.

Prior.

SYMPATHETICALLY, *adv.* With sympathy; in consequence of sympathy.—He seems to have caught *sympathetically* Sandy's sudden impulse to break forth into a devout song at the awful and inspiring spectacle. *War-ton*.

To SYMPATHIZE, *v. n.* [*sympatiser*, Fr.] To feel with another; to feel in consequence of what another feels; to feel mutually.

Nature, in awe to him,

Hath doff'd her gaudy trim,

With her great master so to *sympathize*.

Milton.

To agree; to fit. *Not proper*.—Green is a pleasing colour, from a blue and a yellow mixed together, and by consequence blue and yellow are two colours which *sympathize*. *Dryden*.

SYMPATHY, *s.* [*sympathie*, Fr.; *συμπαθεια*, Gr.] Fellow-feeling; mutual sensibility; the quality of being affected by the suffering or pleasure of another.—You are not young; no more am I: go to, then, there's *sympathy*: you are merry, so am I; ha! ha! then there's more *sympathy*: you love sack, and so do I; would you desire better *sympathy*? *Shakspeare*.

SYMPHONIA, in Botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order pentandria.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved, permanent; leaflets roundish, very small, spreading. Corolla: petals five, roundish, subcoriaceous, concave, converging into a depressed globe. Stamina: filaments cylindric, sheathing the style. Anthers five, ovate, acute, alternate with the stigmas. Pistil: germ ovate. Style cylindric, a little longer than the corolla. Stigmas five, oblong, acute, spreading. Pericarp: berry five celled, globular. Seeds solitary, subglobular, smooth, flatter internally.—*Essential Character*. One-styled. Corolla globular. Berry five-celled.

Symphonia globulifera.—This is a tree with a thick lofty trunk. Branchlets shorter, smooth, marked with scars from the fallen leaves. Leaves at the end of the branchlets, approximating, lanceolate, entire, very smooth, glaucous, keeled underneath with a blunt rachis; veins very fine, transverse; consistence of bay leaves, a hand in length. Petioles very short, half round. Umbel terminating, simple, few flowered, sessile. Peduncles erect, angular, one-flowered.—Native of Surinam.

SYMPHO'NIUS, *adj.* Harmonious; agreeing in sound.

Up he rode,

Follow'd with acclamation and the sound

Symphonious of ten thousand harps, that tun'd

Angelic harmonies.

Milton.

SYMPHONY, *s.* [*symphonie*, Fr.; *συν* and *φωνη*, Gr.] Concert of instruments; harmony of mingled sounds.

The

The trumpets sound,

And warlike *symphony* is heard around;
The marching troops through Athens take their way;
The great earl-marshal orders their array. *Dryden.*

SYMPHORIEN, St., a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Gironde, with 1400 inhabitants; 30 miles south of Bourdeaux.

SYMPHORIEN DE LAY, St., a small town in the south of France, department of the Loire. Population 3300. It has some manufactures of woollens, cotton, and linen; also coal mines in the neighbourhood; 8 miles south-east of Roanne, and 24 north-west of Lyons.

SYMPHORIEN D'OZON, St., a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Isere. Population 1300; 8 miles north of Vienna, and 9 south of Lyons.

SYMPHORIEN SUR COISE, St., a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Rhone. Population 1800. It has some manufactures of leather and nails; 18 miles south-west of Lyons.

SYMPHYSIS, s. [*συν* and *φωσ*, Gr.] In Anatomy, an immoveable union of bones.—*Symphysis*, in its original signification, denotes a connascency, or growing together; and perhaps is meant of those bones which in young children are distinct, but after some years unite and consolidate into one bone. *Wiseman.*

SYMPHYTUM [of Pliny. *Συμφυτον* of Dioscorides: *απο του συμφυνει*, from its conglutinating quality], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of asperifoliae, boragineae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, erect, five-cornered, acute, permanent. Corolla: one petalled, bell-shaped; tube very short; border tubular-bellying, a little thicker than the tube; mouth five-toothed, obtuse, reflexed; throat fenced by five lanceolate rays, spinulose at the edge, shorter than the border, converging into a cone. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, alternate with the rays of the throat. Anthers acute, erect, covered. Pistil: germs four. Style filiform, length of the corolla. Stigma simple. Pericarp none. Calyx larger, widened. Seeds four, gibbous, acuminate, converging at the tips.—*Essential Character.* Corolla: border tubular-ventricose; throat closed by lanceolate rays.

1. *Symphytum officinale*, or common comfrey.—Root perennial, fleshy, externally black. Stem two or three feet high, upright, leafy, winged, branched at the top, clothed with short bristly hairs that point rather downward. Leaves waved, pointed, rough; the radical ones on footstalks, and broader than the rest. Clusters of flowers in pairs on a common stalk, with an odd flower between them. Corolla yellowish-white, sometimes purple, the rays downy at each edge.—Native of Europe and Siberia: frequent in watery places, on the banks of rivers and ditches: flowering from the end of May to September. There are two varieties; one with purple flowers.

2. *Symphytum tuberosum*, or tuberous-rooted comfrey.—Leaves ovate, semicurrent; the uppermost opposite. Roots composed of many thick fleshy knobs or tubers, which are joined by fleshy fibres; the stalks rise a foot and half high, and incline on one side. The two upper leaves on every branch stand opposite, and just above them, are loose bunches of pale yellow flowers, the corolla of which, is stretched out farther beyond the calyx than in the common sort.—Native of Germany, Austria, France, Spain and Italy.

3. *Symphytum orientale*.—Leaves ovate, subpetioled. Root perennial. Stalks two feet high. Flowers in bunches like the first sort, but blue. They appear in March, but seldom produce seeds in England.—By the side of rivulets near Constantinople.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants may be cultivated, either by sowing their seeds in the spring, or by parting their roots; the latter, being the more expeditious, is chiefly practised. The best season for parting the roots is the autumn, at which time almost every piece of the root will grow. They should be planted about two feet and a

half asunder, that they may have room to spread, and will require no farther care than to keep them clear from weeds; for they are extremely hardy, and will grow upon almost any soil, or in any situation.

SYMPLOCOS [*Απο του συμπλεκεσθαι*, on account of the rare connection of the petals. *Jacquin.*], in Botany, a genus of the class polyadelphia, order polyandria, natural order of guaiacanae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, bell-shaped, five-cleft, small; segments roundish, erect. Corolla: petals five or eight, oblong, obtuse, erect, spreading very much above. Stamina: filaments very many, awl-shaped, flat, shorter than the petals, growing in four rows to the tube of the corolla; the lower ones shorter. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ superior, roundish. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma headed, subtrifid. Pericarp: five-celled. Seeds many.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Corolla five-petalled (five to eight), erect at the base. Stamina in four rows, growing to the tube of the corolla. Fruit five-celled.

1. *Symplocos Martinicensis*.—This is a branching tree, twenty-five feet high. Leaves ovate, acute, shining, subcoriaceous, petioled, placed indeterminately. Flowers white, smelling like those of hawthorn. Filaments inserted into a pentapetalous corolla, so as to render it internally monopetalous, by connecting the edges of the petals with their flat bases.—Native of Martinico, in woods; flowering there in November.

2. *Symplocos cipunima*.—Peduncles many-flowered; leaves entire, villose beneath. The shoots of this species are very villose.—Native of Guiana.

3. *Symplocos arechea*.—Peduncles about five-flowered; leaves serrate, almost naked.—Native of the woods of Peru.

4. *Symplocos octopetala*.—Flowers eight-petalled.—Native of Jamaica.

SYMPOSIAC, adj. [*symposiaque*, Fr.; *συμποσιακος*, Gr.] Relating to merry makings; happening where company is drinking together.—In some of those *symposiac* disputations amongst my acquaintance, I affirmed that the dietetic part of medicine depended upon scientific principles. *Arbutnot.*

SYMPOSIUM, s. [Lat.] A feast; a merry making; a drinking together.—It appears that the company dined so very late (in 1609), as at half an hour after eleven in the morning; and that it was the fashion to ride to this polite *symposium* on a Spanish jennet, a servant running before with his master's cloak. *Warton.*

SIMPSON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 2 miles from Fenny Stratford.

SYMPTOM, s. [*synptomc*, Fr.; *συμπτωμα*, Gr.] Something that happens concurrently with something else, not as the original cause, nor as the necessary or constant effect.—The *symptoms*, as Dr. Sydenham remarks, which are commonly scorbutic, are often nothing but the principles or seeds of a growing, but unripe gout. *Blackmore.*—A sign; a token.—Ten glorious campaigns are passed, and now, like the sick man, we are expiring with all sorts of good *symptoms*. *Swift.*

SYMPTOMATICAL, or SYMPTOMAT'IC, adj. [*symptomatique*, Fr.] Happening concurrently, or occasionally.—*Symptomatical* is often used to denote the difference between the primary and secondary causes in diseases; as a fever from pain is said to be *symptomatical*, because it arises from pain only; and therefore the ordinary means in fevers are not in such cases to be had recourse to, but to what will remove the pain; for when that ceases, the fever will cease, without any direct means taken for that. *Quincy.*—By fomentation and a cataplasm the swelling was discussed; and the fever, then appearing but *symptomatical*, lessened as the heat and pain mitigated. *Wiseman.*

SYMPTOMAT'ICALLY, adv. In the nature of a symptom.—The causes of a bubo are vicious humours abounding in the blood, or in the nerves, excreted sometimes critically, sometimes *symptomatically*. *Wiseman.*

SYNAGO'GICAL, adj. Pertaining to a synagogue.

SYNAGOGUE, *s.* [*synagogue*, Fr.; *συναγωγή*, Gr.] An assembly of the Jews to worship.—Go, Tubal, and meet me at our *synagogue*. *Shakspeare*.

SYNALEPHA, *s.* [*συναλοιφή*, Gr.] A contraction or excision of a syllable in a Latin verse, by joining together two vowels in the scanning or cutting off the ending vowel; as, *ill' ego*.—Virgil, though smooth, is far from affecting it: he frequently uses *synalephas*, and concludes his sense in the middle of his verse. *Dryden*.

SYNARCHY, *s.* [*συναρχία*, Gr.] Joint sovereignty.—The *synarchies* or joint reigns of father and son have rendered the chronology a little difficult. *Stackhouse*.

SYNARTHROSIS, *s.* [*συν* and *αρθρωσις*, Gr.] A close conjunction of two bones.—There is a conspicuous motion where the conjunction is called diarthrosis, as in the elbow; an obscure one, where the conjunction is called *synarthrosis*, as in the joining of the carpus to the metacarpus. *Wiseman*.

SYNA'XIS, *s.* [*συναξις*, Gr.] A meeting of persons; a congregation.—They celebrated their *synaxes* and communions in grots and retirements. *Bp. Taylor*.

SYNBRANCHUS, a genus of fishes of the order Apodes, established by naturalists since the time of Linnæus. The body is eel-shaped; it has no pectoral fins, and the spiracle is single beneath the neck. This genus differs from the *Muraena*, in the circumstance of the spiracles or branchial orifice being single, and situated beneath the throat.

1. *Synbranchus marmoratus*, or olive-brown *Synbranchus*, marbled with blackish spots; the body is yellowish beneath.—The general appearance of this animal is that of a *muraena*: it is about 30 inches long; the head is large, short, and thick; mouth moderately wide, and furnished with several rows of small conical teeth; the tongue is connate; lips fleshy, nostrils simple, seated near the eyes, which are blue; the skin of the body is thick and loose; the back is of a deep olive-colour, with dusky spots; the belly and sides are of a yellowish cast, and the spots on those parts have a tinge of violet.—Native of the fresh waters of Surinam.

2. *Synbranchus immaculatus*.—This is of a plain unvariegated brown colour: it is much allied in general form to the preceding, but is considerably smaller, and very different in colour, being nearly of an uniform brown throughout, with the exception of a few very obscure sub-transverse dusky shades across the body, and a few whitish marblings on the fins.—Native of Surinam.

3. *Synbranchus spagebranchus* is much allied to the preceding.—It has an eel-shaped body, and no pectoral fins: it has two spiracles beneath the neck.

4. *Synbranchus rostratus*, with the upper lip produced into a snout.—This fish, as described by Dr. Bloch, measures about nine inches, and is of a cylindric form, destitute both of fins and scales. The upper jaw is considerably longer than the lower, being indeed sharpened into a snout: the two spiracles or branchial orifices are situated at about an inch beyond the mouth, immediately beneath the neck.—The colour, pale brown.

SYNBORG, a town of Denmark, in the island of Funen, which, though small, has a large and commodious harbour.

SYNCHONDROSIS, *s.* [*συν* and *χονδρος*, Gr.] *Synchondrosis* is a union by gristles; as of the sternon to the ribs. *Wiseman*.

SYNCHRONAL, *adj.* [*συν* and *χρονος*, Gr.] Happening at the same time; belonging to the same time.—The glorious estate of the church, which is *synchroal* to the second and third thunder. *More*.

SYNCHRONAL, *s.* That which happens at the same time, or belongs to the same time, with another thing.—The near cognation and colligation of those seven *synchronals* that are contemporary to the six first trumpets. *More*.

SYNCHRONICAL, *adj.* [*συν* and *χρονος*, Gr.] Happening together at the same time.—It is difficult to make out how the air is conveyed into the left ventricle of the heart, the systole and diastole of the heart and lungs being far from *synchroal*. *Boyle*.

SYNCHRONISM, *s.* [*συν* and *χρονος*, Gr.] Concurrence of events happening at the same time.—The coherence and *synchroism* of all the parts of the Mosaical chronology; after the Flood, bear a most regular testimony to the truth of his history. *Hale*.

To **SYNCHRONIZE**, *v. n.* To concur at the same time; to agree in regard to the same time.—The most genuine sense to me, is to *synchroize* with the history of that time wherein John lived. *Dr. Robinson*.

SYNCHRONOUS, *adj.* [*συν* and *χρονος*, Gr.] Happening at the same time.—The variations of the gravity of the air keep both the solids and fluids in an oscillatory motion, *synchroous* and proportional to their changes. *Arbutnot*.

SYNCHYSIS, *s.* [*συν* and *χυσις*, Gr.] A confusion; a confused arrangement of words in a sentence.—The English translator hath expressed the sense, but not translated strictly to the words, by reason of the *synchysis* and involved and perplexed trajection being not well distinguished. *Knatchbull*.

To **SYNCOPATE**, *v. a.* To contract; to abbreviate, by taking from the middle of a word.—The tyrant time, which hath swallowed many names, hath also in use of speech changed more by contracting, *syncoating*, curtailing, and mollifying them. *Camden*.—[In Music.] To divide a note. See **SYNCOPE**.

SYNCOPE, *s.* [*syncope*, Fr.; *συνκοπή*, Gr.] Fainting.—The symptoms attending gun shot wounds are pain, fever, delirium, and *syncope*. *Wiseman*.—Contraction of a word by cutting off a part in the middle.—The division of a note, used when two or more notes of one part answer to a single one of the other. *Mus. Dict.*

SYNCOPIST, *s.* Contractor of words.—To outshine all the modern *syncopists*, and thoroughly content my English readers, I intend to publish a *Spectator* that shall not have a single vowel in it. *Spectator*.

To **SYNCOPIZE**, *v. a.* To contract; to abridge.—Whether to ascribe this to some modish affectation of times and humours, or more particularly to a poetical humour of *syncoipizing* and contracting their words. *Dalgarno*.

To **SYNDICATE**, *v. a.* [*syndiquer*, Fr.; *συν* and *δικη*, Gr.] To judge; to pass judgment on; to censure. *An unusual word*.—Aristotle undertook to censure and *syndicate* his master, and all law-makers before him. *Make-will*.

SYNDIC, *s.* [*syndic*, Fr.; *συν* and *δικη*, Gr.] A kind of chief magistrate; a curator.—May it please you, that Dr. Guining and Dr. Pearson may be your legal *syndicks* for you, and in your name, to treat and conclude with the said archbishop concerning his and your right and interest in the said books. *Grace in the Senate*.

SYNDROME, *s.* [*συνδρομη*, Gr.] Concurrent action; concurrence.—All things being linked together by an uninterrupted chain of causes, every single motion owns a dependance on such a *syndrome* of preredquired motors. *Glanville*.

SYNECDOCHE, *s.* [*synecdoche*, Fr.; *συνεκδοχη*, Gr.] A figure by which part is taken for the whole, or the whole for part.—Because they are instruments of grace in the hand of God, and by these his holy spirit changes our hearts: therefore the whole work is attributed to them by a *synecdoche*; that is, they do in this manner the work for which God ordained them. *Bp. Taylor*.

SYNECDOCHICAL, *adj.* Expressed by a *synecdoche*; implying a *synecdoche*.—Should I, Lindamer, bring you into hospitals, and shew you there how many souls, narrowly lodged in *synecdochical* bodies, see their earthen cottages moulder away to dust, those miserable persons, by the loss of one limb after another, surviving but part of themselves, and living to see themselves dead and buried by piecemeal? *Boyle*.

SYNECDOCHICALLY, *adv.* According to a *synecdochical* way of speaking.—Thus did our Saviour rise from the dead on the third day properly; and was three days and three nights in the earth *synecdochically*. *Pearson*.

SYNERGISTICK,



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SYNGNATHUS AND TETRODON.



1 *Hippocampus foliatus*. 2 *Hippocampus*. 3 *Thysanurus*. 4 *Tetrodon lineatus*. 5 *Tetrodon lineatus*.

J. Bass sc.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Britannica, 1797.

SYNERGISTICK, *adj.* [*συνεργιστικός*, Gr.] Co-operating.—Luther's notions of the irresistible decrees, which he afterwards published in his book *De servo arbitrio*, shocked both parties, and caused a kind of revolution on all sides. The papists raised an outcry against their own doctrine, when expressed in so unguarded a manner: and the Saxon divines, with Melancthon at their head, silently withdrew themselves from their master Luther in this point; and struck out, or rather adopted, another system, viz., the *synergistical*. On this system of the co-operation of grace and free-will, the Augustan confession is wholly built. *Dean Tucker*.

SYNGNATHUS, the PIPE-FISH. The name *syngnathus* is of Grecian origin, and is formed of the word *συν*, which in composition signifies the same as the Latin *con*, together, and *γνάθος*, a jaw. It is given to this fish from that remarkable structure of its mouth, by which the jaws are made to grow together, and the very end of the mouth only opens.

The head of this fish is very small; the snout nearly cylindrical, long, turned up at the end; mouth terminal, without teeth or tongue, and furnished with a lid; the lower jaw is moveable; gill-covers are large, striate and closed; the spiracle on the nape is tubular; the body is jointed, and mailed with many-sided scales: it has no ventral fins.

The fish of this genus inhabit the ocean, near the shores; they feed on lesser worms and insects, and the spawn of other fish: under the tail, commencing at the vent, is a longitudinal groove, concealing the young and the eggs; the eyes of the animal are small, covered at the sides with a membrane; the nostrils are near the eyes, but scarcely to be seen; the palate is smooth; the gill-membrane is very thin, placed on the nape; the fins are small, thin, the rays undivided; it has now lateral line. Gmelin enumerates eight species, of which four are found on the coasts of our own country, to which Stow adds two: we will give the most striking.

1. *Syngnathus hippocampus*.—This species has no caudal fin; the body is seven-sided, tuberculate; the tail is square. This fish has a very singular appearance; it is generally from six to ten inches in length; the body is much compressed; it is of a greenish-brown, varied with darker and lighter specks; the head is large and rather thick, and beset on the upper part, as well as along some of the first joints of the body, with several small, weak, lengthened spines, or cirri, which are sometimes slightly ramified; the snout is slender, the neck suddenly contracting beyond the head; the body is rather short, and suddenly contracting towards the tail, which is long, quadrangular, and terminates in a naked or finless tip. In its dry or contracted state, this animal exhibits the fancied resemblance from which it takes its name, but in the living fish this appearance is somewhat less striking; the head and tail being carried nearly straight.—It is a native of the Mediterranean, Northern, and Atlantic seas.

2. *Syngnathus foliatus*, or foliated pipe-fish.—This is a most extraordinary species, far exceeding all the others in the singularity of its appearance, which at first view rather suggests the idea of some production of fancy than of any real existence. It is longer in proportion, or of a more slender habit, than the other pipe-fish. Its great peculiarity consists in the large leaf-shaped appendages with which the back, tail, and abdomen, are furnished; these appendages are situated on very strong rough square spines or processes; and, were it not for the perfect regularity of their respective proportions, might be mistaken for the leaves of some kind of fucus adhering to the spines. The colour of the whole animal is of a dusky or blackish-olive, thickly sprinkled on all parts, except on the appendages, with small round whitish specks, and accompanied by a kind of metallic gloss on the abdomen; the fins are soft, tender, and transparent.—This curious species is a native of the Indian seas.

SYNNEURO'SIS, *s.* [*συν* and *νευρον*, Gr.] *Synneurosis*

is when the connexion is made by a ligament. Of this in symphysis we find instances, in the connexion of the ossa pubis together, especially in women, by a ligamentous substance. In articulation, it is either round, as that which unites the head of the os femoris to the coxa; or broad, as the tendon of the patella, which unites it to the os tibie. *Wiseman*.

SY'NOD, *s.* [*λεονος*, Sax.; *synode*, Fr.; *συνδος*, Gr.] An assembly called for consultation: it is used particularly of ecclesiastics. A provincial *synod* is commonly used, and a general *council*.—The glorious gods sit in hourly *synod* about thy particular prosperity. *Shakspeare*.—Conjunction of the heavenly bodies.

Their planetary motions and aspects
Of noxious efficacy, and when to join
In *synod* unbenign.

Milton.

SY'NODAL, *s.* Money paid anciently to the bishop, &c., at Easter visitation.—*Synodals* were [anciently] the publication or recital of the provincial constitutions in the parish churches. *Wheatly*.

SY'NODAL, **SY'NODIC**, or *Synodical*, *adj.* [*synodique*, *synodal*, French.] Relating to a synod; transacted in a synod.—St. Athanasius writes a *synodical* epistle to those of Antioch, to compose the differences among them upon the ordination of Paulinus. *Stillingfleet*.—[*Synodique*, Fr.] Reckoned from one conjunction with the sun to another.—The diurnal and annual revolutions of the sun, to us are the measures of day and year; and the *synodic* revolution of the moon measures the month. *Holder*.

SY'NODENDRON, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order coleoptera. The Generic Character is as follows:—Antennæ clavate, the club lamellate; thorax gibbous, muricate or unequal; lip filiform, horny, palpigerous at the tip. There are four species:—

1. *Synodendron cylindricum*.—Thorax truncate before, five-toothed; head with an erect horn. The female is unarmed.—It is found in this country and other parts of Europe.

2. *Synodendron muricatum*.—Thorax muricate, gibbous; shells two-spined before the tip. The shells are dull testaceous, retuse behind, with a long hooked tooth at the suture, and another lesser one at the margin; the antennæ are testaceous.—It inhabits Europe and America, in woods.

3. *Synodendron capæcinus*.—Shells entire, black; thorax rough before. The thorax has numerous raised denticles before; the shells are naked, retuse at the tip.—It inhabits Coromandel.

4. *Synodendron dominicanum*.—Smooth, black, dusky; shells striate; legs pitchy. The head is black, bent under the thorax; the thorax is prominent before; shells entire, striate.—It inhabits South America, and is a very small insect.

SY'NODICALLY, *adv.* By the authority of a synod or public assembly.—It shall be needful for those churches *synodically* to determine something in those points. *Sanderson*.

SY'NONYMA, *s. pl.* [*συνωνυμος*, Gr.] Names which signify the same thing.

Every tinker for his chink may cry,
Rogue, bawd, and cheater, call you by the surnames
And known *synonyma* of your profession. *B. Jonson*.

SY'NONYMAL, *adj.* [*συνωνυμος*, Gr.] Synonymous.—Repetitions here, and doubled sentences, and enlargements by *synonymal* words, &c. before the shutting up of the period, are but necessary. *Instruct. for Orat.*

SY'NONYMALLY, *adv.* Synonymously.—The fifth canon uses *synonymally*. *Spelman*.

SY'NONYME, *s.* [*synonyme*, Fr.; from the Gr. *συν*, with, and *ονομα*, name, Eol. *ονυμα*.] A word of the same meaning as some other word. *Mason*.—Most *synonymes* have some minute distinction. *Reid*.

To **SY'NONYMISE**, *v. a.* To express the same thing
in

in different words.—This word fortis we may *synonymise* after all these fashions—stout, hardy, valiant, doughty, courageous, adventurous, brave, bold, daring, intrepid. *Camden*.

SYNONYMOUS, *adj.* [συνωνυμος, Gr.] Expressing the same thing by different words; having the same signification; univocal.—When two or more words signify the same thing, as wave and billow, mead and meadow, they are usually called *synonymous* words. *Watts*.—Fortune is but a *synonymous* word for nature and necessity. *Bentley*.

SYNONYMOUSLY, *adv.* In a synonymous manner.—It is often used *synonymously* with words which signify any kind of production or formation. *Pearson*.

SYNONYMY, *s.* [συνωνυμια, Gr.] The quality of expressing by different words the same thing.—We having three rivers of note, *synonymies* with her. *Selden*.

SYNOPSIS, *s.* [συνολις, Gr.] A general view; all the parts brought under one view.—Breviaries, *synopses*, and other loitering gear. *Milton*.

SYNOPTICAL, *adj.* Affording a view of many parts at once.—We have collected so many *synoptical* tables, calculated for his monthly use. *Evelyn*.

SYNOPTICALLY, *adv.* In a synoptical manner.—I shall more *synoptically* here insert a catalogue of all dying materials. *Sir W. Petty*.

SYNTACTICAL, *adj.* [from *syntaxis*, Lat.] Conjoined; fitted to each other. Relating to the construction of speech.—A figure is divided into tropes, &c., grammatical, orthographical, *syntactical*. *Peacham*.

SYNTAX, or **SYNTAXIS**, *s.* [συνταξις, Gr.] A system; a number of things joined together.—They owe no other dependance to the first than what is common to the whole *syntax* of beings. *Glanville*.—That part of grammar which teaches the construction of words.—To make the word gift, like the river Mole in Surrey, to run under the bottom of a long line, and so start up to govern the word presbytery, as in immediate *syntaxis*. *Milton*.

SYNTERESIS, *s.* [συν and τρησις, Gr.] A remorse of conscience.—Though the principles of *synteresis*, the seeds of piety, and virtue, scattered and disseminated in the soul, to bring forth the fruit of virtue and felicity, may be trampled on and kept under, cropped and snibbed, by the bestial part; yet they will sometimes be starting out, sprouting, and putting forth themselves. *Bp. Ward*.

SYNTHESIS, *s.* [συνθεσις, Gr.] The act of joining: opposed to *analysis*.

SYNTHETIC, or **SYNTHETICAL**, *adj.* [συνθετικος, Gr.; *synthetique*, Fr.] Conjoining; compounding; forming composition: opposed to *analytic*.—*Synthetic* method is that which begins with the parts, and leads onward to the knowledge of the whole; it begins with the most simple principles and general truths, and proceeds by degrees to that which is drawn from them or compounded of them; and therefore it is called the method of composition. *Watts*.

SYNTHETICALLY, *adv.* By synthesis.—The plan proceeds *synthetically* from parts to the whole. *Walker*.

SYPHON, *s.* A tube; a pipe.—Take your glass, *siphon*, or crane, and draw it off from its last faces into small bottles. *Mortimer*.

SYPOMBA, an island on the coast of Brazil, about 7 leagues north-east of St. John's island, and north-west from a range of islands which form the great bay of Para.

SYTOTUBA, one of the head branches of the river Paraguay, in South America.

SYRA, or **SYROS**, an island of the archipelago, lying in the midst of the Cyclades, near Delos, in Lat. 27. 22. N. long. 24. 34. E. Its length is about 14, its circumference nearly 36 miles. Its surface is mountainous, but its soil productive. Its climate, like that of the surrounding islands, is very mild, winter being scarcely perceptible, and the heats of summer moderated by the sea breezes. Hence the trees rarely lose their verdure. The products are wheat, barley, wine, olives, honey, cotton, and several kinds of fruit.

SYRACUSE, a celebrated town of Sicily, situated in the south-east of the island, and possessing, in ancient times, a larger population than Athens, or any of the Grecian cities. This estimate, sanctioned by the authority of Thucydides, Strabo, and Cicero, receives confirmation from the nature of the locality, and the still remaining traces of the walls. Syracuse had two harbours, of which the larger is a basin of nearly two miles in length, and the above one in width, with an entrance sufficiently wide for navigation, and sufficiently contracted for defence. To this, and to the means of easy defence on the land side, were owing its increase and eventual magnitude. It was founded by a colony of Corinthians about 736 years before the birth of our Saviour, and was governed at one time as a republic, at another by Gelon, Hiero, and other rulers. The siege by the Athenians, so impressively described by Thucydides, took place 414 years before Christ; the government of Dionysius the Elder, and Timoleon, in less than half a century after. Syracuse was taken by the Romans 212 years before Christ, and continued in their possession until the inroads of the Barbarians on the downfall of the empire.

The shape of ancient Syracuse was triangular, one side being formed by the sea, the other by a line of rock, the third by a strong wall. The city consisted of four parts, that called Ortygia, situated between the two harbours; Acradina, a more extensive quarter, extending along the sea side from north to south; Tyche, an inland and equally large division, and finally, Neapolis, forming the west extremity of the city, and defended by a high and strong ground. The space thus occupied was of great extent, being equal to rather more than half the ground covered by London, Westminster, and Southwark. It was not, however, closely inhabited; for the population could not at any time have exceeded a sixth of that of the English metropolis; nor would it, strong as is its position, have been capable of repelling so formidable an army as that of the Athenians under Nicias, or to resist, during three years, the Romans under Marcellus, had not the difficulties of besieging been far greater in ancient than in modern times.

At present, the only inhabited part of Syracuse is the south-east corner, containing Ortygia and part of Acradina. It is insulated, walled, and entered by draw-bridges. The streets are regular, but narrow; the houses tolerably built. The population is not above 15,000. The cathedral or principal church is the ancient temple of Minerva. The palace of Dionysius, his tomb, the baths of Daphnis, and other ancient buildings, have disappeared; but there remains the ancient amphitheatre, of an oval form, above 300 feet in length, and 200 in width; the arena, the seats, and the passages of communication, were cut out of the rock; and enough yet remains, to convey an idea of its ancient grandeur. In 1810 a beautiful statue of Venus was dug out from among ruins. There still remains a considerable part of the long wall built on the north side of the town by Dionysius; its height does not exceed seven feet, but it is ten feet in thickness, and exhibits a very solid mass of masonry. The catacombs continue in existence, and form another remarkable feature of Syracuse. The speaking grotto, or, as it was called by the ancients, the Ear of Dionysius, is a cave of 170 feet in length, 60 in height, and from 20 to 35 in width, with so strong an echo, that the slightest noise is overheard in the small chamber near the entrance, in which Dionysius is said to have listened to the conversation of his prisoners.

The fountain of Arethusa can no longer boast of ornament, being the resort of the laundresses of the place. It continues, however, a striking object, from its discharge of water, which is such as to resemble the stream of a river. The fountain of Cyane, a few miles from the town, has also a copious discharge. The harbour exists in all its beauty. It is capable of receiving vessels of the greatest burden, and of containing a very numerous fleet. Though at present entirely neglected, it might easily be rendered a great naval and commercial station. The environs of Syracuse are fertile. The exports from the town are limited to wine, oil, hemp, nitre, and some

some wheat. The climate is mild, and the town well adapted for a winter residence, but in summer it is rendered unhealthy by the marshes at the head of the harbour; it is 30 miles south-south-east of Catania, and 80 south-south-west of Messina. Lat. 37. 3. 0. N. long. 15. 27. 3. E.

SYREN. See SIREN.

SYRESHAM, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 4 miles north-east of Brackley. Population 593.

SYRESTON, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 5 miles south-west of Newark.

SYRIA, a fine country of Asia, situated along the most interior coast of the Mediterranean, which bounds it on the west, while on the north Mount Taurus and its branches divide it from Asia Minor, and on the east a vast and trackless desert, stretching northwards from Arabia, and partaking of the dreariest character of that region, separates it at an undefined point from the Persian or independent provinces of Kurdistan and Irak Arabi. On the north it has Palestine. That country, indeed, has been often considered as part of Syria, the frontier of which would thus be extended to Arabia and Egypt. As, however, Palestine has already been described at some length, it will be in a great measure excluded from our present description of Syria.

There is no country in Asia more celebrated in antiquity, or which recalls more solemn recollections than Syria. In the earliest periods of the Jewish history, we find it already formed into a powerful kingdom, having Damascus for its capital. Its most remarkable district, however, consisted of the sea coast, entitled Phœnicia, in which commerce first derived its origin, and flourished to a degree unexampled in ancient times, unless in its own colony of Carthage. After the conquests and death of Alexander, Syria was erected by his lieutenant, Seleucus, into a separate kingdom, which at first comprehended the whole west of Asia, and even after its limits were reduced, opposed, under Antiochus, a long and vigorous resistance to the Roman arms. Even under Rome, Antioch was still the splendid and luxurious capital of the east, and next to Rome itself, and to Alexandria, the greatest city in the empire. On the rise of the Saracen power, Syria, exposed to their immediate inroads, was among the first to fall under their sway. Soon, however, when the crusading armies poured into Asia, it became the grand theatre of contest between the armies of the cross and the crescent; and its plains, during many ages, were deluged with blood. At length the Moslem force triumphed over armies whose resources were at so great a distance, and whose strength lay only in the romantic enthusiasm with which they were animated. Syria was finally absorbed in the Turkish empire, of which it has formed one of the richest appendages. Its situation, however, is sufficiently distant to make it be with difficulty kept in regular subjection. Chiefs have from time to time started up, who have for some time set the power of the Porte at defiance. Among the earliest was Fackerdin, emir of the Druses, a well known people, inhabiting the mountainous district of Lebanon. Not contented with reigning over them as a tributary prince, he made himself master of Bairout, and successively of all the towns on the Syrian coast. He pretended to be only the instrument of the Porte in punishing refractory pachas, and recommended himself by remitting a larger tribute than before. He remained for a considerable time almost absolute master of Syria, till, having abandoned himself to ease and luxury, which he had learned during a visit to Italy, the Porte, whose jealousy was now fully awakened, sent against him a strong force, by which the emir was defeated, taken, and put to death. His posterity, however, continued to administer the affairs of the Druses, but entirely as vassals of the Porte. About the middle of the last century, Daher, a powerful Arabian sheik, established in Syria a power so independent, that the Porte, in order to preserve any form of allegiance, was obliged first to grant him an annual lease of his dominions, and then to confirm it to his successor; thus rendering him completely an independent sovereign. At length the Porte, determined to vindicate his power, dispatched a large army into Syria; and though Daher, fortified by the alliance

of the celebrated Ali Bey, gained repeated victories, he was ultimately overpowered and put to death. During his administration, he had greatly improved the condition of Syria. He made no distinctions in point of religion; and his justice had established among the people a sense of security elsewhere unknown in Turkey. His successor was the celebrated Dsjezzar Pacha, who soon raised a power almost equally independent, but the savage energy of whose administration was not accompanied by the improving and protecting system of his predecessor. The reign of this chief was rendered remarkable by the invasion of Syria by Buonaparte, when Dsjezzar, with the aid of British seamen gave that dreaded commander the first serious check he had received. After the death of Dsjezzar, the power reverted to the Porte, and Soleiman was appointed Pacha. About this time the state of Syria became critical, in consequence of the formidable inroad of the Wahabis, who had entirely blocked up the route to Mecca. They would no longer permit the great armed caravan from Damascus to proceed thither, though they allowed passage to single and unarmed pilgrims. The porte sent repeated injunctions to the pacha to avenge this insult to the majesty of the empire. Under this impulse, Abdallah, pacha of Damascus, undertook repeated expeditions, but was always obliged to return without reaching Mecca. He was supplanted by Yussuf Pacha, who made a good governor, and by a just and protecting system, had greatly improved the territory under his jurisdiction; but he was not successful in resisting the Wahabis who, advancing through the Syrian desert, alarmed Damascus itself. Another deadly sin of Yussuf was the being very sparing in his remittances to the Porte, who therefore transferred the pachalic of Damascus to Soleiman, under whose government Acre and Tripoli had already been placed. In 1811, accordingly, when Mr. Burekhardt was at Damascus, Soleiman reigned over the whole of Syria and Palestine, except the pachalic of Aleppo.

The leading feature in the physical aspect of Syria consists in the great mountain chain traversing it from south to north, and known, from its highest pinnacle near Tripoli and Bairout, under the name of Lebanon, or Libanus. Connected with Mount Casius, which stretches farther to the north, it forms a continued range, locking in with Mount Taurus on the frontier of Asia Minor. While Lebanon faces the Mediterranean, a parallel chain, called Anti Libanus, looks eastward upon the Syrian desert. Thus Syria, in its inhabited districts, may be considered as a country of valleys; but many of these valleys are blessed with extreme fertility, as well as with the utmost felicity of climate. That interposed between Lebanon and the Mediterranean, where it is of any breadth, yields amply all the richest products, being preserved, by the vicinity both of the mountains and the sea, from that aridity which forms the usual source of sterility in tropical regions. Besides all the most valuable grains, its fruits are held in especial esteem, particularly the oranges of Tripoli, the figs of Bairout, and the pistachios of Aleppo. As we ascend the sloping sides of Lebanon, all the varieties of European climate are successively experienced. These mountain tracks being possessed by free and industrious tribes, are much more diligently cultivated than the plains, whose tenants are continually exposed to the extortions of the pachas. The vine and the mulberry are reared by care to great perfection; silks and wines are produced, which rival those of Italy and France. Olives and tobacco are also cultivated successfully, and to a great extent. Lebanon is chiefly composed of lime-stone, and presents those castellated rocks, and those extensive caves, which are characteristic of that formation. To the east of this chain vast plains extend, which, as long as they are refreshed with any portion of its moisture, yield most abundant crops of grain. The plains of the Hauran and the Lesge, to the south of Damascus, are peculiarly celebrated for their fertility. From this to the Euphrates, a vast track of desert intervenes, entirely given up to the wandering tribes of the Bedouins.

The commerce of Syria has never been so great in modern

as in ancient times, and may now be stated as inconsiderable. Scanderoon, Tripoli, Saide, and other ports on the Mediterranean, are the residence of a few Frank merchants, and carry on a limited intercourse with Europe. A very extensive land communication has generally been carried on from Syria, with Arabia, Persia, and the interior of Asia; but the domination of the Wahabis in the former country, and the civil wars in the latter, have almost entirely blocked up the passage of the pilgrims and caravans. This circumstance, with the oppression of the pachas, has nearly ruined this celebrated emporium of Syria. The city contains only a small proportion of its former inhabitants, and the plains round it lie deserted and uncultivated. The vicinity of Damascus, on the contrary, which depends more upon agriculture, and has been mildly ruled, exhibits an appearance of populousness and prosperity.

The political state of Syria does not differ from that of the rest of Asiatic Turkey, to which general head we shall here refer. Few countries present a greater variety of population. Its open plains, separated by no defined boundary from Arabia, Persia, and Asia Minor, are variously occupied by the wandering population of these respective countries. Turks and Greeks form, as elsewhere, the basis of population in the cities. The only tribes which can be considered as appropriate to Syria, are the tenants of the heights of Lebanon. The most remarkable of these are the Druses and the Maronites. The former have been sometimes represented as Christians; and a slight resemblance of name has been employed to make them appear original followers of a Count de Dreux, who made a figure in Palestine during the crusades. In fact, however, the Druses are mentioned prior to that era. They are the votaries of Hakem, the caliph of Egypt, who in the 11th century set up pretensions to divinity, and recommended his faith by the abolition of fasting, circumcision, and all the burdensome parts of the Mahometan ritual. The Druses have ever since lived with little outward form of religion, the observances of which are chiefly confined to the okkal or doctors. Their language, which is pure Arabic, clearly disproves the idea of any European origin. The Druses live in a species of rude independence, and are the only people in this part of Asia who have any semblance of a free government. They have a king, indeed, who governs under the Porte, and a hereditary nobility possessed of high privileges; but the people still retain the free possession of the fruits of their industry, and these rude mountains yield more ample produce, and maintain a larger population, than many of the most fertile districts of the Turkish empire. When the cry of war is raised, the whole nation takes arms, and 15,000 men have been raised on a very short notice. They have no idea of regular warfare; their armies are merely a collection of peasants, with short coats, naked legs, and armed with muskets. They never engage in close combat, or on the plain; but maintain a war of posts, firing from a distance, or rising in ambuscade. Their obstinacy and hardihood in this species of warfare renders their frequent rebellions very formidable to the Turkish empire. They can muster 40,000 men, which probably implies a total population of about 200,000.

The Maronites are another people of Lebanon, inhabiting the mountain district of Kesraouan, which rises behind Tripoli. They are more orderly and peaceable than the Druses. They are Christians, and have joined the Romish communion, having renounced all the heresies of their founder Maron, except the marriage of the priesthood, which nothing can ever induce them to relinquish. Their soil produces nothing but the mulberry, which they cultivate with the greatest care, and depend upon almost solely for subsistence. Their chief place, and the residence of the patriarch, is at Cannobine, a convent situated high up the mountain, which the freshness of the air, its picturesque hills, and beautiful arcades, render a delightful residence. Their number is supposed to exceed 100,000. Tribes of less importance are the Mutualis, who inhabit the plain between Libanus and Anti Libanus; and the Arisarians, who oc-

cupy the northern ridge of hills continued from Lebanon, and bordering on Asia Minor, called Mount Casius. It seems impossible to form even a conjecture as to the amount of the mixed population of this part of the Turkish empire.

SYRIAC, *adj.* Spoken in old Syria.—Some *Syriac* copies of the New Testament are now remaining in the duke's library. *Walton*.

SYRIAC, *s.* The Syriac language.—Then spake the Chaldeans to the king in *Syriac*. *Daniel*.

SYRIAN, a very ancient, and formerly a large town, of the Birman dominions, province of Pegue. It is situated on the banks of the Appoo river, and was formerly the port at which several of the European nations had factories. The British factory was destroyed in the year 1744, during the war between the Birmans and Peguers. The town also suffered much on that occasion, and since the removal of the trade to Rangoon, has dwindled into a mere village. Lat. 16. 49. N. long. 96. 17. E.

SYRIASM, *s.* A Syriac idiom.—The scripture-Greek is observed to be full of *syriasm*s and hebraisms. *Warburton*.

SYRINGA, *s.* A flowering shrub.

The sweet *syringa* yielding but in scent
To the rich orange.

Mason.

SYRINGA [from *Συρίγγη*, Gr. *a pipe*], in Botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia, natural order of sepiariæ, jasmineæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, one-leaved, tubular, small mouth, four-toothed, erect, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form, tube cylindric, very long; border four-parted, spreading, and rolled back; segments linear, obtuse. Stamina: filaments two, very short; anthers small, within the tube of the corolla. Pistil: germ oblong; style filiform, length of the stamens; stigma bifid, thickish. Pericarp: capsule oblong, compressed, acuminate, two-celled, two-valved; valves contrary to the partition.—Seeds solitary; oblong, compressed; acuminate at both ends; with a membranaceous edge.—*Essential Character*. Corolla, four-cleft; capsule two-celled.

1. *Syringa vulgaris*, or common lilac.—Of this shrub, which grows to the height of eighteen or twenty feet in good ground, there are three varieties: those of the white sort grow more erect than the blue; and the purple or Scotch lilac has its branches yet more diffused. The branches of the white are covered with a smooth bark of a gray colour; in the other two it is darker. The leaves of the white are of a brighter green: they are heart-shaped in all, almost five inches long, and three inches and a half broad near the base; placed opposite on foot-stalks an inch and half in length, the flowers are always produced at the ends of the shoots of the former year, and below the flowers other shoots come out to succeed them; for that part upon which the flowers stand decays down to the shoots below every winter. There are generally two bunches or panicles of flowers joined at the end of each shoot; those of the blue are the smallest, the flowers also are smaller, and placed thinner than either of the others; the bunches on the white are larger, but those of the Scotch are larger still, and the flowers fairer; this therefore makes the best appearance. The lilac is very common in the English gardens, where it has been long cultivated as a flowering shrub. It is supposed to grow naturally in some parts of Persia, but is so hardy as to resist the greatest cold of this country.

2. *Syringa Chinensis*, or Chinese lilac.—Leaves very like those of the preceding, but smaller. Flowers as in *Syringa Persica*.—Supposed to be a native of China.

3. *Syringa Persica*, or Persian lilac.—Leaves lanceolate. The Persian lilac is a shrub of much lower growth than the common sort, seldom rising more than five or six feet high. Flowers in large panicles at the end of the former year's shoots, as in the former; of a pale blue colour, and having a very agreeable odour. They appear at the end of May, soon after those of the common sort, and continue longer in beauty,

beauty, but do not perfect their seeds in England. There are two varieties.

4. *Syringa suspensa*.—Leaves ovate, serrate and ternate.—Native of Japan, in Miaco, &c., often cultivated for the elegance of the flowers. It begins to flower in April.

Propagation and Culture.—The common lilac may be increased by seeds or suckers. It thrives best upon a rich light soil, such as the gardens near London are for the most part composed of; and there they grow to a much larger size, when they are permitted to stand unremoved, than in any other part of England.

SY'RINGE, *s.* [συριγξ, Gr.] A pipe through which any liquor is squirted.—The heart seems not designed to be the fountain or conservatory of the vital flame, but as a machine to receive the blood from the veins, and force it out by the arteries through the whole body as a *syringe* doth any liquor, though not by the same artifice. *Ray*.

To SY'RINGE, *v. a.* To spout by a syringe.—A flux of blood from the nose, mouth, and eye, was stopt by the *syringing* up of oxycrate. *Wiseman*.—To wash with a syringe.

SYRINGOTOMY, *s.* [συριγξ and τετομα, Gr.] The art or practice of cutting fistulas or hollow sores.

SYRMIA, a palatinate of the Austrian province, of Slavonia, lying in the east of that province, between the Danube and the district called "the frontier regiment of Peterwardein." Its superficial extent is 910 square miles; its population between 90,000 and 100,000. It contains the mountain of Carlovics, but is generally level, and of great fertility, though in some places marshy, and consequently unhealthy. The chief products are wheat, maize, wine of a remarkably heating quality, and the spirit extracted from plums, called Slivavicza. Some silk is also raised, but the quantity is not large. The chief town is Vukovar.

SYRUP. See SIROP.

SYR'UIS, *s.* [Latin.] A quick sand; a bog.—A boggy *syr'uis*,—neither sea, nor good dry land. *Milton*.

SYSELAND, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 10½ miles south-east of Norwich.

SYSRAN, a considerable town on the east of European Russia, in the government of Simbirsk, at the confluence of two rivers called the Sysranka and the Krymsa. It contains 6300 inhabitants, has some trade both by land and water, and is the chief town of a circle; 78 miles south of Simbirsk.

SYSTASIS, *s.* [συστασις, Gr.] The consistence of any thing; a constitution.—It is a worse preservative of a general constitution, than the *systasis* of Crete, or the confederation of Poland, or any other ill-devised corrective which has yet been imagined in the necessities produced by an ill-constructed system of government. *Burke*.

SYSTEM, *s.* [système, Fr.; συστημα, Gr.] Any complexure or combination of many things acting together. A scheme which reduces many things to regular dependance or co-operation. A scheme which unites many things in order.—The best way to learn any science is to begin with a regular *system*, or a short and plain scheme of that science well drawn up into a narrow compass. *Watts*.

SYSTEM'ATICAL, *adj.* [συστηματικος, Gr.] Methodical; written or formed with regular subordination of one part to another.—Now we deal much in essays, and unreasonably despise *systematical* learning; whereas our fathers had a just value for regularity and systems. *Watts*.

SYSTEM'ATICALLY, *adv.* In form of a system.—Aristotle brings morality into system, and ranges it into classes according to its different objects, distinguishing virtues into their several kinds, which had not been handled *systematically* before. *Baker*.

SYSTEM'ATIST, or SY'STEMATIZER, *s.* One who reduces things to any kind of system.—Aristotle may be called the *systematizer* of his master's doctrines. *Harris*.

To SY'STEMATIZE, *v. a.* To reduce to a system.—*Systematised* regicide. *Burke*.

SYSTEM-MAKER, *s.* One who forms systems.

We *system-makers* can sustain

The thesis, which you grant was plain.

Prior.

SY'STEM-MONGER, *s.* One fond of framing systems. *Mason*.—A *system-monger*, who, without knowing any thing of the world by experience, has formed a system of it in his dusty cell, lays it down, that flattery is pleasing. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

SY'STOLE, *s.* [systole, Fr.; συστολη, Gr.] The contraction of the heart.—The *systole* resembles the forcible bending of a spring, and the diastole its flying out again to its natural site. *Ray*.—In grammar, the shortening of a long syllable.

SYSTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles north-east-by-north of Grantham.

SYSTON, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 5 miles north-north-east of Leicester. Population 1223.

SY'STYLE, *s.* [systyle, Fr.; from συν and στυλος, Gr.] A building in which the pillars are near together.

SYSZKOVO, a small town of the west of European Russia, in the government of Grodno, on the Niemen.

SYTSCHEVSK, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Smolensk, on the river Wasuga; 144 miles west-by-north of Moscow.

SYWELL, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 4½ miles west of Wellingborough.

SYZGY, *s.* [syzgyie, Fr.; συζυγια, Gr.] A conjunction of any two of the heavenly bodies.

SZABADSZALLAS, a small town in the interior of Hungary, in the district of Little Kumania, with 4000 inhabitants, all Calvinists. They have no manufactures, and few mechanical occupations, being employed in agriculture, rearing cattle, and cultivating the grape; 43 miles south-by-west of Pest.

SZADEK, a small town in the west of Poland; 12 miles north-east of Siradia. Population 800.

SZALA, a river of Hungary, which rises in the county of Wieselburg, flows through the county of Szalad, and falls into the lake of Balaton.

SZALAD, a county of Hungary, lying to the north-east of the Drave, and the north of the lake of Balaton. Its superficial extent is 2130 square miles; its population about 230,000, of very diversified origin, being composed of the descendants of Magyars, Croats, Slovacs, and German settlers. It contains the mountains of Radastong, and a part of the forest of Rakong, but has also a great deal of level ground, and part of the lake of Balaton. It produces wine, and is fertile in corn. The number of hogs reared in the forests is also large. The chief town is Egerszeg.

SZALONAK, or SCHLONING, a small town in the west of Hungary, in the county of Eisenburg, situated on a steep hill of considerable height, and containing 1800 inhabitants.

SZALONTHA, a small town of the east of Hungary, in the county of Bihar, on the river called the Black Koresch. It is inhabited by Calvinists.

SZAMOBOR, a small town of Austrian Illyria; 22 miles north-by-east of Carlstadt, with 2700 inhabitants. It has a Franciscan monastery, and several schools, and in the neighbourhood is a rich copper mine.

SZAMOS. See SAMOSCH.

SZAMOS-UJVAR. See ARMENIERSTADT.

SZARVAS, a large town in the east of Hungary, in the palatinate of Bekesch, on the river Koresch; 82 miles east-south-east of Pest, and 21 north-north-east of Csongrad.

SZARYGRAD, a considerable town in the south-west of European Russia, in the government of Podolia. It has nearly 7000 inhabitants, and is the chief place of a circle.

SZASZ-REGEN, REGINU, or REEN-MARKT, a large market town of Transylvania, in the county of Thorda, inhabited chiefly by the descendants of Saxon settlers, who are employed in weaving or in tanning leather. They are distinguished from the aborigines both by their dress and manner of building their houses.

SZCZERKOW, a small town in the west of Poland, on the

the Widawka; 25 miles south-south-east of Sieradz. Population 800.

SZCZUCZIN, a small town in the north-east of Poland; 104 miles north-north-east of Warsaw, and 27 north-by-east of Lomza. Population 2000.

SZEBELLOB, or **SZEBELEB**, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, in the county of Hont; 51 miles north-by-west of Pest.

SZECS, or **GAL-SZECS**, a small but populous town in the north-east of Hungary, in the county of Zemplin. The inhabitants are of very mixed origin, being descended from Magyars, Slovacs, Rascians, and German settlers.

SZECSENY, a small town in the north-west of Hungary, in the county of Neograd, with 1600 inhabitants; 27 miles north-north-east of Waitzen.

SZEGEDIN, a large town in the east of Hungary, situated in the county of Csongrad, opposite to the confluence of the great rivers Theyss and Maros. It contains a population of 26,000, is surrounded by a mound and moat, and has still a brick fort erected by the Turks in the 16th century, when this place was in their possession. Szegedin is one of the principal towns of Hungary, containing manufactures of woollens, leather, and toys, all on a small scale, but of importance in a country where manufactures are still in their infancy. Its commercial intercourse is more considerable, its position at the junction of two navigable rivers, giving it the command of an extensive water carriage. The inhabitants possess a number of barges, some of the size of 200 or 250 tons, with which they navigate not only the Maros and the Theyss, but the Danube. Their exports consist chiefly of the products of the adjacent country, viz., corn, cattle, wool, tobacco, and timber. Cotton they import from Turkey, and make it the object of a transit trade: salt they import from Transylvania. The climate being favourable for the culture of tobacco, the qualities raised in this neighbourhood are in good repute. As to religion, the inhabitants, as in other Hungarian towns, are much divided, but the Catholics and the followers of the Greek church predominate. This town fell, in the beginning of the 16th century, into the hands of the Turks, and continued in their possession above a century and a half, being retaken by the Austrians only in 1686, some time after the rout of the Turkish army by Socieski, under the walls of Vienna; 100 miles south-south-east of Pest, and 30 north of Csongrad.

SZEGESDVAR, or **FELSO-SEGEST**, a small town in the south-west of Hungary; 134 miles south-south-east of Vienna, and 28 south-by-east of Keszthely.

SZEK, or **SZIK**, a considerable town of Transylvania, and the chief place of the county of Doboka. It has five yearly fairs, and in the neighbourhood are salt mines.

SZEKCSO, a small town in the south-west of Hungary, situated in a plain on the river Kopos; 100 miles south of Pest, and 23 east of Funfkirchen.

SZEKELY-HID, a small town in the east of Hungary; 25 miles east-south-east of Debreczin.

SZEKELY-KERESZTUR, a town of Transylvania, in the province of the Szeklers. It is the chief place of a district, and contains 4500 inhabitants, Catholics, Calvinists, and Unitarians. They are chiefly mechanics, and many of them are sieve-makers; 16 miles south-south-west of Udvarhely, and 40 north-by-east of Hermanstadt.

SZEKSZARD, a neat town of the south west of Hungary, the capital of the county of Tolna. It is situated on the river Sarvitz; 27 miles north-east of Funfkirchen, and 162 south-east of Vienna. Population 3500.

SZEKUDVAR, a large village in the east of Hungary, in the county of Arad, with 3000 inhabitants.

SZENTES, a town of the east of Hungary, in the county of Csongrad, on the small river Kurcza, with 4600 inhabitants; 7 miles south-south-east of Csongrad.

SZENT-JANOS, a large village of the north-west of Hungary, in the county of Liptau, with 1000 inhabitants, almost all Protestants.

SZENTIVANY, a large village in the north-west of Hungary, in the county of Neograd, on the small river Besma.

SZERED, a small town in the west of Hungary, on the river Waag, with a great magazine of salt, kept for account of the Austrian government; 28 miles east-north-east of Presburg.

SZEREDA, a small town of Transylvania, in the province of the Szeklers, district of Marosch, near the Aluta, situated in a fine plain at the base of a mountain.—2. **SZEREDA**, another small town in the province of the Szeklers, district of Tschik, on the Aluta. In the neighbourhood is a small fort.

SZERENCs, a small town of the north-east of Hungary; 9 miles west of Tokay, and 40 east-north-east of Erlau, inhabited by Magyars or descendants of the conquerors of the country.

SZIELNICZA, a small town in the north of Hungary; 41 miles west of Kesmark, and 116 north of Pest. Population 1100, chiefly Slovacs of the Lutheran faith.

SZILICZE, a small town of Hungary; 5 miles west of Caschau. In the neighbourhood is a large cavern, where water has been known to freeze in summer, and melt in winter, the temperature of this great recess being nearly the same at all seasons.

SZISZEK, a large village of Austrian Croatia, situated at the confluence of the rivers Culpa and Save. It is of great antiquity, and is still the chief place of a canton; 39 miles east of Carlstadt.

SZLUIN, a district of the Austrian States, in military Croatia, with a small town, or rather village of the same name, situate on the Corona. The district has an area of 320 square miles, with 43,000 inhabitants; 24 miles south-by-east of Carlstadt.

SZOLNOK, **BELSO** or **INNER**, a palatinate of Transylvania, bordering on Hungary on the north, and the district of Nosnerland on the east, has a territorial extent of 1335 square miles, with about 110,000 inhabitants. It consists partly of level, and partly of hilly ground, but contains no very high mountains, and enjoys a temperate and healthy atmosphere. Tillage, as usual in this part of Europe, is extremely backward, but the pastures are extensive, and the number of cattle is large.

SZOLNOK, **KOSCEP** or **MIDDLE**, a county or palatinate of Transylvania, bounded by Hungary entirely on the north and partly on the west. Its area is 865 square miles, and its population about 50,000, of whom more than the half are Wallachians. It consists entirely of hilly ground, but produces corn and wine, though in general the land is applied to pasturage. These two counties are both in the part of Transylvania allotted to Magyar settlers, and both are watered by the Szamos; yet they are not contiguous in any part, the county of Kovar lying between them, in the quarter (the south) where they approach nearest each other.

SZOMBALFALVA, or **SABBATHDORF**, a village of Transylvania, in the district of Udvarhely, at the confluence of two small rivers called the Fejer and the Soa Pataka.

SZTRASEMON, a small town of the Austrian States, in Slavonia, circle of Poschega, with a silk manufacture.

SZUCSAN, a small town in the north-west of Hungary, on the river Waag; 25 miles north-north-east of Neusohl.

SZWARZENE, or **SCHWARZENY**, a small town of Prussian Poland; 6 miles east of Posen. It contains 2500 inhabitants, who are Lutherans of German descent. A number of them are employed in the manufacture of hats.

SZWISLOWITZ, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Wilna.

SZYDLOW, a small town in the south of Poland; 34 miles west-by-south of Sendomir. Population 1000.

SZYDOWIEC, a small town in the interior of Poland; 93 miles north-north-east of Cracow, and 17 south-west of Radom. Population 1500, chiefly Jews.

T A B

T.

T A B

T, A mute consonant, which, at the beginning and end of words, has always the same sound, nearly approaching to that of *d*; but before an *i*, when followed by a vowel, has the sound of an obscure *s*: as, *nation, salvation*; except when *s* precedes *t*: as *Christian, question*.

TA, a city and fortress of China, of the second rank, in Sechuen. Lat. 36. 55. N. long. 107. 15. E.

Ta, a river of China, which falls into the Eastern seas. Lat. 36. 55. N. long. 121. 34. E.

TAAIF, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia, situated in a mountainous, but fertile and well cultivated district, from whence Jidda and Mecca are supplied with excellent fruits, particularly almonds; 60 miles south-east of Mecca.

TAAS, or **TAAES**, a considerable city of Yemen, in Arabia, on the road from Mocha to Sana. It is surrounded by mountains, which are said to be the most productive of plants in the world. They are in the possession, however, of several schiechs; 48 miles east-north-east of Mocha.

TAASINGE, a small island of Denmark, about 8 miles long and 4 broad, lying between Funen and Langeland. The soil is tolerably fertile, and the inhabitants are employed in agriculture, navigation, and fishing. The island has a small town of the same name, and contains about 1800 inhabitants. Lat. 55. 0. N. long. 10. 37. E.

TAASKIER, a small island of Scotland, on the south coast of the isle of Hay.

TAAWIRRY, an island in the South Pacific Ocean. There are two situated within the reef of the island of Otaheite, and on the east side of the main island. Within these islands there is anchorage within the reef that surrounds them. The French vessels under the command of M. Bougainville lay here. The name of the other island is Boourou.

TAB, a river of Persia, the ancient *Arosis*, which rises in the mountains of Fars, divides that province from Khusistan, and falls into the Persian gulf near Endian. At that place it is 80 yards wide, and navigable for boats of 20 tons.

TABA, a village on the Grain coast of Africa.

TABA ISLANDS, four small islands in the Eastern seas, lying north-west and south-east, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 2. 6. N. long. 118. 12. E.

TABABELLAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 16. N. long. 75. 20. E.

TABAFRA, a village on the Ivory coast of Africa; 15 miles east of Drevin.

TABAGO, or **TABOGA**, an island in the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of Mexico, about three miles long and two broad. It is mountainous, and on the north side the high land declines with a gentle descent to the sea. Near the strand the soil is a black mould, and deep, but towards the top of the mountains strong and dry. The north side of the island makes a very pleasant appearance, and seems to be a garden of fruit trees, inclosed with others of the forest kind. The principal products are plantains and bananas, which grow very well from the foot to the middle of the mountain; but those near the top are small, as wanting moisture. There was formerly a small town near the sea, on the north side of the island: but it was ruined by the privateers that then frequented those seas. Before it is a good road, about a mile from the shore, where ships may ride very safely in 16 or 18 fathom water; 18 miles south of Panama. Lat. 8. 40. N. long. 80. 9. W.

TABAGUILLA, or **LITTLE TABAGO**, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, near Tabago.

TABALLAR POINT, a cape on the east coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 2. 12. N. long. 177. 4. E.

TABANIE, a village of Lower Egypt, on the eastern branch of the Nile; 6 miles south-west of Mansora.

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TABANUS, the *Ox-fly*, in Entomology, a genus of the Diptera order of insects; the generic characters of which are, that the mouth has a fleshy proboscis, terminated by two lips, and that the rostrum is furnished with two awl-shaped palpi, placed on each side of, and parallel to, the proboscis. Gmelin, enumerates 38 species.

1. *Tabanus bovinus*.—Greenish eyes; marked down the back by a series of large, whitish, triangular spots, and on each side is a similar appearance, but less distinct than that of the dorsal row. This is the largest of the British species, and, like others of its species, is seen generally in the hottest part of the day, during the middle and the decline of summer. It is very troublesome to cattle. Its larva is large and dusky yellowish, like that of a tipula, marked by transverse blackish streaks or rings; residing under ground in moist meadows, &c.; and changing into a cylindrical brownish chrysalis, with a roundish or slightly pointed extremity, from which within a month proceeds the perfect insect.

2. *Tabanus fervens*.—With green eyes, yellow abdomen and antennæ, and brown head and thorax.—Found in South America.

3. *Tabanus Mexicanus*.—With a livid body, green antennæ, and greenish wings.—Found in Surinam.

4. *Tabanus rusticus*.—Cinereous, with grey eyes, and two black points in the front.—An European insect.

5. *Tabanus bromius*.—With a purple fascia about the eyes, and cinereous body.—Found in Germany, and the northern part of Europe.

6. *Tabanus occidentalis*.—With eyes having double brown fasciæ, a brown body, and the abdomen marked with three yellow lines.—Found in Surinam.

7. *Tabanus tropicus*.—With eyes having triple purplish fasciæ, and the sides of the abdomen ferruginous.—An European insect of a brown colour, smaller than *Tabanus bovinus*, and less common, troublesome to cattle, and especially to horses.

8. *Tabanus pluvialis*.—With eyes waved with four-fold fasciæ, and brown-speckled wings.—This is an European species, very troublesome with us in the latter part of summer, fastening on the legs, hands, &c., and peculiarly teasing on the approach of rain.

TABARABA, a river of Mexico, in the province of Vera-gua, which runs into the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 8. 40. N. long. 82. 48. W.

TABARCA, a small sea-port of Tunis, in Africa, situated in the midst of extensive woods. It is now almost in ruins, but occupied by a small garrison. Opposite to it is a little island famous for a coral fishery. It was long in possession of the Lomellines, a noble Genoese family, from whom it was taken in 1740, by Ally Bashaw, who, having treacherously obtained entrance into the place, put a number of the Genoese garrison to the sword, and carried the rest into slavery; 60 miles north-west of Tunis. Lat. 36. 55. N. long. 9. 18. E.

TABARCA NUEVA, an island of Spain, in the Mediterranean, on the coast of Valencia. It is small, and almost destitute of trees and water, but is inhabited by the descendants of a colony of Spaniards, who were redeemed from slavery in Barbary by the government, and settled here in 1771.

TABARD, *s.* [*tabar*, Welsh; *tabardum*, low Lat.] A short gown; a herald's coat; sometimes written, incorrectly, *taberd*.—Their apparel is said to shine beyond the power of description, and their *tabards* to be studded with diamonds and rubies. *Warton*.

TABARDER, *s.* One who wears a tabard, or short gown: the name is still preserved in certain bachelors of arts on the old foundation of Queen's College in Oxford.

TABARIA. See **TIBERIAS**.

TABARRA, a small town in the west of Spain, in Leon; 16 miles north-by-west of Zamora.

TABAS, a city of Korassan, in Persia, on the road from Herat to Yezd; 337 miles from the former, and 150 from the latter. It is the only city which occurs between these two places, and is thus the scene of some commercial intercourse. It is situated amid a range of mountains, and contains a population of about 20,000.

TABASCO, formerly a province of Mexico, now included within the limits of Vera Cruz, of which it occupies the southern portion, and is 100 miles long by 60 broad. The soil is not very fertile, neither is the air healthy, as the country is in general flat and marshy, filled with small lagoons or lakes; and as it rains during greater part of the year, the climate is very damp. The coast is subject, from September to March, including both those months, to dreadful storms, the northerly gales prevailing during that period, which renders navigation dangerous and difficult. In February, March, and April, the heats prevail, which are insupportable, and accompanied with infinite swarms of mosquitoes and other venomous insects.

TABASCO, the chief town of the above province, and one of the oldest in New Spain, called also Nuestra Señora de la Victoria, on account of a great victory which Cortez gained here on his first landing. The town is not large, but is well built, and is considerably enriched by a constant resort of merchants and tradesmen at Christmas. It stands on an island at the mouth of the Rio Guijalva, which divides itself near the gulf into two arms; 197 miles east-south-east of Vera Cruz. Lat. 18. 34. N. long. 93. 36. W.

TABASCO, an island, or rather a neck of land, in the south-west part of the gulf of Mexico, and at the bottom of the gulf of Campeachy, on which is built the town of Tabasco. It is about 36 miles in length, and 7 or 8 broad. Near it on the continent, are great plains abounding in cattle, sheep, &c., and a wild animal called the mountain cow, or tapir, which subsists on the moss that accumulates on trees, near the great rivers, in marshy situations. It is separated from the continent by the river.

TABASCO RIVER, a river of North America, which runs into the bay of Campeachy. Lat. 18. 15. N. long. 93. 40. W. On the banks of this river are some of the largest cabbage and cotton-trees supposed in the world.

TABAY, a settlement of New Granada, in South America, in the province of Maracaibo, near the city of Merida.

TABBAY, one of the Western islands of Scotland, near the east coast of Skye. Lat. 57. 16. N. long. 5. 51. W.

TABBY, *s.* [*tabi, tabino*, Italian.] A kind of waved silk.—Brocades, and *tabbies*, and gauzes. *Swift*.

TABBY, *adj.* Brinded; brindled; varied with different colours.—A *tabby* cat sat in the chimney-corner. *Addison*.

To TA'BBY, *v. a.* To pass a stuff under a calender to make the representation of waves thereon, as on a tabby.—It is usual to *tabby* mohairs, ribands, &c. *Chambers*.

TABEFACION, *s.* [*tabefacio*, Lat.] The act of wasting away.

To TA'BEFY, *v. n.* [*tabefacio*, Lat.] To waste; to extenuate.—Meat eaten in greater quantity than is convenient *tabefies* the body. *Harvey*.

TABERD, *s.* See **TABARD**.

TABERG, a post village of the United States, in Oneida county, New York.

TABERNA, a town in the east of Spain, in the province of Valencia, on the great road leading along the coast in the direction of Catalonia. Population 4000; 4 miles north-east of Valencia.

TABERNACLE, *s.* [*tabernaculum*, Lat.] A temporary habitation; a casual dwelling.

They sudden rear'd

Celestial *tabernacles*, where they slept
Fann'd with cool winds.

Milton.

A sacred place; a place of worship.—The greatest conqueror did not only compose his divine odes, but set them to music: his works, though consecrated to the *tabernacle*,

became the national entertainment, as well as the devotion of his people. *Addison*.

To TA'BERNACLE, *v. n.* To enshrine; to house.—He assumed our nature, and *tabernacled* among us in the flesh. *Scott*.

TABERNA'CLAR, *adj.* Latticed.—The sides of every street were covered with cloisters, crowned with rich and lofty pinnacles, and fronted with *tabernacular* or open work. *Warton*.

TABERNÆMONTANA [so named by Plumier, in memory of James Theodore, surnamed Tabernæmontanus,] in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of contortæ, apocineæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-cleft, acute, converging, very small. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form: tube cylindric, long: border five-parted, flat; segments obtuse, oblique. Nectary: glands five, bifid, standing round the germ. Stamina: filaments five, very small, from the middle of the tube. Anthers converging. Pistil: germs two, simple. Style awl-shaped. Stigma oblong, headed. Pericarp: follicles two, horizontally reflexed, ventricose, acuminate, one-celled, one valved. Seeds numerous, ovate-oblong, obtuse, wrinkled, immersed in pulp, imbricate.—*Essential Character*. Contorted. Follicles two, horizontal. Seeds immersed in pulp.

1. *Tabernæmontana citrifolia*, or citron-leaved tabernæmontana.—Leaves opposite ovate; flowers lateral glomerate-umbelled. This rises with an upright woody stalk to the height of fifteen or sixteen feet, covered with a smooth gray bark, abounding with a milky juice, and sending out several branches from the side, which grow erect, and have many joints.—Native of Jamaica, Martinico, &c., and the island of Namoka in the South Seas.

2. *Tabernæmontana laurifolia*, or laurel-leaved tabernæmontana.—Leaves opposite, oval, bluish. This rises with a shrubby stalk twelve or fourteen feet high, sending out a few branches towards the top which grow erect. The flowers are produced in a sort of umbel from the side of the branches; they are small, yellow, and have an agreeable odour.—Native of Jamaica, St. Domingo, and other islands of the West Indies.

3. *Tabernæmontana echinata*, or rough-fruited tabernæmontana.—Leaves opposite, ovate-oblong, acuminate; flowers glomerate-umbelled, fruits echinate. A shrub, sending out from its root several stems of the length of five or six feet: they are woody and branched; flowers corymbose and terminal, situated between the forkings of the branches; they are of a yellow colour and of an agreeable smell.—Native of Guiana.

4. *Tabernæmontana heterophylla*, or various-leaved Tabernæmontana.—Leaves elliptic-lanceolate and subcordate, somewhat waved, acuminate, smooth on both sides; branches dichotomous, flowers racemed.—Native of Cayenne.

5. *Tabernæmontana grandiflora*, or great-flowered tabernæmontana.—Leaves opposite, stem dichotomous; calyxes unequal, very loose.—Native of Carthage in Spanish America: flowering there from July to September.

6. *Tabernæmontana cymosa*, or cyme-flowered tabernæmontana.—Leaves opposite, ovate-lanceolate; flowers cymed.—Frequent in the woods and coppices about Carthage in New Spain: flowering in July and August.

There are thirteen other species, as follows:—*Tabernæmontana amygdalifolia*, *Tabernæmontana discolor*, *Tabernæmontana undulata*, *Tabernæmontana persicariæfolia*, *Tabernæmontana neriifolia*, *Tabernæmontana elliptica*, *Tabernæmontana alternifolia*, *Tabernæmontana amsonia*, *Tabernæmontana angustifolia*, *Tabernæmontana odorata*, *Tabernæmontana alba*, *Tabernæmontana bufalina*, *Tabernæmontana bovina*.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants, being mostly natives of the West Indies, will not live in this country, unless they are placed in a warm stove: they may be propagated by seeds, which must be procured from the countries where the plants grow naturally.

TA'BID, *adj.* [*tabide*, Fr.; *tabidus*, Lat.] Wasted by disease; consumptive.—In *tabid* persons milk is the best restorative, being chyle already prepared. *Arbutnot.*

TA'BIDNESS, *s.* Consumptiveness; state of being wasted by disease.

TABIO, a settlement of New Granada, in South America, which contains 400 families, Spaniards and Indians; 15 miles north-west of Santa Fe.

TABLACHUCCA, a river of Peru, in the province of Conchucos, which enters the Santa.

TABLADA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Santa Martha, on the shore of the river Magdalena, on an island formed by the arm of this river.

TABLAS, the name of several inconsiderable settlements in South America.

TABLAS, one of the Philippine islands, which lies due south of Lucon. It is of a very irregular shape; about 30 miles long, by 3 in average breadth.

TA'BLATURE, *s.* A way of expressing musical sounds by letters or cyphers; a piece of music for the lute.

What means this stately *tablature*,
The balance of thy strains?

Which seems instead of sifting pure,
To extend and rack thy veins:

Thy odes first their own harmony did break,
For singing troth is but in tune to speak. *Lovelace.*

In Anatomy, a division or parting of the skull into two tables, but in painting, we may give to any particular work the name of *tablature*, when the work is in reality a single piece, comprehended in one view, and formed according to one single intelligence, meaning, or design. *Ld. Shaftesbury.*

TABLE, *s.* [*tabula*, Lat.] Any flat or level surface.—Upon the castle hill there is a bagnio paved with fair *tables* of marble. *Sandys.*—A horizontal surface raised above the ground, used for meals and other purposes.

We may again
Give to our *tables* meat, sleep to our nights. *Shakspeare.*

The persons sitting at table, or partaking of entertainment.

Give me some wine, fill full,
I drink to th' general joy of the whole *table.* *Shakspeare.*

The fare or entertainment itself: as, he keeps a good *table.*—When a man keeps a constant *table*, he may be allowed sometimes to serve up a cold dish of meat. *Tatler.*—A tablet; a surface on which any thing is written or engraved.

'Twas pretty, though a plague,
To see him every hour; to sit and draw
His arched brows, his hawking eye, his curls,
In our heart's *table.* *Shakspeare.*

[*Tableau*, Fr.] A picture, or any thing that exhibits a view of any thing upon a flat surface.

I never lov'd myself,
Till now, infixed, I beheld myself
Drawn in the flattering *table* of her eye. *Shakspeare.*

A synopsis: many particulars brought into one view.
I have no images of ancestors,
Wanting an ear, or nose, no forged *tables*
Of long descents, to boast false honours from. *B. Jonson.*

The palm of the hand.
Mistress of a fairer *table*
Hath not history nor fable. *B. Jonson.*

Draughts; small pieces of wood shifted on squares. [*Table*, old French; which Roquefort explains by "jeu de tric-trac et des échecs."—So also the Saxon *tæplan*, tesseris sive alæ ludere.]

Monsieur the nice,
When he play at *tables* chides the dice. *Shakspeare.*

To turn the TABLES. To change the condition or fortune of two contending parties: a metaphor taken from the

vicissitude of fortune at gaming tables.—If it be thus, the *tables* would be turned upon me; but I should only fail in my vain attempt. *Dryden.*

To TA'BLE, *v. n.* To board; to live at the table of another.—He lost his kingdom, was driven from the society of men to *table* with the beasts, and to graze with oxen. *South.*

To TA'BLE, *v. a.* To make into a catalogue; to set down.—I could have looked on him without admiration, though the catalogue of his endowments had been *tabled* by his side, and I to peruse him by items. *Shakspeare.*—To represent as in painting.—I entreat you much to meditate sometimes upon the effect of superstition in this last powder-treason, fit to be *tabled* and pictured in the chambers of meditation as another hell above the ground. *Bacon.*—To supply with a table or food.—When he himself *tabled* the Jews from heaven, that omer, which was every man's daily portion of manna, is computed to have been more than might have well sufficed the heartiest feeder thrice as many meals. *Milton.*

TABLE BAY, a bay on the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 53. 44. N. long. 20. 57. W.—TABLE CAPE, a cape on the east coast of New Zealand. Lat. 39. 8. N. long. 181. 36. W.—TABLE CAPE, a steep rocky point of land on the north coast of Van Diemen's Land.—TABLE ISLAND, a small flat island of the Eastern seas in Gaspar's strait.—TABLE ISLAND, a small island in the south Pacific ocean, so called by Captain Wilson. Lat. 18. 54. S. long. 181. 54. W.—TABLE ISLAND, a small island near the coast of Spitzbergen. Lat. 80. 57. N. long. 20. 30. E. 2d. One of the New Hebrides in the South Pacific ocean. Lat. 15. 38. S. long. 167. 7. E. 3d. A small island in the Eastern seas, near the island of Paraguay. Lat. 9. 15. N. long. 118. 2. E. 4th. A small island in the Eastern seas. Lat. 14. 8. N. long. 93. 32. E.—TABLE MOUNTAIN, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Wicklow; 15 miles west of Wicklow.—TABLE MOUNTAIN. See CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.—TABLE MOUNTAIN, a mountain of the United States, in Pendleton district, South Carolina, near the north-west border of the state, 3168 feet higher than the surrounding country, and about 4000 above the level of the sea. It presents on one side a tremendous precipice of solid rock, about 900 feet nearly perpendicular.—TABLE MOUNTAINS, mountains of the United States, in North Carolina. Lat. 36. N. long. 81. 40. W.—TABLE POINT, a cape on the south coast of the island of Bali. Lat. 8. 45. S. long. 115. 11. E.—TABLE POINT, the southern extremity of Bali island, in the Eastern seas, and the eastern boundary of the south entrance into Bali straits. Lat. 8. 50. S. long. 114. 25. E.—TABLE RIVER, a river of the United States in Louisiana, which runs into the Mississippi. Lat. 37. 12. N. long. 90. 11. W.—TABLE ROCK, a post village of the United States, in Pendleton district, South Carolina.

TABLEBED, *s.* A bed of the figure of a table.
TABLEBEER, *s.* Beer used at the victuals; small beer.
TABLEBOOK, *s.* A book on which any thing is graved or written without ink.

What might you think,
If I had play'd the desk or *table-book*? *Shakspeare.*

TABLECLOTH, *s.* Linnen spread on a table.—I will end with Odo holding master doctor's mule, and Anne with her *tablecloth.* *Camden.*

TABLELAND, *s.* Land far elevated upon the level of the sea, but level on its summit for a great extent.

TABLEHURST, a small village of England, in Sussex, between East Grinstead and Ashdown Forest.

TABLEMAN, *s.* A man at draughts.—In clericals the keys are lined, and in colleges they use to line the *tablemen.* *Bacon.*

TABLER, *s.* One who boards. *Ainsworth.*
TABLETALK, *s.* Conversation at meals or entertainments; table discourse.

Let me praise you while I have a stomach.
—No, let it serve for *tabletalk.* *Shakspeare.*

TABLET, *s.* A small level surface. A medicine in a square

square form.—It hath been anciently in use to wear *tablets* of arsenic, or preservatives, against the plague; as they draw the venom to them from the spirits. *Bacon*.—A surface written on or painted.—It was by the authority of Alexander, that through all Greece the young gentlemen learned, before all other things, to design upon *tablets* of boxen wood. *Dryden*.

TABLEY, NETHER and OVER, two villages of England, in Cheshire; 2 miles from Nether Knutsford.

TABO, or LITTLE DIEPPE, a river and populous sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa.

TABO-DUNE, a sea-port on the Ivory coast of Africa, known by a large green cape near it. About 10 leagues to the east is another sea-port, called also Tabo.

TABOGA. See TABAGO.

TABOLEOO, a river of Chili, which runs east, and turning its course to the north-north-east, enters the Biobio.

TABOR, a circle in the south-east of Bohemia, bounded on the north by the circle of Czaslau, on the east by Moravia, and on the south and west by the circle of Budweis. Its extent is 1270 square miles; its population nearly 160,000. Its soil is fertile, and adapted both to tillage and pasturage. Here are manufactures of woollen, cotton, and linen; and the higher grounds contain productive mines. Bohemian is the only language spoken in this circle.

TABOR, a town of Bohemia, and the capital of a circle, is situated on a hill, on the river Luschnitz; 88 miles west-by-north of Brunn, and 49 south-by-east of Prague. It is fortified, and naturally strong; but has been frequently taken. It contains 3800 inhabitants, whose principal occupation is weaving. This town was built by Zisca, the Hussite general, and fortified in the modern style, which has given rise to a notion in Germany, that Zisca was the inventor of that method of fortifying places. The Hussites called it *Hradistie Hory Tabor*, or the *Camp of Mount Tabor*; and as it was their capital, one of the sects took from it the name of *Taborites*. Lat. 49. 24. 23. N. long. 14. 28. 0. E.

TABOR, a large mountain of Palestine, situated to the south-west of the lake of Tiberias, over which it commands a most extensive prospect. It is of a conical form, and contains on its summit a plain of great extent, and highly cultivated. It is celebrated in scripture as the mount of transfiguration.

TABORITES, or THABORITES, in Ecclesiastical History a branch or sect of the ancient Hussites.

The Hussites, towards the beginning of the 15th century, dividing into several parties, and about the year 1420, into two great factions; one of them retired to a little mountain or rock, situate in Bohemia, 15 leagues from Prague, and there put themselves under the conduct of Ziska; building themselves a fort or castle, and a regular city, which they called *Tabor* or *Thabor*, either from the general word *thabor*, which in the Slavonic language signifies *castle*; or from the mountain *Tabor*, mentioned in Scripture; and hence they became denominated *Thaborites*. Those of the other party were denominated *Calixtins*.

T'ABOUR, *s.* [*tabourin*, *tabour*, old French.] A small drum; a drum beaten with one stick to accompany a pipe.—If you did but hear the pedlar at door, you would never dance again after a *tabour* and pipe. *Shakspeare*.

The shepherd knows not thunder from a *tabour*,
More than I know the sound of Marcius' tongue
From every meaner man. *Shakspeare*.

To T'ABOUR, *v. n.* [*tabourer*, old French.] To drum. [They] *tabouren* in your ears many a soun
Right after their imaginacioun. *Chaucer*.

To strike; to smite; to beat.—And her maids shall lead her as with the voicè of doves, *tabouring* upon their breasts. *Nahum*.

T'ABOURER, *s.* One who beats the *tabour*.—Would I could see this *tabourer*. *Shakspeare*.

T'ABOURET, *s.* A small *tabour*.—They shall depart the manor before him with trumpets, *tabourets*, and other minstrelsy *Spcciator*

T'ABOURINE, *s.* A *tabour*; a small drum.

Trumpeters,
With brazen din blast you the city's ear,
Make mingle with our rattling *tabourines*,
That heaven and earth may strike their sounds together,
Applauding our approach. *Shakspeare*.

TABRE'RE, *s.* *Tabourer*. *Obsoletc*.

I saw a shole of shepherds outgo,
Before them rode a lusty *tabre're*,
That to the meynie a hornpipe plaid,
Whereto they dauncen. *Spenser*,

T'ABRET, *s.* A *tabour*.—Wherefore didst thou steal away, that I might have sent thee away with mirth and with *tabret*? *Genesis*.

TABUE, a village of Lower Egypt, on the Nile; 12 miles north-west of Cairo.

T'ABULAR, *adj.* [*tabularis*, Lat.] Set down in the form of tables or synopses. Formed in laminæ.—All the nodules that consist of one uniform substance were formed from a point, as the crusted ones, nay, and most of the spotted ones, and indeed all whatever, except those that are *tabular* and plated. *Woodward*.—Set in squares.

To T'ABULATE, *v. a.* [*tabula*, Lat.] To reduce to tables or synopses.—His [Maittaire's] book of the dialects is a sad heap of confusion: the only way to write on them is to *tabulate* them with notes, added at the bottom of the page, and references. *Dr. Johnson*.—To shape with a flat surface.

T'ABULATED, *adj.* [*tabula*, Lat.] Having a flat surface.—Many of the best diamonds are pointed with six angles, and some *tabulated* or plain, and square. *Grew*.

TACALALPO, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Tabasco; 23 miles south-west of Tabasco.

TACALAYO, a settlement of South America, in the province of Chaco; 35 miles north of St. Salvador de Jugui.

TACALAZALUMA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Carthagena, on the shore of a lake formed by the arms of the river Cauca to the east.

TACALOA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Carthagena, on the shore of the river Cauca; 85 miles south-east of Carthagena.

TACAMBARO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid; 32 leagues south-east of Valladolid.

TACAMES, or ATACAMES, a province of Peru, bounded north by the province of Arica, north-east by Lipes, east and south-east by the territory of Salta, south by Chili, and west by the Pacific Ocean. It is divided into high and low. The first is of a cold temperature, abounding in the productions of the mountainous districts. The ostriches and the vicuñas are found here in abundance: there are some mines of gold and silver in this province; but they are not regularly worked. The desert of this province is a large unpeopled track, dividing the kingdoms of Peru and Chili.

TACAMES, a sea-port town of South America, and capital of a jurisdiction in the audience of Quito, situated in a bay of the Pacific Ocean, to which it gives name; 110 miles north-west of Quito. Lat. 0. 52. N. long. 62. W.

TACAMOCHO, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Carthagena, on the Magdalena, near where it is entered by the Cauca.

TACARIGUA. See VALENCIA.

TACARIGUA, a large lake of South America, in the province and government of Venezuela.

TACARIGUA, a settlement of the island of Trinidad, in the north point, and nearly at the east extremity.

TACATU, a river of Guiana, which rises from Lake Parima, on the west, and united with the river Maho, forms that which they call the Blanco, which afterwards enters the Amazons.

TACAXI, a small island of Ximo, in Japan, at the entrance of the gulf of Ximabari.

TACAZZE, a great river of Abyssinia, which appears to be the *Astaboras* of Ptolemy. It rises among the mountains of Lasta, after which it passes along the eastern frontier

of the high province of Samen. It then enters the district of Waldubba, and afterwards enters the territory of Sennaar, in its progress through which it receives the great river Mareb, and, swelled by its waters, joins the Nile near Goos, in lat. 17. 45. N.

TACCA [adopted by Forster from Rumphius], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order of coronariæ, narcissi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, six-parted: segments oblong. Corolla: petals six. Stamina: filaments scarcely any. Anthers six, oblong. Pistil: germ inferior. Style short, straight, thick. Stigma orbicular, stellate: rays six, bluntish, convex above. Pericarp: berry dry, subglobular, six-ribbed, hexangular, one celled, crowned with the calyx. Seeds many, ovate.—*Essential Character.* Calyx, six-parted. Corolla, six-petalled. Stigma stellate. Berry dry, hexangular, many-seeded.

1. *Tacca pinnatifida*.—Root tuberous. Radical leaf subsolitary, petioled, ternate or biternate; leaflets lacinate, pinnatifid, acute, even, spreading, decurrent a little along the sides of the petioles, a long span or a foot in length. Scape half a fathom in height, herbaceous, fistular, grooved towards the top, erect. Umbel terminating, sessile, quite simple.—Native of the East Indies, China, Cochin-china, Banda and the Society isles.

TACCORARY, a small Dutch settlement, in Ahanta, on the Gold coast of Africa.

TACHAU, a small town in the west of Bohemia, on the river Mies, with 2800 inhabitants; 79 miles west-south-west of Prague.

TACHE, *s.* [from *tack*; which was the old word: "*tak*, or button." Prompt. Parv.] Any thing taken hold of; a catch; a loop; a button.—Make fifty *taches* of gold, and couple the curtains together with the *taches*. *Exodus*.

TACHEN-SEE, a lake of Upper Austria, in the circle of Salzburg, near the borders of Bavaria, and the small town of Wageningen.

TACHINA, a river of Brazil, in the captainship of San Vicente, which runs west, and enters the Uruguay at its source.

TACHIRA, SAN ANTONIO DE, a settlement of New Granada; 32 miles nearly north, with a slight inclination east of Pampeluna.

TACHIRA, a river of New Granada, in the province of Maracaibo, which runs into the great lake of Maracaibo.

TACHYGRAPHY, *s.* [*ταχυ*; and *γραφω*, Gr.] The art or practice of quick writing.

TACIT, *adj.* [*tacitus*, Lat.] Silent; implied; not expressed by words.—As there are formal and written leagues respective to certain enemies, so is there a natural and *tacit* confederation amongst all men, against the common enemy of human society, pirates. *Bacon*.

TACITLY, *adv.* Silently; without oral expression.—While they are exposing another's weaknesses, they are *tacitly* aiming at their own commendations. *Addison*.

TACITURN, *adj.* [*taciturnus*, Lat.] Silent; uttering little.—Grieve was very submissive, respectful, and remarkably *taciturn*. *Smollett*.

TACITURNITY, *s.* [*taciturnité*, Fr.; *taciturnitas*, Lat.] Habitual silence.

The secretest of natures
Have not more gift in *taciturnity*. *Shakspeare.*

TACITUS (Caius Cornelius), a well known historian, was born about the year of the Christian era 57, at Interamna, or the modern Terni. His father was a Roman knight, and procurator of Belgic Gaul. Devoted from his youth to the cultivation of literature and rhetoric, his reputation at maturity was so well established, that he was permitted by Julius Agricola, at the expiration of his consulate, which occurred in the year 77, to form a matrimonial connection with his daughter. Thus introduced into public life, he was honoured by the patronage of Vespasian, Titus, Domitian and Nerva.

The principal works of Tacitus were his "Annals," and his "History." The former comprehended the Roman

affairs from the death of Augustus to that of Nero; but it has been transmitted to us in a very mutilated state. The latter comprised the period from the end of Nero to the death of Domitian; and now exists in an imperfect state, as the narrative does not extend far beyond the accession of Vespasian. His other works are, a "Life of Agricola," and a treatise "On the Manners of the Germans." The style of his writings is singularly concise, abrupt, and elliptical, so that the reader is often at a loss to comprehend his meaning. His aim seems to have been to comprize much in a small compass, and he has thus furnished a great variety of political maxims, which, by the brevity with which they are expressed, are peculiarly adapted to impress the memory. It is observed, however, by one of his biographers, that he occasionally discovers "an affectation of converting common remarks into aphorisms, and of philosophizing when he was only required to narrate." Nevertheless, no prose writer in any language surpasses or perhaps equals him in force of description, and the choice of circumstances by which he dramatizes a scene, and brings it before the eyes of his reader; and no want of perspicuity appears in his style when employed in the relation of striking events.

TACITUS (M. Claudius), an emperor of Rome. See **ROME**.

To TACK, *v. a.* [*tacher*, Breton.] To fasten to any thing. It has now a sense approaching to contempt.

Of what supreme almighty pow'r
Is thy great arm, which spans the East and West,
And *tacks* the centre to the sphere! *Herbert.*

To join; to unite; to stitch together.—I *tack'd* two plays together for the pleasure of variety. *Dryden.*

To TACK, *v. n.* To turn a ship.

On either side they nimbly *tack*,
Both strive to intercept and guide the wind. *Dryden.*

TACK, *s.* A small nail. The act of turning ships at sea.

At each *tack* our little fleet grows less,
And, like maim'd fowl, swim lagging on the main. *Dryden.*

Addition; supplement.—Some *tacks* had been made to money-bills in King Charles's time. *Burnet*.—[*tache*, Fr.] A spot; a stain.—You do not the thing that you would; that is perhaps perfectly, purely without some *tack* or mixture. *Hammond.*

To hold TACK. To last; to hold out. *Tack* is still retained in Scotland, and denotes hold or persevering cohesion.

If this twig be made of wood
That will hold *tack*, I'll make the fur
Fly 'bout the ears of that old cur. *Hudibras.*

TACKET, *s.* A small nail. *Barret, Alv.* 1580. Used in Scotland. See **JAMIESON**.

TACKLE, *s.* [*taccl*, Welsh, an arrow; *tacclau*, armour or accoutrements, arrows; *tacle*, old Fr.; any headed shaft or bolt, whose feathers are not waxed, but glued on. *Cotgrave*.] An arrow.—The *takil* smote, and in it went. *Chaucer*.—Weapons; instruments of action.

She to her *tackle* fell,
And on the knight let fall a peal
Of blows so fierce, and press'd so home,
That he retir'd. *Hudibras.*

[*tacclau*, Welsh; *tackel*, Su. Goth.; ornamenta navis, rudentes, Ihre; *tackel*, Dutch.] The ropes of a ship: in a looser sense, all the instruments of sailing.

At the helm
A seeming mermaid steers; the silken *tackles*
Swell with the touches of those flower-soft hands
That yarely frame the office. *Shakspeare.*

To TACKLE, *v. a.* To supply with tackle.

My ships ride in the bay,
Ready to disembugue, *tackled* and man'n'd,
Ev'n to my wishes. *Beaum. and Fl.*

TACKLED, *adj.* Made of ropes tacked together.

My man shall
Bring thee cords, made like a *tackled* stair,
Which to the high top-gallant of my joy
Must be my convoy in the secret night. *Shakspeare.*

TACKLEY, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3 miles north-east of Woodstock.

TA'CKLING, *s.* Furniture of the mast.

Red sheets of lightning o'er the seas are spread,
Our *tackling* yield, and wrecks at last succeed. *Garth.*

Instruments of action: as, fishing *tackling*, kitchen *tackling*.—I will furnish him with a rod, if you will furnish him with the rest of the *tackling*, and make him a fisher. *Walton.*

TACKUMBREET, a village in the western part of the territory of Algiers, where extensive ruins mark the site of the ancient Siga, the capital of Mauritania. It is situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, at the mouth of the river Tafna; 44 miles south-west of Oran.

TACNA, a town of Peru, in the province of Arica, and 12 leagues distant from the town of that name, the inhabitants of which indeed, having left it in consequence of its being destroyed, first, in 1605, by an earthquake, and afterwards by the English, established themselves in Tacna.

TACDARA, a river of Brazil, in the territory lying between the two great rivers Cuchivara and Madera, which runs east into the latter.

TACOLNESTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles west-north-west of St. Mary Stratton.

TACOTALPA, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Vera Cruz, which contains 337 families of Indians; 47 leagues south-east of Vera Cruz. Lat. 18. 37. N. long. 95. 29. W.

TACOULUM, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. Lat. 13. 4. N. long. 79. 50. E.

TA'CTIC, or **TA'CTICAL**, *adj.* [*τακτικός, τακτω*, Gr.; *tactique*, Fr.] Relating to the art of ranging a battle.

TACTY'CIAN, *s.* One skilled in tactics: *a modern word.*

TA'CTICS, *s.* [*τακτική*, Gr.] The art of ranging men in the field of battle.—When Tully had read the *tactics*, he was thinking on the bar, which was his field of battle. *Dryden.*

TA'CTILE, *adj.* [*tactilis, tactum*, Latin.] Susceptible of touch.

At this proud yielding word
She on the scene her *tactile* sweets presented. *Beaumont.*

TACTI'LITY, *s.* Perceptibility by the touch.

TACT'ION, *s.* [*tactico*, Lat.] The act of touching. *Cockeram.*—They neither can speak, nor attend to the discourses of others, without being roused by some external *taction*. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

TACUBA, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name; 6 miles west-north-west of Mexico, and having, leading to it, a beautiful causeway of cut stone, being the same by which Cortez made his way into the capital. It contains 724 families of Indians. Lat. 19. 28. N. long. 99. 10. 30. W.

TACUBAYA, a town of Mexico; 4 miles south-west of Mexico. Its population consists of 342 families of Indians.

TACUCU, a small river of Guiana, which enters the Caroni by the west side.

TACUNGA, a province of Quito, bounded east by the valley of Vicoso, north by the province of Quito, north-west by that of Esmeraldas and also Guayaquil, south-west by that of Chimbo, and south by that of Ambato. It is 21 leagues long from east to west, and 14 wide from north to south. It is of a cold temperature, but abounds in cattle, which have excellent pastures. It produces wheat, barley, and rye, and wools of many kinds, of which some beautiful articles are manufactured. The province is well watered, and abounds throughout with nitre.

TACUNGA, the capital of the above district, situated in an extensive plain to the south of Quito, near the Cordillera of the Andes. The town is large and well arranged, the

streets are wide, the houses all of pumice stone, arched and handsome. The inhabitants are computed at 12,000, the greater part being Spaniards and mestizoes. The natives are good mechanics and artizans, and they make cloths, baizes, and other manufactures; 44 miles south of Quito, and 49 north-north-east of Rio Bamba. Lat. 55. 14½. S. long. 73. 23. W.

TACURAGUA, a small river of Guiana, which runs north, and enters the Orinoco.

TACURAY, a small river of Quito, in the province of Manass, which runs north-north-east, and enters the Guayaga.

TACUTO, a river of Guiana, which falls into the Amazonas.

TADCASTER, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, situated almost in the centre of the county, on the south side of the river Wharf, over which it has a fine bridge. The town is neat, well built, and pleasant. Tadcaster is a place of great antiquity. It is supposed to have been the Calcaria of the Romans; and from its situation was considered by them as one of the outposts or gates to the chief military station, the city of York. The ancient name seems to have been derived from calx or limestone, which abounds in the neighbourhood. In the civil wars of England it was always regarded as a post of great importance, and the possession of it was often contested. There are yet some vestiges of a trench surrounding great part of the town, and probably thrown up in the time of Charles I. In 1642 the town was attacked by the earl of Newcastle, and was abandoned by Sir Thomas Fairfax, on account of the superior force of his opponent. Market on Thursday, and four annual fairs; 9 miles south-south-west of York, and 188 north-by-west of London.

TADDINGTON, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 3 miles south-south-west of Tideswell.

TADEO, *Str.*, a town of New Navarre; 120 miles west of Casa Grande.

TADLEY, a township of England, in Southamptonshire; 6½ miles north-north-west of Basingstoke. Population 535.

TADLOW, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 6 miles south of Caxton.

TADMERTON, *GREAT*, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire, in which is situated the hamlet of Little Taderton; 4½ miles west-south-west of Banbury. Population 377.

TADOUSAC, a small settlement of Lower Canada, at the mouth of the Saguenay, on the left side of the river St. Lawrence. Lat. 48. 2. N. long. 69. 16. W.

TADPOLE, *s.* [*ταδ, τοαδ, and pola, a young one*, Saxon.] A young shapeless frog, consisting only of a body and a tail.—I'll broach the *taepole* on my rapier's point. *Shakspeare.*

TAEN. The poetical contraction of *taken*.

The chewing flocks

Had *ta'en* their supper on the savoury herb
Of knot-grass dew-besprent. *Milton.*

TÆNIA, or **TENIA**, in Architecture, a member of the Doric architrave, resembling a square fillet, or reglet; and serving in lieu of a cymatium.

TENIA, in Zoology, a genus of the intestina order of worms; the characters of which are, that the body is flat and articulated, and that the head is furnished with four sucking bladders. Gmelin, in his edition of the Linnæan system, enumerates eighty-six species, besides several varieties. Their habitations are the viscera of men and of different animals. Our limits will not allow us to specify and describe them.

TAENSAPAVA, a river of West Florida, which runs into the Ibberville. Lat. 30. 19. N. long. 90. 52. W.

TAERENDO-ELF, a branch of the river Torneo, in Lapland, which is said to communicate with the river Calix, though it afterwards takes a contrary direction, and flows northward into the Frozen ocean.

TAF, or **TAAFFE**, a river of Wales, in the county of Glamorgan.

Glamorgan. It rises among the hills in Brecknockshire, from two sources, forming two streams, the Greater and Lesser Taf, which unite their waters below the village of Coed-y Cymmer, on their entrance into Glamorganshire: and from thence proceed by Merthyr Tydvil. About 12 miles below this town the Taf receives the Bangoid Taf, a mountain stream which flows into it from the eastward. Lower down it is joined by the Cyuon from the west, and a few miles lower by the united waters of the two Rhonddas. It then proceeds nearly southwards by the ancient city of Llandaff, and afterwards by Cardiff, towards the southern sea, which it enters in the small bay of Pinarth. In dry weather the Taf contains but little water. It is a handsome stream, however, and when swollen by the land floods from the mountains which rise from its shores, it rolls over its rocky bed in an impetuous torrent. It is navigable for small craft as far as Cardiff, to which the tide-water ascends. It is over this river that the noted bridge of Pont-y-Prydd is built, which consists of a single arch 140 feet span, and 55 feet above the level of the river. Its appearance is exceedingly beautiful and picturesque, rising like a rainbow from the steep banks on each side. It was designed and executed by William Edwards, a common mason in the country.

TAFALISGA, a town of the kingdom of Gallam, in Central Africa, situated at the junction of the Faleme with the Senegal.

TAFALLA, a small but ancient town of the north-east of Spain, in Navarre, on the river Cidacos; 27 miles north of Tudela, and 19 south of Pampeluna. It has 3000 inhabitants, was formerly the residence of the kings of Navarre, and the seat of an university. It stands in one of the most healthy and fertile parts of Spain.

TAFARA, a walled village of Bambarra, in Central Africa, where pure Mandingo is spoken.

TAFELBERG, a town on the east coast of the island of Ceram. Lat. 3. 20. S. long. 131. 10. E.

TAFELFICHTE, a mountain of Germany, situated at the point of meeting of the three mountains of Bohemia, Silesia, and Lusatia. Its elevation is 3370 feet, and the prospect from the top, on the side of Bohemia, is immense.

TAFFATA, or TAFFETA, *s.* [*taffetas*, Fr.; *taffetar*, Spanish; *тафата*, Græco-barb. V. Critop. Emend. in Meursii Gloss. p. 88.] A thin silk.

All hail the richest beauties on the earth!
—Beauties no richer than rich *taffata*. *Shakspeare.*

TAFFEREL, *s.* The upper part of the stern of a ship. *Scott.*

TAFILELT, a large district or kingdom, situated to the south-east of the mountain chain of Atlas, and tributary to the empire of Morocco. It consists of a vast plain, presenting an unvaried surface, like the sea out of sight of land. It is traversed by two rivers running in opposite directions, one of which loses itself in the desert of Angad, the other in the loose sands of the Sahara. Water, though brackish, is every where to be found at the depth of 12 feet. The inhabitants live in a patriarchal manner, like the Arabs, and are described as remarkably honest. The country possesses also a numerous breed of sheep and goats, from the wool of which the women manufacture stuffs and carpets, which are held in considerable estimation.

TAFNA, a river of Algiers, which falls into the Mediterranean, near Tackumbreet.

TAG, *s.* [*tag*, Icel., *tagg*, Su. Goth. *cuspis*, *aculeus*, *a point*.] A point of metal put to the end of a string.—It was the fashion, in those days, to wear much ribbon; which some adorned with *tags* of metal at the end. *Richardson.*
—Any thing paltry and mean.

Will you hence
Before the *tag* return, whose rage doth rend
Like interrupted waters. *Shakspeare.*

A young sheep.
To TAG, *v. a.* To fit any thing with an end, or point

of metal; as, to *tag* a lace.—There was hardly a thread of the original coat to be seen, but an infinite quantity of lace, and ribands, and fringe, and embroidery, and points; I mean only those *tagged* with silver; for the rest fell off. *Swift.*
—To fit one thing with another, appended.

His courteous host
Tags every sentence with some fawning word,
Such as my king, my prince, or least my lord. *Dryden.*

The word is here improperly used.
Compell'd by you to *tag* in rhimes
The common slanders of the times. *Swift.*

To join. This is properly to *tack*.—Resistance, and the succession of the house of Hanover, the whig writers perpetually *tag* together. *Swift.*

TAGABONA, a river of West Florida, which runs into the St. Mark. Lat. 30. 22. N. long. 84. 34. W.

TAGADEMPT, a village in the territory of Algiers, round which are the remains of a very large city, supposed the ancient Vaga. The edifices have been entirely defaced by the Arabs; 105 miles south-west of Algiers.

TAGAI, a small town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Simbirsk; 46 miles west of Simbirsk.

TAGALAZ, one of the Fox islands, in the North Pacific ocean. Lat. 53. 30. N. long. 185. 26. E.

TAGAMA, a district in the African desert, to the south of Fezzan.

TAGANROG, a town of the south-east of European Russia; in the government of Ekaterinoslav, near the north-west extremity of the sea of Azoph. It stands on the cliff of a lofty promontory, containing 6000 inhabitants; and being the staple of all the mercantile intercourse between the interior of Russia and foreign countries, through the medium of the Don, its traffic is extensive, and it contains several public establishments connected with its trade. It has a harbour and fortress, maritime and commercial courts, a naval hospital, and a lazaretto. The exports are corn, Siberian iron, leather, fish, and caviar; the imports are Greek wines, fruit, and manufactured articles. The vessels that arrive annually are between 200 and 300; they are in general of a small draught, the sea of Azoph being shallow. Taganrog was fortified by Peter I., in 1697, but dismantled after the treaty of Pruth, and given up to the Turks, in whose possession it remained till 1768. Here died Alexander I. The environs are extremely fertile; 27 miles west-north-west of Azoph. Lat. 47. 12. 40. N. long. 18. 39. 0. E.

TAGAPOLA, a small island among the Philippines; 25 miles west of the island of Samar.

TAGARDI, a small town of European Turkey, in Romania.

TAGARIPE, a castle which has been built upon a point of land in the bay of Todos Santos, in Brazil.

TAGASA, or TAGASTA, a poor town of Fez, situated on a river about three leagues from the Mediterranean; 20 miles north of Melilla.

TAGAZOUTE, a village of Algiers; 45 miles south-east of Oran.

TAGAZZE, a station of the desert of Sahara, in Central Africa, in the route of the caravans from Fez to Tombuctoo.

TAGETES [from Tages, grandson of Jupiter and son of Genius, who first taught the Etruscans the art of divination.—Apuleius, who first used this name, applied it to the Tansey. *Dillenius*], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia superflua, natural order of compositæ oppositifoliæ, corymbifera (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common quite simple, one-leaved, tubular, oblong, five-toothed. Corolla: compound radiate; corollets hermaphrodite, tubular, many, on an elevated disk. Females ligular, five, in the ray. Proper in the hermaphrodites, tubular, half-five-cleft, erect, longer than the calyx; segments linear, inwardly villose. In the females ligular, longer than in the hermaphrodites, almost equal in length and breadth, very blunt, narrower towards the tube, tomentose, permanent. *Stamina:*

Stamina: in the hermaphrodites, filaments five capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. **Pistil:** in the hermaphrodites: germ oblong. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma bifid, slender, reflexed. In the females: germ oblong. Style filiform, length of the hermaphrodite. Stigma bifid slender, reflexed. Pericarp, none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds in the hermaphrodites solitary, linear, compressed, a little shorter than the calyx. Down with five, erect, acuminate, unequal chaffs. In the females, like the others. Receptacle, naked, small flat.—*Essential Character.* Calyx, one-leaved, five-toothed, tubular. Florets of the ray five, permanent. Down with firm erect chaffs. Receptacle naked.

1. *Tagetes patula*, or French marygold.—Stem a foot and half high, almost upright, smooth, diffused. Leaves deeply pinnatifid, the segments lanceolate, serrate smooth, dark-green; paler at the back; flowers solitary, terminating, gold-coloured, on a long upright peduncle. Calyx eight-grooved, eight-toothed, smooth and even. Corollèts in the ray about thirty, grooved and plaited. Seeds blackish. There are several varieties of the French Marygold, differing in size, and greatly in colour, some beautifully variegated, and others quite plain.

2. *Tagetes erecta*, or African marygold.—Stem three or four feet high, straight, round, green, dividing from the middle into many branches, each bearing one large flower. Leaves long, pinnate, leaflets dark-green. Flowers yellow, from brimstone to orange colour.—Of this there are the following varieties:—Pale yellow or brimstone-colour; deep yellow; orange-coloured: all these with single, double and fistulous flowers; middling African, with orange-coloured flowers; sweet-scented African.—It is a native of Mexico.

3. *Tagetes minuta*.—Stem simple upright, peduncles scaly many-flowered.

4. *Tagetes rotundifolia*.—Stem simple upright, leaves cordate simple, peduncles naked one-flowered.—It grows naturally at La Vera Cruz, in New Spain.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants being annual, must be propagated from seeds every spring; they may be sown upon a moderate hot-bed the beginning of April; and when the plants are come up, they should have plenty of fresh air, for if they are drawn too much, they will not afterward become handsome, notwithstanding they have all possible care taken of them. When their flowers appear, if any should prove single, the plants should be destroyed.

TAGGAH, a ruined town of Algiers, in Africa. On the opposite side of a rivulet is the town of Zainah; 50 miles south-west of Constantina.

TAGGAL, a town of the island of Java, on the north coast. It is prettily situated on a broad river. The country around is extremely fertile; and the whole of this part of Java, and farther to the east, is the rice granary, not only for the supply of Batavia, but for exportation to the Eastern isles; 244 miles east of Batavia. Lat. 6. 44. S. long. 108. 55. E.

TAGGIA, a small town in the north of Italy, province of Genoa, with an extensive cultivation of wine in its vicinity.

TAGHMOM, a village of Ireland, in the county of Wexford, which was a borough previous to the union of Ireland with Great Britain, returning two members to the Irish parliament; 82 miles south of Dublin, and 7 west of Wexford.

TAGLIACOZZI, or **TALIAOCOTIUS** (Gasparo), a famous physician. See the introduction to the article **PATHOLOGY**.

TAGLIACOZZO, a small town in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the Abruzzo Ultra; 18 miles south-west of Aquila, and 35 east-north-east of Rome.

TAGLIAMENTO, a large river of Austrian Italy, in the government of Venice, which rises on Mount Mauro, near the Alps, in the south of Tyrol, and flows southward till reaching the Adriatic. It is navigable from the small town of Latisana.

TAGLIO, a river of the north-west of Italy, in the pro-

vince of Genoa, which flows into the Mediterranean; 4 miles east of San Remo.

TAGLO BAY, a bay on the south coast of the island of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 8. N. long. 125. 40. E.

TAGLO POINT, a cape on the north-west coast of the island of Mindanao.

TAGOAST, or **TAGAOST**, a town of Western Africa, in the province of Sus, situated in a fertile district. It is large, and defended by a garrison of 400 men.

TAGOLANDA, a small island, about 20 miles in circumference, situated off the north-eastern extremity of Celebes. This island is populous, and plentifully supplied with provisions. The Dutch formerly kept a few soldiers here, and a schoolmaster to convert the inhabitants, who are described as pork-eating Pagans, which is a grand distinction among the Malay islands. Lat. 2. 10. N. long. 125. 5. E.

TAGOMAGO. See **TAYOMAYO**.

TAGTAIL, *s.* A worm which has the tail of another colour.—They feed on *tagtails*, worms and slugs. *Carew*.

TAGUACAY, a river of Paraguay, which runs south, and enters the Parana.

TAGUS, **TAJO**, or **TEJO**, the largest of all the rivers of Spain, issues from a great spring in the mountains of Albaracin, between Arragon and Old Castile, at the distance of little more than 100 miles from the Mediterranean. Pursuing its course to the Atlantic, in a westward direction, a little inclined to the south, it passes the palace of Aranjuez, the cities of Toledo, Talavera, Alcantara, Abrantes, and Lisbon, and flows into the sea, 7 miles below the capital of Portugal. Like the Guadalquivir, and other great rivers of Spain, it absorbs the waters collected between two long parallel chains of mountains. Long before reaching Lisbon, it receives the tide, and becomes expanded into an estuary. Its volume of water is large throughout; but in so mountainous a country as Spain, river navigation is very limited, and that of the Tagus is not at present carried farther than Abrantes in Portugal.

TAGYPEEL, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the north-east coast of Bornea. Lat. 6. 29. N. long. 117. 54. E.

TAGZA, a village of Algiers; 12 miles south-south-east of Constantina.

TAHA EL MODAIN, a village of Egypt; 5 miles south-west of Samalut.

TAHEAN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Yunan. Lat. 25. 52. N. long. 101. 50. E.

TAHEJ, a town of Hindostan, province of Cutch, of which, in the 16th century, it was the capital, but is now dwindled to a small village. Lat. 23. 17. N. long. 76. 27. E.

TAHIRAN. See **TEHRAUN**.

TAHMOUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude. Lat. 27. 41. N. long. 81. 10. E.

TAHNOON, a district of Northern Hindostan, province of Nepal, district of the 24 rajahs. It is much covered with wood and long grass, but has not been explored by Europeans.

TAHNUM, a town of Hindostan, province of Nepal, situated 25 miles north-west from Gorcah. Lat. 28. 41. N. long. 84. 10. E.

TAHOU, a village on the Grain coast of Africa. Lat. 4. 50. N. long. 6. 50. W.

TA-HOOROWA, one of the smaller Sandwich islands, situated about 9 miles from the south-west part of Mowee. It is destitute of wood, and the soil appears to be sandy and barren. Lat. 21. 40. N. long. 199. 30. E.

TAHRAH, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Cutch, situated about 10 miles from Luckport Bunder. Lat. 23. 40. N. long. 69. E.

TAHTA, a market town of Upper Egypt, on the Nile; 32 miles south of Siout.

TAHUK or **TABUK**, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia, the first conquest made by Mahomet; 176 miles south-south-east of Jerusalem.

TAHWAHNAHIOOKS, a river of North America, which runs south-west into the Columbia; 110 miles above its mouth.

TAI,

TAI, a large lake of China, in the provinces of Kiangnan and Tchekiang, near 50 leagues in circumference.

TAIBE. See **THAIBE**.

TAIDENT, a town of Fezzan, in Africa; 130 miles south-south-west of Mourzouk.

TAIEF, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia, which, in the time of Mahomet, was of considerable strength, and withstood a siege of twenty days, at the end of which the inhabitants submitted, and received the doctrine of Islam; 58 miles east of Mecca.

TAIGUEN, a river of Chili, which runs north-north-west, and forming a curve, enters the Quinu.

TAIL, *s.* [Goth. and Icel. *tagl*; *τᾱγλ*, Saxon.] That which terminates the animal behind; the continuation of the vertebrae of the back hanging loose behind.

Oft have I seen a hot o'er-weening cur,
Run back and bite because he was withheld,
Who, having suffer'd with the bear's fell paw,
Hath clapt his *tail* betwixt his legs and cried. *Shakspeare.*

The *tail* fin is half a foot high, but underneath level with the *tail*. *Grew*.—The lower part.—The Lord shall make thee the head, and not the *tail*; and thou shalt be above, and not beneath. *Deut*.—Any thing hanging long; a catkin.—Duretus writes a great praise of the distilled water of those *tails* that hang upon willow trees. *Harvey*.—The hinder part of any thing.—With the helm they turn and steer the *tail*. *Butler*.

To turn TAIL. To fly; to run away.—Would she *turn tail* to the heron, and fly quite out another way; but all was to return in a higher pitch. *Sidney*.

To TAIL, v. n. To pull by the tail.

The conquering foe they soon assail'd,
First Trulla stav'd and Cerdon *tail'd*. *Hudibras.*

TAILBERD, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Sharp, Westmoreland.

TAILED, *adj.* Furnished with a tail.—Snouted and *tailed* like a boar, footed like a goat. *Grew*.

TAILLAD, **CAPE**, a promontory in the south of France, in Provence, in the Mediterranean, to the east of Toulon.

TAILLAGE, *s.* [*tailleur*, Fr.] *Taillage* originally signifies a piece cut out of the whole; and, metaphorically, a share of a man's substance paid by way of tribute. In law, it signifies a toll or tax. *Cowel*.

TAILLE, *s.* *Taille*, the fee which is opposite to fee-simple, because it is so minced or pared, that it is not in his free power to be disposed of who owns it; but is by the first giver, cut or divided from all other, and tied to the issue of the donee. This limitation, or *taille*, is either general or special. *Taille* general is that whereby lands or tenements are limited to a man, and to the heirs of his body begotten; and the reason of this term is, because how many soever women the tenant, holding by this title, shall take to his wives, one after another, in lawful matrimony, his issue by them all have a possibility to inherit one after the other. *Taille* special is that whereby lands or tenements be limited unto a man and his wife, and the heirs of their two bodies begotten. *Cowel*.

TAILLEBOURG, a small town in the west of France, situated on the Charente, with a castle and 1200 inhabitants. It has a traffic in corn, wine, and brandy; 7 miles north of Saintes, and 11 south-west of St. Jean de Angeley.

TAILLEFER, a mountain of the Alps, on the borders of the French department of the Isere, elevated 8280 feet above the sea.

TAILOR, *s.* [*tailleur*, from *tailleur*, French, *to cut*; old Engl. *talyowre*, Prompt. Parv. and to this day *taylior*, in three syllables, is common in the north.] One whose business is to make clothes.

I'll entertain a score or two of *tailors*,
To study fashions to adorn my body. *Shakspeare.*

To TAILOR, v. n. To perform the business of a tailor.

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These *tailoring* artists for our lays
Invent cramp'd rules; and, with strait stays
Striving free nature's shape to hit,
Emaciate sense before they fit.

Green.

TAIMATI, a river of South America, in the province of Darien, which rises in the south coast, and falls into the gulf San Miguel.—There is another river in the same province and kingdom, which rises in the mountains of the north coast, runs south-west, and enters the Chucunaqui.

TAIMATI, a river of New Granada, in the province of Choco, which enters the sea in the gulf of Darien.

TAIMBOORNY, a town of Hindostan, province of Aungabadi, now belonging to the British. Lat. 18. 0. N. long. 75. 23. E.

TAIMUR, a cape of Asiatic Russia, in the district of Turuchansk, on the Frozen ocean. All the efforts to double it have hitherto proved ineffectual.

TAIMURSKAIA, a gulf of the Frozen ocean, on the coast of Asiatic Russia, situated between Cape Cevero Vostopchin and Cape Cevero Zapadnoi. Lat. 75. to 77. N. long. 94. 10. to 98. 10. E.

TAIN, a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, extending 8 miles in length along the frith of Dornoch, by about 2 in breadth. Population 2384.

TAIN, a royal burgh of Scotland, in the above parish, and county town of Ross-shire, seated on the south of the frith of Dornoch, 30½ miles north-by-east of Inverness by the ferry of Kessock, and 9 from Dornoch by the Meikle Ferry. The town is old and irregularly built; but there is a number of new houses, and an elegant building for assemblies and the meeting of free masons. The town is governed by a provost 3 bailies, a dean of guild, treasurer, and 9 councillors, and unites with Dingwall, Dornoch, Kirkwall, and Wick, in sending a representative to parliament. Population 1740.

TAIN, or **TEAN**, a river of England, in Staffordshire, which runs into the Dove, near Uttoxeter.

TAIN, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Drome, situated on the Rhone. It is noted for the excellent wines produced in the neighbourhood, and known by the names of Cote-Rotie and Hermitage. Population 1400; 10 miles north of Valence.

TAIN-GAN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Shantung. Lat. 36. 15. N. long. 116. 50. E.

To TAIN, v. a. [*teindre*, Fr.] To imbue or impregnate with any thing.

The spaniel struck
Stiff by the *tainted* gale, with open nose
Draws full upon the latent prey. *Thomson.*

To stain; to sully.

We come not by the way of accusation
To *taint* that honour every good tongue blesses. *Shakspeare.*

To infect; to poison; to disease.
With wholesome herbage mixt, the direful bane
Of vegetable venom *taints* the plain. *Pope.*

To corrupt.

The yellow tinging plague
Internal vision *taints*. *Thomson.*

A corrupt contraction of *attaint*.

To TAIN, v. n. To be infected; to be touched with something corrupting.

Till Birnam wood remove to Dunsinane
I cannot *taint* with fear. *Shakspeare.*

TAIN, s. [*teinte*, Fr.] A tincture; a stain.—An insect.

As killing as the canker to the rose,
Or *taint*-worm to the weaning herds that graze. *Milton.*

Infection; corruption; depravation.

Her offence
Must be of such unnatural degree,
That monsters it; or your forevouch'd affection
Fall'n into *taint*. *Shakspeare.*

A spot;

A spot; a soil; a blemish.

Now I

Unspeak mine own detraction; here abjure
The *taints* and blames I laid upon myself.

Shakspeare.

TA'INTLESS, *adj.* Free from infection; pure.

No humours gross, or frowzy steams,
Could from her *taintless* body flow.

Swift.

TA'INTURE, *s.* [*tinctura*, Lat.] Taint; tinge; defilement.

See here the *tainture* of thy nest,
And look thyself be faultless.

Shakspeare.

TAIOWA, a small town of Hungary, in the county of Sohl, with copper mines and works.

TAI-PING, a city of China, of the first rank, in Kiangnan, on the Yang-tse-kiang river, at the junction of three of its tributaries. This situation gives it a considerable trade. It is about 525 miles south of Peking. Lat. 31. 38. N. long. 118. 14. E.

TAI-PING, a city of China, of the first rank, in Quangsee. This city is built on a point of land which is almost surrounded by a river. On the land side it is fortified by a wall, that reaches from one arm of the same river to the other. The territory of this city is very fruitful, populous, and well cultivated, being the best in all the province. A great number of forts are kept up, because it is near the confines of the kingdom of Tonquin. Lat. 22. 25. N. long. 106. 34. E.

TAIPOL, a small but strong town of European Russia, in the south of Finland, on a peninsula in the Lake Ladoga; 54 miles north of St. Petersburg.

TAISERO, a town of Japan, in the island of Ximo; 75 miles north of Nangasaki. Lat. 33. 30. N. long. 132. 7. E.

TAISUGAN KARAKOL, a lake of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa; 132 miles south-south-west of Orenburg.

TAI-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Tchekiang. This city, which has six others in its district, is situated on the bank of a river, in a mountainous country, and is not very considerable. Lat. 28. 55. N. long. 121. 2. E.

TAI-TONG, a city of China, of the first rank, in Shansee. It is situated in a mountainous country, and is the only place exposed to the incursions of the Tartars. It is very well fortified, according to the manner of the Chinese, and has a very strong garrison. Its territory is surrounded by the great wall, which has forts from place to place. Its jurisdiction is very large, and extended over four great cities of the second order, and seven of the third. Lapis lazuli is in great plenty here; and there is a kind of jasper, which is transparent, and as white as agate: porphyry, marble, and jasper, of all colours, are very plentiful; and here is also a great trade for skins; 155 miles west of Peking. Lat. 40. 5. N. long. 112. 44. E.

TAITOU SAHA, a small island in the sea of Japan. Lat. 42. 32. N. long. 130. 42. E.

TAI-TSANG, a city of China, of the second rank, in Kiangnam. Lat. 31. 30. N. long. 120. 24. E.

TAIVERAM, a town of the south of India, district of Dindigul. Lat. 9. 54. N. long. 77. 25. E.

TAI-Y, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quangsee, on the south side of the Posoi. Lat. 23. 24. N. long. 106. 18. E.

TAI-YUEN, a city of China, of the first rank, in Shansee. It is three leagues in compass, populous, and strongly fortified. It was formerly a very splendid city, containing numerous palaces, inhabited by princes of blood; but these are now deserted, and are gone to ruin; 230 miles west-south-west of Peking. Lat. 37. 54. N. long. 111. 56. E.

TAJAI, a river of Brazil, in the province of Rey, which runs south-south-east, and enters the Tajai-meri, just before the latter falls into the sea.

TAJAI-MERI, a river of Brazil, in the province of Rey, which runs east, and enters the sea in a bay of the same name.

TAJANJE, a river of Brazil, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 27. 35. S.

TAJGAW, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapoor. It was strongly fortified by Puseram Bow, and was his capital in the year 1792. Lat. 16. 47. N. long. 75. 55. E.

TAJIPURU, a large arm of the great river Amazons, which branches off just before the main stream enters the sea, and, together with the river Dos Bocas, forms the large island of Marayo or Joannes.

TAJUNNA, a river of Spain, which rises a few miles to the south of Siguenza, and falls into the Xarama, a little before the conflux of the latter with the Tagus.

TAKA, a considerable district of Eastern Nubia, occurring in the track between Shendy and Suakin. It extends about three days journey in length, and one in breadth, and is famous over all these countries for its extreme fertility. Its inhabitants are partly cultivators, and partly composed of those wandering Arabs who are named Bedouins. Its produce bears little proportion to what might be expected from the fertility of the soil, and from its being regularly inundated. Its dhourra is of the best quality, and is sold in the market of Jidda 20 per cent. higher than that of Egypt. Its camels and oxen are equally celebrated. The Arabs of Taka are a warlike race, being engaged in constant enmity with their neighbours the Rishareen. They are also a robust and hardy class of men. The chief articles imported are tobacco, natron, spices, especially cloves, incense, beads, and hardware; in return for which they give dhourra.

TAKAKAKKAN, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 3. 8. N. long. 116. 51. E.

TAKAMIDJA, a town of Japan, in the island of Nippon; 150 miles south-west of Meaco.

TAKAUL, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania; 40 miles north of Konieh.

To TAKE, *v. a.* pret. *took*, part. pass. *taken*, sometimes *took*. [Icel. *taka*, pret. *took*; Sax. *tæcan*, *prehendere*.] To receive what is offered; correlative to *give*; opposed to *refuse*.

Distress'd myself, like you, confin'd I live,

And therefore can compassion *take* and give.

Dryden.

To seize what is not given.

In fetters one the barking porter ty'd,

And *took* him trembling from his sovereign's side.

Dryden.

To receive.—No man shall *take* the nether or upper millstone to pledge. *Deut.*—To receive with good or ill will.

For, what we know must be,

Why should we, in our peevish opposition,

Take it to heart.

Shakspeare.

To lay hold on; to catch by surprise or artifice.

Men in their loose unguarded hours they *take*,

Not that themselves are wise, but others weak.

Pope.

To snatch; to seize.—I am contented to dwell on the Divine Providence, and *take* up any occasion to lead me to its contemplation. *Hale.*—To make prisoner.

Appoint a meeting with this old fat fellow,

Where we may *take* him, and disgrace him for it.

Shakspeare.

To captivate with pleasure; to delight; to engage.

More than history can pattern, though devis'd

And play'd to *take* spectators.

Shakspeare.

To entrap; to catch in a snare.—*Take* us the foxes, that spoil the vines. *Canticles.*—To understand in any particular sense or manner. The words are more properly *taken* for the air or æther than the heavens.—*Raleigh.*—To exact.

Take no usury of him or increase. *Lev.*—To get; to have;

to appropriate.—And the king of Sodom said unto Abram,

Give me the persons, and *take* the goods to thyself. *Gen.*

—To use; to employ.—This man always *takes* time, and

ponders things maturely before he passes his judgment.

Watts.—To blast; to infect.

Strike her young bones,

You *taking* airs with lameness.

Shakspeare.

To

- To judge in favour of; to adopt.
The nicest eye could no distinction make,
Where lay the advantage, or what side to *take*. *Dryden*.
- To admit any thing bad from without.
I ought to have a care
To keep my wounds from *taking* air. *Hudibras*.
- To get; to procure.—Striking stones they *took* fire out of them. *Mac*.—To turn to; to practise.—If any of the family be distressed, order is taken for their relief: if any be subject to vice, or *take* ill courses, they are reprov'd. *Bacon*.—To close in with; to comply with.
Old as I am, I *take* thee at thy word,
And will to-morrow thank thee with my sword. *Dryden*.
- To form; to fix.—Resolutions, *taken* upon full debate, were seldom prosecuted with equal resolution. *Clarendon*.—To catch in the hand; to seize.—I *took* not arms till urg'd by self-defence. *Dryden*.—To admit; to suffer.
Yet thy moist clay is pliant to command;
Now *take* the mould; now bend thy mind to feel
The first sharp motions of the forming wheel. *Dryden*.
- To perform any action.
A long sigh he drew,
And his voice failing, *took* his last adieu. *Dryden*.
- To receive into the mind.—A student should never satisfy himself with bare attendance on lectures, unless he clearly *takes* up the sense. *Watts*.—To go into.—When news were brought that the French king besieged Constance, he posted to the sea-coast to *take* ship. *Camden*.—To go along; to follow; to pursue.
The joyful short-liv'd news soon spread around,
Took the same train. *Dryden*.
- To swallow; to receive.—Consider the insatisfaction of several bodies, and of their appetite to *take* in others. *Bacon*.—To swallow as a medicine.—Upon this assurance he *took* physic. *Locke*.—To choose one of more.
Take to thee from among the cherubin
Thy choice of flaming warriors. *Milton*.
- To copy.
Our phoenix queen was pourtray'd too so bright,
Beauty alone cou'd beauty *take* so right. *Dryden*:
- To convey; to carry; to transport.
Carry Sir John Falstaff to the fleet,
Take all his company along with him. *Shakspeare*.
- To fasten on; to seize.—Wheresoever he *taketh* him he teareth him; and he foameth. *St. Mark*.
At first they warm, then scorch, and then they *take*,
Now with long necks from side to side they feed;
At length grown strong their mother fire forsake,
And a new colony of flames succeed. *Dryden*.
- Not to refuse; to accept.
Thou *tak'st* thy mother's word too far, said he,
And hast usurp'd thy boasted pedigree. *Dryden*.
- To adopt.—I will *take* you to me for a people, and I will be to you a God. *Exod*.—To change with respect to place.—Lovers flung themselves from the top of the precipice into the sea, where they were sometimes *taken* up alive. *Addison*.—To separate.
The living fabric now in pieces *take*,
Of every part due observation make;
All which such art discovers. *Blackmore*.
- To admit.
Though so much of Heav'n appears in my make,
The foulest impressions I easily *take*. *Swift*.
- To pursue; to go in.
It was her fortune once to *take* her way
Along the sandy margin of the sea. *Dryden*.
- To receive any temper or disposition of mind.
Few are so wicked as to *take* delight
In crimes unprofitable. *Dryden*.
- To endure; to bear.—Won't you then *take* a jest. *Spectator*.—To draw; to derive.—The firm belief of a future judgment, is the most forcible motive to a good life; because *taken* from this consideration of the most lasting happiness and misery. *Tillotson*.—To leap; to jump over.
That hand which had the strength, ev'n at your door,
To cudgel you, and make you *take* the hatch. *Shakspeare*.
- To assume.
Fit you to the custom,
And *take* t'ye as your predecessors have,
Your honour with your form. *Shakspeare*.
- To allow; to admit.—I *took* your weak excuses. *Dryden*.
To receive with fondness.
I lov'd you still, and
Took you into my bosom. *Dryden*.
- To carry out for use.—He commanded them that they should *take* nothing for their journey, save a staff. *St. Mark*.—To suppose; to receive in thought; to entertain in opinion.
This I *take* it
Is the main motive of our preparations. *Shakspeare*.
- To separate for one's self from any quantity; to remove for one's self from any place.—Four heifers from his female store he *took*. *Dryden*.—Not to leave; not to omit.—The discourse here is about ideas, which he says are real things, and we see in God: in *taking* this along with me, to make it prove any thing to his purpose, the argument must stand thus. *Locke*.—To receive payments.—Never a wife leads a better life than she does; do what she will, *take* all, pay all. *Shakspeare*.—To obtain by mensuration.—With a two foot rule in his hand measuring my walls, he *took* the dimensions of the room. *Swift*.—To withdraw.—Honeycomb, on the verge of threescore, *took* me aside, and asked me, whether I would advise him to marry? *Spectator*.—To seize with a transitory impulse; to affect so as not to last.—Tiberius, noted for his niggardly temper, only gave his attendants their diet; but once he was *taken* with a fit of generosity, and divided them into three classes. *Arbutnot*.—To comprise; to comprehend.—We always *take* the account of a future state into our schemes about the concerns of this world. *Atterbury*.—To have recourse to.—A sparrow *took* a bush just as an eagle made a stoop at an hare. *L'Estrange*.—To produce; or suffer to be produced.—No purposes whatsoever which are meant for the good of that land will prosper, or *take* good effect. *Spenser*.—To catch in the mind.—These do best who *take* material hints to be judged by history. *Locke*.—To hire; to rent.
If three ladies like a luckless play,
Take the whole house upon the poet's day. *Pope*.
- To engage in; to be active in.
Question your royal thoughts, make the case yours;
Be now the father, and propose a son;
Behold yourself so by a son disdain'd;
And then imagine me *taking* your part,
And in your pow'r so silencing your son. *Shakspeare*.
- To incur; to receive as it happens.
Now *take* your turn; and, as a brother should,
Attend your brother to the Stygian flood. *Dryden*.
- To admit in copulation.
Five hundred asses yearly *took* the horse,
Producing mules of greater speed and force. *Sandys*.
- To catch eagerly.
Drances *took* the word; who grudg'd, long since,
The rising glories of the Daunian prince. *Dryden*.
- To use as an oath or expression.—Thou shalt not *take* the name

name of the Lord in vain. *Exodus*.—To seize as a disease.—They that come abroad after these showers, are commonly taken with sickness. *Bacon*.

To TAKE away. To deprive of.

Not foes nor fortune *takes* this pow'r away,
And is my Abelard less kind than they.

Pope.

To TAKE away. To set aside : to remove.—If we *take away* consciousness of pleasure and pain, it will be hard to know wherein to place personal identity. *Locke*.

To TAKE care. To be careful ; to be solicitous for ; to superintend.—Thou shalt not muzzle the ox that treadeth out the corn. Doth God *take care* for oxen? *1 Cor.*

To TAKE care. To be cautious ; to be vigilant.

To TAKE course. To have recourse to measures.—They meant to *take a course* to deal with particulars by reconcilements, and cared not for any head. *Bacon*.

To TAKE down. To crush ; to reduce ; to suppress.—*Take down* their mettle, keep them lean and bare. *Dryden*.

To TAKE down. To swallow ; to take by the mouth.—We cannot *take down* the lives of living creatures, which some of the Paracelsians say, if they could be *taken down*, would make us immortal ; the next for subtilty of operation, to take bodies putrefied, such as may be easily taken. *Bacon*.

To TAKE from. To derogate ; to detract.—It *takes* not from you, that you were born with principals of generosity ; but it adds to you that you have cultivated nature. *Dryden*.

To TAKE from. To deprive of.—Conversation will add to their knowledge, but be too apt to *tack from* their virtue. *Locke*.

To TAKE heed. To be cautious ; to beware.

Take heed lest passion
Sway thy judgment to do ought. *Milton.*

To TAKE heed to. To attend.—Nothing sweeter than to *take heed unto* the commandments of the Lord. *Ecclus.*

To TAKE in. To inclose.—Upon the sea-coast are parcels of land that would pay well for the *taking in*. *Mortimer*.

To TAKE in. To lessen ; to contract : as, he *took in* his ils.

To TAKE in. To cheat ; to gull : as the cunning ones were *taken in*. *A low vulgar phrase.*

To TAKE in hand. To undertake.—Till there were a perfect reformation, nothing would prosper that they *took in hand*. *Clarendon*.

To TAKE in. To comprise ; to comprehend.—This love of our country *takes in* our families, friends, and acquaintance. *Addison*.

To TAKE in. To admit.

Let fortune empty her whole quiver on me,
I have a soul, that, like an ample shield,
Can *take in* all ; and verge enough for more. *Dryden*.

To TAKE in. To win by conquest.—Open places are easily *taken in*, and towns not strongly fortified make but a weak resistance. *Felton*.

To TAKE in. To receive locally.—That which men *take in* by education is next to that which is natural. *Tillotson*.

To TAKE in. To receive mentally.—A man can never have *taken in* his full measure of knowledge before he is hurried off the stage. *Addison*.

To TAKE notice. To observe.

To TAKE notice. To show by an act that observation is made.—Some laws restrained the extravagant power of the nobility, the diminution whereof they took very heavily, though at that time they *took little notice* of it. *Clarendon*.

To TAKE oath. To swear.—The king of Babylon is come to Jerusalem, and hath taken of the king's seed, and of him *taken an oath*. *Ezekiel*.

To TAKE off. To invalidate ; to destroy ; to remove. When it is immediately followed by *from*, without an accusative, it may be considered either as elliptically suppressing the accusative, or as being neutral.

You must forsake this room and go with us ;
Your power and your command is *taken off*,
And Cassio rules in Cyprus.

Shakspeare.

To TAKE off. To withhold ; to withdraw.—He has *taken you off*, by a peculiar instance of his mercy, from the vanities and temptations of the world. *Wake*.

To TAKE off. To swallow.—Were the pleasure of drinking accompanied, the moment a man *takes off* his glass, with that sick stomach which, in some men, follows not many hours after, nobody would let wine touch his lips. *Locke*.

To TAKE off. To purchase.

To TAKE off. To copy.—*Take off* all their models in wood. *Addison*.

To TAKE off. To find place for.—The multiplying of nobility brings a state to necessity ; and in like manner, when more are bred scholars than preferments can *take off*. *Bacon*.

To TAKE off. To remove.—When Moses went in, he *took the veil off* until he came out. *Exod.*

To TAKE on. See *TO TAKE upon*.

To TAKE order with. To check ; to take course with.—Though he would have turned his teeth upon Spain, yet he was *taken order with* before it came to that. *Bacon*.

To TAKE out. To remove from within any place.

Griefs are green ;
And all thy friends which thou must make thy friends
Have but their stings and teeth newly *taken out*.

Shakspeare.

To TAKE part. To share.—*Take part* in rejoicing for the victory over the Turks. *Pope*.

To TAKE place. To prevail ; to have effect.

Where arms *tack place*, all other pleas are vain ;
Love taught me force, and force shall love maintain.

Dryden.

To TAKE up. To borrow upon credit or interest.—I have anticipated already, and *taken up* from Boccace before I come to him. *Dryden*.

To TAKE up. To be ready for ; to engage with.

His divisions are, one power against the French,
And one against Glendower ; perforce, a third
Must *take up* us.

Shakspeare.

To TAKE up. To apply to the use of.

We *took up* arms not to revenge ourselves,
But free the commonwealth.

Addison.

To TAKE up. To begin.—They shall *take up* a lamentation for me. *Ezek.*

To TAKE up. To fasten with a ligature passed under. A term of chirurgery.—A large vessel opened by incision must be *taken up* before you proceed. *Sharp*.

To TAKE up. To engross ; to engage.

Take my esteem,
If from my heart you ask, or hope for more,
I grieve the place is *taken up* before.

Dryden.

To TAKE up. To have final recourse to.—Arnobius asserts, that men of the finest parts and learning, rhetoricians, lawyers, physicians, despising the sentiments they had been once fond of, *took up* their rest in the Christian religion. *Addison*.

To TAKE up. To seize ; to catch ; to arrest.—I was *taken up* for laying them down. *Shakspeare*.

To TAKE up. To admit.—The ancients *took up* experiments upon credit, and did build great matters upon them. *Bacon*.

To TAKE up. To answer by reproving ; to reprimand.—And then a whoreson jackanapes must *take me up* for swearing ; as if I borrowed mine oaths of him, and might not spend them at my pleasure. *Shakspeare*.

To TAKE up. To begin where the former left off.—The plot is purely fiction; for I take it up where the history has laid it down. *Dryden.*

To TAKE up. To lift.—Take up these clothes here quickly: where's the cowstaff? *Shakspeare.*

To TAKE up. To occupy locally.

To TAKE up. To manage in the place of another.—I have his horse to take up the quarrel. *Shakspeare.*

To TAKE up. To comprise.—I prefer in our countryman the noble poem of Palemon and Arcite, which is perhaps not much inferior to the Ilias, only it takes up seven years. *Dryden.*

To TAKE up. To adopt to assume.

The French and we still change, but here's the curse,

They change for better, and we change for worse.

They take up our old trade of conquering,

And we are taking their's to dance and sing. *Dryden.*

To TAKE up. To collect; to exact a tax.—This great bassa was born in a poor country village, and in his childhood taken from his Christian parents, by such as take up the tribute children. *Knolles.*

To TAKE upon. To appropriate to; to assume; to admit to be imputed to.—If I had no more wit than he, to take a fault upon me that he did, he had been hang'd for't. *Shakspeare.*

To TAKE upon. To assume; to claim authority.—The sense sometimes approaches to neutral.

These dangerous unsafe lunes i' th' king! beshrew them,

He must be told on't, and he shall; the office

Becomes a woman best: I'll take't upon me. *Shakspeare.*

This verb, like *prendre* in French, is used with endless multiplicity of relations. And its uses are so numerous, that they cannot all easily be exemplified.

To TAKE, *v. n.* To direct the course; to have a tendency to.

To shun thy lawless lust the dying bride,

Unwary, took along the river's side. *Dryden.*

To please; to gain reception.—Words and thoughts, which cannot be changed but for the worse, must of necessity escape the transient view upon the theatre; and yet without these a play may take. *Dryden.*—To have the intended or natural effect.

The clods, expos'd to winter winds, will bake,

For putrid earth will best in vineyards take. *Dryden.*

To catch; to fix.—When flame taketh and openeth, it giveth a noise. *Bacon.*

To TAKE after. To learn of; to resemble; to imitate.

Beasts, that converse

With man, take after him, as hogs

Get pigs all th' year, and bitches dogs. *Hudibras.*

To TAKE in with. To resort to.—Men once placed take in with the contrary faction to that by which they enter. *Bacon.*

To TAKE on. To be violently affected.—Your husband is in his old tunes again; he so takes on yonder with my husband, that any madness I ever yet beheld seemed but tameness to this distemper. *Shakspeare.*

To TAKE on. To claim a character.

I take not on me here as a physician:

Nor do I, as an enemy to peace,

Troop in the throngs of military men:

But rather

To purge the obstructions, which begins to stop

Our very veins of life. *Shakspeare.*

To TAKE on. To grieve; to pine.

How will my mother, for a father's death,

Take on with me, and ne'er be satisfy'd? *Shakspeare.*

To TAKE to. To apply to; to be fond of.—Have him understand it as a play of older people, and he will take to it of himself. *Locke.*

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To TAKE to. To betake to; to have recourse.—If I had taken to the church, I should have had more sense than to have turned myself out of my benefice by writing libels. *Dryden.*

To TAKE up. To stop.—The mind of man being naturally timorous of truth, and yet averse to that diligent search necessary to its discovery, it must needs take up short of what is really so. *Glanville.*

To TAKE up. To reform.—This rational thought wrought so effectually, that it made him take up, and from that time prove a good husband. *Locke.*

To TAKE up with. To be contented with.—The ass takes up with that for his satisfaction, which he reckoned upon before for his misfortune. *L'Estrange.*

To TAKE up with. To lodge; to dwell.—Who would not rather take up with the wolf in the woods than make such a clatter in the world? *L'Estrange.*

To TAKE with. To please.—Our gracious master is a precedent to his own subjects, and seasonable mementos may be useful; and being discreetly used, cannot but take well with him. *Bacon.*

TAKELEY, a parish of England, in Essex; 3 miles south-east-by-east of Stansted Montfichet. Population 783.

TAKEN, the participle *pass.* of *take*.—Thou art taken in thy mischief. *2 Sam.*

TAKENHAM, a village of England, in Wiltshire, near Wootton Bassett.

TAKENO, a town of Japan, in the island of Ximo; 40 miles east-south-east of Ikva.

TAKER *s.* One that takes.

He will hang upon him like a disease,

He is sooner caught than the pestilence,

And the taker runs presently mad. *Shakspeare.*

TAKING, *s.* Seizure; distress of mind.—What a taking was he in, when your husband asked who was in the basket? *Shakspeare.*

TAKINGNESS, *s.* Quality of pleasing.—All outward adornings—have something in them of a complaisance and takingness. *Bp. Taylor.*

TAKMITZSKAIA, a town of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Irtysh; 36 miles south of Tara.

TAKONNACK, a mountain of the United States, in Massachusetts, south of Great Barrington. Its height is estimated at 3000 feet above the ocean.

TALA, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which runs south-south-east, and enters the river Salado.

TALA, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman, on the shore of the river Passage.

TALABO, CAPE, a cape on the east coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 0. 50. S. long. 123. 57. E.

TALAFIA, a small island in the South Pacific ocean, among those called Hapaae, south-west of Holavia.

TALAGIR, a small island among the Philippines; 25 miles west of Samar.

TALAHIGUA, a settlement of New Granada, in South America, and in the province of Carthagena, on the shore of the river Magdalena, where it is entered by the Cauca.

TALALAP, one of the Philippine islands, where the Spaniards, in 1630, built a church, and established a small religious mission; but the whole party was soon after murdered by the natives, and the church demolished.

TALAMANCAS, RIO DE LOS, a river of Guatimala, in the province of Costa Rica, which runs into the sea.

TALAMONE, a small town of Italy, in Tuscany, province of Sienna, on the sea-coast; 10 miles north-north-west of Orbitello.

TALANDA, a town of Greece, in the north of the ancient Bœotia, and in the east of the modern province of Livadia, situated on the gulf or channel of the same name, opposite to the long island of Eubœa or Negroponte; 18 miles north-north-east of Livadia, and 25 south-south-east of Zeitum.

TALANDA, or ATALANTA, a small island of European Turkey, in the gulf or channel of Talauda, between the east

coast of Greece and the island of Negroponte. It is opposite to the town of Talanda, and has a village of the same name.

TALANDRE, a large village, or rather town, of France, in Auvergne, department of the Puy de Dome, containing, together with the village of Veyne, 3300 inhabitants. It has a traffic in corn, wine, and hemp, and in the neighbourhood there are coal pits.

TALARIUS Ludus, among the Romans, a game somewhat resembling our dice-playing, and performed with a kind of gold or ivory dice, which they shook, as we do, in a box, before they threw them. There was this difference, however, between their game and ours, that their dice had but four sides, and were conically shaped.

TALARN, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Catalonia, with 1000 inhabitants; 28 miles north-by-east of Balagner, and 78 north-west of Barcelona.

TALAVERA DE LA REYNA, an ancient town in the interior of Spain, in New Castile, on the right bank of the Tagus, over which there is a bridge of 35 arches, 1200 feet in length. Few towns are more advantageously situated, in point either of climate or of the neighbouring country, being surrounded by a fertile plain of vast extent, intersected by the river. Part of the old ramparts are still in preservation, but they are little more than an object of curiosity; and it is, in a military sense, altogether an open place. It contains several well built churches, in particular that of the Hieronymites; has two public walks, one on the north, the other on the south of the town; but nothing can be poorer than the general appearance of the place. The dwelling-houses are seldom more than one story in height. The streets are badly paved, and are crossed by a number of narrow lanes. The pavement is wretched, and the town is full of pools after a heavy fall of rain. Its population, including the suburbs, is about 8000. Silk manufactures, established here about the year 1748, are still carried on in the town, and in the neighbouring village of Cervera, as well as manufactures of soap, hats, and earthenware.

Talavera is a place of great antiquity, and contains many Roman monuments. In the present age, it is memorable for the battle fought on 27th and 28th July, 1809, between a French army amounting to 47,000 men, and an allied force, in which there were 19,000 British, and between 30,000 and 40,000 Spaniards. The French, after making several desperate attacks on the British position, were repulsed; 63 miles west-south-west of Madrid.

TALAVERA LA REAL, a small town of the west of Spain, in Estremadura, on the Guadiana; 13 miles south-east of Badajos.

TALAVERA LA VIEJA, a small town of the west of Spain, on the Tagus. Here are found the ruins of an ancient Roman town, supposed to have been called *Ebury* or *Ebora*; 70 miles west-by-south of Toledo, and 34 west-south-west of Talavera de la Reyna.

TALBERT, POINTE DE, a cape of France, on the coast Brittany, in the English channel. Lat. 48. 52. N. long. 2. 59. W.

TALBERT'S ISLAND, a small island in the Atlantic, on the coast of Georgia. Lat. 30. 44. N.

TALBOT, a county of the United States, in Maryland, bounded north by Queen Anne county, east by Caroline and Dorchester counties, south by Dorchester county, and west by Chesapeake bay. Population 14,230, including 4875 slaves. Chief town, Easton.

TALBOT, s. [It is borne by the house of *Talbot* in their arms.] A hound: so used in Wase's translation of Grotius: a sort of hunting dog between a hound and a beagle.

The bold *talbot* kind,

Of these the prime, as white as Alpine snows. *Somerville.*

TALC, in Mineralogy. See **MINERALOGY**.

TALCA, or **ST. AUGUSTINE**, a town of Chili, in the province of Maule, of which it is the capital. It was founded in 1742, and is situated on the shore of the river Maule. Its population is considerable, owing to the rich

mines of gold in the mountains, and to the low price of provisions, which has induced many families to leave the other towns, and settle in Talca; 113 miles north-north-east of Concepcion, and 105 south of Santiago. Lat. 35. 13. S. long. 71. 1. W.

TALCAGUANA, PUNTA, a projection of land on the coast of Chili, which bounded the bay of Concepcion towards the west. Lat. 36. 35. S.

TALCAGUANO, a part of the coast, of the kingdom of Chili, within the bay of La Concepcion. It is much frequented by small vessels, as well for its good bottom, as for its being completely sheltered from the north winds; and although the disembarkation be, during the prevalence of those winds, somewhat difficult through the breakers, it is attended with no danger.

TALE, s. [*cale*, from *cellan*, Sax., *to tell*.] A narrative; a story. Commonly a slight or petty account of some trifling or fabulous incident; as, a *tale* of a tub.—This story prepared their minds for the reception of any *tales* relating to other countries. *Watts*.—Oral relation.

My conscience hath a thousand several tongues,
And every tongue brings in a several *tale*,
And every *tale* condemns me for a villain. *Shakspeare.*

[*cale*, Sax., reckoning, from *celan*, to count; *tala*, Icel. number.] Number reckoned.

For ev'ry bloom his trees in Spring afford,
An autumn apple was by *tale* restor'd. *Dryden.*

Reckoning; numeral account.

Money being the common scale
Of things by measure, weight and *tale*;
In all th' affairs of church and state,
'Tis both the balance and the weight. *Butler.*

Information; disclosure of any thing secret.

From hour to hour we ripe and ripe,
And then from hour to hour we rot and rot;
And thereby hangs a *tale*. *Shakspeare.*

To **TALE**, *v. n.* To relate stories. *Obsolete*.—And namely when they *talen* longe *Gower*.

TALEBEARER, s. One who gives officious or malignant intelligence.—The liberty of a common table is a tacit invitation to all intruders; as buffoons, spies, *talebearers*, flatterers. *L'Estrange*.

TALEBEARING, s. The act of informing; officious or malignant intelligence.—The said Timothy was extremely officious about their mistress's person, endeavouring, by flattery and *talebearing*, to set her against the rest of the servants. *Arbuthnot*.

TALEFUL, adj. Abounding in stories. *A bad word.*

The cottage hind
Hangs o'er the enlightened blaze, and *taleful* there.
Recounts his simple frolics. *Thompson.*

TALENT, s. [*talentum*, Lat.] A *talent* signified so much weight, or a sum of money, the value differing according to the different ages and countries. *Arbuthnot*.

Five *talents* in his debt,
His means most short, his creditors most straight. *Shakspeare.*

Faculty; power; gift of nature. A metaphor borrowed from the talents mentioned in the holy writ. It is used sometimes seriously, and sometimes lightly.—He is chiefly to be considered in his three different *talents*, as a critic, satyrist, and writer of odes. *Dryden*.—Quality; disposition. An improper and mistaken use.—Though the nation generally was without any ill *talent* to the church in doctrine or discipline, yet they were not without a jealousy that popery was not enough discountenanced. *Clarendon*.

TALENTED, adj. Endued with talent; a recent affectation, used however by some respectable writers.

TALES, s. [Latin.] A supply for men impannelled upon

upon a jury or inquest, and not appearing, or challenged; equal in reputation to those that were impannelled, and present in court; *tales de circumstantibus*.—Twelve returned upon the principal pannel, or the *tales*, are sworn to try according to their evidence. *Hale*.

TA'LETELLER, *s.* One who relates tales or stories.—*Tale-tellers*, in the north of Ireland, are hired to tell stories of giants and enchanters, to lull people asleep. *Guardian*.

TALGARTH, a parish of Wales, in Breconshire, 10 miles from the town of Brecon. In the neighbourhood is an extensive lake abounding in pike, perch, trout, &c. It has six annual fairs, in March, May, July, September, November and December. Population 606.

TALI, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Yunan, situated on a large lake. In the neighbourhood are mountains producing a species of marble beautifully variegated with different colours, exhibiting the appearance of hills, flowers, trees and rivers. This is fashioned by the inhabitants into tables and other pieces of ornamental furniture, for which there is a great demand over China. Lat. 25. 45. N. long. 100. E.

TALINUM, in Botany, a genus of Adanson's, separated by him from the Linnæan **PORTULACA**. See that article.

TALION, *s.* [*talio*, Lat. "lex talionis."] Law of retaliation. *Scott*.—Crimes not capital were punished by fines, flagellation, and the law of *talion*, eye for eye. *Geddes*.

TALISCAYAN, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Vera Cruz; 24 miles south of Vera Cruz.

TALISMAN, *s.* [*talism*, Arabic. The Arabian *talismans* are said to have been images made under such and such constellations, to receive the heavenly influences; either to be a phylactery, or an oracle. See Patrick on Gen. xxxi. 19.] A magical character.

Of *talismans* and sigils knew the power,
And careful watch'd the planetary hour. *Pope*.

TALISMANIC, *adj.* [from *talisman*] Magical.—The figure of a heart bleeding upon an altar, or held in the hand of a Cupid, has always been looked upon as *talismanic* in dresses of this nature. *Addison*.

TALISSE, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the north coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 1. 40. N. long. 124. 50. E.

To **TALK**, *v. n.* [*ṭalan*, Saxon; *taelen*, Dutch.] To speak in conversation; to speak fluently and familiarly; not in set speeches: to converse.—I will buy with you, sell with you, *talk* with you; but I will not eat with you. *Shakspeare*.—To prattle; to speak impertinently.—Hypocrites austere *talk* of purity. *Milton*.—My heedless tongue has *talk'd* away this life. *Rowe*.—Consider well the time when Petavius first began to *talk* in that manner. *Waterland*.—To give account; to speak; to reason; to confer.—Let me *talk* with thee of thy judgments. *Jer*.

TALK, *s.* Oral conversation; fluent and familiar speech.

We do remember; but our argument
Is too heavy to admit much *talk*. *Shakspeare*.

Report; rumour.—I hear a *talk* up and down of raising our money, as a means to retain our wealth, and keep our money from being carried away. *Locke*.—Subject of discourse.

What delight to be by such extoll'd,
To live upon their tongues and be their *talk*,
Of whom to be despis'd were no small praise? *Milton*.

TALK, (properly *talca*.) *s.* [*talca*, Fr.] A kind of stone.—Stones composed of plates are generally parallel, and flexible and elastic: as, *talk*, cat-silver or glimmer, of which there are three sorts, the yellow or golden, the white or silvery, and the black. *Woodward*.—Venetian *talk* kept in a heat of a glass furnace, though brittle and discoloured, had not lost much of its bulk, and seemed nearer of kin to *talk* than mere earth. *Boyle*.

TALKAN, a village of Irak, in Persia, 30 miles east of Sultania.

TA'LKATIVE, *adj.* Full of prate; loquacious. The coxcomb bird so *talkative* and grave,
That from his cage cries cuckold, whore, and knave;
Though many a passenger he rightly call,
You hold him no philosopher at all.

TA'LKATIVENESS, *s.* Loquacity; garrulity; fulness of prate.—We call this *talkativeness* a feminine voice; but he that shall appropriate loquacity to women, may perhaps sometimes need to light Diogenes's candle to seek a man.

TA'LKER, *s.* One who talks.—Let me give, for instance, some of those writers or *talkers* who deal much in the words Nature or Fate. *Watts*.—A loquacious person; a prattler.

Keep me company but two years,
Thou shalt not know the sound of thine own tongue.
—Farewell, I'll grow a *talker* for this jeer. *Shakspeare*.

A boaster; a bragging fellow.—The greatest *talkers* in the days of peace, have been the most pusillanimous in the day of temptation. *Bp. Taylor*.

TALKIN, a township of England, in Cumberland; 11 miles east-by-north of Carlisle.

TA'LKING, *s.* Oral conversation.—Neither filthiness, nor foolish *talking*, nor jesting, which are not convenient. *Ephes*.

TA'LKY, *adj.* Consisting of talc; resembling talc.—The *talky* flakes in the strata were all formed before the subsistence, along with the sand. *Woodward*.

TALL, *adj.* [*tâl*, Welsh.] High in stature.—Bring word how *tall* she is. *Shakspeare*.—High; lofty.

Winds rush'd abroad
From the four hinges of the world, and fell
On the vast wilderness, whose *tallest* pines,
Though rooted deep as high, and sturdiest oaks
Bow'd their stiff necks. *Milton*.

Sturdy; lusty; bold; spirited; courageous.—I'll swear thou art a *tall* fellow of thy hands, and that thou wilt not be drunk; but I know thou art no *tall* fellow of thy hands, and that thou wilt be drunk; but I would thou wouldst be a *tall* fellow of thy hands. *Shakspeare*.

TALLACHDU, a parish of Wales, in Breconshire; 170 miles west-by-north of London.

TALLAGE, *s.* [*tailage*, Fr.] Impost; excise.—The people of Spain were better affected unto Philip than to Ferdinand, because he had imposed upon them many taxes and *tallages*. *Bacon*.

To **TALLAGE**, *v. a.* To lay an impost on.—Edward I. *tallaged* his demesnes very heavily, by commissioners of his own. *Bp. Ellys*.

TALLAGH, a decayed village of Ireland, in the county of Waterford, near the river Bride, which is so far navigable for boats. It was erected into a burgh by James I, at the solicitation of the Earl of Cork. Its liberties extended one mile in all directions from the church, considered as the centre. It was never a walled town, nor considered a place affording any strong natural defence: however, in the rebellion of the year 1641, an intrenchment was cast round it by the Earl of Cork, for the protection of the inhabitants against the sudden inroads of the rebels. It returned two members to parliament previous to the union with Great Britain. There is a barrack in the town; and at the west end of the bridge lie the ruins of Lessfinny castle, formerly the property of Earl Desmond; 104 miles south-south-west of Dublin, 23 west-north-west of Cork, and 32 west-south-west of Waterford.

TALLAND, a parish of England, in Cornwall, situated upon the English Channel; 2 miles south-west-by-south of West Looe. Population 801.

TALLANTINE, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 3 miles north-north-west of Cockermouth.

TALLAPOOSA, or **OAKFUSKE**, a river of the United States, which rises in Georgia, enters the Alabama territory, flows south west, and unites with the Coosa, 3 miles south-west of Fort Jackson, to form the Alabama. It is navigable, except

except in dry seasons, to the Great Falls, about 35 miles. This river is subject to great periodical elevations and depressions. Much of the country watered by it is very fertile.

TALLARD, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Upper Alps, on the Durance. Population 1000; 6 miles south of Gap.

TALLATOM, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4½ miles north-west-by-north of Ottery St. Mary. Population 348.

TALLEVENDE, a small town in the north-west of France, department of Calvados; 2 miles south-west of Vire. Population 3000.

TALLEY, a parish of Wales, in Caemarthenshire; 7 miles from Llandelovawr. Population 880.

TALLIKA, a town of the kingdom of Bornou, in Central Africa, the first which occurs in the route of the caravans after leaving Woolly. It is inhabited by Foulahs of the Mahometan religion; 70 miles west-south-west of Fattconda.

TALLINGTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3½ miles west-by-north of Market Deeping.

TALLMADGE, a post township of the United States, in Portage county, Ohio; 15 miles west-south-west of Ravenna. It has an academy and an iron furnace.

TALLOO HARBOUR, a harbour on the north coast of Eimeo, one of the Society islands, in the South Pacific ocean. The bay is about three miles long, and two broad, with deep and clear water, but is difficult of access, from a reef which surrounds it. Lat. 17. 30. S. long. 210. E.

TALLOW, *s.* [*tolkr*, Icel.; *tolk*, Dan.; *talg*, *talge*, Su. Goth. and Germ.; which Wachter deduces from the Welsh *deilliaw*, to flow, to proceed, or come from.] The grease or fat of an animal; coarse suet.—She's the kitchen wench, and all grease; and I know not what use to put her to, but to make a lamp of her, and run from her by her own light. I warrant her rags, and the *tallow* in them, will burn a Lapland winter. *Shakspeare*

To **TALLOW**, *v. a.* To grease; to smear with tallow.—Now fetes the *tallowed* keel. *Ld. Surrey.*

TALLOW POINT, a mark for anchoring in the harbour of Port Royal, Jamaica.

TALLOWCHANDLER, *s.* One who makes candles of tallow, not of wax.—Nastiness, and several nasty trades, as *tallowchandlers*, butchers, and neglect of cleansing of gutters, are great occasions of a plague. *Harvey.*

TALLOWFACED, *adj.* Having a pale, sickly complexion—Every lover admires his mistress, though she be deformed, wrinkled, pimpled, *tallowfaced*. *Burton.*

TALLOWISH, *adj.* Having the nature of tallow. *Hulot.*

TALLOWY, *adj.* Greasy.

TALLWATER, a river of Ireland, in the county of Ar-magh, which runs, with the Callen, into Blackwater, near Charlemont.

TALLY, *s.* [*tailler*, French, *to cut*.] A stick notched, or cut in conformity to another stick, and used to keep accounts by.

So right his judgment was cut fit,
And made a *tally* to his wit.

Hudibras.

Any thing made to suit another.

So suited in their minds and persons,
That they were fram'd the *tallies* for each other:
If any alien love had interpos'd,
It must have been an eye-sore to beholders.

Dryden.

To **TALLY**, *v. a.* To fit; to suit; to cut out, so as to answer any thing.

Nor sister either had, nor brother;
They seem'd just *tally'd* for each other.

Prior.

To **TALLY**, *v. n.* To be fitted; to conform; to be suitable.—I found pieces of tiles that exactly *tallied* with the channel. *Addison.*

TALLY, *adv.* Stoutly; with spirit.

You, Ludowick,

That stand so *tally* on your reputation,
You shall be he shall speak it.

Beaum. and Fl.

TALLYA, a town of the north of Hungary; 45 miles north-east of Erlau, and 10 north-west of Tokay. It contains 3700 inhabitants, and produces a species of excellent wine, which is commonly sold for Tokay.

TALLYLYN, a parish of Wales, in Merionethshire; 6 miles from Machynleth. Population 596.

TALMA (Francis Joseph), the first of French actors, was born at Paris on the 15th of January, 1760. His father was a dentist. He removed from Paris to London, leaving his son at a boarding school which was under the jurisdiction of the Mazarin college. Here Talma first became acquainted with the celebrated professor of rhetoric, under whose rod he smarted, when, some years afterwards, the one became the most eminent actor of the age, and the other the most dreaded critic. Talma, though the youngest and smallest boy in the school, was remarked for his intelligence and sensitiveness. Slight theatrical pieces were performed, as they are in many schools here, on the breaking up for the holidays. In one of these, written by the master, a part was allotted to Talma, then not nine years old. The play was on the story of Tamerlane, and Talma acted a secondary character, the friend and confidant of Tamerlane's son. The son of Tamerlane dies, and the friend has to bear the sad news to the father. The child made the disclosure with a flood of tears. The curtain fell.—the audience were affected and astonished. When a muster was made of the little actors, Talma was missing. In alarm, all ran to seek for him. He was found wrapt in his tragic robe, in a corner of a room where he had gone to undress, weeping bitterly at the sorrows of the scene. His excitement made him ill, and it was a week before he recovered.

Soon after this, Talma's father sent for him. He was placed in a boarding school near Vauxhall. His stay there was only interrupted by a brief visit to France, whence he returned, and remained at Lambeth till he was thought old enough to begin to study his father's profession.

His father lived at No. 13, Old Cavendish Street, Cavendish Square; and was acquainted with Sir John Gallini, who was then proprietor of Hanover Square Rooms, in the neighbourhood. Talma got together a party of amateurs, and they acted *Le François à Londres*, and *Le Dèpit Amoureux*. This was Talma's first appearance on the stage in a real play. He performed the Marquis de Polainville in the first piece, and Eraste in the second. The success of this experiment led to others, and Sir John began to look upon the affair as worth following up seriously. Beaumarchais' *Marriage of Figaro* was then at the height of its popularity, and it was performed at this little theatre, Talma sustaining the part of the Count Almaviva. The fashionable people flocked to the representation with great eagerness. His present Majesty, the Duke of York, and all the leaders of the *haut ton* were among their patrons. Gallini could not but see in this encouragement for a larger speculation. Talma having occasion to visit Paris, he was empowered to bring over Molé and Mademoiselle Contat, to give scenes and recitations. But the chains in which the government holds the actors in France, could not be broken, and the negotiation failed. Talma, however, was unsettled by his recent successes from the study of his father's profession. He was predisposed to make the best use of any encouragement to the pursuit which had caught his fancy. The acquaintance-ship of Molé offered facilities too tempting to be resisted. He had just seen Kemble and Mrs. Siddons. He now saw Brizard, Larive, Molé, and others, in his native country. He disclosed his ruling passion to Molé. The government was just then establishing, under Molé, the school of declamation, which still exists; in which he promised to receive Talma as a pupil as soon as it should be formed, and thence to transfer him to the stage. Talma returned to England, impatient for a summons from Molé. It arrived, and he was presented. His first introduction to a groupe of unknown judges

judges shook his nerves. But he screwed up his courage, and "went through a whole part, with as much accuracy, force, and expression," said a person who was present, "as he afterwards threw into his most practised performances." An order was presently obtained for his *début* at the *Theatre Français*. He appeared there in the character of Seide, in Voltaire's *Funatisme*, on the 15th of November, 1787;—the same play which Garrick produced in a translation, with many touchings-up of his own, under the name of *Mahomet*.

Talma found he was not earnestly received, and grew languid and embarrassed. He went through his regular six nights of experiment, and was then admitted to the course of probation, which lasts two years.

One of those accidents which, though meant to do injury, are often a man's making, placed Talma suddenly in that high station which he ever after maintained. Chenier had presented to Saint Fal, the tragic despot of the hour, his tragedy of *Charles the Ninth*. When the author went for the actor's decision, "Here, my friend, take your manuscript; many thanks for your hero, but I am quite unworthy of such a part; you had better," added he, with a satirical smile, "give it to Talma." The author, who had watched Talma, and guessed of what he was capable, caught at the suggestion. Talma appeared in the part, and to this hour the old theatrical connoisseurs are eloquent in their praise of the thorough illusion of the dress, gesture, and even face of Charles. It was his portrait stepping from its frame—himself risen from the tomb.

The plays of Ducis were then in their greatest popularity. His *Othello* gave a new view of his powers. The sensation it produced was appalling. The French, who are terrified at all murders which are unreal, were excited, by the last scene, almost to phrenzy. When *Othello* stabbed his wife, the ladies shrieked and fainted, and the gentlemen rose tumultuously. It was thought dangerous to preserve so startling a scene, and the author made a second *denouement*, wherein the heroine was saved by the interposition of her father, just as *Othello* raised his dagger. Of course, her innocence was proved, and all ended comfortably for the audience; but not for the tragedian. He could not reconcile himself to the sacrifice of such powerful effect, and he returned to the legitimate play.

A great deal has been said of Talma's intercourse with Napoleon. Their first meeting was at Madame Beauharnais', when Napoleon was General of Division, and paid his addresses to Madame. Talma, the confidant of the courtship, was one of the guests at the wedding, and from that time the acquaintance grew into friendship. There was no very signal disproportion in the rank of the friends. Talma was at the head of his profession, and Napoleon a general, but without an army. He soon had one. During his absence in Italy, Talma was still a favoured friend at his hotel, and so intimate and so much respected, that Madame invited him to be one of the sponsors to a child of which she was to be godmother. On the morning of the baptism, the news arrived of the first battle gained by Napoleon in Italy, and, in the joy of the moment, the child was christened *Victoire*. On the return of the General, distinguished as he now was, the intimacy was not less animated than it had been. The Egyptian expedition was planned. Talma, in his enthusiasm, volunteered to accompany the commander in chief. Napoleon, the only one who could have prevented this enterprise, set himself entirely against it. "You must not commit yourself so rashly, Talma," said he; "you have a brilliant course before you; leave fighting to those who know nothing better." On Napoleon's return and increased rank in the state, Talma, with the modesty of his nature, and the good sense of a man acquainted with the world, made his visits less frequent to the Tuileries; his reception was, however, as cordial as formerly. Napoleon became emperor, and Talma naturally concluded that the intimacy of the sovereign and the subject could no longer be sustained. In a few days he received a note from the first chamberlain in these words:—"His Imperial Majesty was much surprised

not to have received M. Talma's personal felicitations; that it appeared as if he intended to withdraw himself from his Majesty; which was not his Majesty's wish; and that M. Talma was invited to present himself at the Tuileries as soon as he thought proper." It may be supposed that such an invitation was not declined. He waited on the emperor, was received with his early kindness, was constantly at the palace, and was always treated with the same distinction. An idle story has gone abroad of Talma's giving Napoleon lessons of deportment and delivery. The two friends often laughed at this together; and Buonaparte said, on his return from Elba, laughingly, to Talma, "Well, Talma, I hear Chateaubriand says, 'tis you who taught me to be an emperor. He must have thought I played my part well, or he never would have given me you for an instructor;" and their intercourse suffered no subsequent diminution. Talma was at one time taken ill. Napoleon sent Corvisart, his private physician, to attend him; and his first enquiry every morning was after his friend's situation. Immediately on Talma's convalescence, Corvisart pressed him to wait on the emperor, though it was at that embarrassing moment, when he was preparing to divorce Josephine. Talma gave way to the imperial command: his visit happened to fall on the very day of the divorce; and critical as the moment was, he was received in the most cordial manner.

For many years Talma had been desirous of visiting England; he took great pains to renew his English, and studied very intently for some months before he made his final arrangements. He reached London on Wednesday, May 28, 1817; and was received with flattering enthusiasm by the English actors and the patrons of the histrionic art. Talma died in October, 1826.

TALMAY, a small town in the east of France, department of the Côte d'Or, on the Vigene. Population 1100; 3 miles north-east of Pontarlier, and 25 east-by-north of Dijon.

TALMONT, a small town in the west of France, department of the Lower Charente, situated on a peninsula on the right bank of the Gironde, with a small port. Population 2500; 20 miles south-west of Saintes.

TALMUD, or **THA'LMUD**, *s.* [Hebrew.] The book containing the Jewish traditions, the rabbinical constitutions, and explications of the law.—They have this tradition in their *talmud*. *Lightfoot*.

TALMUDICAL, or **TA'LMUDIC**, *adj.* Belonging to the talmud.

TALMUDIST, *s.* One well versed in the talmud.

TALMUDISTIC, *adj.* Talmudical.

TALNERE, a celebrated town and fortress of Hindostan. It was the capital of the sultans of the Adil Shahy dynasty, in the 15th century, and was conquered by Aurungzebe, but on the decline of the Mogul empire, fell into possession of the Mahrattas, and was afterwards part of the possessions of Holcar. At the conclusion of the war with that chief, this fortress was ceded to the British.

TALNESS, *s.* Height of stature; procerity.

An hideous giant, horrible and high,
That with his *talness* seem'd to threaten the sky. *Spenser*.

TALON, *s.* [*talon*, Fr.] The claw of a bird of prey.—It may be tried, whether birds may not be made to have greater or longer *talons*. *Bacon*.

TALPA, the Mole, in Zoology, a genus of the Mammalia Feræ, the characters of which are, that the front teeth in the upper jaw are six, and unequal; those in the lower jaw are eight; the canine teeth are one on each side, the upper ones being the largest; and that the grinders are seven in the upper jaw, and six in the lower. Gmelin enumerates four species, besides several varieties.

1. *Talpa Europæa*, or common mole.—Has a short tail, and pentadactylous or five-toed feet. The body is thick and cylindrical; the snout slender, but very strong and tendinous; the head not distinguished from the body by any appearance of neck; the legs so extremely short, as scarcely to project perceptibly from the body; the fore-feet situated obliquely

outwards, excessively strong and broad, and furnished with very large and stout claws, so as to give the animal the power of working under the surface with the utmost ease and readiness; the hind-feet are small in proportion to the fore-feet, and are calculated for throwing back, with ease the mould from behind the creature, during his subterranean progress; the tail is short and small; the skin is much thicker and tougher in proportion than in other quadrupeds, and the fur with which it is covered equally surpasses that of other animals in fineness and softness. The muscular strength of the mole is very great, and it is enabled to force itself into the ground with an extraordinary degree of celerity. The general length of the mole is about five inches and three quarters, exclusive of the tail, which measures one inch. This animal is supposed to possess the power of hearing in an exquisite degree; and if at any time it emerges from a subterranean retreat, instantly disappears on the approach of any danger. When first taken, either by digging it out or otherwise, it utters a shrill scream, and prepares for defence by exerting the strength of its claws and teeth. The mole has eyes only adapted so far to vision, as to apprise it of the approach of light. In particular circumstances it is very fierce and voracious. Without damp mould for its residence, it is kept alive with difficulty in a state of confinement. Like other animals of a black colour, the mole is sometimes found perfectly white, or cream-coloured, and sometimes spotted. Gmelin reckons four varieties.

2. *Talpa Asiatica*.—Has no tail, and tridactylous fore-feet. This is the Siberian mole of Pennant. It is somewhat smaller than the common mole, its length being four inches; and is a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. *Talpa longicaudata*.—With a tail of middling length, and pentadactylous feet, the hinder ones scaly. This is the long-tailed mole of Pennant: its length from nose to tail is four inches and six-tenths; and it is a native of North America.

4. *Talpa rubra*, or red mole of Pennant.—Has a short tail, tridactylous fore-feet, and tridactylous hind-feet.—This is said to be a native of America.

Dr. Shaw mentions some other species.

TAM, EL, a town of Seistan, in Persia, on the Heermund; 25 miles east of Zareng.

TAMA, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Para, which runs north-north-west, and enters the mouth of the arm of the river Las Amazonas, which forms the island of Marayo.

TAMAHOO, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the west coast of Borneo. Lat. 0. 7. N. long. 109. 21. E.

TAMALAMEQUE, a town of South America, in the province of Santa Martha, situated on the shore of the river Madalena. It was improved from a scattered colony into a regular town into 1561. At present it has fallen into such decay as to be nothing more than a miserable settlement; 158 miles south of Santa Martha. Lat 8. 40. N. long. 74. 14. W.

TAMAN, an island in the south of European Russia, in the government of Taurida. It is formed by the straits of Taman, the sea of Azoph, and the Black sea. Part of it lies low, but it contains also a number of small hills, from one of which a volcanic eruption took place on the 4th July, 1804. Wood is scarce, but pasturage is abundant. The inhabitants were formerly Crim-Tartars, but in 1793, a Cossack tribe settled here, and continue to occupy the island. Before the Russians took possession of it, it was called Zmutarakan, but is now frequently called Fanagoria, the name of the chief town.

TAMAR, called by Ptolemy *Talama*, a river of England, which rises in the north-west part of Devonshire, on the borders of Cornwall, about 3 miles from the sea; and on being joined by the Tavy, and passing near Saltash, it forms the noble harbour of Hamoaze, below Plymouth, falling into the sea at Mount Edgecombe.

TAMAR BAY, a harbour in the straits of Magellan, east of Cape Tamar.

TAMAR, CAPE, the north-west point of a large bay and

harbour on the north shore of the straits of Magellan, within the cape. The south-east point of the bay is named Providence. Lat. 52. 51. S. long. 75. 40. W.

TAMAR, a river of Van Diemen's Land. It has more the appearance of a chain of lakes, than of a regularly formed river; and such, according to Captain Flinders, it probably was, until, by long undermining, assisted perhaps by an unusual weight of water, a passage was forced out to the sea.

TAMARA, a village of Morocco, on the coast of the Atlantic; 30 miles west of Terodant.

TAMARA, a sea-port on the north-western part of the island of Socotora, the residence of the king.

TAMARA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, at the foot of the mountains of Bogota; 126 miles north-east of Santa Fe.

TAMARACA, a province of Brazil, bounded north by the province of Paraiba, and south by that of Olinda, east by the sea, and west by the country of the Indians. It is 7 leagues in extent along the coast, but 30 or 40 in the interior of the country. It takes its name from an island which it has opposite to it near the continent, from which it is parted by a very narrow channel. It is fertile and pleasant enough, producing large quantities of Brazil wood, cotton, cocoa-nuts, sugar, melons, citrons, &c., besides a good deal of timber for fuel and other purposes. It is about nine miles in length, and three in breadth, and about 22 in circuit. It has a commodious haven on the south side, with some good springs and rivulets of fresh water. The entrance into the port is by a channel of between 15 and 16 feet water, commanded by a castle, built on an eminence, and formerly taken by the Dutch, who also built Fort Orange at the mouth of the channel, which was inaccessible, by reason of the marshes surrounding it.

TAMARACA, the capital of the above district, situated on the top of a mountain. It has a magnificent parish church. The population consists of 200 housekeepers; 14 miles north of Olinda, and 64 south of Paraiba. Lat. 7. 59. S. long. 35. 6. W.

TAMARIND-TREE. See TAMARINDUS.

TAMARINDUS [Indian date. *Tamar* in Arabic being the name for the date], in Botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order triandria—olim, triandria monogynia, natural order of lomentaceæ, leguminosæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved; tube turbinate, compressed, attenuated below, permanent; mouth oblique; border four-parted, deciduous; segments ovate, flattish, acute, reflexed, coloured; the upper and lower a little wider. Corolla: petals three, ovate, concave, acute, crenate, waved, reflexed, length of the calyx, inserted into the mouth of the tube; the two lateral ones a little larger. Stamina: filaments three, inserted into the orifice of the calyx at the void sinus, length of the corolla, awl-shaped, united below up to the middle, bowed towards the corolla. Anthers ovate, incumbent, large. Threads five (rudiments of stamens), alternate with the filaments, and united below but separate above, bristle-shaped, headed, very short: the two lateral ones lower than the others. Bristles two, springing from the calyx below the filaments and incumbent on them, very small. Pistil: germ oblong, compressed, curved in, placed on a pedicel fastened to the bottom of the calyx and growing longitudinally to its tube under the back, beyond the tube with the upper margin villose. Style awl-shaped, ascending, pubescent on the lower margin, a little longer than the stamens. Stigma thickened, obtuse. Pericarp: legume oblong, compressed, blunt with a point, swelling at the seeds, covered with a double rind, the outer dry and brittle, the inner membranaceous; a soft pulp between both; one-celled, not opening. Seeds few, angular-roundish, plano-compressed, shining, hard.—*Essential Character*. Calyx four-parted. Petioles three. Nectary of two short bristles under the filaments. Legume pulpy.

1. *Tamarindus Indica*, or tamarind-tree.—This tree grows to a very large size in those countries where it is a native. The stem is covered with a brown bark, and divides into
Leaves

many branches at the top, spreading wide every way. Leaves pinnate, composed of sixteen or eighteen pairs of leaflets, without a single one at the end; they are about half an inch long, and a sixth part of an inch broad, of a bright green, a little hairy, and sit close to the midrib. The flowers come out from the side of the branches, five, six or more together, in loose bunches.—It seems to be a native both of the East and West Indies, and of Egypt, if not Arabia. In the West Indies it flowers in October and November.

The timber of the Tamarind tree is heavy, firm and hard: sawn into boards, it is converted to many useful purposes in building.—The fruit is used both in food and medicine. In many parts of America, particularly in Curaçao, they eat abundance of it raw, without any inconvenience, except gently relaxing the body. In Martinico also they eat the unripe fruit, even of the most austere kind. The Tamarinds which are brought from the East Indies are darker and drier, but contain more pulp; being preserved without sugar they are fitter to be put into medicines than those from the West Indies, which are much redder, but being preserved with sugar, are more pleasant to the palate.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds on a hot-bed in the spring, and when the plants are come up, plant each in a separate small pot filled with light rich earth, and plunge them into a hot-bed of tanner's bark to bring them forward, observing to water and shade them until they have taken root. Then treat them as hath been directed for the Coffee-tree, with whose culture they will thrive exceeding well.

TAMARISK. See TAMARIX.

TAMARIX [of Pliny. Supposed by some to be from the Hebrew Tamaris, abstersio, on account of its abstergent qualities], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trygynia, natural order of succulentæ portulacæ (Juss.)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, obtuse, erect, permanent, shorter by half than the corolla. Corolla: petals five, ovate, concave, obtuse, spreading. Stamina: filaments five, capillary. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ acuminate. Style none. Stigmas three, oblong, revolute, feathered. Pericarp: capsule oblong, acuminate, three-sided, longer than the calyx, one-celled, three-valved. Seeds very many, very small, pappose.—*Tamaris Germanica* has ten stamens, of which the alternate outer ones are shorter; they are all connate at the base.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Petals five. Capsule one-celled, three-valved. Seeds pappose.

1. *Tamaris Gallica*, or French tamarisk.—Flowers five-stamened; spikes lateral; leaves lanceolate, embracing imbricate. The first sort is a native of the south of France, Spain, Italy, Russia, Tartary, Barbary, and Japan; where it grows to a tree of middling size, but in England, is seldom more than fourteen or sixteen feet high. There are two varieties.

2. *Tamaris articulata*, or jointed tamarisk.—Flowers five-stamened; spikes lateral; leaves very short sheathed. This is a shrub, with round branches.—Native of the East Indies and Arabia.

3. *Tamaris Songarica*, or Songarian tamarisk.—Flowers eight or ten-stamened, axillary subspiked; leaves fleshy, obtuse, three-sided.—Found in Siberia, in salt places of Songaria.

4. *Tamaris Germanica*, or German tamarisk.—Flowers ten-stamened; spikes terminating; leaves sessile, linear-lanceolate. This has a variety. This is rather a shrub than a tree, having several woody stalks arising from the same root, which grow quite erect, sending out many side branches which are also erect; they have a pale-green bark when young, afterwards changing to a yellowish colour.—Native of Germany, Norway, Dauphiné, Spain, Piedmont, and the mountains of Dauria, Caucasus and Russia.

Propagation and Culture.—The tamarisks may easily be increased either by laying down their tender shoots in autumn, or by planting cuttings in an east border, which will take root in a short time, if they are supplied with water

in dry weather; but they should not be removed until the following autumn, at which time they may be either placed in a nursery to be trained up two or three years, or else where they are designed to remain, observing to mulch their roots, and water them according as the season may require, until they have taken root; after which, the only culture they will require, is to prune off the straggling shoots, and keep the ground clean about them.

TAMARITE, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Arragon; 20 miles east-south-east of Balastro.

TAMARO, a small river of New Granada, in the province of Maracaibo, which rises near the sea-coast, runs south, and flows into Lake Maracaibo.

TAMASCHI, a small town of the south-west of Hungary; 70 miles south-south-west of Pest, and 15 west-south-west of Simon-tornya.

TAMAULIPA, SAN CARLOS DE, a village, consisting chiefly of straw-huts, on the coast of the bay of Mexico.

TAMAYO, a river of New Granada, in the province of Venezuela, which rises on the side of the Lake Maracaibo, runs nearly due east, and enters the Tucuyo.

TAMAZULA, the name of several inconsiderable settlements in Mexico.

TAMAZULAPA, several inconsiderable settlements in Mexico.

TAMBACH, a village of Bavarian Franconia, on the borders of Saxony, and 4 miles west of Coburg.

TAMBACH, or TAMMICH, a large village of Germany, in the principality of Saxe Gotha, containing 1400 inhabitants; 10 miles north-east of Schmalcalden, and 8 south of Gotha.

TAMBACUNDA, a small town of Western Africa, in the country of Neola; 52 miles west of Baniserile.

TAMBAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapoor, lately taken possession of by the British. Lat. 17. 28. N. long. 73. 35. E.

TAMBAOURA, a gold mine in the kingdom of Bambook. See BAMBOUK.

TAMBEKAN, a town of Hindostan, province of Nepaul, celebrated for the copper mines in its vicinity. Lat. 27. 25. N. long. 85. 30. E.—Near to this town is a celebrated pass through the mountains, which commands the road leading to the sea coast.

TAMBERACHERY, a town of the south of India, province of Malabar. The country in the vicinity of this place produces very fine teak timber, and a great abundance of cocoa nuts. Lat. 11. 21. N. long. 76. 3. E.

TAMBILLO, the name of four inconsiderable settlements in South America, one in Chili, one in Quito, and two in Peru.

TAMBO, a town of Peru, in the province of Calca and Lares, situated on the north shore of the river Quillabamba; 45 miles north-north-west of Cuzco. In the vicinity is a mountain, on which is to be seen a fortress which belonged to the Incas, built of large wrought stone, so beautifully fitted together, as that the junction is scarcely perceptible; a circumstance the more wonderful, when we consider the height to which these stones were carried. None of these stones are of a regular figure. This fortress has its bulwarks, gate, and small squares, arranged with singular disposition and art. It is entered by long wide flights of steps, with several landing places. At a small distance from this fortress are two strong towers, which serve as advanced posts.

TAMBO, a settlement of Chili, in Coquimbo, near the source of the river Choapa.—2d. Of Peru, in the province of Atacames, on the shore of a small river which enters the Quillabamba.—3d. Of New Granada, in the province of Popayan.—4th. Of Peru, in the province of Castro Vireyna. 5th. Of Peru, in the province of Canete.—There is also a settlement of this name in the province of Arequipa.—It is also the name of several other inconsiderable settlements.

TAMBO, a river of Peru, in the province of Moquehua, which enters the Pacific ocean, in the bay of Quilca.

TAMBO, a river of Brazil, which runs north-north-west, and enters the Tocantines.

TAMBOR, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Popayan; 13 miles west of the city of Popayn.

TAMBORA, a town of the island of Sumbawa, which is much resorted to by the dealers in horses, the surrounding country being celebrated for its breed of these animals.

TAMBOV, a large province or government in the central part of European Russia, lying to the west of those of Penza and Saratov, between lat. 51. 30. and 55. 20. N. and long. 39. 40. and 43. 40. E. Its territorial extent is calculated at about 21,000 square miles, and its population in 1817, was supposed to amount to 1,135,000. Like the far greater part of European Russia, it is level, and all the country from the river Choper to the borders of Saratov, is occupied by extensive steppes. Many tracks in this province are woody and marshy, but in general a sandy soil pervades the north, and a black and fertile mould the south. It is well watered both by rivers and small lakes. The winter has all the severity of the Russian climate, but in summer the heat is such that the Polish cochineal and the Spanish fly are common. The domestic animals do not differ from those in the surrounding governments: the steppes contain various beasts of game. The mineral products are iron, sulphur, and salt-petre.

TAMBOV, a considerable town of Russia, and the capital of the government of Tambov, is situated on the river Zna. It contains 10,700 inhabitants, and is the see of a Greek bishop; with a seminary, a gymnasium, and schools for the families of the better classes. It has a large monastery, in which there are two churches; and the town contains 14 other churches or chapels. It has manufactures of woollen, canvas, linen, and alum, and a considerable carrying trade; but the chief employment of the inhabitants is agriculture; 286 miles south-east of Moscow. Lat. 52. 43. 44. N. long. 41. 45. 15. E.

TAMBO'UR, *s.* [old Fr., *tambour*, a small drum; *tambur*, Arab., the same.] A tambourine; which see. A frame resembling a drum, on which a kind of embroidery is worked; the embroidery so made. [In Architecture.] A member of the Corinthian and composite capital, somewhat resembling a drum; a kind of porch; a round stone, or course of stones.

TAMBOURINE, *s.* [*tamborin*, Spanish; from the Arab. *tambur*.] A kind of drum. What we now call the *tambourin*, is different from the *tabor*; as it is played on with the hand or fingers, not with a stick. Spenser writes this word *tamburin*, and B. Jonson *timburine*.

Calliope with Muses moe,
Soon as thy oaten pipe began to sound,
Their ivory lutes and *tamburines* forego.

Spenser.

TAMBRE, a river of Spain, in Galicia, which flows into the Atlantic at Noya, on the west coast.

TAMBUCCO, or **TABUCCO**, a town on the east coast of the island of Celebes, situated in a bay, to which it gives name. Lat. 3. 50. S.

TAME, a river of England, in the counties of Buckingham and Oxford. It rises near Winslow, in Buckinghamshire, and runs in the Thames below Dorchester.—Also a river in Staffordshire, which rises near Dudley, and falls into the Trent, not far from Eadinghall, about 7 miles above Burton.

TAME, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, containing 700 Indians; 58 miles south of Pampeluna.

TAME, a river of Guiana, which enters the Meta.

TAME, *adj.* [*taeme*, Sax.; *taem*, Dutch; *tam*, Danish.] Not wild; domestic.—Thales the Milesian said, That of all wild beasts, a tyrant is the worst, and of all *tame* beasts, a flatterer. *Addison*.—Crushed; subdued; depressed; dejected; spiritless; heartless.

If you should need a pin,
You could not with more *tame* a tongue desire it.

Shakspeare.

Spiritless; unanimated: as, a *tame* poem. *A low phrase.*

To TAME, *v. a.* [*gatanjan*, Gothic; *taaman*, Saxon; *tammen*, Dutch.] To reduce from wildness; to reclaim; to make gentle.

Those that *tame* wild horses,
Pace 'em not in their hands to make 'em gentle;
But stop their mouths with stubborn bits. *Shakspeare.*

To subdue; to crush; to depress; to conquer.

If the heavens do not their visible spirits
Send quickly down to *tame* the offences,
Humanity must perforce prey on itself. *Shakspeare.*

TAMEABLE, *adj.* Susceptive of taming.—Ganzas are supposed to be great fowls, of a strong flight, and easily *tameable*; divers of which may be so brought up as to join together in carrying the weight of a man. *Wilkins.*

TAMEGA, a river which rises in the mountains of Mourao, in the north-west of Spain, flows southward, and joins the Douro in Portugal, after passing by Amarante.

TAMELESS, *adj.* Wild; untamed.—The *tameless* steed could well his waggon wield. *Bp. Hall.*

TAMELY, *adv.* Not wildly; meanly; spiritlessly.

True obedience, of this madness cur'd,
Stoop *tamely* to the foot of majesty. *Shakspeare.*

TAMENESS, *s.* The quality of being tame; not wildness. Want of spirits; timidity.—Such a conduct must appear rather like *tameness* than beauty, and expose his authority to insults. *Rogers.*

TAMER, *s.* Conqueror; subduer.

He, great *tamer* of all human art,
Dulness! whose good old cause I yet defend. *Pope.*

TAMERTON, **NORTH**, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 8 miles north-by-west of Launceston. Population 420.

TAMERTON, **FOLIOT**, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4½ miles north-by-west of Plymouth. Population 949.

TAMETAVE, a sea-port on the eastern coast of Madagascar. Lat. 18. 5. S. long. 49. 41. E.

TAMIAGUA, a settlement of Mexico, situated on a narrow isthmus on the west coast of the gulf of Mexico. The population consists of 40 Spanish families, and 400 mulattoes and negroes; 146 miles north-north-west of Vera Cruz, and 68 south-east of Tampico. Lat. 21. 16. N. long. 97. 29. W.

TAMIAGUA, a lake of Mexico, which joins the sea between the river Tampico and the Punta Delgada. It has a long and narrow outlet towards the south, running parallel with the shore, and forming an extraordinary large basin, in which are several islands.

TAMIEH, a village of Fayoum, in Egypt, on a canal which forms a communication between the Nile and the Birket el Kairoun; 12 miles north-east of Fayoum.

TAMINY, *s.* [*estamine*, Fr., whence our old word *stamin*, which see.] A kind of woollen stuff: called also *tammin* and *tammy*.—"Estamine" is the stuff *tamine*. *Cotgrave.*

TAMISE, or **THEMESCHE**, an inland town of the Netherlands, in East Flanders, on the Scheldt, containing 5700 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of linen and lace, and enjoys, like most other towns in this level country, the advantages of inland navigation; 8 miles north of Dendermonde.

TAMKIN, *s.* The stopple of the mouth of a great gun.

TAMMANY, **ST.**, a parish of the United States, in the state of Louisiana.

TAMMANY, **ST.**, a county of the United States, in Louisiana, on the north side of Lake Pontchartrain, and west of Pearl river.

TAMMANY'S, **ST.**, a village of the United States, in Mecklenburg county, Virginia, on the north side of the Roanoke, about 75 miles south-south-west of Petersburg.

TAMMARO, a small river in the north of the kingdom

of Naples, in the province of Molise. It falls into the Calone.

TAMMERFORS, a petty town of European Russia, in the government of Finland; 42 miles north-north-west of Tavasthus. Population 600.

TAMMTOUL, a small village of Scotland, in Banffshire, which lies on the banks of the Avon, on the great road to Inverness. It is entirely composed of turf-covered hovels, except the parish church, and a neat Catholic chapel. It contains about 230 inhabitants.

TAMOOK, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 6. 21. N. long. 121. 58. E.

TAMPANAGOS, said to be a lake in North America, the existence of which, however, is doubted. It is reported to commence, according to father Esculante, in the 40th degree of north latitude, and to have been explored to the 42d degree in a north-west direction, where it enlarged its dimensions, after which the discoverer made no further researches.

To **TAMPER**, *v. n.* [of uncertain derivation, derived by Skinner from *tempero*, Lat.] To be busy with physic.

'Tis in vain

To *tamper* with your crazy brain,
Without trepanning of your skull
As often as the moon's at full.

Hudibras.

He tried washes to bring him to a better complexion, but there was no good to be done; the very *tampering* cast him into a disease.—*L'Estrange*.—To meddle; to have to do without fitness or necessity.—That key of knowledge, which should give us entrance into the recesses of religion, is by so much *tampering* and wrenching made useless. *Dec. of Chr. Picty*.—To deal; to practise secretly.

Others *tamper'd*

For Fleetwood, Desborough, and Lambert.

Hudibras.

TAMPICO, an abundant river of Mexico, in a small district of the same name, and on the southern frontier of the intendency of San Luis de Potosi, which runs into the gulf of Mexico. At the mouth of the river is a watch-house to explore the coast.

TAMPICO, a town of Mexico, capital of a district of the same name, situate near the sea, on a neck of land formed by the lake of its name, and the lake of Tamiagua, about 214 miles north-west of Vera Cruz.

TAMRUCK, a small fortress of the south of European Russia, in the government of Taurida, on the coast of the sea of Azoph, between the mouths of the river Kuban; 156 miles south-south-west of Azoph.

TAMSWEG, a small town of Upper Austria, in the circle of Salzburg; 58 miles south-south-east of Salzburg, and 16 west of Muhrau. Population 800.

TAMUL, the name of a Hindoo tribe of the south of India, whose language is spoken in the south-east districts of the peninsula.

TAMUS [of Pliny. Derivation unknown], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order hexandria, natural order of sarmantaceæ asparagi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character.—Male. Calyx: perianth six-parted: leaflets ovate-lanceolate, spreading more at top. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments six, simple, shorter than the calyx. Anthers erect.—Female. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, six-parted, bell-shaped, spreading: segments lanceolate: superior, deciduous. Corolla: petals none. Nectaries an oblong point, fastened internally, to each calycine segment at the base. Pistil: germ ovate-oblong, large, smooth, inferior. Style cylindrical, length of the calyx. Stigmas, three, reflexed, emarginate, acute. Pericarp: berry ovate, three-celled. Seeds two, globular.—*Essential Character*. Calyx six-parted. Corolla none.—Female. Style trifid. Berry three-celled, inferior. Seeds two.

1. *Tamus communis*, or common black bryony.—Root very large, tuberous, blackish externally, whence its old Latin and English names. Stems smooth, twining about every thing in their way, and thus ascending without the aid of

tendrils, to the height of ten or twelve feet in hedges or among bushes, which their festoons of tawny leaves and red berries decorate in autumn. The male flowers soon fall off; but the female flowers are succeeded by ovate smooth berries. These are insipid. The root is acrid, and its pulp scraped has been formerly used as a stimulating plaister. The young shoots are said to be good eating, when dressed like asparagus. The Moors eat them boiled with oil and salt.—Native of Europe, but not in the north, in shady thickets, hedges and woods; also of the Levant, and about Algiers, in hedges. It is called, wild vine, and our ladies seal. The latter name is from the French, *le secaa de la Vierge*.

2. *Tamus Cretica*, or Cretan black bryony.—Leaves three-lobed. This has a rounder root than the other; the stalks twine in the same manner.—It was discovered in the island of Crete or Candia.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds soon after they are ripe under the shelter of bushes, where, in the spring, the plants will come up, and require no farther care. The roots will abide many years.

TAMWORTH, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Stafford, situated in the south-east angle of the county, at the confluence of the rivers Thame and Anker, and near the great navigable canal. The Thame runs through the town, and divides it into nearly equal parts, one of which is in Warwickshire, and the other in Staffordshire. The town is large and well built, and its situation uncommonly fine, being surrounded on all sides by rich and luxuriant meadows, through which the Thame and Anker glide along in the most picturesque manner. The two bridges, which are thrown across these rivers, add considerably to the general beauty of the scenery. The church of Tamworth, which is dedicated to St. Editha, is supposed to occupy the site of a nunnery. It is a very spacious building; and from the different styles of its architecture, it seems to have undergone very material alterations and repairs at different periods. Besides the church, here are several meeting-houses for dissenters. The hospital was founded and endowed by Guy, the opulent bookseller to whom the borough of Southwark is indebted for the noble institution of Guy's Hospital. The grammar school, founded by queen Elizabeth, is still an excellent and flourishing institution. Tamworth castle is still in existence, and till the commencement of the last century, was the seat of its lords, the first of whom was Robert Marmion, lord of Fontenoy, in Normandy, and a celebrated chieftain in the army of William the Conqueror. The castle, to a modern eye, appears dull and heavy, but the elevation of its site throws around it an air of considerable grandeur. The exterior is still kept in tolerable repair; but the inside is much injured. The apartments are for the most part extremely inconvenient and irregular. Tamworth carries on a variety of manufactures: the chief of these was formerly the manufacture of superfine narrow woollen cloths; but this trade, though still considerable, has much decreased. The printing of calicoes, and the tanneries, on the other hand, are branches of business which have greatly advanced. The ale breweries form likewise considerable sources of wealth to the inhabitants. Tamworth was incorporated in the third year of the reign of Elizabeth, and first sent representatives to parliament two years after this. The right of voting is vested in the inhabitants paying scot and lot. The number of voters is about 250, and the members are returned by the sheriffs of Warwickshire and Staffordshire jointly. The corporation consists of two bailiffs, a recorder, and 24 capital burgesses. One of the bailiffs is chosen from each county. They have the power of holding a three weeks court of record, and acting as justices of the peace within the borough. They have likewise a court leet once a year, a jail, and a common seal. Tamworth seems to have been a town of considerable note at a very early period. In the time of the Mercians, it was a royal village, and the favourite residence of their monarchs. The celebrated Ofa dates a charter to the monks at Worcester, from his palace here, in 781. Several of his successors, in the next century,

date other charters from the same place. In 1811, Tamworth contained 603 houses, and 2991 inhabitants. Market on Tuesday, with three annual fairs; 8 miles south-east of Lichfield, and 114 north-west of London.

TAMWORTH, a post township of the United States, in Strafford county, New Hampshire; 60 miles north-north-east of Concord, and 63 north-north-west of Portsmouth. Population 1134.

To TAN, v. a. [*tannen*, Dutch; *tanner*, Fr.] To impregnate or imbue with bark.—A human skull covered with the skin, having been buried in some limy soil, was *tanned* or turned into a kind of leather. *Grew*.—To imbrown by the sun.

Like sun parch'd quarters on the city gates,
Such is thy *tann'd* skin's lamentable state.

Donne.

TAN, s. The bark of the oak; the ooze with which tanners prepare their leather. *Ash*.

TANA, a large river of Lapland, which forms the boundary between Russia and Sweden for 150 miles, traverses part of Finmark, and falls into the Arctic ocean in lat. 71. N. long. 31. 30. E., at a gulf to which it gives name. A large quantity of salmon is caught here, and was formerly exported to different countries, particularly Holland; but a Finnish colony, which is settled here and carries on the fishery, having increased greatly within the last century, the fish is now required to supply the wants of the population on the spot.

TANACETUM [Derivation unknown], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia superflua, natural order of compositæ discoideæ, corymbiferæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common hemispherical, imbricate; scales acute, compact. Corolla: compound tubular, convex. Corollets hermaphrodite, numerous, tubular, in the disk. Females, some in the ray. Proper, of the hermaphrodite, funnel-form; with a five-cleft, reflexed border. Female trifid, more deeply divided inwardly. Stamina in the hermaphrodites: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil in the hermaphrodites: germ oblong, small. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma bifid, revolute.—In the females: germ oblong. Style simple. Stigmas two, reflexed. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, oblong. Down slightly margined. Receptacle naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate, hemispherical. Corolla: rays obsolete, trifid (sometimes none, and all the florets hermaphrodite). Down submarginate. Receptacle naked.

1. *Tanacetum suffruticosum*, or shrubby tansy.—Leaves pinnate-multifid, segments linear, subdivided, acute, stem suffruticose. This rises with a branching shrubby stalk, three or four feet high.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Tanacetum Sibiricum*, or Siberian tansy.—Leaves pinnate, segments linear-filiform, corymbs smooth, stem herbaceous.—Native of Siberia.

3. *Tanacetum incanum*, or hoary tansy.—Leaves bipinnate, tomentose; corymb ovate, compound. Perennial, hoary, fine-leaved plant, with yellow flowers turned upwards.—Native of the Levant.

4. *Tanacetum cotuloides*, or chamomile-like tansy.—Leaves tooth-pinnate, acuminate; stem very much branched; flowers subpanicked. Annual, having the appearance of chamomile.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. *Tanacetum annuum*, or annual tansy.—Leaves bipinnatifid, linear, acute; corymbs tomentose. Annual, rising about two feet high.—Native of Spain and Italy.

6. *Tanacetum monanthos*, or one-flowered tansy.—Stem quite simple, one-flowered, length of the leaves. This is also an annual plant.—Native of the Levant.

7. *Tanacetum vulgare*, or common tansy.—Leaves bipinnatifid, gash-serrate, naked. Common tansy has a fibrous creeping root, which will spread to a great distance. It is bitter, and has a strong aromatic smell. Stems upright, from two to almost four feet high.—Native of Europe and Siberia, in high meadows and pastures, on the banks of

rivers and in swampy places; flowering from June to August. There are three varieties; one with a curled leaf, which is called double tansy by gardeners; another with variegated leaves; and a third with larger leaves, which have little scent.

8. *Tanacetum balsamita*, or cost-mary.—Leaves ovate, entire, serrate. Roots hardy, fleshy and creeping.—It is a native of the South of France, Spain, and Italy.

9. *Tanacetum flabelliforme*, or fan-leaved tansy.—Corymbs simple, leaves deltoid, serrate at the tip. All the florets are hermaphrodite and five-cleft; but having a naked, not a chaffy receptacle, it agrees rather with this genus than *Athanasia*.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—All the sorts from the Cape must be kept in pots, and removed into shelter before hard frosts come on. They are easily increased by cuttings. Common tansy is easily propagated by the creeping roots.

TANACO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid.

TANÆCIUM [From *ταναικη*, protensam s. longam aciem habens.], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, tubular, truncate, quite entire. Corolla one-petalled, long; tube cylindrical, widened above; border from erect, spreading, five-cleft, almost equal; the two upper segments approximating, less divided, nearly upright, the three lower spreading, a little reflexed. Stamina: filaments four, almost equal, shorter than the corolla, bending in under the back of the tube; with the rudiment of a fifth. Anthers two-lobed. Pistil: germ placed on a fleshy ring, roundish. Style simple. Stigma two-lobed. Pericarp: berry large, subpedicelled, globular or oblong, two-celled. Seeds numerous, oblong, angular, nestling.—*Essential Character.* Calyx cylindrical, truncate. Corolla tubular, almost equal, five-cleft. Rudiments of a fifth filament. Berry corticose, very large.

1. *Tanaecium jaroba*.—Lower leaves ternate, upper geminate; tendrils interpetiolar, terminating; stem scandent. This rises with great ease to the top of the tallest trees in the woods, and then spreads a great way over the limbs of the neighbouring trees, or bends again towards the ground.—This climbing plant is frequent in many parts of the island of Jamaica.

2. *Tanaecium parasiticum*.—Leaves ovate, coriaceous; stem scandent, shrubby, rooting. This weakly plant sustains itself generally by the help of the neighbouring trees, or is found spreading upon the ground, where it does not meet with a support.—It is found in Jamaica, about Port Antonio, near the cascade in St. Ann's, and in many parts of the mountains, especially those between Sixteen-mile-walk and Luidas.

TANAGA, one of the Fox islands, in the North Pacific ocean, about 40 miles in circumference. Lat. 53. 20. N. long. 182. 14. E.

TANAGRA, or **TANAGER**, in Ornithology, a genus of the order passeræ; the characters of which are, that the bill is conic, acuminate, emarginated, subtrigonal at the base, and inclining at the apex. Gmelin enumerates forty-six species.

1. *Tanagra jacapa*.—Black; the forehead, neck, and breast, crimson-coloured. This is the jacapu of Marcgrave, the red-breasted blackbird of Edwards, and the red-breasted tanager of Latham.—It is found in America.

2. *Tanagra Brasilia*.—Crimson, with black tail and wings. This is the cardinal of Buffon, and the Brazilian tanager of Latham. Of this bird there are two varieties, one of which is the blue, the other the black Indian sparrow of Willughby.—Found in South America.

3. *Tanagra rubra*.—Red, with black wings and tail, and tail-feathers white at the apex. This is the Canada tanager of Pennant, and the red tanager of Latham. Of this the scarlet sparrow of Edwards, or *Merula Brasiliensis* of Ray and Willughby, is a variety.—Found in Canada.

4. *Tanagra jacarina*.—Violet-black, with wings whitish beneath,

beneath, and tail of two divaricated branches.—This is a bird of Brasil and Guiana, the jacarini of Marcgrave.

5. *Tanagra violacea*.—Violet, and the under part very yellow: the teitei of Marcgrave, the golden titmouse of Edwards, and golden tanager of Latham. A variety of this, found in Brasil, Surinam, and Cayenne, is shining black, with the abdomen, breast, and front yellow, and the outer tail-feather having on its inner side a white spot.

6. *Tanagra olivacea*.—Olive; the throat and breast yellow, the abdomen white, the quills and tail-feathers brown, with a white margin. This is the olivet of Buffon, and found in Cayenne.

7. *Tanagra gyrola*.—Green, red-headed, yellow collar, and ceruleous breast: the rouvardin of Buffon, the red-headed green-finch of Edwards, and red-headed tanager of Latham.—Found in various parts of South America.

8. *Tanagra Cayana*.—Yellow, green back, red cap, and black cheeks.—A bird of Cayenne, of which there is a variety, underneath golden-coloured, back green and yellow, head ceruleous, wings and tail green.

9. *Tanagra tatao*.—Violet, black back, yellow rump, green head, and violet breast and wings: the titmouse of paradise of Edwards, the paradise tanager of Latham, and the tangara of Brisson, Ray, Willughby, and Buffon.—Found in Guiana.

10. *Tanagra albirostris*.—Black, with a spot on the wings, and tail yellow, and a white beak; the white-billed tanager of Latham. Of this there is a variety.—It is an American bird.

11. *Tanagra gularis*.—Black, beneath white, red head, and purple throat: the rouge-cap, of Buffon, and red-headed tanager of Latham.—Found in Cayenne and Guiana.

12. *Tanagra Cayennensis*.—Black, both sides of the breast and under part of the wings yellow.—Found in Brazil, Guiana, and New Spain.

13. *Tanagra Brasiliensis*.—Black, under part white, throat and rump blueish, face and breast black: the guiragenoia of Marcgrave, the turquin of Buffon, and turquoise tanager of Latham.—A Brasil species.

14. *Tanagra Dominica*.—Black-spotted, above brown, and below whitish: called from the place of its residence, by Latham, the St. Domingo tanager.

15. *Tanagra militaris*.—Brown; breast, neck, throat, and shoulders sanguineous: the military tanager of Latham, and greater bulfinch of Edwards.—Found in South America.

16. *Tanagra grisea*.—Grey-olive, under grey, with wings and tail black, grey at their margin.—Found in Guiana and Louisiana.

17. *Tanagra episcopus*.—Cinereous, with wings and tail externally blueish: the bishop tanager of Latham.—Found in Cayenne.

18. *Tanagra sayaca*.—Hoary, with blueish wings: the sayacu of Marcgrave.—Found rarely in Cayenne.

19. *Tanagra punctata*.—Green; pointed with black; under yellowish-whitish: the syacoa of Buffon, spotted green titmouse of Edwards, and spotted tanager of Latham.—Found in Cayenne.

20. *Tanagra virens*.—Green, under yellowish, cheeks and throat black: the green tanager of Latham.—Found in New Spain, Peru and Brazil.

21. *Tanagra Mississippensis*.—Wholly red: the Mississippi tanager of Latham. Of this species there are two varieties; one found on the river Mississippi, and the other in New Spain.

22. *Tanagra cristata*.—Blackish, golden crest, throat and rump yellow: the houpette of Buffon, and crested tanager of Latham.—Found in Guiana.

23. *Tanagra aestiva*.—Red, bill yellowish: the summer red-bird of Catesby and Edwards, and summer tanager of Pennant and Latham.—Found in Carolina and Virginia.

24. *Tanagra magna*.—Olive-brown; under reddish; legs, front, and temples blueish; vent-feathers and throat red, and the middle of the throat white: the grand tanager of Latham.—Found in Guiana and Cayenne.

25. *Tanagra cærulea*.—Blueish, black bill, and light-red legs: the blue tanager of Latham.—A Cayenne bird.

26. *Tanagra variabilis*.—Green, partly blueish and partly brown, black band about the eye, quills and tail-feathers black, with green margins; variable tanager of Latham.

27. *Tanagra tricolor*.—Green; head, chin, throat, and breast pale sea-colour; black neck-band, head and sides of the neck golden-green, a large spot on the throat, and back black, the breast-band blueish, the abdomen and vent-feathers yellowish-green: the green-headed tanager of Latham. Of this there is a variety.

28. *Tanagra Guianensis*.—Green, head cinereous-grey, front and head-band on both sides from the front to the nape red: the grey-headed tanager of Latham.—Found rarely in the forests of Guiana.

29. *Tanagra nigricolis*.—Olive, beneath yellow, black throat, golden breast, feathers of the wings and tail-feathers brown, with olivaceous-margins: the black-throated tanager.—Found in Guiana.

30. *Tanagra ruficollis*.—Black and blue, with a large red streak on the throat, and black wings and tail: the rufous-throated tanager of Latham.—Found in Jamaica.

31. *Tanagra leucocephala*.—Black and brown, white front, reddish throat, purple breast and wings, and yellowish abdomen and vent-feathers: the quatoztli of Seba.—Found in the mountains of Brazil.

32. *Tanagra flava*.—Yellow throat, breast and spots of the abdomen black, quills and tail-feathers black, sea-coloured at the margin. This is the guiraperea of Ray and Willughby, and the yellow tanager of Latham.—Found in Brazil, of the size of a lark.

33. *Tanagra Amboinensis*.—Varied with black and blue, black vertex, blueish-green rump; cheeks, chin, throat, and breast blueish; abdomen and vent-feathers white.—Found in Amboina, and called calatti.

34. *Tanagra canora*.—Blueish, varied with yellow; black tail, white at the apex; and wings partly blueish and partly yellow: the xiuhtotl of Fernandes.—Found in New Spain.

35. *Tanagra sinensis*.—Olivaceous, beneath yellow, with the quills and tail-feathers black, yellow at their margin: the Chinese tanager of Latham.

36. *Tanagra bonariensis*.—Black and violet, with a slight greenish tint in the wings and tail: the violet tanager of Latham.

37. *Tanagra atra*.—Cinereous, with the face, chin, and throat black (those of the female yellow): the camail or cravatte of Buffon, and black-faced tanager of Latham.—Found in Guiana.

38. *Tanagra pileata*.—Blueish-cinereous, beneath silvery, with the vertex, temples, and sides of the neck black, and the ocular spot white; the hooded tanager of Latham. Of this the tijepiranga of Ray and Willughby is a variety.—Found in Guiana and Brazil.

39. *Tanagra melanictera*.—Above ferruginous, beneath very yellow, head and nape black, wings streaked with white, and tail brown: the black-crowned tanager of Latham.—Found on the Caucasus and in Georgia.

40. *Tanagra Sibirica*.—Black, the tips of the down between the shoulders and the rump ciliated with white.—A Siberian species.

41. *Tanagra atricapilla*.—Reddish and rufous; head, tail, and wings shining black, with a roundish tail: the mordoré of Buffon, and black-headed tanager of Latham.—Found in Guiana.

42. *Tanagra striata*.—Beneath yellow, with a head striated with black and blue, back above blackish and beneath golden, quills and tail-feathers black, with a blue margin: the onklet of Buffon, and furrow-clawed tanager of Latham.—Found in South America.

43. *Tanagra Nigerrima*.—Black, with a white spot within the wings: the Guiana tanager of Latham.

44. *Tanagra Capensis*.—Above ferruginous-brown, beneath ferruginous, varied with white; the middle of the tail black, its sides ferruginous-rufescent, the bill yellowish, the legs black.—Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

TANAGRA, a town of ancient Greece, in the north of Attica,

Attica, on the frontier of Bœotia, of which there remain now only a few ruins at a spot called Grimathi. The adjacent plain is of great beauty and fertility, and was often the object of contest between the Athenians and Thebans.

TANAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, belonging to the British. Lat. 21. 21. N. long. 73. 41. E.

TANAK, POINT, a cape on the north coast of Java. Lat. 6. 24. S. long. 108. 36. E.

TANAKEKE, a small island about 12 miles in circumference, surrounded by a cluster of smaller ones, and situated off the south-west extremity of Celebes. This island was formerly given up by the Dutch to the Malays in their service. Many of the smaller are uninhabited, and others peopled by the Buggesses. Lat. 5. 30. S. long. 19. 10. E.

TANALITZKALA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa; 120 miles east of Orenburg.

TANAPATEPEC, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Tehuantepec, containing 160 families of Indians.

TANAR, a river of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, which rises at the foot of Mount Battock, and falls into the river Dee, near the church of Aboyne. It gives the name of Glentamar to the district through which it runs, now united to the parish of Aboyne.

TANARO, a considerable river of the north of Italy, in Piedmont, which rises among the Appennines, and after passing by Coni, Cherasco, Alba, Asti, and Alessandria, falls into the Po at Bassignana; 3 miles east of Valenza. It gave name for some time to a department of the French empire.

TANAT, a river of Wales, in the counties of Montgomery and Denbigh. It forms part of the northern boundary between these counties, and runs into the Severn at the north-east point of Montgomeryshire.

TANCONA, a creek on the coast of the Pacific Ocean, in the province of Arica, in Peru.

TANCOS, a small town of the central part of Portugal, in Estremadura, on the north bank of the Tagus; 68 miles west-north-west of Lisbon. Population 2000.

TANDERAGEE, a considerable village of Ireland, in the county of Armagh. The linen manufacture is vigorously prosecuted here, and the proximity of the Newry canal materially contributes to the convenience of the place; 61¼ miles north-west of Dublin.

TANDIL, a river of South America, which enters the sea on the coast of Patagonia.

TANDJONG, CAPE, a cape on the west coast of Borneo. Lat. 5. 24. N. long. 112. 45. E.

TANDOO BAAS, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago.

TANDOO BATTOO, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 5. 9. N. long. 120. 12. E.

TANDRIDGE, a parish of England, in Surrey; 2 miles east-by-south of Godstone. Population 390.

TANE for *taken*, *ta'en*. Ill spelt.

Two trophies *tane* from th' East and western shore,
And both those nations twice triumphed o'er. *May*.

TANETE, a town and small principality on the island of Celebes, situated half way between Fort Rotterdam and the bay of Sorian. In 1775, this petty state was tributary to the Dutch, and governed by a female. Lat. 4. 14. S. long. 119. 35. E.

TANEYTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Frederick county, Maryland. It is a pleasant and handsome town, and contains two handsome brick houses of public worship, one for German Lutherans, and one for Roman Catholics; and about 100 houses, mostly of brick.

TANFIELD, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 6½ miles south-west of Gateshead.

TANFIELD, EAST, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 6½ miles north-north-west of Rippon.

TANFIELD, WEST, another hamlet in the same Riding; 6½ miles north-west-by-north of Rippon. Population 670.

TANG, *s.* [*tanghe*, Dutch, acrid.] A strong taste: a

taste left in the mouth.—It is strange that the soul should never once recal over any of its pure native thoughts, before it borrowed any thing from the body; never bring into the waking man's view any other ideas but what have a *tang* of the cask, and derive their original from that union. *Locke*.—Relish; taste. *A low word*.—There was not the least *tang* of religion, which is indeed the worst affectation in any thing he said or did. *Atterbury*.—Something that leaves a sting or pain behind it.

She had a tongue with a *tang*,
Would cry to a sailor, go hang.

Shakspeare.

Sound; tone: this is mistaken for *tone* or *twang*.—There is a pretty affectation in the Allemain, which gives their speech a different *tang* from ours. *Holder*.

To TANG, *v. n.* [This is mistaken for *twang*.] To ring with.—Be opposite with a kinsman, surly with thy servants; let thy tongue *tang* arguments of state; put thyself into the trick of singularity. *Shakspeare*.

TANG, *s.* [*tang*, Su. Goth.] A kind of sea-weed; called in some places *tangle*.—Calling it the sea of weeds, of flag, or rush, or *tange*. *Bp. Richardson*.

TANGALA, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the south coast of Java. Lat. 8. 20. S. long. 111. 45. E.

TANGE, a small river of East Prussia, which falls into the Kurische Haff, at Memel, where it is of sufficient depth to be navigated.

TANGENT, *s.* [*tangent*, Fr., *tangens*, Lat.]—*Tangent*, in trigonometry, is a right line perpendicularly raised on the extremity of a radius, and which touches a circle so as not to cut it; but yet intersects another line without the circle called a secant that is drawn from the centre, and which cuts the arc to which it is a *tangent*. *Trevoux*.—Nothing in this hypothesis can retain the planets in their orbs, but they would immediately desert them and the neighbourhood of the sun, and vanish away in *tangents* to their several circles into the mundane space. *Bentley*.

TANGER, a small river of Prussia, in the Old Mark of Brandenburg, which falls into the Elbe at Tangermunde.

TANGERANG, a village of the island of Java, about 15 miles west from Batavia. It is a considerable place; and before the neighbouring part of the Bantam country was ceded to the Dutch, it was a large military frontier station; but the fort, barracks, &c., are now nearly in ruins. A large weekly bazaar is held here, to which the produce of the adjacent country is brought, and thence carried to Batavia, by means of a canal which communicates with the river Tjidanee, by a fine sluice, and then runs parallel to the road the whole way to Batavia. Near this sluice and bridge is a beautiful villa, the late residence of General Lutzow. The country is well cultivated, interspersed with several seats or Dutch farms producing rice, and the greatest part of the grass for the consumption of the horses in town. As this article is in great demand, and uncommonly quick in its growth, it is of course much cultivated, and very profitable.

TANGERANG, or TJIDANEE, a river of Java, which has its rise in the Salack mountains, and running north, falls into the ocean; about 20 miles west of Bantam.

TANGERMUNDE, a small town of Prussia, in the Old Mark of Brandenburg (now the province of Saxony), on the Elbe, where it receives the Tanger. It contains 3200 inhabitants, employed in linen weaving, in brewing, and in cultivating the neighbouring district. It has an ancient castle, separated from the rest of the town; 32 miles north-north-east of Magdeburg, and 59 west of Berlin.

TANGHOO. See TOANHOA.

TANGIBILITY, *s.* [from *tangible*.] The quality of being perceived by the touch.

TANGIBLE, *adj.* [*tangible*, French; from *tango*, Lat.] Perceptible by the touch.—*Tangible* bodies have no pleasure in the consort of air, but endeavour to subact it into a more dense body. *Bacon*.

TANGIER, a considerable sea-port of Fez, in Morocco, situated on the straits of Gibraltar, a few miles to the east of Cape

Cape Spartel, which bounds their entrance on the African side. It is an ancient town, known under the name of Tingis or Tinja to the Romans, who took it under Sertorius. On the invasion of the Saracens, it was surrendered to them by count Julian. In modern times, Tangier has been a subject of eager contest between the Moors and the Portuguese. In 1437 it was besieged by prince Ferdinand; but his army was completely defeated, and subjected to an ignominious capitulation. In 1471, Alonzo, king of Portugal, succeeded in obtaining possession of it; and about two centuries after, in 1662, it became the property of England, being ceded to Charles II. as a marriage portion with the princess Catherine of Portugal. The English, however, abandoned it in 1684, destroying the fortifications. Tangier became afterwards a distinguished station of piracy, for which its situation at the mouth of the straits gave it great advantages; but the disuse in Morocco of this nefarious practice has greatly diminished the importance of the place. It now subsists chiefly by supplying the British garrison of Gibraltar with cattle and vegetables, permission for which purpose was given by Muley Ismael, the grandfather of the present emperor. The bay of Tangier is now encumbered by the ruins of the mole and fortification, and is not very safe during winter in westerly winds. The best anchorage for frigates and large vessels is at the eastern point. There are still some batteries facing the bay, in tolerable condition; but these could, with difficulty, resist any powerful attack; 108 miles north-north-west of Fez, and 33 west-south-west of Gibraltar. Lat. 35. 42. N. long. 5. 50. W.

TANGIER ISLANDS, several islands of the Chesapeake, near the coast of Maryland, opposite the mouth of the Potomack. Lat. 38. 12. N. long. 76. 12. W.

TANGIPAO, a river of the United States, which rises in Mississippi, crosses the east part of Louisiana, and flows into Lake Pontchartrain; 10 miles north-east of the pass of Manchac.

TANGKI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tche-kiang.

To TANGLE, v. a. [See *To ENTANGLE.*] To implicate; to knit together.—The nymphs in twilight shade of tangled thickets mourn. *Milton.*—To ensnare; to entrap. She means to *tangle* mine eyes too.

'Tis not your inky brows, your black silk hair,
Your bugle eye-balls, nor your cheek of cream.

Shakspeare.

To embroil; to embarrass.

When my simple weakness strays,
Tangled in forbidden ways:
He, my shepherd! is my guide,
He's before me, on my side.

Crashaw.

To TANGLE, v. n. To be entangled.

Shrubs and *tangling* bushes had perplex'd
All path of man or beast.

Anon.

TANGLE, s. A knot of things interwoven in one another, or different parts of the same thing perplexed.

He leading swiftly roll'd
In *tangles*, and made intricate seem strait.
To mischief swift.

Milton.

[from *tang.*] A kind of sea-weed.

TANGLEY, a hamlet of England, in Southamptonshire; 5½ miles north-north-west of Andover.

TANGLEY, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire; 3 miles north-west of Burford.

TANGMERE, a parish of England, in Sussex; 3 miles east-by-north of Chichester.

TANGO, a small river of South America, in the province of Popayan, which, after a short course, enters the Coqueta.

TANGO, a settlement of Chili, in the province of Santiago.

TANGO, a town of Nippon, in Japan; 65 miles south-west of Meaco.

TANGOLOTANGO, a sea-port town of Mexico, in the

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province of Oaxaca, near the gulf of Mexico; 100 miles south-south-east of Oaxaca. Lat. 16. 8. N. long. 97. 36. W.

TANGTIN, a town of China, of the third rank in Se-chuen.

TANGUEY, or **TONGUEY**, a bay of Chili, on the coast of the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 30. 16. S.

TANG-Y, a town of China, of the third rank, in Shan-tung.

TANG-YANG, a lake of China, about thirty miles in circumference; 32 miles north of Hoaigan.

TANG-YN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Honan.

TANICUCUHI, a large settlement of Quito, in the province of Tacunga, situated on the river of its name. Lat. 47. 30. S.

TANILA, a river of Mexico, which runs into the gulf of Mexico. Lat. 18. 10. N. long. 95. 6. W.

TANING, a town of China, of the third rank, in Shan-see.

TANINGE, a small town of the Sardinian States, in Savoy, province of Faucigny, situated in a fertile valley, on the small river Feron. Population 2500; 22 miles east-by-south of Geneva.

TANJORE; an extensive, populous, and well cultivated district of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. For a considerable period this district constituted a small principality, which was never completely subdued by the Mahometan arms. It was, however, conquered by the Mahratta chief Eccojee, about the middle of the 17th century, and the present rajah is the descendant of that chief. About the middle of the last century it became tributary to the nabob of the Carnatic; and in consequence of the cession of the nabob's territories, this district is now in possession of the British. The rajah is, however, allowed to retain his capital and fortress, with a clear allowance of 12,500*l.* per annum, and some other immunities. This district is about 95 miles in length, by 50 in breadth, situated on the bay of Bengal, and intersected by the river Cavery. It produces a great abundance of rice, cocoa nuts, and some indigo.

TANJORE, a celebrated town and fortress, and capital of the above mentioned district, including the suburbs. It is nearly six miles in circumference. There are two forts, one of which comprehends the palace and other public buildings; the other contains one of the handsomest temples in the south of India, and a college, formerly a celebrated place of Hindoo learning. This fortress, which may be considered as the citadel, is extremely strong, and successfully resisted the arms of both the French and British, but was taken by the latter in the year 1773. It was afterwards restored to the rajah, and is still his residence, and garrisoned by his own troops, with a proviso, that in case of a war with the French, or any of the native powers, the defence of it is to be intrusted to the British. Lat. 10. 42. N. long. 72. 11. E.

TANJORE, a town of the island of Java, situated in the high grounds; 73 miles south-south-east from Batavia, in a delightful country.

TANIST, *s.* [An Irish word; *an taanister*, Erse.] A kind of captain or governor.—Presently after the death of any of their captains, they assemble themselves to chuse another in his stead, and nominate commonly the next brother, and then next to him do they chuse next of the blood to be *tanist*, who shall next succeed him in the said captainry. *Spenser.*

TANISTRY, s. A succession made up of inheritance and election. *Burke.*—The Irish hold their lands by *tanistry*, which is no more than a personal estate for his life-time that is tanist, by reason he is admitted therunto by election. *Spenser.*

TANISTRY, or **TANISTRIA**, an ancient municipal law, or tenure, which allotted the inheritance of lands, castles, &c., held by this tenure, to the oldest and most worthy and capable person of the deceased's name and blood, without any regard to proximity. This, in reality, was giving it to

the strongest; and this naturally occasioned bloody wars in families; for which reason it was abolished under king James I.

TANK, *s.* A large cistern or basin.—I saw a *tank* or magazine of water, a very stately work indeed. *Sir. T. Herbert.*

T'ANKARD, *s.* [*tanquaerd*, Fr, *tankaerd*, Dutch; *tancaird*, Irish;] A large vessel with a cover, for strong drink.

Hath his *tankard* touch'd your brain?
Sure they're fall'n asleep again.

B. Jonson.

TANKERSLEY, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south of Barnesley. Population 1390.

TANKROWAL, a town of Western Africa, considerably up the Gambia, and situated near the banks of that river. The English African company had once a factory here, which they have now abandoned. The chief trade is in wax. Lat. 13. 10. N. long. 14. 27. W.

TANKSAL, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, belonging to the Seiks. Lat. 30. 51. N. long. 76. 53. E.

TAN'LING, *s.* One scorched by the heat of summer.

The king

Hath not deserved my service, nor your loves;
Who find in my exile the want of breeding,
The certainty of this hard life; aye hopeless
To have the courtesy your cradle promis'd
But to bestill hot summer's *tanlings*, and
The shrinking slaves of winter.

Shakspeare.

TANN, a petty town of Bavarian Franconia, on the small river Ulster; 9 miles east-north-east of Fulda. Population 800.

TANN, a small town of Bavaria; 28 miles west-south-west of Passau, and 50 east-by-north of Munich. Population 900.

TANNA, a small town of Saxony, in the Voigtland, belonging to count Reuss of Schlaitz, with 1300 inhabitants; 6 miles south of Schlaitz, and 26 south-by-west of Gera.

TANNA, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Aurungabad, district of Bombay. This place is situated on the east side of the island of Salsette. The fort, which is very strong, commands the passage between the island and the mainland, of about 200 yards broad. It is during war garrisoned by a battalion of native infantry, and a company of European artillery: It was taken from the Maharrattas by the British in December 1773, after an obstinate resistance. The town is straggling but not large, although it contains several Portuguese churches. The population consists of native Christians and Hindoos. Lat. 19. 11. N. long. 73. 6. E.

TANNA, a fortress of Bengal, situated on the western bank of the Bhagarutty or Hoogly river, about two miles below Calcutta. It was taken by the British in 1687, but was afterwards restored to the nabob. During the rebellion of 1686 it was besieged by the insurgents; but the British having sent a frigate to aid the garrison, compelled the rebels to decamp. It was again taken by the British in 1756; but the erection of the fortress of Fort William having rendered Tanna unnecessary, the fortifications have been allowed to decay. Lat. 22. 33. N. long. 88. 22. E.

TANNA, an island in the South Pacific ocean, and one of those called New Hebrides, discovered by Captain Cook in the year 1774; about 22 miles in length, and 10 in breadth. The inhabitants would not suffer Captain Cook, or any of his company, to advance far into the island. The produce, as far as could be seen, is bread-fruit, plantains, cocoa-nuts, a fruit like a nectarine, yams, tarra, a sort of potatoe, sugar-cane, wild figs, a fruit like an orange which is not eatable, and some other fruits and nuts. Captain Cook doubts not but nutmegs likewise grow in this island. The bread fruit, cocoa-nuts, and plantains, are neither so plentiful nor so good as at Otaheite; on the other hand, sugar-canes and yams are not only in great

plenty, but of superior quality, and much larger. One of the latter weighed 56lbs., every ounce of which was good. Hogs did not seem to be scarce, but they saw not many fowls. These are the only domestic animals they have. Land-birds are not more numerous than at Otaheite, and the other islands; but they saw some small birds, with a very beautiful plumage, which they had never seen before. There is a great variety of trees and plants. The people are of the middle size, rather slender than otherwise; many are little, but few tall or stout; the most of them have good features and agreeable countenances, are, like all the tropical race, active and nimble, and seem to excel in the use of arms, but not to be fond of labour. Both sexes are of a very dark colour, but not black; nor have they the least characteristic of the negro about them. They make themselves blacker than they really are, by painting their faces with a pigment of the colour of black lead. They also use another sort, which is red; and a third sort brown, or a colour between red and black. All these, but especially the first, they lay on with a liberal hand, not only on the face, but on the neck, shoulders, and breast. The men wear nothing but a belt, and the wrapping-leaf, as at Mallicollo. The women have a kind of petticoat, made of the filaments of the plantain tree, flags, or some such thing, which reaches below the knee. Both sexes wear ornaments, such as bracelets, earrings, necklaces, and amulets. The bracelets are chiefly worn by the men; some made of sea-shells, and others of those of the cocoa-nuts. The men also wear amulets; and those of most value being made of a greenish stone, the green stone of New Zealand is valued by them for this purpose. Necklaces are chiefly used by the women, and made mostly of shells; ear-rings are common to both sexes, and those valued most are made of tortoise-shell. These people, besides the cultivation of ground, have few other arts worth mentioning. They know how to make a coarse kind of matting, and a coarse cloth of the bark of a tree, which is chiefly used for belts. The workmanship of their canoes is very rude; and their arms, with which they take the most pains in point of neatness, come far short of some others. Their weapons are clubs, spears or darts, bows and arrows, and stones. The clubs are of three or four kinds, and from three to five feet long. Captain Cook knew no more of their cookery, than that it consists of roasting and baking; for they have no vessels in which water can be boiled. Nor did he know that they had any other liquor but water, and the juice of the cocoa-nut. They were utter strangers to their religion, and but little acquainted with their government. They seem to have chiefs among them, at least some were pointed out to him by that title; but they appeared to have very little authority over the rest of the people. The island contains a very considerable volcano; and some hot springs were discovered, which raised the thermometer from 80° to 170°, and in one place to 202°. Captain Cook named the harbour where he lay Port Resolution, from the name of the ship, which was the first that had ever entered it, which is situated in lat. 19. 32. S. long. 169. 44. E.

TANNA BALLOO, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 4. 52. N. long. 118. 21. E.

TANNA LABU. See TULOUR.

TANNA MERA, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Borneo. Lat. 3. 45. N. long. 117. 5. E.

TANNADYCE, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, about 12 miles long, and on an average 4 broad, though in some places its breadth extends to 8 or 10. Population 1510.

TANNAY, a small town in the central part of France, department of the Nievre. Population 1200; 9 miles south-by-east of Clamecy, and 32 north-east of Nevers.

TANNE, a village of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick, principality of Blankenburg, near Hasselfeld. The village is insignificant, but there are large iron-works in the neighbourhood.

TANNENBURG, a village of East Prussia; 83 miles south-by-west of Königsberg, and 68 north-east of Thorn.

TANNER, *s.* One whose trade is to tan leather.—*Tan-Tanners*

nèrs use that lime which is newly drawn out of the kiln, and not slacked with water or air. *Mozon.*

TANNER'S CREEK, a river of the United States, in Indiana, which runs into the Ohio; 2 miles below Lawrenceburg. It is 30 miles long, and 30 yards wide at its mouth.

TANNER'S HILL, a post village of the United States, in Newberry district, South Carolina.

TANNERRE, a small town in the central part of France, department of the Yonne. Population 800.

TANNESAR, or **THANASIR**, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi. This place formerly contained the celebrated temple of Jug Soom, which was held in the highest estimation by the Hindoos, and innumerable pilgrims flocked to it annually from all parts of India. Its riches and celebrity attracted the cupidity, or incited the bigotry, of Sultan Mahmoud of Ghizne, who, in the year 1012, marched against it, and having easily captured it, with all its wealth, broke all the small idols to pieces on the spot; but the venerated Jug Soom, after being decapitated, was sent to Ghizne, to form one of the steps of the superb mosque then building by the sultan, being conveniently situated on the high road from Delhi to Lahore. It is a place of considerable consequence, and still held in high veneration by the Hindoos. The ancient city of Hustnapore stood in the vicinity of this place, which is also celebrated for having been the scene of the Mahabarut, or the great war between the Pandoo and Cooroos, at the termination of which, it is fabled, only twelve persons, out of an innumerable multitude, remained alive. It now belongs to the Seiks, and is principally inhabited by people of that religion, and Hindoos. Lat. 29. 55. N. long. 76. 48. E.

TANNESERIM, a district of the Birman empire, extending along the sea-coast, from the 11th to the 14th degrees of northern latitude, and between the 98th and 99th degrees of eastern longitude. The western coast of this territory is protected from the monsoons or storms, by a long range of islands distant from 15 to 30 miles from the mainland, which form an excellent channel for small vessels, but it is too dangerous to be entered by large ones, without an experienced pilot on board. This country has frequently changed masters, having been alternately subject to the kingdoms of Siam and Pegue; but on the conquest of the latter by the Birmans in 1759, it became annexed to their empire.

TANNESERIM, the capital of the above district, and formerly a city of considerable commerce and consequence. It is situated on the south bank of a large river, distant about 20 miles from the sea; but as the entrance of its port is prohibited to Europeans, little more is now known of it. In the year 1688, the British endeavoured to procure the cession of this place from the king of Siam, but the overtures were rejected. It was taken by Alompra, the Birman monarch, in 1759, and the fortifications demolished. It is now governed by an officer from Ummerapoor. Lat. 11. 42. N. long. 98. 50. E.

TANNEWANG, a river on the south coast of the island of Celebes, which runs into the sea; 5 miles west of Bonthain.

TANNHAUSEN, a large village of Prussia, in Silesia, and the principality of Schweidnitz, near the borders of Bohemia, with 1100 inhabitants.

TANNING. *s.* The process of preparing leather with tan or bark. The appearance or stain of a brown colour.—Diseases and distempers, incident to our faces, are industriously to be cured without any thought or blame of pride; as flushings, redness, inflammations, pimples, freckles, ruggedness, *tanning*, and the like. *Bp. Taylor.*

It is difficult to say at what period the art of tanning was discovered. It was doubtless known to the ancients in some degree of perfection; and it is highly probable that the skins of animals were employed by man as a covering long before the art of tanning was known: but they would require in this state to be constantly kept dry, as moisture would soon bring them into a state of putrefaction.

The astringent matter, which converts the skin into leather,

abounds in so many vegetables in every country, that accident would soon lead to some method of producing the change. Independent, however, of vegetables, many earthy and metallic substances have the property of rendering skins incorruptible to a certain extent; and some mineral waters containing copper or iron, will occasion this change. Hence we may conclude, that some means of giving preservation to the skins of animals, must have been known at a very early period.

In the present method, the heaviest and stoutest of the bull and ox hides are selected, to make what are technically called butts or backs, and are manufactured in the following manner:—

When the horns, &c., have been removed, the raw hides are laid on a heap for two or three days, and are then suspended on poles in a close room, called a smoke-house, which is heated somewhat above the common temperature by a smouldering fire: this occasions incipient putrefaction, which loosens the epidermis, and renders the hair and other extraneous matter easy of separation from the true skin. This is effected by extending the hide on a wooden horse or beam of a convex form, and scraping it with a large two-handled knife, called a fleshing-knife, which is bent, to suit the convexity of the beam.

The hides are then immersed in a pit containing water slightly impregnated with sulphuric acid. This operation, which is called raising, by distending the pores and swelling the fibres, prepares the hide for the reception of the tannin, and renders it more susceptible of its action.

When the hides are sufficiently raised, they are removed into a pit, in which they are lain smooth with a stratum of oak bark ground to a coarse powder between each.

The pit is then filled with the tanning lixivium or ooze, prepared from oak bark and water, and the hides remain a month or six weeks without being moved. At the end of this time, the tanning principle being exhausted, the ooze and spent bark are taken out of the pit, and the hides put in again, stratified with fresh bark, and covered with fresh ooze as before. Here they remain about three months, when the same process is repeated, at about the same intervals, three several times or more, according to the strength of the lixivium and the substance of the hides. When sufficiently tanned, they are taken out of the pit, hung up in a shed to dry gradually, and being compressed with a steel instrument, and beaten smooth to render them firm and dense, the operation is complete; and they are ready for sale, and are termed butts or backs. These form the thickest and most substantial sole leather for very strong shoes, and are chiefly intended for exportation.

Crop hides are thus manufactured:—The horns having been removed, the hides are immersed in pits containing a mixture of lime and water, where they remain three or four days, being occasionally moved up and down, that each part may be uniformly exposed to the action of the lime-water. They are then taken out of the lime-pits, and the hair and other extraneous matter being scraped off on a wooden beam, as before described, are washed in water, to free them from the lime and filth adhering. They are now immersed in a weak ooze, and by degrees are removed into other pits, containing solutions gradually increasing in strength, during which time they are taken up and put down (technically termed handling), at least once in every day, that all parts of the hide may be acted upon by the tanning principle equally and uniformly. This is continued for about a month or six weeks, when they are put into other pits with stronger ooze and a small portion of ground bark; from whence, as the tannin becomes exhausted, they are removed to other pits in regular succession, with fresh ooze and fresh bark, for two or three months.

At the end of this period, the hides are put into larger vats, called layers, in which they are stratified, or lain smooth, in a lixivium of greater strength, and with a larger quantity of ground bark between each fold. Here they remain about six weeks, when they are taken up and relaid in the same manner, with fresh bark and strong ooze, for two months.

This

This process is repeated, with little variation, once, twice, or thrice, at the discretion of the manufacturer, till the hides are thoroughly tanned; when they are taken out of the pits, suspended on poles to dry, and being compressed and smoothed, nearly in the manner before described, are called crop hides, and form the principal part of the sole leather which is used in England.

The process of tanning skins (calves, seals, &c.) is somewhat different from hides. They are continued in the lime-pits for ten or fifteen days; they are then depilated and washed in water, after which they are immersed in an infusion of pigeon's dung, called a grainer, having the property of an alkali. Here they remain for a week or ten days, according to the state of the atmosphere and other circumstances, during which time they are frequently handled, and scraped on both sides upon a convex wooden beam. The scraping, or working, as it is termed, with the action of the grainer, helps to discharge all the lime, oil, and saponaceous matter, and renders the skin soft and pliant, fitted to imbibe the tanning principle. They are now removed into pits containing a weak solution of bark, where they undergo nearly the same process of handling, &c., as crop hides; but they are seldom stratified in layers; and the time occupied in tanning them is usually from two to four months, according to their nature and substance. The skins are then dried, and sold to the currier, who dresses and blacks them for the upper leathers of boots and shoes, for harness, and various other purposes.

The light and thin sort of cow-hides and horse-hides undergo nearly the same process in tanning as calf-skins, and are applied to similar uses.

These processes are such as are now commonly practised, varying, however, with the nature and condition of the peculiar kind of hides and skins—with local habits and circumstances—and with the skill and experience of the manufacturer. The greatest defect in the common methods, appears to exist in the means of extracting the tannin from the bark. Cold water is chiefly used for that purpose; but some persons conceiving that this does not entirely exhaust the tanning principle, subject the bark, as before observed, to the action of boiling water, &c. It, however, as Sir Humphrey Davy has stated, the extract as well as the tannin combines with the skin, the extraction of the tannin by heat would tend to oxygenate the former, and render it insoluble in the liquid.

TANNINGTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles north-west of Framlingham.

TANON, POINT, a cape on the south coast of the island of Sibiu. Lat. 9. 52. N. long. 123. 18. E.

TANORE, a sea-port town of the south of India, province of Malabar. It was formerly a place of considerable note, but is now reduced to a mere village. It belongs to the British. Lat. 10. 55. N. long. 75. 55. E.

TANORY, a small island on the east coast of the island of Lewis.

TANPISCO, a river of Guatemala, in the province of Costa Rica, which enters the Pacific ocean, to the east of the town of Nicoya.

TANPIT, *s.* A pit where leather is impregnated with bark.

TANQUAYALAB, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Vallcs, which contains 213 families of Indians and mulattoes.

TANQUYUCHE, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Tampico, containing 60 families of Indians.

TANSAC, a small village of Mexico, situated on the Rio del Norte.

TANSEY RIVER, a river of America, which rises in the Rocky mountains, and after a course of several hundred miles, falls into the Missouri near the great falls discovered and described by Captains Lewis and Clark, in their adventurous journey to the source of the Missouri, and from thence to the Pacific ocean. Its general course is from east to west, apparently through wide valleys, well supplied with both

the long and broad leaved cotton wood. The hills on its banks are from 100 to 150 feet in height, and possess bluffs of earth like the lower part of the Missouri. The bed is formed of small gravel and mud; the water turbid, and of a whitish tint; the banks low, but never overflowed; so that, except in depth and velocity, it is a perfect miniature of the Missouri.

TANSHELF, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Pontefract. Population 371.

TANSIF. See TENSIFT.

TANSITARO, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Valladolid, and capital of a district of the same name. It is situated on an elevated ridge, and is extremely cold. It contains about 180 families of Spaniards, Indians, and mulattoes.

TANSLEY, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 1½ mile east of Matlock. Population 370.

TANSOR, or TANSOVER, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2 miles north-north-east of Oundle.

TANSY, *s.* [*tanacetum*, Lat.] An odorous plant. *Miller*.—Strong *fanscy*, fennel cool. *Drayton*.—A kind of cake, of which tansy forms a principal part.—In the spring time are made with the leaves hereof, (*tansy*.) newly sprung up, and with eggs, cakes or *tansies*. *Johnson*.—Our *tansies* at Easter have reference to the bitter herbs. *Selden*.

TANT, *s.* A kind of small field-spider. *Ray*.

TANTALISM, *s.* A punishment like that of Tantalus.—A lively representation of a person lying under the torments of such a *tantalism*. *Addison*.

TANTALIZATION, *s.* Act of tantalizing; state of being tantalized.

To TANTALIZE, *v. a.* [from *Tantalus*, whose punishment was to starve among fruits and water which he could not touch.] To torment by the shew of pleasures which cannot be reached.

Thy vain desires, at strife
Within themselves, have *tantaliz'd* thy life. *Dryden*.

TANTALIZER, *s.* One who tantalizes.

TANTAMOUNT, *adj.* [French.] Equivalent.—God hath inserted it into our reasonable natures; or by his providence hath conveyed it into the minds of all men, which is *tantamount* unto it. *Glanville*.

TANTIEKAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiangnan.

TANTIMA, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Tampico, which contains 583 families of Indians.

TANTIVY, *adv.* [from the note of a hunting horn, so expressed in articulate sounds.—The old French language has *lentiveux*, to denote an eager person; "homme qui est tente par tout ce qu'il voit; avide, &c." *Roq.*] To ride *tantivy* is to ride at great speed.

TANTOYUCA, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Tampico, containing 450 families of Spaniards and Indians; 60 leagues north-east-by-north of Mexico.

TANTUMQUERI, a sea-port on the Gold coast of Africa, where a little trade is carried on, and where the English had formerly a fort, which they have now abandoned; 18 miles east of Cormantin.

TANWORTH, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 4 miles north-west-by-north of Henley-in-Arden. Population 1682.

TAN-YANG, a town of China, of the third rank, in Kiangnan.

TANY BWLCH, a hamlet of Wales, in Merionethshire; in a beautiful and romantic situation; 230 miles north-west of London.

TAO, a city of China, of the second rank, in Hou-quang. Lat. 25. 34. N. long. 101. 0. E.

TAOO, ISLAND, one of the Friendly islands, in the South Pacific ocean; about 24 miles in circumference.

TAORMINA, a small but interesting town of Sicily, in the Val di Demona, situated on a steep and craggy mountain

tain on the eastern coast. Its population is about 4000; and it is remarkable for the number of its churches and convents, some of which are profusely decorated with marble. It has a harbour, and exports, among other articles, wine and hemp. It is built on the site of the ancient Taunoneum, of whose former splendour the remains of antiquity still seen here bear ample witness, the theatre, the naumachia, the cisterns, and the aqueduct, being all objects of admiration to the traveller. The theatre, in particular, is a splendid monument, and is almost unrivalled for its position and high state of preservation. Its seats afford a delightful view of the sea on the one side, and the distant mountains on the other, while Etna and its vicinity appear with peculiar advantage, from the elevation on which it stands. In the 10th century Taormina was taken from the Greek emperors by the Saracens, who called it Al-Moezzia, a name which it retained a considerable time. In 1690, it was much damaged by an earthquake. It is a strong military position; 26 miles north-north-east of Catania, and 27 south-south-west of Messina. Lat. 37. 51. N. long. 15. 23. E.

TAOS, a village of Mexico, in the intendency of New Mexico. It is situated on the east side of the Rio del Norte, and, according to Humboldt, is placed in the old maps 62 leagues too far north, under the 40th degree of north lat. Population 8900.

TAOUKA, one of the Society islands, in the South Pacific ocean. Lat. 14. 30. S. long. 145. 9. W.

TAOUS MOUNTAINS, in North America, the southern part of the chain of the Chippewan or Rocky mountains, where the Del Norte, Red river, Arkansaw, and Colorado, have their rise.

To TAP, *v. a.* To touch lightly; to strike gently. [tæppan, Saxon; *tappen*, Dutch.] To pierce a vessel; to broach a vessel. It is used likewise of the liquor.

That blood, already like the pelican,
Hast thou *tapt* out, and drunkenly caroused. *Shakspeare*.

To TAP, *v. n.* To strike a gentle blow: as, he *tapped* at the door.

TAP, *s.* A gentle blow.—This is the right fencing grace, *tap* for *tap*, and so part fair. *Shakspeare*.—[tæppe, Sax.] A pipe at which the liquor of a vessel is let out.

TAPACRIC, a large and ancient settlement of Peru, capital of a province of the same name, which extended from the Lake Titicaca to the source of the river Chopare. It is now a miserable village, situated near the source of the river Condorillo. Lat. 18. 10. S.

TAPACURO, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Pernambuco, which runs east, and enters the sea close to Cape San Agustin.

TAPANATEPEC, a settlement of Guatimala, in the province of Chiapa.

TAPANOOLY, a British settlement of Sumatra, situated on the small island of Puchong Keechil, at the bottom of the bay of Tapanooly, on the north-west shore, distant about 2½ or 3 miles. The bay of Tapanooly, with the island of Mansalar, forms one of the finest ports in the world; composed of such a complication of harbours within each other, that it is asserted a large ship might lie hid among them, as not to be discovered without a laborious research. This inlet stretches into the heart of the Battas country, with whom a considerable traffic is carried on, and timber for masts and spars is to be procured in the various creeks; but not being in the general track for British vessels, this harbour has been little frequented for naval purposes. The natives are in general inoffensive, and give little annoyance to the settlement; but parties of Acheenese traders, jealous of the influence of the English, endeavoured to drive them out of the bay. The large kima cockle (*chama gigas*) abounds in this bay, one of which that was carried to England measured three feet three inches in its longest diameter, and two feet one inch across. The substance of the shell is in general perfectly white, and several inches thick. The roe of this cockle will sometimes weigh six pounds, and the fish altogether, when cleared of the shell, from 20 to 30 pounds. One method of

taking them in deep water is by thrusting a bamboo between the valves as they lie open, which is made fast by the immediate closure of the shell. In this bay are also found most beautiful corallines and madrepores. The settlement was taken in 1760 by a squadron of French ships, under the Comte d'Estaing; and in 1809, being nearly defenceless, it was again taken and plundered by a French squadron. Lat. 1. 40. N. long. 98. 50. E.

TAPAQUIRE, a small river of Guiana, which enters the Orinoco.

TAPARICA. See TAPORICA.

TAPAYOS, or TAPAJOS, a magnificent river of Brazil, in the capitania of Matto Grosso, which derives its copious sources from numerous branches rising in the interior mountains of Brazil. It is one of those great rivers which come from the south to feed the vast stream of the Amazons. Its course is north for more than 600 miles between the Chingu and the Madera, and it falls into the Amazons, in Lat. 2. 24. 50. S. long. 55. W. The source of the Tapayos is in the mountain plains of Parexis, so called from an Indian nation which inhabits them. These plains occupy a vast space, not level, but formed by undulating heaps of sand and light earth, resembling large waves. The spectator who is in the midst of them ever sees before him a distant and extended mount; he approaches it by a gentle and long declivity, traverses the plain, and advances by an ascent equally gentle, until he gains imperceptibly the heights he saw; another eminence then presents itself, and he proceeds with the same recurring circumstances. The soil of these wide plains is sandy, and so light, that loaded beasts, passing, sink into it so much as to impede their progress. The pasturage is poor, consisting of a grass composed of wiry stalks a foot high, and small rough lancet-shaped leaves. The animals, in grazing, pluck them up with the roots covered with sand. On this account the passage by land is difficult and tedious; though, on finding any of the streams which abound in these plains, there is grass and other mild herbage, which afford tolerable pasturage. The plains of Parexis form, to a large extent and breadth, the summit of those high mountains of the same name, and are situated on some of the most elevated land in all Brazil: and from these mountains descend the greatest rivers of South America; the Paraguay, with all its numerous branches, which takes a southern direction, and issues into the ocean by the estuary of the Plata; and various other important streams which run north into the Amazons. Among these is the Tapayos which is formed by the junction of the two rivers, the Arinos and the Juruena, and their confluent streams. The head waters of all these rivers spring up at a very short distance from the head waters of the Paraguay; so that it would not be difficult to establish a ready communication between them. It is evident also, that by means of the Tapayos and its large branches, the Arinos and Juruena, a more easy communication might be carried on between the maritime city of Para, and the mines of Matto Grosso and Cuiaba. This navigation to Matto Grosso is at least two hundred leagues shorter than that performed through the Madera and Guapore; it is consequently less tedious and expensive, and equally advantageous to the mines of Cuiaba. The navigation of the river Tapayos might lead also to new discoveries in the vast unexplored parts of this river, up to its entrance into the plains of the Parexis; and their products might add to those of the extensive regions on the Amazons. Besides this, the river is known to be auriferous for a great part of its course.

TAPAYOS, a settlement of Brazil, in the government of Para; 350 miles west of Para. Lat. 2. 30. S. long. 57. 12. W.

TAPE, *s.* [tæppe, Sax.] A narrow fillet or band of linen.

Will you buy any *tape*, or lace for your cap,
My dainty duck, my dear-a? *Shakspeare*.

TAPEANTAN, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 6. 15. N. long. 122. 9. E.

TAPER, *s.* [tæpep, Sax.] A wax candle; a light.

Get me a *taper* in my study Lucius:
When it is lighted come and call-me.

Shakspeare.

TAPER, *adj.* Regularly narrowed from the bottom to the top; pyramidal; conical.

Her *taper* fingers, and her panting breast,
He praises.

Dryden.

To TAPER, *v. n.* To grow gradually smaller.

Such be the dog,
With *tapering* tail, that nimbly cuts the wind.

Tickell.

To TAPER, *v. a.* To make gradually smaller.—To light with tapers.

The *taper'd* choir, at the late hour of prayer,
Oft let me visit.

Warton.

TAPERA DOS BOCAS, a town of Brazil, in the government of Para, on the Guanapu; 90 miles south-west of Para.

TAPERNESS, *s.* The state of being taper.—A Corinthian pillar has a relative beauty, dependent on its *taperness* and foliage. *Shenstone.*

TAPESTRY, *s.* [*tapetum*, Lat.] Cloth woven in regular figures.

In the desk
That's covered o'er with Turkish *tapestry*,
There is a purse of ducats.

Shakspeare.

To TAPESTRY, *v. a.* To adorn with tapestry.—Flowers, with which the earth is *tapistred*.

Harmar.

TAPET, *s.* [*tapetia*, Lat.] Worked or figured stuff.

To their work they sit, and each doth chuse
What story she will for her *tapet* take.

Spenser.

TAPETI, in Zoology, the name of an animal common in the West Indies, and called by some *cuniculus Americanus*, the American rabbit. In the Linnæan system, this animal is a species of hare, or *lepus Brasiliensis*. See LEPUS.

TAPHOUSE, *s.* A room in which beer is drawn and sold in small quantities: in large inns now usually called the tap.—The talk of drunkards in *taphouses*.

Beaum. and Fl.

TAPIA, a river of Guiana, which runs south-south-east, and enters the Choromoros.—It is also the name of a river in Chili, which runs north-north-west, and enters the Valdivia.

TAPIA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Carthagená, on the shore of the Cauca.—It is the name of several inconsiderable settlements.

TAPIAN POINT, a cape on the west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 7. N, long. 124. 30. E.

TAPIAU, a town in East Prussia, at the influx of the Deine into the larger stream of the Pregel. It is situated on a height, with a bridge over the Deine, and a ferry over the Pregel. Population 1700; 20 miles south-south-east of Königsberg.

TAPICU, a river of Brazil, in the province of Maranhão, which runs north and enters the sea in the bay of Maranhão.

TAPICURO, a river of Brazil, in the province of Todos Santos, which enters the sea between the Pontica and Cape Color. There is a settlement of the same name on its banks.

TAPICURU, a river of Brazil, which rises in the mountains of the interior, and running north, enters the sea opposite the island of San Luis. Lat. 12. 20. S.

TAPINHACANGA, a village of Brazil, in the province of Rio Grande. The whole country around contains auriferous ore, which is separated from the earth by the simple process of washing; and in this species of industry the inhabitants of this place were formerly entirely employed. The country, however, is now nearly exhausted of its treasures; and this, along with most of its other towns and villages, has fallen off in consequence. Its population, from 3000, has dwindled to 1000.

TAPIR, or TAPIJERETE of Marcograve, in Zoology, the name of an animal found in some parts of America, and called by the Portuguese *anta*, by others *danta*, by Dampier *vache montagnarde*, and by others *elan*, and *sus aquaticus*,

and in the tenth edition of the Linnæan system, *hippopotamus terrestris*. Gmelin makes it a distinct genus; and his generic characters, amended by Dr. Shaw, are as follow:—Front teeth in both jaws ten; canine teeth in both jaws single, incurvated; grinders in both jaws five on each side, very broad; feet with three hoofs, and a false hoof on the fore-feet. This animal (*tapir Americanus*) is of the size of a young calf, or heifer, and in shape somewhat approaching to the figure of the hog, and the back arched; its head is thicker than a hog's, and ends in a sharp ridge at top; and the male has a snout, or sort of proboscis, hanging over the opening of the mouth, in which he has a very strong muscle, serving to retract it at pleasure: the nose of the female is destitute of the proboscis (this circumstance is doubted by Sonnini), and the jaws are of equal length; its eyes are small, and very like those of the hog; its ears roundish, bordered with white; and these he can draw forward at pleasure; its legs are thick, and not longer than those of our hogs; its fore-hoofs are divided into three portions; and a sort of false hoof behind; but its hind-hoofs into three; its tail is very small; the skin is hard and solid; and the hair short, and of a pale brown, and when young, variegated with white spots; and along the neck is a bristly mane, an inch and a half high. It lives in thick woods, on the eastern side of South America, from the isthmus of Darien to the river of the Amazons; and sleeps all day, but at night, or early in the morning, goes out for its prey: it feeds on vegetables, and is particularly fond of the stalks of the sugarcane: it often takes the water, and swims excellently. The natives, in places where it is common, eat its flesh, which is said to be good: the Indians shoot it with poisoned arrows, and cut the skin into bucklers. This animal is salacious, slow-footed, and sluggish, and makes a kind of hissing noise, but perfectly harmless: the young are easily tamed, and may be rendered domestic, which is said to be the case in some parts of Guiana. When attacked by dogs it makes a vigorous resistance. The tapir produces but one young at a birth, of which it is very careful, leading it at an early age to the sea, and instructing it to swim.

Ray and Pennant.

TAPIROZA, a strait or channel formed in the middle of the bay of Maranhão, by the island of San Luis with the continent, and defended by a castle and fort.

TAPIS, *s.* [Fr.] Literally tapestry, which formerly covered tables; whence matters laid upon the table for discussion.—The house of lords sate till past five at night. Lord Churchill and lord Godolphin went away, and gave no votes in the matter which was upon the *tapis*. *Ld. Clarendon.*

TAPISI, a large and abundant river of Peru, which rises from the mountains of Cocamas, runs north for more than 25 leagues, and then forms a lake which is known by the same name. It afterwards takes a north-west course, and enters the Ucayale, in Lat. 5. 13. S.

TAPITAY, a settlement of Peru, in the province of Paraguay, situate on the shore of the river Parana.

TA'PLASH, *s.* [from *tap*, and perhaps *lasche*, Fr., *slack*, *slow*.] Poor beer; the last running of small beer; dregs. Still used in the north of England.—Banded up and down by the schoolmen in their *taplash*-disputes. *Bp. Parker.*

TAPLOW, a village and parish of England, in the county of Buckingham, situated on a hill on the banks of the Thames. It commands a fine prospect of the surrounding country, and in the neighbourhood there are several elegant villas; but the mansion of Clifden, belonging to the marquis of Thomond, and once the magnificent palace of the duke of Buckingham, was destroyed by fire in 1795; 1 mile north-east of Maidenhead, and 25 west of London. Population 592.

TAPO, a rapid river, called also TARMA, as being on the confines of this province. It is only passable in rafts made of reeds.

TAPOANA, a river of Brazil, in the province of Rio Janeiro, which runs east, and enters the sea, in Lat. 21. 10. S.

TAPOCOROI, a river of Brazil, which runs into the sea, Lat. 27. S.

TAPOLITZA,

TAPOLTLA, a small town in the west of Hungary; 10 miles north-north-east of Keszthely.

TAPOLTZAN, GREAT, a small town in the north of Hungary; 55 miles north-east of Presburg, and 17 north of Neutra. Population 2700. It has some traffic in iron, and the environs produce saffron; also good pasturage for horses.

TAPOLTZAN, LITTLE, a small town of Hungary; 15 miles south-east of Great Tapoltzan.

TAPOOAMANOO, See SIR CHARLES SAUNDERS'S ISLAND.

TAPOOL, a small island, one of the Sooloo archipelago, situated due south from the principal Sooloo isle. This is a small island, with plenty of fresh water, and abounding with small cattle, goats, and yams, being cultivated to the top.

TAPOPO, a small low island in the Eastern seas, on the west coast of the island of Waygiou, covered with trees to the water's edge.

TAPORICA, or **ITAPORICA**, a large island in the bay of Todos Santos, in Brazil, the largest, most populous and fertile, of all those in the bay. As it has the continent on the east side, this island defends the entrance of the bay, the distance between the island and the mainland, that is, between this island and point St. Antonio, being $7\frac{1}{4}$ miles. Upon the point or extremity is the fort of San Antonio, and a town called Vieja, in lat. 13. S.

TAPORO, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Maracaibo, on the east coast of the lake of that name.

TAPPA, one of the small Molucca islands, separated from that of Lata by a channel, in some places not above 40 yards wide, and about $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, with deep water. It has a small harbour on the south-east, where a vessel may lie in perfect security in 4 fathoms. Lat. 0. 6. N. long. 123. 35. E.

TAPPAHANNOCK, a part of the entry of the United States, and capital of Essex county, Virginia, on the south-west bank of the Rappahannock. Its situation is low and unhealthy. It contains a court-house, a jail, and an Episcopal church. All the shipping belonging to the towns on the Rappahannock is entered at the custom-house of this place. It amounted, in 1816, to 7625 tons. Very little of it belonged to this town; 55 miles south-east of Fredericksburg, and 50 north-east of Richmond. Lat. 38. 2. N. long. 76. 57. W.

TAPPAN, a post village of the United States, in Rockland county, New York.

TAPPAN SEA, an expansion of the Hudson, in the United States, opposite to Orangetown, from 25 to 35 miles above the city of New York; 10 miles long, and 4 broad where widest. It has on the north side four quarries of stone which are a source of great wealth to the proprietors.

TAPROOT, *s.* The principal stem of the root.

TAPSTER, *s.* [tæppepe, Saxon; and tæppeſtre, he who had the care of the tap in a public-house. One whose business is to draw beer in an alehouse.—The oath of a lover is no stronger than the word of a *tapster*; they are both the confirmers of false reckonings. *Shakspeare*.

TAPPLE, a very considerable river of Hindostan, formed by the union of a number of streams, chiefly rising in the province of Khandeish. It runs nearly from east to west, and falls into the sea about 12 miles below the city of Surat.

TAPTON, or **TUPTON**, a township of England, in Derbyshire, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile north-east-by-east of Chesterfield.

TAPUAS, a village of Brazil, in the province of Maranh, situated on the west coast of the bay of Maranh.

TAPUCA, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Rey, which runs east, and enters the sea in the bay of Tapicu.

TAPUI-TAPERA, a settlement of Brazil, on the coast; 15 miles north-west of St. Louis de Maranon.

TAPUONGA, a river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which runs north-west, and enters the Yumeri.

TAPUREGENEN, a river of the Caraccas, in the province of Cumana, which runs south, and enters the Cuyuni.

TAPURU, a small river of Cumana, which runs south, and enters the Cuyuni by the north side.

TAPUYAS, a village of Brazil, in the province of Porto Seguro, on the shore of the river Verde.

TAQUARI, a river of Brazil, on the borders of Paraguay, which runs a western course from the mountains, and falls into the Paraguay, opposite the lake of Marmore, by many mouths, the largest of which is in Lat. 19. 15. S. long. 54. W. This river is annually navigated by flotillas of canoes and other craft, which come from St. Paul's to Cuiaba. For about 10 leagues previous to its entrance into the Paraguay, the channel of the river is lost, as it crosses some large plains, which are inundated with water to the depth of several feet. The country being indeed flat, it is annually covered to a great extent during the season of inundation.

TAQUASO, a large river of South America, in the province of Darien. Its course is from north-east to south-west for a great distance, when it turns west, and enters the sea in the gulf of San Miguel. This river carries along in its sands much very fine gold, and all the territory on its shores is particularly fertile and well cultivated by the Indians: but the climate is hot and unhealthy. The river is navigable by canoes for seven leagues from its mouth, this being in Lat. 8. 20. N. On its shore stood formerly the city of Santa Maria.

TAQUILE, or **TAQUUNA**, an island of the great lake of Chucuito, Titicaca, in the district of the province of Pouca-rola, in Peru. In the higher grounds of this island are some plains, on which are to be seen the ruins of some large old towns; and, what is extraordinary, the houses of the same appear to have been built uniformly, and of stone, over stone domes and observatories, and altogether with great regularity. This island, which is three leagues in circumference, is full of gardens and orchards, which produces many green shrubs, flowers and fruits.

TAQUIR, a small island near the coast of Brazil, in the province of Rey, close to the island of Canamea.

TAR, *s.* [cape, Saxon; *terre*, Teut., *tiere*, Danish; from *toere*, *tyre*, Swed., *tæda*, lignum pingue, ex quo hoc liquamen coquitur. Serenius.] Liquid pitch; the turpentine of the pine or fir drained out by fire.

Then, foaming *tar*, their bridles they would champ,
And trampling the fine element would fiercely ramp.

Spenser.

TAR, *s.* A sailor; a seamen, in colloquial language.

In senates bold, and fierce in war,
A land commander and a *tar*.

Swift.

To **TAR**, *v. a.* To smear over with tar.

I have nointed ye, and *tarr'd* ye with my doctrine,
And yet the murrain sticks to ye.

Beaum. and Fl.

To tease; to provoke. *Unused*.—There has been much to do on both sides; and the nation holds it no sin to *tar* them on to controversy. *Shakspeare*.

TAR, or **PAMLICO**, a river of the United States, in North Carolina, which rises in Caswell county, flows through Granville, Franklin, Nash, and Edgecomb counties, and passing by Tarborough, Greenville, and Washington, runs south-east into Pamlico sound, in Lat. 35. 22. N. It is navigable for vessels drawing 9 feet water to Washington, 40 miles, and for boats carrying 30 or 40 hogsheads of tobacco, to Tarborough, 90 miles.

TARA HILL, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Wexford, near the sea-coast; 4 miles north-east of Newborough.

TARA, ABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Aungabad, recently belonging to the Mahrattas, but now probably in possession of the British. Lat. 20. 38. N. long. 74. 20. E.

TARABENI, a river of Peru, which rises in the province of Pomabamba, and runs, after various windings, into the abundant stream of the Beni.

TARAGUA, a small port in the island of Cuba, on the north-north-east coast, between the port of Taxa and the islet of Mona.

TARAMA, a river of new granada, in the province of San

San Juan de los Llanos, which rises between the rivers Guaripo and Andava, runs east, and enters the Orinoco, opposite the rapid stream of the Atures.

TARAMANDAHU, a river of Brazil, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 30. 40. S.

TARANCON, a small ill-built town of the interior of Spain, in the province of Toledo, containing 3500 inhabitants. The water here is extremely bad, but the wine is considered the best in the province; 42 miles south-east of Madrid, and 30 east of Aranjuez.

TARANNON, a river of England, in Montgomeryshire, which runs into the Severn, near Corfe Castle; about 5 miles west of Newton.

TARANSAY, one of the northern Harris isles, on the west coast of Scotland. It is a high rocky island, about four miles long, and one broad. There is little or no soil on the whole island, and the occupation of the inhabitants is fishing and burning of kelp. Near Taransay is a large verdant island, frequented by vast flocks of geese. On Taransay are the remains of two religious houses.

TARANTA, a mountain near Arkeeko, in Abyssinia, on the road from that city into the interior, supposed by Mr. Bruce to be one of the highest in the world.

TARANTAISE, a province of the Sardinian states, in Savoy, between Faucigny, Savoy proper, Maurienne, and Aosta. Its superficial extent is about 780 square miles; its population 39,000. Its surface is rugged and uneven, covered with mountains and rocks, and little susceptible of culture. By the industry of the inhabitants, however, the least sterile parts of it are brought into cultivation, and made to produce quantities of corn, saffron, fruit, and chesnuts: the pastures nourish a fine race of cattle. A number of the inhabitants, however, go out to seek employment in more favoured countries, and frequently return, after a long absence, to enjoy the reward of their industry in their native land.

TARANTO, or TARENTO, an ancient and considerable town in the south of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, and province of Otranto. It is built on a small island in the great bay called the gulf of Taranto, and has several advantages as a maritime position, having behind it, towards the north and east, a great maritime inlet called *Mare Piccola* (little sea), which extends into the interior, while it communicates with the sea by two channels, one on each side of the island, or rather islet, occupied by the town. Taranto contains 18,500 inhabitants, and has a castle of some strength for the protection of its harbour. The surrounding country is fertile, but the trade of the town and neighbourhood is far inferior to what it might be rendered in a populous and industrious country. Some intercourse is carried on by shipping, with other ports in the Mediterranean; but the chief support of the inhabitants is derived from fishing, which is carried on in the sea, as well as in the *Mare Piccolo*: in the latter, oysters and all sorts of shell-fish are particularly abundant. Taranto, at present a town of little interest, either as a commercial or military station, filled a conspicuous place in ancient history. Its inhabitants, descended from a colony of Greeks, kept up their connection with the mother country, and on the approach of the Roman arms after the conquest of Samnium, about 280 years before Christ, called to their aid Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. This gave rise to the sanguinary conflicts, in which Grecian science, for some time superior to the rude tactics of the Romans, gave way eventually before their unwearied perseverance. The Tarantines, abandoned by Pyrrhus, and unable to defend themselves, called in the Carthaginians; a step which, coinciding with the collisions between that nation and the Romans in Sicily, was the cause of the first Punic war; 58 miles west of Lecce, and 80 west-north-west of Otranto. Lat. 40. 35. N. long. 17. 29. E.

TARANTO, GULF OF, a spacious bay of the Mediterranean, formed by the two extremities south-east and south-west of Italy.

TARANTULA, s. [Italian; *tarentule*, Fr.] An insect

of the spider kind.—He that uses the word *tarantula*, without having any idea of what it stands for, means nothing at all by it. *Locke*.

TARANTULA, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order aptera, comprehended by Linnæus under the genus of aranea. We have introduced it, however, as a separate genus, for the purpose of describing some species not mentioned in that article.—The Generic Characters of the tarantulae are, that the mouth is furnished with two horny jaws; that there are no antennæ; that there are two large curved jointed claws sticking out in front, and serving to lay hold of the animal's prey, but which are improperly called feelers; that the claws contain in the male the organs of generation; that the eyes are eight in number, and the feet are as numerous; and lastly, that they have the bag common to all spiders for furnishing cobweb.

1. *Tarantula phalangicum*, or *apulia*.—A description of this and of the marvellous stories to which it has given rise, may be seen in the article before referred to, under the name *aranea tarantula*.

2. *Tarantula reniformis*, or the kidney-shaped tarantula.—This species differs from the apulian variety, in the extraordinary length of the fore-feet, and in the greater slenderness and less hairiness of the body. It is perfectly black, and has the same fierce habits as the rest of spiders: its claws have strictly speaking only one joint.

3. *Tarantula caudata*.—This species is remarkable for the oblong form of its body, and for a long appendage or tail attached to its rump. From its general form and appearance, it might be supposed to be an uniting link between the genera of arana and scorpio. Its claws have three joints; its colour is dusky black.

TARAPAYA, a port on the western coast of South America, in the bay of Pisagua, having at its entrance the small island of Goave, which it defends from the south winds. Lat. 20. 37. S.

TARAPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar. Lat. 25. 7. N. long. 89. 30. E.

TARAPOOR, a town and fortress of Hindostan, situated on a high point of land on the coast between Bombay and Surat, now belonging to the British. Lat. 19. 50. N. long. 72. 48. E.—All these names signify the residence of the stars; and there are many other places in India of the same nomenclature.

TARARE, a small town in the east of France, department of the Rhone, situated on the river Tardine, in a valley at the foot of a mountain to which it gives name. It has 2800 inhabitants, and some manufactures of muslin and printed cottons; also of leather and pottery ware; 17 miles south-west of Villefranche, and 22 north-west of Lyons.

TARASCHTSCHA, a small town of the south-west of European Russia, in the government of Kiev.

TARASCON, a considerable town in the south-east of France, situated on the Rhone, opposite to the town of Beaucaire, with which it communicates by a bridge of boats. The inhabitants, nearly 12,000 in number, carry on manufactures of woollens, silk, stockings, and an export trade in wine, brandy, olive-oil, and other products of this southern province. Of public buildings, the principal is the castle, a structure of hewn stone fortified in the Gothic manner, and surmounted by a platform, affording a view of the adjacent country and of the Rhone, which here approaching to its mouth, rolls along a broad and rapid volume of water. Some of the churches are likewise handsome buildings; 9 miles north of Arles, and 55 north-west of Marseilles. Lat. 43. 48. 20. N. long. 5. 23. 54. E.

TARASCON, a small town in the south of France, on the river Arriege, with 1400 inhabitants, and manufactures of leather. In the neighbourhood there are several steel forges; 9 miles south of Foix, and 25 south-east of St. Girons.

TARASIAMA, a small river of Guiana, which enters the Caroni by the west side.

TARATA, the name of three inconsiderable Indian settlements in Peru.

TARAZONA,

TARANTULA, TABANUS AND TETRATOMA.



1 & 3 *Tar. reniforme*. 2 *Tar. caudata*. 4 *Tab. bovinus*. 5 *Tab. tropicus*. 6 *Tab. bromius*.
 7 *Tab. pluvialis*. 8 *Tab. rusticus*. 9 *Tet. cinnamomeum*. 10 *Tet. fungorum*. 11 *Tet. ancora*.

J. Tass sc.

TARAZONA, a town of the central part of Spain, in the province of Cuenca, in New Castile. The province of Cuenca is one of the poorest and most thinly peopled in Spain; but this town contains 6500 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in the products of the country, particularly wine and oil; 16 miles east-by-south of San Clemente, and 112 south-east of Madrid.

TARAZONA, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Arragon, on the slope of the hill of Moncayo. It is a bishop's see, and has three churches and seven monasteries, but contains only 4000 inhabitants, whose chief employment is the manufacture of some coarse brown cloth; 50 miles west-north-west of Saragossa, and 12 south-by-west of Tudela.

TARBAT, a parish of Scotland, partly in Ross-shire, partly in Cromarty, occupying the extremity of the peninsula formed by the friths of Cromarty, and Dornoch; about $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ at its greatest breadth. Population 1379.

TARBATNESS, the extremity of the parish of Tarbat, in Scotland, being the point of land formed by the friths of Cromarty and Dornoch. Lat. 57. 59. N. long. 0. 24. W. of Edinburgh.

TARBERT, EAST and WEST LOCHS, two arms of the sea on the west coast of Scotland, in Argyleshire, which form the district of Kintyre into a peninsula.

TARBERT, EAST and WEST LOCHS, two arms of the sea on the west coast of Scotland, which penetrate a considerable way into the island of Harris, one from the east, the other from the west, forming the southern part of the island into a peninsula.

TARBERT, a small island near the west coast of Ireland, and county of Galway; 2 miles south of Omev island.

TARBES, an inland town in the south-west of France, the capital of the department of the Upper Pyrenees, situated in a beautiful meadow, on the left bank of the Adour. The fertility of the environs, and the grandeur of the surrounding scenery, render the approaches of the town highly agreeable. It is the see of a bishop, and has nearly 8000 inhabitants. It is surrounded with a wall, and defended by an old castle. There is here a public square; and the streets of the town are tolerably broad, and well paved. The houses, though low, are not badly built, being constructed of brick or grey marble, and covered with slate. The only public edifices worth notice are the cathedral, the churches, the residence of the bishop, the theatre, and the hospital. Here are, on a small scale, manufactures of linen, handkerchiefs, and paper; also of knives, small copper articles, and leather. There is here also a royal stud. On 20th March, 1814, the French army under Soult were forced from their position here by Lord Wellington; 22 miles east-by-south of Pau, 48 south-west of Auch, and 126 south-by-east of Bourdeaux. Lat. 43. 13. 52. N. long. 0. 4. 14. E.

TARBOCK, a township of England, in Lancashire, near Preston. Population 534.

TARBOLTON, a parish of Scotland, in Ayrshire, in the district of Kyle, about 7 or 8 miles long, and 6 broad, of a very unequal surface. Population 1966.

TARBOLTON, a village of Scotland, in the above parish. It is neatly built, and is situated 9 miles east of Ayr. Near the village stands the ruinous monastery of Feale, or Failfurd, founded in 1252, by John de Graham, lord of Tarbolton. It contains about 450 inhabitants.

TARBOROUGH, a post township of the United States, and capital of Edgecombe county, North Carolina, on the Tar. It contains a court-house, a jail, a bank, and an academy. Large quantities of beef, pork, Indian corn, tobacco, &c., are collected here for exportation. Population 600; 38 miles south of Halifax, and 60 east-south-east of Raleigh. Lat. 33. 35. N. long. 77. 44. W.

TARBRET, a handsome village of Ireland, in the county of Kerry, on the Shannon; 124 miles south-south west of Dublin, and 24 west-south-west of Limerick.

TARCHONANTHUS. [*Tarchon*, an Arabic name for artemisia dracunculus, or tarragon, and *ανθος*, a flower; Vol. XXIII. No. 1612.

having a flower like that of tarchon or tarragon], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of nucamentaceæ, corymbifera (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common turbinate, one-leafed, commonly half-seven-cleft, coloured internally, shorter than the corolla, sharpish, permanent. Corolla: compound uniform; florets about twenty. Corollets hermaphrodite, numerous, equal. Proper one-petalled, funnel-form, five-toothed. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular, length of the corollet, tailed at the base. Pistil: germ superior, oblong. Style twice as long as the flower. Stigmas two, gaping. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, oblong. Down hairy, investing the seed all round. Receptacle hairy, very small, hairs length of the calyx. The down is singular in this, that it does not crown but invest the seed.—*Essential Character*. Calyx one-leafed, commonly half-seven-cleft, turbinate. Seeds covered with down. Receptacle villose.

1. *Tarchonanthus camphoratus*, or shrubby African flea-bane.—Leaves oblong, flat; calyx one-leafed, five-cleft. Stem strong, woody, rising to the height of twelve or fourteen feet, sending out many woody branches at the top, which may be trained to a regular head. It retains the leaves all the year.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Tarchonanthus glaber*, or smooth African flea-bane.—Leaves smooth, entire, and toothed. This resembles the preceding very much. It varies with wider and narrower, entire and toothed leaves.

3. *Tarchonanthus ericoides*, or heath-like African flea-bane.—Leaves acerose; calyxes four-leafed. This is a stiff branching shrub, seldom attenuated at the top. Flowers clustered, lateral, bigger than the leaves, on short peduncles.—These are both natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are too tender to live through the winter in the open air in England, but requiring no artificial heat, may be placed with myrtles, oleander, &c. in winter, and in summer may be exposed to the open air in a sheltered situation.

TARCZA, or **TATZMANSDORF**, a large village of the west of Hungary, in the county of Eisenburg, with a mineral spring in high repute.

TARCZAL, a small town of the north of Hungary; 2 miles west of Tokay. The wine produced at this place can scarcely be distinguished from Tokay.

TARDATION, *s.* [*tardo*, Lat.] The act of hindering or delaying.

TARDEBRIGG, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 3 miles east-south-east of Broomsgrove. Population 2429.

TARDIGRADOUS, *adj.* [*tardigradus*, Lat.] Moving slowly.—It is but a slow and *tardigradous* animal, preying upon advantage, and otherwise may be escaped. *Brown*.

TARDILY, *adv.* Slowly; sluggishly.

He was indeed the glass,
Wherein the noble youth did dress themselves;
Speaking thick, which nature made his blemish,
Became the accents of the valiant:
For those that could speak slow and *tardily*,
Would turn their own perfection to abuse,
To seem like him.

Shakspeare.

TARDINESS, *s.* Slowness; sluggishness; unwillingness to action or motion.

A *tardiness* in nature,
Which often leaves the history unspoke,
That it intends to do.

Shakspeare.

TARDITY, *s.* [*tarditas*, from *tardus*, Lat.] Slowness; want of velocity.—Suppose some observable *tardity* in the motion of light, and then ask how we should arrive to perceive it? *Digby*.

TARDY, *adj.* [*tardus*, Lat., *tardif*, Fr.] Slow; not swift.

Nor should their age by years be told,
Whose souls, more swift than motion, climb,
And check the *tardy* flight of time.

Sandys.
Sluggish;

Sluggish; unwilling to action or motion.
Behold that navy which a while before
Provok'd the *tardy* English close to fight;
Now draw their beaten vessels close to shore,
As larks lie dar'd to shun the hobbie's flight.

Dryden.

Dilatory; late; tedious.
You shall have letters from me to my son
In your behalf, to meet you on the way;
Be not ta'en *tardy* by unwise delay.

Shakspeare.

Unwary. *A low word.*
Yield, scoundrel base, oath she, or die,
Thy life is mine, and liberty:
But if thou think'st I took the *tardy*,
And dar'st presume to be so hardy,
To try thy fortune o'er a-fresh,
I'll wave my title to thy flesh.

Hudibras.

Criminal; offending. *A low word.*—If they take them *tardy*, they endeavour to humble them by way of reprisal: those slips and mismanagements are usually ridiculed. *Collier.*

To TA'RDY, *v. a.* [*tarder*, Fr.] To delay; to hinder.

I chose

Camillo for the minister, to poison
My friend Polixenes; which had been done,
But that the good mind of Camillo *tardied*
My swift command.

Shakspeare.

TARE, *s.* [from *teeren*, Dutch, *to consume*. Skinner.] A weed that grows among corn.—Through hatred of *tares*, the corn in the field of God is plucked up. *Hooker.*—The common vetch.—A poor grain of oat, or *tare*, or barley. *Pope.*

TARE, *s.* [Fr.] A mercantile word denoting the weight of any thing containing a commodity; also the allowance made for it.

TARE, *pret. of tear.*—The women beat their breasts, their cheeks they *tare*. *Dryden.*

TAREIRI, a river of Brazil, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 6. S. long. 34. 43. W.

TAREM, a city of Laristan, in Persia, standing in a plain on the banks of a salt river. It is as populous as Lar, the capital of the province, but is a meanly built place, consisting of a mud fort, surrounded on all sides by wretched huts, formed of the branches of the date tree. The place contains many respectable merchants, who trade to Muscat, Gombroon, and Shiras.

TARENA, an abundant river of South America, in the province of Darien, which rises in the central mountains, runs east, collecting the waters of many other tributary streams, and enters the Atlantic by four mouths, forming three large islands in the gulf of Daricn. This river also forms a large lake of the same name, at some distance from its entrance into the sea.

TARENT, or TARRANT, a river of England, in Dorsetshire, which rises near Studhampton, and gives name to several villages through which it passes in its way to where it falls into the Stour; 3 miles south-east of Blandford.

TARENT, an island on the western shore of the Persian gulf, immediately opposite Katif, which, though not so large as Bahrein, is a finer island. It is about seven miles both in length and breadth, well supplied with good fresh water, and embellished with many delightful gardens, which produce abundance of fruit.

TARENTUM, a town of Italy, in Magna Græcia, upon a small promontory of the Messapia. Tarentum was a very ancient city: some have ascribed its origin to the Cretans, before the Trojan war. In the 21st Olympiad, a powerful body of emigrants arrived under Phalanthus from Laconia, that it seemed to be refounded. Here they settled upon an aristocratical plan, enlarged the fortifications of the city, and transformed it into a near resemblance of Sparta; but as most of the nobles perished in a war with the Japyges, democracy was introduced. The favourable situation of this city, when it was first founded, contributed to its rapid prosperity. Placed in the centre of three seas, it obtained the

whole commerce of the Adriatic Sea, of the Grecian or Ionian Sea, and of that portion of the Mediterranean called the Tyrrhenian Sea. The adjacent country was fertile in grain and fruit; the pastures were excellent; the flocks afforded a very fine wool. It is no wonder, then, that the city should become rich, and that riches should be succeeded by luxury. Philosophy was not neglected at Tarentum; and that of Pythagoras gained the preference. The arts were also diligently cultivated. Strabo mentions the gymnasium of this city with high commendation, and the bronze colossus of Jupiter, which was scarcely inferior to that of Rhodes. Fabius Maximus found here abundance of pictures and statues, which served to adorn his triumph. With the wealth of Tarentum, its power also rose above that of all the colonies of Magna Græcia: its land forces were estimated at 32,000 foot and 3000 horse, in constant pay; and thirteen considerable cities acknowledged its dominion. At sea, their fleets rode triumphant and unrivalled. The most brilliant epoch of their history was that of the government of Archytas, whose profound learning as a philosopher, and skill as a mechanic, was no impediment to his political talents and exertions. His virtues also commanded respect. He frequently led the Tarentines to battle, and always returned after success. With Archytas, however, terminated the prosperity of Tarentum. At length this city partook of the horrors of those wars which desolated the southern part of Italy. The inhabitants not only exposed themselves to the Roman arms by some outrages committed against their ambassadors, but in the year 541 of Rome, Annibal having taken possession of Tarentum, the Romans sent against them a body of troops under Fabius Maximus, who retook it, and gained possession of its ample stores of wealth. In the year 664 or 665, it was made municipal; and in process of time, it became a very pleasant city. Whilst Totila was ravaging Italy in the year of Christ 546, the Greeks took possession of Tarentum, but suddenly abandoned it at the approach of a detachment of troops belonging to the king of the Goths; which event occurred in the year 548. In 552, the troops of Narses retook it; but it was doomed to pass under the dominion of Romwald I., duke of Beneventum, in the year 668. On the decline of the Lombard power, the Grecian emperors regained possession of this country, and retained it till Robert Guiscard drove them for ever out of Italy. It is now called TARENTO.

TAREYOU, a river of Brazil, in the province of Pernambuco, which enters by the north side into the Rio Francisco.

TAREYRAS, a settlement of Brazil, in the capitania of Goiaz, on the shore of the river Tocantines.

TARF, a river of Scotland, in the stewartry of Kirkcubright, which rises from a small lake called Loch Whinnoch, in the parish of Girthon, and after a course of 21 miles along the west side of the parish of Tongland, at the southern extremity of that parish, unites with the Dee. Its banks are in many places adorned with natural wood, and fertile meadows, which are enriched by the slime from the river, in its frequent inundations. It abounds with trout and salmon.

TARF, a small river of Scotland, in Athol, Perthshire, which rises at Cairneilar, runs an easterly course of a few miles, and falls into the Tilt below the falls of Piltarff.

TARFF, LOCH, a small lake of Scotland, in Invernessshire, about 3 miles in circumference, in which are several beautiful wooded islands.

TART, a river of Scotland, in Invernessshire, which issues from Loch Tarf, and, after a course of 7 or 8 miles, falls into Loch Ness, at a small distance from the estuary of the Oich, between which, on the point of land, is Fort Augustus.

TARFOWA, a town of Tunis, in Africa, supposed to be the ancient *Taphrura* or *Tapparura*; 24 miles west of Thaine.

TARGE, or TA'RGET, *s.* [τάρχ, τάρχα, Saxon; *targe*, Italian; *targe*, French; *tarian*, Welsh, which seems the original of the rest; *an taargetti*, Erse.] A kind of buckler or shield borne on the left arm. It seems to be commonly

monly used for a defensive weapon, less in circumference than a shield.

Henceforward will I bear
Upon my *target* three fair shining suns. . . . *Shakspeare.*

TARGEA, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid, which contains 130 families of Indians, besides Spaniards and Mulattoes, employed in working the mines.

TARGETIER, *s.* One armed with a target.—For horsemen and for *targetiers* none could with him compare. *Chapman.*

TARGIONI (Tozzetti, Giovanni), an eminent Italian physician, was born at Florence in 1712, and took his degree of M. D. at Pisa, where he had studied and acquired singular reputation. He published his "Relazioni d'alcuni Viaggi fatti in diverse parte della Toscana per osservare le Produzioni naturali, e gli antichi Monumenti d'esse," Firenze. t. 1. 1751, 8vo. As a physician, he also published several pieces, and among these were "Directions for the Recovery of drowned Persons" At length, in January, 1782, being in his 71st year, his life terminated by a gradual decay. *Haller. Gen. Biog.*

TARGIONIA [so named by Micheli, in honour of Cypriana Targioni, M. D. of Florence, who had a museum there], in Botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order hepaticæ.—Generic Character. Calyx two-valved, compressed, containing at bottom a capsule nearly globular, many-seeded.

Targionia hypophylla.—Not larger than the finger nail. Green not pellucid, rough with white rising dots. Leaf cordate-lanceolate, at first green, afterwards dark purple, blackish underneath. Fructification at the end, on the under side, the size of a vetch. Calyx black; opening, containing the fruit covered with a yellowish skin, and filled with a yellowish pulp which rubs to powder between the fingers, and stains them.—Native of Italy, Spain, Constantinople, Flanders, Saxony about Dresden, and England near Dawlish in Devonshire. Flowering from March to May.

TARGUM, *s.* [Hebrew.] A paraphrase on Scripture in the Chaldee language.—This seed, there spoken of, is Christ, as both the *targums* expound it. *Patrick.*

TARGUMIST, *s.* A writer in the targums.

TARGON, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Gironde. Population 1100; 17 miles north-west of La Reole, and 18 east-south-east of Bourdeaux.

TARGOROD, a small town in the north of European Turkey, in Moldavia, on the river Sereth.

TARGOWICA, or **TERGOWICE**, a small town of Russian Poland, in the government of Podolia, on the river Simicha. A confederation was formed here in 1791, by some noblemen, to support the new constitution of Poland, so soon subverted by the arms of Russia; 78 miles east-south-east of Braclaw.

TARHAR, a small district of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, bounded on the north by the river Jumna, near its confluence with the Ganges. It belongs to the British, but its inhabitants are chiefly Hindoos.

TARIFA, a petty town of the south-west of Spain, situated on a small bay on the north side of the straits of Gibraltar. It was formerly large, but has now only about 4800 inhabitants, whose chief employment is fishing. It is fortified with a wall and towers; and so lately as 1811, a British party lodged in it baffled all the efforts of the French to take it, after a long siege. It was the *Julia Traducta* of the Romans, and received its present name from the Moors; 17 miles west-south-west of Gibraltar.

TARIFF, *s.* [perhaps a Spanish word; *tarif*, Fr.] A cartel of commerce.—This branch of our trade was regulated by a *tariff*, or declaration of the duties of import and export. *Addison.*—It is also a *Book of Rates*; a table or catalogue, drawn usually in alphabetical order, containing the names of several kinds of merchandize, with the duties or customs to be paid for the same, as settled by authority, and

agreed on between the several princes and states, that hold commerce together. *Chambers.*

TARIJA, a jurisdiction of South America, in Peru, but placed under the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres. This is represented as a charming and fertile country, with a serene sky and a fine temperature of air, producing wheat, maize, and all other things that are essential to the support of man; together with the tree which produces the herb of Paraguay, the cocoa, the vine, and flax, which is cultivated merely for the sake of its seed. In the abundance of pastures is fed a vast number of cattle and sheep. The annual transports of black cattle alone are computed at little less than 10,000 head, which are valued at from eight to ten piastres each. The hides tanned and prepared form sole leather for the inhabitants of La Plata, Potosi, &c. The demands for Spanish and colonial merchandize annually exceed 60,000 piastres; the returns for which are made in productions of the province. St. Bernardo de Tarija is the chief town. Chicas and Tarija form one government.

TARIJA, **ST. BERNARDO DE**, the capital of the above province, was built in 1591, to restrain the hostilities committed by the Indians. It has several convents; 320 miles north of St. Miguel de Tucuman. Lat. 22. 14. S. long. 65. 20. W.

TARIJA, a river of South America, which runs into the Vermejo, in the province of Tucuman.

TARIMBARO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid, containing 25 families of Spaniards, and 184 of Indians.

TARKIO CREEK, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri; 483 miles from the Mississippi.

TARLAND, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, to which is united that of Migvy. It forms an irregular district on the western borders of the county. Population 932.

TARKLAND, a village in the foregoing parish, with a weekly market and six annual fairs. It contains about 150 inhabitants.

TARLETON, a township of England, in Lancashire; 8 miles north-by-east of Ormskirk. Population 1281.

TARLETON, a post township of the United States, in Pickaway county, Ohio; 17 miles north-east of Chillicothe.

TARMA, a province of Peru, comprehending several minor districts, and bounded by Truxillo on the north, the Pacific on the east, the Apurimac on the west, and Lima and Guancavelica on the south. The climate varies with the elevation of the ground. On the sea-coast it is hot; but in the interior it varies, being generally cold. It is, however, very productive in maize, and has abundance of cattle, the wool of which they manufacture into cloth, this being one principal branch of trade. It has many mines of silver, and also quicksilver, which are worked to considerable profit.

TARMA, the capital of the above province, is situated on the north shore of the river Chanchamayo, a branch of the Para. It is situated in a deep narrow valley, and inhabited chiefly by creoles, mestizoes, and Indians. The adjoining district is very fertile; but the climate is unhealthy, as the surrounding high mountains prevent a free circulation of air. Near this place are two quicksilver mines. Two veins with antimony and white silver ore are worked; and in several pits they dig native saltpetre of an excellent quality; 103 miles east-north-east of Lima, and 92 south of Guanuco. Lat. 11. 35. S. long. 75. 17. W.

TARMON HILL, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Mayo, and southern part of the peninsula of Mullet.

TARMUTOLA, a town of Italy, in the central part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Basilicata. Population 4000. It is 10 miles east of Marsico Nuovo, and 28 north-east of Policastro. Being an inland place, and at a distance from the great roads, its trade is inconsiderable.

TARN, *s.* [*tiaurn*, Icelandic.] A bog; a fen; a marsh; a pool; a quagmire.—A pasture overflowed with water, not much unlike a *tarn* or lough, whence the grass
by

by the superfluity of an oleaginous moisture degenerates into coarse piles. *Ray.*

TARN, a department in the south of France, formed of a part of the great province of Languedoc, and adjacent to the departments of the Aveyron and Upper Garonne. It has an extent of 2100 square miles, and a population of nearly 296,000, of whom above 40,000 are Protestants. It has the mountains of Languedoc on the east, and commands, though at a distance, a prospect of the Pyrenees; but its whole surface may be termed an undulating plain, traversed, however, by several chains of small hills. Its principal river is the Tarn, a large stream flowing from the north-east to the Garonne. The soil is in general fertile; the climate steady and temperate. The products are wheat, barley, maize, hemp, flax, vines, and fruit of different kinds. Here are occasional tracks of pasture, partly natural, more procured by irrigation. Of corn, enough is raised to afford a small annual export. The culture of the vine is extensive; but the wines, with the exception of the kind called *vin du Cog*, do not keep sufficiently to admit of export, and are either used on the spot, or made into brandy and vinegar. Here are, on a small scale, mines of iron and coal; some silk also is cultivated. This department is divided into four arrondissements, viz., Albi (the chief town), Castres, Lavaur, and Gaillac.

TARN AND GARONNE, a department in the south of France, formed, not like the other departments of the kingdom, in 1790, but so lately as 1808, of portions of the departments of the Lot and Upper Garonne. It lies to the west of the department of the Tarn, has an extent of 1500 square miles, and a population of 240,000, of whom above 30,000 are Protestants. Situated at a distance of 60 miles from the Pyrenees, its surface is a plain, traversed by three chains of hills, the highest of which is said not to exceed 1200 feet. Its principal rivers are the Tarn and Garonne. Its soil is in general fruitful; its climate mild; but here, as in the south of France generally, the labours of the husbandman are frequently exposed to hazard from hail storms. Its products are wheat, barley, maize, hemp, flax, vines, chesnuts, and several fruits of a southern climate, as almonds and figs. The pastures, from the deficiency of rain, are of limited extent. The domestic animals are mules, asses, horses; poultry is particularly abundant. The culture of silk is on a limited scale. This small department is divided into three arrondissements, viz., Montauban (the capital), Moissac, and Castel Sarrazin.

To TARNISH, *v. a.* [*ternir*, Fr.] To sully; to soil; to make not bright.

Low waves the rooted forest, vex'd, and sheds
What of its *tarnish'd* honours yet remain.

Thomson.

To TARNISH, *v. n.* To lose brightness.—If a fine object should *tarnish* by having a great many see it, or the music should run mostly into one man's ears, these satisfactions would be made inclosure. *Collier.*

TARNOCZ, or TARNOWCE, a small town of the north-west of Hungary; 40 miles west of Kesmark. Population 1100. Lat. 49. 12. 40. N. long. 19. 43. 11. E.

TARNOE, an island in the Baltic, on the south-east coast of Sweden, in the group called the Skæres of Carlscona.

TARNOGROD, a small town of the south-east of Poland; 52 miles west-south-west of Balcz, and 60 south of Lublin.

TARNOPOL, a circle in the east of Austrian Galicia, bordering on Russia. Its territorial extent is 1720 square miles; its population 190,000. It was ceded in 1810 to Russia, as a recompense for the services which she had rendered to France in the campaign of the preceding year, but was restored to Austria at the congress of Vienna.

TARNOPOL, a considerable town in the east of Austrian Poland, and the capital of a circle, is situated on the river Sirth, 84 miles east of Lemberg. It has a Greek and a Catholic church, and 7100 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable traffic, but have not as yet made much greater progress in manufactures than their Polish countrymen. The

principal establishments of this nature are tanneries. The general characteristics of a Polish town, wood buildings, unpaved streets, and accumulation of filth, are applicable to this place.

TARNORUELA, a small town of Austrian Poland, in the circle of Tarnopol, on the river Podhorce.

TARNOW, a circle of Austrian Galicia, bounded on the north by the Vistula, and lying along the river Dunajee. Its area is 1300 square miles; and its population 205,600. It is in general a level country, with the exception of some hills in the south, which are not, however, of great height.

TARNOW, a small town of Austrian Galicia, on the river Dunajee; 47 miles east of Cracow, and 58 south-west of Sendomir. It contains 4300 inhabitants, was erected in 1777 into a bishop's see, is the seat of a court of jurisdiction for the Galician land-holders, and has a gymnasium and high school. It manufactures some linen, and has pleasant environs; but is on the whole an ill built place. It was taken possession of by Austria at the partition of 1773.

TARNOWITZ, a small town of Prussian Silesia, on the confines of Poland. It contains 1500 inhabitants, and has productive mines of silver, iron, and lead, with some calamine; 40 miles south-east of Oppeln.

TARO, a river of the north of Italy, in the grand duchy of Parma, which rises in Piedmont, not far from Borgo St. Stefano, flows through the Parmesan, and falls into the Po at Torricelli.

TARO, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, on the river Tarò; 28 miles south-west of Parma.

TAROUCA, a small town of the north of Portugal, in the province of Beria; 8 miles south of Lamego. Population 1700.

TARPAULIN COVE, a bay on the south of Massachusetts, near Falmouth, in the United States.

TARPAWLING, *s.* Hempen cloth smeared with tar.

Some the gall'd ropes with dauby marling bind,
Or searcloth masts with strong *tarpawling* coats. *Dryden.*

A sailor.—Was any thing wanting to the extravagance of this age, but the making a living *tarpawlin* and a swabber the hero of a tragedy? *Dennis.*

TARPEIAN, or TARPEIUS, an epithet given to a rock in ancient Rome, of considerable height; whence, by the law of the Twelve Tables, those guilty of certain crimes were precipitated. It was on this rock that the Capitol was built.

The Tarpeian rock might formerly be steep enough on one side to break a man's neck; but it could never have been of that surprising height mentioned by some writers, if any judgment can be formed from its appearance at present.

TARPORLEY, a market town of England, in the county of Chester. It is a small but pleasant town, situated on the high road from London, through Nantwich, to Chester, and within one mile of the Nantwich and Chester canal. The town stands on a gentle slope. It is tolerably clean and well built, and has a handsome church, in which are several fine monuments. Tarporley is chiefly noted as being the place where the principal gentlemen of the county meet at an annual hunt; Delamere forest in that vicinity being well for that diversion. Two miles southward of Tarporley rises the great insulated rock of Beeston, on which are the stately ruins of the far famed Beeston castle, whose almost impregnable strength was once proverbial. Beeston rock is composed of sandstone, very precipitous on one side, but gradually sloping on the other. Its height is 366 feet, and the summit commands a very extensive prospect. Beeston castle was erected in 1220 by Randle Blundeville, earl of Chester, and consisted of an outer and inner area. The outer came about midway of the slope, and was defended by a great gateway, and a strong wall, fortified with round towers, which ran across the slope from one edge of the precipice to the other. Some parts of this wall, and about six or seven round towers, still exist.

On one side the castle is defended by a vast ditch, cut out of the solid rock; on the other by an abrupt precipice that overhangs the vale of Cheshire. The entrance is through a noble gateway, guarded on each side by a great round tower, with walls of a prodigious thickness. Within the walls are the remains of a rectangular building that was formerly the chapel. This castle devolved from the earls of Chester to the crown, and after undergoing many vicissitudes, fell to ruins, in which state it continued to the reign of Henry VIII. Being afterwards repaired, it was garrisoned during the civil wars, and after this was dismantled by order of parliament. Market on Thursday, and several annual fairs. Tarporley in 1811 contained 166 houses, and 701 inhabitants; 11 miles east-south-east of Chester, and 172 north-west of London.

TARPOU, a lake of Thibet, about 60 miles in circumference. Lat. 30. 32. N. long. 81. 54. W.

TARRABY, a township of England, in Cumberland, near Carlisle.

TARRAGON, *s.* A plant called herb-dragon.

TARRAGONA, a sea-port in the north-east of Spain, in Catalonia, near the mouth of the river Francoli. It is a place of great antiquity, though the traditional accounts of its population are exaggerated and absurd. It is built on a hill, and surrounded by walls with turrets, erected either by the Moors, or by the Christians of the middle ages. It was occupied by the British in the beginning of the 18th century, with an intention of rendering it a good naval station, for which, however, the harbour was not well calculated. On the acquisition of Gibraltar in 1704, the design was abandoned, and the works then commenced have since presented nothing but heaps of ruins. Tarragona contains 7500 inhabitants, is the see of a bishop, and has a large and elegant cathedral, built in the Gothic style. It was under the Romans the chief town of the province called Tarracensis, and in the year 516 was the seat of a church council, in which monks are mentioned for the first time in history. A more affecting claim to historical notice has been conferred on it by its siege and sack by the French in 1811, so creditable to the talents, and so dishonourable to the humanity of Marshal Suchet. An attempt to re-take it, in June, 1813, by an allied force under Sir John Murray, was not successful, that officer deeming it imprudent to await the approach of a French army with the troops under his command, the Spanish part of which was indifferently disciplined. He accordingly re-embarked; and though at first exposed to censure, was soon justified by the events of the campaign, in which these troops, under other commanders, were found unable to withstand their veteran antagonists; 49 miles west-south-west of Barcelona, and 278 east of Madrid. Lat. 41. 8. 50. N. long. 1. 15. 30. E.

TARRANT GUNVILLE, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 4 miles from Blandford. This, with six other villages in the same county, namely Tarrant Hinton, Kynes, Launceston, Monkton, Rawson, and Rushton, take the name of Tarrant, from being situated near the river of that name. Tarrant Gunville, contains 444 inhabitants.

TARRAS, a small river of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, which rises in the parish of Ewes, and falls into the Esk, 3 miles below the town of Langholm. It is remarkable for its rugged channel and romantic scenery.

TARRASA, a town of the north-east of Spain, in Catalonia; 9 miles north-north-west of Barcelona, with 4000 inhabitants. It is situated in one of the most industrious parts of Spain, and has several manufactories of broad cloth and serges.

TARREGA, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Catalonia; 5 miles west of Cervera. It is situated on a height, has 3600 inhabitants, and is fortified.

TARRETBURN, EAST and WEST, two adjoining hamlets of England, in Northumberland, near Hexham.

TARRIANCE, *s.* Stay; delay; perhaps sojourn.

Dispatch me hence;
Come, answer not; but do it presently,
I am impatient of my *tarrance*.

Shakspeare.

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TARRIER, *s.* [This should be written *terrier*, from *terre*, French, *the earth*.] A sort of small dog, that hunts the fox or otter out of his hole.—The fox is earthed; but I shall send my two *tarriers* in after him. *Dryden.*

TARRIER, *s.* One that tarries or stays; one that waits; whatever delays or puts off.—He is oftentimes called of them Fabius Cunctator, that is to say, the *tarrier* and delailer. *Sir T. Elyot.*

TARRING, a small town of England, in the county of Sussex; 17 miles west of Brighton, and 57 south of London.

TARRING, WEST, a parish of England, formerly a market town, in the county of Sussex, near Shoreham, with two annual fairs, in April and October.

TARRINGTON, or TADINGTON, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 6½ miles west-north-west of Ledbury. Population 488.

To TARRY, *v. n.* [*targir*, French. Kilian refers both the French and our word to the Teut. *traeghen*, to delay; by metathesis therefore *tarry*.] To stay; to continue in a place.

Tarry I here, I but attend on death;
But fly I hence, I fly away from life.

Shakspeare.

To delay; to be long in coming.—Thou art my deliverer; make no *tarrying*, O God. *Psalms.*—To wait; to expect attending.—*Tarry* ye here for us until we come again, *Exod.*

To TARRY, *v. a.* To wait for.—I will go drink with you, but I cannot *tarry* dinner. *Shakspeare.*

TARRRY; *adj.* Consisting of tar; resembling tar.

Foul *tarry* spittle tumbling with their tongue
On their raw leather lips.

Morc.

TARRY-TOWN, a village and landing place on the east bank of the Hudson, in West Chester county, New York; 30 miles north of New York.

TARSEL, *s.* A kind of hawk. See TASSEL.

A falconer Henry is, when Emma hawks;
With her of *tarsels* and of lures he talks.

Prior.

TARSET, a township of England, in Northumberland; 19 miles north-west by north of Hexham.

TARSET CASTLE, in England, a Roman encampment in the county of Northumberland, near Bellingham. It is 20 yards long and 10 broad, and is defended by a deep fosse. At each corner of the area appear the remains of turrets or mounds.

TARSIA, a small town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra.

TARSO, a small town in the east of Austrian Italy, in the delegation of Treviso.

TARSTON, a hamlet of England, in Oxfordshire; 2 miles south-south-west of Neat Enstone.

TARSUS, in Anatomy, that part of the foot (consisting of about its posterior half) to which the leg is articulated. Its front portion corresponds to the instep in common language.—An obscure motion, where the conjunction is called synanthrosis; as, in joining the *tarsu* to the metatarsus. *Wiseman.*

The same name is foolishly enough applied to the portion of cartilage contained in each eyelid.

TARSUS, a large city of Asia Minor, the ancient capital of Cilicia. It certainly possesses a very high antiquity, and is said by Arrian and Strabo to have been founded by Sardanapalus on the same day with Anchiale, while others are of opinion that it was a Grecian colony founded by Triptolemus. It was much favoured by Augustus, as well as Adrian, and rose to such celebrity as to rival Athens, Antioch, and Alexandria, in wealth and grandeur, as well as in the cultivation of literature and science. It was also adorned with a number of magnificent temples, as well as with a gymnasium and theatre. The city is situated in a fertile plain, on the right bank of the Cydnus. There is a castle said to be built by Bajazet; and the town is partly surrounded

surrounded by a wall, probably the remains of that erected by Haroun al Raschid. On an eminence to the south-west are the ruins of a spacious edifice, which may very probably have been the gymnasium; and about two hundred yards farther to the west, an ancient gateway stands almost entire. The city contains two public baths, a number of mosques, several handsome caravanseras, and a small ancient church. The land in the neighbourhood is exceedingly fertile, yielding great abundance of wheat, barley, sesame, and cotton, which are exported to Malta, and thence to Spain and Portugal. Copper from Maden, and gall-nuts from the mountains, are also staple commodities. The imports consist chiefly of rice, sugar, and coffee. The port is about seven or eight miles distant from the town, whence the sea is not visible. The population during the winter is stated at 30,000, of which there are 200 Armenian, and 100 Greek families; while the remainder consist of Turkmen, who migrate with their families in summer to the mountains.

TART, *adj.* [τάρταρ, Saxon; *taertig*, Dutch.] Sour; acid; acidulated; sharp of taste.—Of the best wines you make your *tartest* vinegar. *Howell*.—Sharp; keen; severe.

Why so *tart* a favour
To trumpet such good tidings? *Shakspeare.*

TART, *s.* [*tarta*, Italian; *taart*, Danish.] A small pie of fruit.—Figures, with divers coloured earths, under the windows of the house on that side near which the garden stands, be but toys; you may see as good sights in *tarts*. *Bacon.*

TARTAGLIA (Nicholas), a celebrated mathematician, was born at Brescia about the beginning of the 16th century. Being left destitute in his childhood by the death of his father, he was no less unfortunate at the siege of Brescia, in 1512, in receiving several wounds, and particularly one which divided his lip, so that he lost the power of distinct articulation; and from this circumstance he got the name of Tartaglia. The defects of his early education were amply compensated by his genius and diligence. Having resided ten years at Verona, he afterwards, viz., in 1534, became professor of the mathematics at Venice; and here, except during an interval of eighteen months at Brescia, he remained till the time of his death, in 1557. His works are numerous. Besides translations of Archimedes and Euclid, he wrote many original treatises in mathematics, one of the most important of which, entitled “*Quesiti e' inventione diversi*,” was published at Venice in 1546, and dedicated to Henry VIII. of England. It is comprehended in nine books, and contains answers to several questions that were proposed to him at different times concerning mechanics, hydrostatics, &c.; and more particularly worthy of notice is the history of the invention of the rules for solving cubic equations, which he communicated to Cardan, under an oath that he would keep the secret.

Tartaglia's genius was no less conspicuously displayed in other sciences than in algebra. He treats of artillery and gunnery, and also of the different methods of fortifying towns, besides various mechanical and algebraical questions. He also proposes many questions with regard to the motion of bodies, and the method of measuring distances, in his “*Nuovia Scienza*” and “*De Numeri e Mesure*.” To Tartaglia we owe the first discovery of the best angle, i. e. 45°, as it was then thought, for elevating a piece so as to throw a ball or shell to the greatest distance. He also announced a method of raising vessels that were sunk, and other heavy bodies, from the bottom of the sea, and the means by which a person may be enabled to remain a considerable time under water; and to him we owe a treatise on the signs which indicate changes in the atmosphere. He has likewise furnished us with a large treatise on arithmetic, algebra, and geometry, published at Venice, in folio, in 1556. Tiraboschi remarks, that all Tartaglia's works manifest great penetration and acuteness, and that they would claim higher commendation, if the author had paid more attention to his style, and if the editions were more correctly printed. But

with all their imperfections and faults, and after all the improvements to which they have led the way, they were justly esteemed at the time when they were written, and they have been useful to those who have in more modern times pursued the same course of study and investigation. *Tiraboschi. Hutton.*

TARTANE, *s.* [*tartana*, Italian; *tartane*, Fr.] A vessel much used in the Mediterranean, with one mast and a three-cornered sail.—I set out from Marseilles to Genoa in a *tartane*, and arrived late at a small French port called Cassis. *Addison.*

TARTAR, *s.* [*tartarus*, Lat.] Hell. A word used by the old poets, *now obsolete.*

He's in *tartar* limbo worse than hell;
A devil in an everlasting garment hath him,
One whose hard heart is button'd up with steel. *Shakspeare.*

[*tartre*, Fr.] *Tartar* is what sticks to wine casks, like a hard stone, either white or red, as the colour of the wine from whence it comes: the white is preferable, as containing less dross or earthy parts: the best comes from Germany, and is the *tartar* of the Rhenish wine. *Quincy*.—The fermented juice of grapes is partly turned into liquid drops or lees, and partly into that crust or dry feculency that is commonly called *tartar*; and this *tartar* may by the fire be divided into five differing substances, four of which are not acid, and the other not so manifestly acid as the *tartar* itself. *Boyle.*

TARTAREAN, *adj.* [*tartarus*, Lat.] Hellish.—His throne mix'd with *tartarean* sulphur. *Milton.*

TARTAREOUS, *adj.* Consisting of tartar.—In fruits, the *tartareous* parts of the sap are thrown upon the fibres designed for the stone, and the oily upon the seed within it. *Grew*.—Hellish.

The spirit of God downward purg'd
The black *tartareous* cold infernal dregs,
Adverse to life. *Milton*

TARTARIZATION, *s.* [from *To tartarize*.] The act of forming tartar.—By dissolution of one subject, and concretion of another; by vaporation and evaporation; by sublimation, and precipitation or *tartarisation*. *Biblioth.*

To TARTARIZE, *v. a.* To impregnate with tartar.

TARTARO, a river of Austrian Italy, in the government of Venice, which rises among the mountains near the lake of Garda, is joined in the department of the Mincio by a canal of the Adige, takes the name of *Canale bianca*, and expands into a number of marshes as it approaches the Adriatic.

TARTAROUS, *adj.* Containing tartar; consisting of tartar.—The asperity of *tartarous* salts, and the fiery acrimony of alkaline salts, irritating and wounding the nerves, produce nascent passions and anxieties in the soul. *Bp. Berkeley.*

TARTARY, the name vaguely given to a most extensive region of Asia, occupying nearly the whole central part of that continent, interposed between Asiatic Russia on the north, and the great empires of Persia, Hindostan, and China on the south. Under the appellation of Tartars, are comprehended many various tribes, having local names and characters, but who generally agree in being addicted to the pastoral life, living in tents in the open fields, without towns or villages; delighting in horsemanship, and having a breed of the finest horses in the world; living on horse flesh, and drinking mares' milk. This race was known and celebrated in antiquity under the name of Scythians, a people who are described as possessed of the same warlike, rude, and pastoral features which distinguish now the tenants of the same regions. The simplicity of their manners, their ignorance of money and of luxury, and their hospitality, caused them to be quoted with admiration by the Greek sages. At the same time, the earliest records of history bear ample testimony to the calamities which their inroads inflicted on the more civilised part of the world, and to the
disasters

disasters incurred by the greatest conquerors, in attempting to subdue them. Even under the Assyrian dynasty, they are represented as having overwhelmed and held the sceptre of Western Asia for the space of 28 years. If we may believe Herodotus, Cyrus, after having subdued the rest of Asia, found the termination of his life in his conflict with Tomyris, queen of this warlike race. Darius, his successor, with difficulty escaped the same fate, in pursuing through their extensive wilds the European Scythians, who then occupied what now constitutes the southern part of Russia in Europe. Alexander himself was little more fortunate; for though he compelled the Scythian host to cross the Jaxartes, he in vain attempted to pursue them beyond it, and suffered in his retreat considerable annoyance from their desultory attacks.

In these earlier periods, although the Scythian tribes frequently laid waste the southern empires, and defeated the most powerful of their armies, they were never able to effect any permanent conquest or settlement. It was during the decline of the Roman empire, when its vast spoils attracted the cupidity of all the races of barbarians, that the pastoral tribes in the interior of Asia began permanently to forsake their vast plains, in search of happier and more fertile regions. Their fortunes were various, and their power was reduced at one time to a very low ebb; but at length rousing their vigour, and swelling their force from the migratory and warlike population of the country itself, they succeeded in overturning the eastern empire, and establishing themselves masters of Constantinople. The Tartar tribes, once engaged in this career of migratory conquest, did not willingly desist. In the twelfth century, Tartary became the seat of the most formidable and extensive empire that perhaps has ever been established. Zingis, originally an obscure Mongol chief, having succeeded in uniting under his standard all the neighbouring tribes, successively conquered China, Persia, and all Central Asia, from the Black sea to the Eastern ocean. His successors added Russia, and overran Poland, with part of Germany. For some time the greatest panic prevailed in Europe, which seemed on the point of being reduced to total subjection. In the course of a few reigns, this vast empire was split into parts, and lost its original energy; but the Tartars were still not weary of giving masters to Asia. The lead was now taken by the populous countries on the Oxus and the Jaxartes, where Timur established a sway, which, though less extended than that of Zingis, was superior in the value and importance of the regions which it comprehended. Timur conquered all Persia, broke the power of the Turks in Asia Minor, and established in India a dynasty, which continued to reign, and to form the most splendid court of Asia, till the close of the last century. China has always been subject to Tartar dynasties; and about three centuries ago was conquered by the Mantchoos, a tribe inhabiting to the north, near the coasts of the Eastern ocean. For a long time, however, the power of this great race has been much on the decline.

The grand division of this extensive portion of Asia, is into Independent Tartary and Chinese Tartary.

Independent Tartary is bounded on the east by a great chain of mountains, called the Beloor Taugh, connected with the Indian ranges of the Himmaleh and the Mooz Taugh, and which separates it from Cashgar and the other districts of Chinese Tartary. On the south, it has the country of Balk or Bulkh (now forming part of the kingdom of Cabul), and the Persian province of Korassan; on the west it extends as far as the Caspian; while on the north it has the provinces of Oufa, Orenburg, and Tobolsk, belonging to Asiatic Russia.

Since the time of Timur, the population and political state of this country have undergone an entire change. It has been occupied, and the ancient inhabitants either exterminated or expelled by the Uzbecks, a people of the widely extended race of Turk or Toork, but whose original seat is not precisely ascertained.

In Bokhara the men are divided, like troops, into parties

or masses of ten each, who have a boiler, a tent, and a camel in common. The Koran is implicitly assumed as the guide, not only in faith and doctrine, but in civil government and domestic life. The king, now reigning in Bokhara, was raised to the throne by the ostentatious profession of poverty, and of all those observances which establish the character of a Mussulman saint; prayer, abstinence, fasting, and mendicity. Even in his present elevation, he has not renounced these religious observances, but spends part of every day in teaching the Mahometan religion, and of every night in watching and prayer. The revenue is collected exactly in the proportions prescribed in the Koran; and one-tenth of it is expended in alms. The drinking of wine, and even the smoking of tobacco, is most strictly prohibited, and made liable to the severest punishment.

The habitations of the Uzbecks consisted originally of a species of moveable tent called *onool*, composed of a lattice of thin lath, covered with black felt. From 20 to 50 of these compose a species of moveable village or camp. Many of them now, however, reside in towns. Horsemanship is the favourite pursuit of the Uzbecks, and their horses are considered, next to the Arabian, as the best in Asia. They are so numerous, that there is scarcely a man so poor as to walk on foot; even beggars travel on horseback, or at least on camels or asses. As might be expected in a people with these habits, the Uzbecks produce numerous bodies of light cavalry, and excel in predatory warfare. Their arms are a long and heavy lance, and a shield; few have swords, but many long knives and daggers. They charge in a body, with shouts, which are loud and terrific. They are brave, and have a wonderful power of enduring thirst, hunger, and fatigue. In battle, they are drawn up in three lines, so that, even after being repulsed, they can return twice to the charge. Their laws of war are most barbarous, giving no quarter except to infidels, whom the Koran allows them to sell as slaves; while the faithful, who cannot be subjected to that indignity, have the honour of being killed on the spot. Yet they do not want good qualities. Compared with other Asiatics, they are sincere and honest; there are few private quarrels among them, and murder scarcely ever occurs. Merchants are protected and encouraged, and notwithstanding the national bigotry, no distinction of religion is made in regard to them.

Of the kingdoms into which Independent Tartary is now divided, Bokhara may be considered as the most important. The territory of the king includes the finest part of the country on the banks of the Oxus, and, though not very extensive, enables him to maintain an army of 80,000 or 100,000 cavalry. The city of Bokhara still contains upwards of 100,000 inhabitants, with very extensive establishments for the cultivation of learning. Samarcand, though greatly declined from its ancient splendour, exhibits the same beauty of climate and situation for which it was celebrated, and contains many fine buildings. Of late Shah Murad Bey, the present possessor, has paid much attention to it, and restored some share of its former greatness. On the Jaxartes, the Bey of Koukan, or Ferganna, possesses an extensive, fertile, and highly populous kingdom, scarcely known to Europeans. The cities of Koukan, Khojund, and Murghelan, are said in populousness and beauty of situation to surpass any other in Central Asia. Unless, however, in these cities on the banks of great rivers, the population generally retains its pastoral and migratory habits. This is more particularly the case as we proceed northwards among the Kirghises, who connect Independent Tartary with Russia, and who have already been described. There remains of Independent Tartary, the country on the Upper Oxus, and that between the Aral and the Caspian. It consists almost entirely of a vast sandy desert, tenanted by roving tribes of Uzbecks and Turcomans, who subsist partly by pasturage and partly by plunder.

The tracks of Central Asia, over which the Chinese empire holds at least nominal sway, are of truly immense extent. They include the whole territory contained between Hindos-

tan and Asiatic Russia, and from the Eastern ocean to the mountain boundary of Independent Tartary; a space comprising, in its greatest dimensions, about seventy degrees of longitude, and twenty degrees of latitude. The southern and mountainous part of this vast track passes under the name of Thibet, and is commonly considered as an appendage to India. The western part of what is usually called Chinese Tartary is among the regions of the globe with regard to which our information is most imperfect. We have scarcely any knowledge respecting it, except the narratives, now by no means recent, of Marco Polo and Goetz, with some Chinese maps procured by the missionaries. The most westerly country, situated immediately on the other side of the Beloor Taugh, appears to be Cashgar, with a capital of the same name, forming the residence of a Chinese Amdan or viceroy. The great emporium of this region, however, is Yarcund, situated farther to the south, and forming the rendezvous of the merchants from India, Cabul, and Independent Tartary. Proceeding eastward, the two principal kingdoms are Koten or Khoten, and Hami or Chamil. The former is represented as very flourishing, containing numerous fortified cities, and excelling both in agriculture and manufactures. It is particularly celebrated for a species of beautifully variegated marble, which bears a high price in China. Hami is also as a wealthy region, inhabited by a voluptuous and even dissolute people. In this part of Asia are also mentioned Acsu, Cialis, Ciarcian, Lop, and Peym. One of its most distinguishing features is the great desert of Shamo or Cohi, which extends from west to east through nearly its whole extent, and afterwards interposes between China and the Russian empire. It extends in this direction nearly 2000 miles. The caravans coast its northern border, till they come to Lop, where they cross from north to south, and proceed along the southern border to China.

The part of Tartary situated to the west and north-west of China, consists entirely of desert or at least of naked plains, particular portions only of which afford pasture and water, and which is traversed by wandering tribes of Mongols, Kalkas, and Eluths.

The most eastern extremity of Tartary, bordering on the Pacific, consists of the country of the Mantchoo Tartars, which, in consequence of having given a conquering dynasty to China, forms now a province of that empire. It is still a favourite hunting residence of the emperors, who have a summer palace at some distance beyond the great wall, to which they resort during three months of the year. The country consists generally of very lofty mountains, covered with immense forests. No grain except oats can be raised in any quantity; and though the latitude be only that of the south of France, the climate resembles that of Norway, and the rivers begin to freeze in September.

Besides the before-mentioned tribes, who inhabit the region properly called Tartary, a great part of the southern provinces of Asiatic Russia have a Tartar population. Among these we may particularly distinguish the Kalmucs and the Baschkirs.

The Kalmucs were formerly one of the most numerous and powerful people of Tartary, and they even boast of the conqueror Zingis as belonging to their nation. After various fortunes and wanderings, the whole body established itself in 1723, upon the banks of the Volga from Tzaritzan to Astracan. They then numbered 14,000 tents or families. They owned the supremacy of the czar, and even allowed him the confirmation of their khan. The Kalmucs have a better organized form of government than most of the wandering tribes. They are divided into nobles or princes, whom they call "white bones;" into priests or Gelums, to whom they pay the highest respect; and into common people, whom they call "black bones." They are formed also into the clans called *Oulouss*, with each a khan at its head; and these khans being assembled, decide on the general affairs of the state, and elect a great khan, who forms the supreme head of the Kalmucs. The people are of a middle size, with black, hard, and shining hair; they have very small eyes, with a

piece of skin stretched externally towards the lacrymal canal, which gives them a physiognomy peculiar to themselves, and distinct from that of the other Asiatic nations. The ears stand out from the head; the nose is broad and flat. They encamp under tents of felt, which, when they change their habitation, are easily placed with all their effects upon the backs of camels or oxen.

The Baschkirs inhabit the southern part of the provinces of Oufa and Orenburg, with part of Tobolsk, between the rivers Belaia, Kama, Volga, and Oural. They seem to have been established here from a very early period, and submitted to Russia at the time of the conquest of Kazan. By the enumeration of 1770, the Baschkirs were found to consist of 27,000 families, divided into 14 cantons.

TARTAS, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Landes, situated on the declivity of a hill, watered by the Douze. It contains about 3200 inhabitants, who carry on a traffic in corn and wine; 14 miles north-west of St. Sever, and 18 west-by-south of Mont de Marsan.

TARTAS, a river of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, which falls into the Om, near Tartaskoi.

TARTASCH, a small town of European Turkey, in Moldavia; 63 miles south-west of Jassy.

TARTASKOI, a small town of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia situated at the junction of the two rivers Om and Tartas; 40 miles west-south-west of Kainsk.

TARTH, a small river of Scotland, in Peebles-shire, which rises in the parish of Kirkurd, and joins the Lyne, a little below Droichill castle. It abounds with fine trout.

TARTINI (Giuseppe), of Padua, a famous violin composer, was born at Pirano, in Istria, in 1692. His father, having been a great benefactor to the cathedral church at Parenzo, had been ennobled in reward for his piety. Giuseppe was intended for the law, but mixing music with his other studies during the course of his education, it soon grew too powerful for the rest, and tyrannized over the whole circle of sister sciences. In 1710, he was sent to the university of Padua to pursue his studies as a civilian; but before he was twenty, having married without the consent of his parents, they wholly abandoned him, and obliged him to wander about in search of an asylum; which, after many hardships, he found in a convent at Assisi, where he was received by a monk his relation, who, commiserating his misfortunes, let him remain there till something better could be done for him. Here he practised the violin, to keep off melancholy reflections; but being discovered by a Paduan acquaintance, differences were accommodated, and he settled with his wife at Venice for some time.

His first book of solos was engraved at Amsterdam, 1734; the second at Rome, 1745; and he produced above two hundred of these compositions; his concertos, likewise amount to two hundred.

Tartini seems to have had a larger portion of genius and knowledge of composition as a mere instrumental composer, than any other author who flourished during the first fifty or sixty years of the last century. Though he made Correlli his model in the purity of his harmony, and simplicity of his modulation, he greatly surpassed that composer in the fertility and originality of his invention; not only in the subjects of his melodies, but in the truly cantabile manner of treating them. Many of his adagios want nothing but words to be excellent pathetic opera songs. His allegros are sometimes difficult; but the passages fairly belong to the instrument for which they were composed, and were suggested by his consummate knowledge of the finger-board, and powers of the bow. He certainly repeats his passages, and adheres to his original *motivo*, or theme, too much, for the favourite desultory style of the present times; but it must be allowed that by his delicate selection and arrangement of notes, his passages are always good. He died on the 26th of February, 1770, to the great regret of the inhabitants of the city of Padua, where he had resided nearly fifty years.

M. de Lalande says, he had from his own mouth the following singular anecdote, which shews to what degree his imagination was inflamed by the genius of composition. "He dreamed one night, in 1713, that he had made a compact with the devil, who promised to be at his service on all occasions; and during this vision every thing succeeded according to his mind; his wishes were prevented, and his desires always surpassed by the assistance of his new servant. In short, he imagined he gave the devil his violin, in order to discover what kind of a musician he was; when, to his great astonishment, he heard him play a solo so singularly beautiful, and executed with such superior taste and precision, that it surpassed all he had ever heard or conceived in his life. So great was his surprise, and so exquisite his delight upon this occasion, that it deprived him of the power of breathing. He awoke with the violence of this sensation, and instantly seized his fiddle, in hopes of expressing what he had just heard, but in vain; he, however, then composed a piece, which is perhaps the best of all his works, (he called it the Devil's Sonata,) but it was so inferior to what his sleep had produced, that he declared he should have broken his instrument and abandoned music for ever, if he could have subsisted by any other means."

TARTISH, *adj.* Somewhat tart. *Scott.*

TARTLAU, a town of Transylvania, in the province of the Saxons; 8 miles east-by-north of Cronstadt, with 3000 inhabitants, partly of German descent, partly Wallachians and gypsies.

TARTLY, *adv.* Sharply; sourly; with acidity.—Sharply; with poignancy; with severity.—Seneca, an ingenious and sententious writer, was by Caligula *tartly* called *arena sine calce*, sand without lime. *Walker.*—With sourness of aspect.

How *tartly* that gentleman looks!

—He is of a very melancholy disposition. *Shakspeare.*

TARTNESS, *s.* Sharpness; sourness; acidity.—Of these sweets put in three gallons, more or less, into an hog's-head, as the *tartness* of your cyder requires. *Mortimer.*—Sourness of temper: poignancy of language.—They cannot be too sweet for the king's *tartness*. *Shakspeare.*

TARTUFISH, *adj.* [from *tartufe*, Fr., a puritan, a hypocrite. "Jamais tartufe ne fut honnête homme." Richelet.] Perhaps precise; formal; or morose. In some parts of Scotland, it is sour, sullen, stubborn. See Jamieson.—God help her, said I; she has some mother-in-law, or *tartufish* aunt, or nonsensical old woman, to consult upon the occasion as well as myself. *Sterne.*

TARUD, a small town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 10 miles from El Katif.

TARUD ESHERIFF, a village of lower Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 6 miles south of Melau.

TARVE, a small island in Denmark, in the Little Belt; 9 miles from Colding in Jutland.

TARVEN, or **TARVIN**, a village and parish of England, in the county of Chester, near a brook that comes from Tarpoley, and bounds Delamere forest. It had formerly a market, which was granted to Sir John Savage, lord of this manor, in the reign of queen Elizabeth. Population 2876; 6 miles east-by-north of Chester.

TARVES, a parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, about 9 miles long, and 6 broad, watered by the Ythan. Population 1804.

TARVIS, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Carinthia, on a small stream called the Gailitz; 49 miles north-by-west of Trieste, and 14 south-west of Villach.

TASAPAN, a small island in the Eastern seas, near Junkseilon. Lat. 8. 20. N. long. 98. 14. E.

TASCHLIDSCHA, **TASLIZZA**, or **PLEVLE**, a small town in the north-west of European Turkey, in Bosnia. It is the residence of the sandgiak of Hersek, and has 4500 inhabitants; 70 miles south-by-east of Zvornick.

TASCHUCANGO, a small river of Quito, in the province of Mainas, which runs nearly due north, and enters the Amazons.

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TASCO, or **TLACHCO**, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico; 90 miles south-east of Valladolid. The elevation of the place above the level of the sea is something more than 2569 feet; 60 miles south-by-west of Mexico, on the north shore of the river Zacatula. Lat. 18. 33. N. long. 99. 31. W.

TASCO, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, which contains 100 housekeepers, and 80 Indians.

TASEBURGH, or **TASBOROUGH**, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles north of St. Mary Stratton. Population 453.

TASHAM DAGH, the name of a mountain on the north coast of Asia Minor, between Amasieh and Samsoun.

TASHKUND, or **TASHKENT**, a considerable city of Independent Tartary, situated on the Sihon of Jaxatres; 210 miles north of Samarcand. Lat. 42. 40. N. long. 64. 48. E.

TASIEVA, a river of Asiatic Russia, which falls into the Tchulim, about 20 miles north-west of Tasiuskoi.

TASIEUSKOI, a town of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Tasiaeva; 820 miles east of Tobolsk, and 448 east-north east of Kolivan.

TASK, *s.* [*tassa*, Italian.] Something to be done imposed by another.

Relieves me from my *task* of servile toil
Daily in the common prison else enjoind me. *Milton.*

Employment; business.—His mental powers were equal to greater *tasks*. *Atterbury.*

To take to **TASK**. To reprove; to reprimand.—A holy man took a soldier to *task* upon the subject of his profession. *L'Estrange.*

To **TASK**, *v. a.* To burthen with something to be done.

Forth he goes,

Like to a harvestman, that *task'd* to mow,
Or all, or lose his hire. *Shakspeare.*

TASKER, *s.* One who imposes tasks.

All is, if I have grace to use it so,
A ever in my great *taskmaster's* eye. *Milton.*

One who undertakes a task, as a day-labourer: this is a colloquial use of *tasker*.

TASLEY, a parish of England, in Salop, situated on the river Severn; 2 miles west-north-west of Bridgenorth.

TASMAN'S HEAD, the most southern point of Brany's island, on the south-east coast of Van Diemen's Land, apparently the same which the French call North Cape of that isle.

TASMAN'S ISLAND, a great peninsula connected with Van Diemen's Land, by an isthmus 600 feet broad by about 1800 feet long. At the southern extremity is an islet, now called Tasman's island, visible at 12 leagues distance.

TASNAD, a small but populous town of Transylvania, in the north-west of the palatinate of Syolnok, inhabited by Magyars.

TASSACORTA, or **TASSA CRODA**, a small sea-port on the western coast of the island of Palma, one of the Canaries, where a few vessels are annually laden.

TASSEL, *s.* [*tasse*, French; *tasselus*, low Latin.] An ornamental bunch of silk, or glittering substances.

Then took the squire an horn of bugle small,
Which hung adown his side in twisted gold,
And *tassels* gay. *Spenser.*

TASSEL, *s.* [properly *tercel* or *tiercel*; Ital. *terzuolo*; which name it is said to have obtained, because it is a *tierce* or *third* less than the female. See Steven's Note on Shakspeare's Rom. and Jul.] The male of the goshawk.

O for a falconer's voice,
To lure this *tassel*-gentle back again! *Shakspeare.*

TASSEL, or **TA'ZEL**, *s.* [*carduus fullonimus*.] An herb. See **TEAZLE**. *Ainsworth.*

TASSELED, *adj.* Adorned with tassels.—A purse of leather—*tasseled* with silk. *Chaucer.*

TASSEES, *s.* Armour for the thighs. *Ainsworth.*

TASSI (Agostino), the cognomen of an artist whose real name was Buonanici. He was born at Perugia in 1566, and studied at Rome under Paul Brill, and received some assistance in the school of the Caracci. His sea-ports, calms, and storms, were faithful transcripts of nature, and touched with great spirit and efficacy. His views of architectural subjects thrown into perspective, which are in the pontifical palace of Monte Cavallo, and in that of the Lancellotti family, are admirable in their kind. His greatest honour, however, is having been the instructor of Claude de Lorraine. He died in 1642, aged 76.

TASSISUDON, a city of Northern Hindostan, province of Bootan, of which it is the capital, and the residence of the Deb rajah. This town stands in a highly cultivated valley, about three miles in length, by one in breadth, intersected by the Tchintchieu river. On the surrounding mountains are some large timber trees, intermixed with fir and pine, and a great variety of flowering shrubs. The climate is esteemed exceedingly salubrious. The castle is built of stone, and forms a square, the walls of which are 30 feet high. The citadel is a very lofty building, consisting of seven stories, each from 15 to 20 feet high. From the centre of these rises a square piece of masonry, which supports a canopy of copper richly gilt, supposed to be immediately over the idol *Maha Moony*. The rajah resides in the fourth story of this citadel, which might more properly be called a temple. The town is of considerable extent, and very populous. Its chief manufactures are brazen images, and paper made from the bark of a tree. Lat. 27. 50. N. long. 89. 30. E.

TASSO (Bernardo), an eminent poet, born at Bergamo, of an ancient and noble family, in the year 1493, became an early proficient in the Greek and Latin classics. His uncle, the bishop of Recanati, who was his instructor and patron, and supplied the place of a parent when he lost his father, having been assassinated by robbers in 1520, Bernardo was under a necessity of quitting his native city, and in 1525 became secretary to count Guido Rangoni, general of the papal army. Having been for a short time occupied in a similar situation under the duchess of Ferrara, he afterwards pursued his studies at Padua and Venice. In 1531, he published at Venice a volume of poems, which induced Ferrante Sanseverino, prince of Salerno, to invite him to his court. Having accepted this invitation, he recommended himself to the prince, and obtained annual stipends, amounting to 900 ducats. He accompanied his patron in several expeditions, and accompanying him to Naples, he there married Porzia de' Rossi, a lady of noble family. At Sorrento, whither he removed, he for some time led a tranquil and studious life; until his patron, in 1547, incurred the displeasure of the imperial court by concurring in presenting a petition against the establishment of the inquisition at Naples. On this occasion the prince joined the French party, so that he was declared a rebel, and his property was confiscated. Influenced by respect for his patron, Bernardo accompanied him to France, where at first he obtained encouragement, but being in process of time deprived of all support, and having lost his wife, he requested the prince's permission to leave him; and complying with an invitation to the court of Guidubaldo II., duke of Urbino, a distinguished patron of literary persons, he was liberally compensated for his past sufferings, and made a member of the celebrated Venetian academy. In 1563, he became secretary at the court of Mantua, and in the service of this court he died, in 1569, being then governor of Ostiglia. The duke of Mantua caused his remains to be honourably interred in that city, and a marble monument to be erected over his tomb, bearing the simple inscription, "Ossa Bernardi Tassi." Of his poems, belonging to the class of "Romanesque," here were two; viz., "Amadigi," consisting of 100 cantos, and "Il Floridante," left unfinished, but corrected and published by his son Torquato, at Bologna, in 1587. His other works are five books of "Rime," with various kinds of

poems, such as eclogues, elegies, hymns, odes, &c. He was also the author of "A Discourse concerning Poetry," and "Letters," of which an edition has been given in three volumes.

TASSO (Torquato), pre-eminent as an Italian poet, was the son of Bernardo and Porzia de Rossi, born at Sorrento, March 11, 1544, and sent at the age of five years to the Jesuits' school, at Naples. Here his proficiency was so rapid, that in two years he recited, publicly, verses and orations of his own composition. At Bergamo, whither the circumstances of his family constrained him to remove, he prosecuted the study of Latin and Greek with such success, that at the age of twelve years, he was admitted into the university of Padua. Here his proficiency in various branches of literature was so signal, that in his seventeenth year he was honoured with degrees in the four branches of canon and civil law, theology, and philosophy. For law he had no predilection; but all the powers and affections of his mind were devoted to poetry. Thus distinguished, he was invited by the celebrated Cesi to Bologna, in the schools and academies of which city his talents were eminently displayed. During his residence in Bologna, he was charged with having written some defamatory verses, and deprived of his books; and though he avowed his innocence, he thought proper to withdraw from the city to a place called Castle-*vetro*, where he was protected by the Count Rangoni. Some time after this event he settled at Padua, and acquired distinction among the academicians denominated "Eterei." At the age of eighteen years, he had published at Venice his poem of the Romanesque class, entitled "Il Rinaldo," which he dedicated to Cardinal Luigi d'Este, in consequence of which he was invited, in 1566, to the court of Ferrara, where he was liberally accommodated, and where, it is said, he prosecuted the execution of his plan of the "Gerusalemme Liberata;" six cantos of which were composed in the 17th year of his life. In 1571, he accompanied the Cardinal d'Este into France, where he was honourably received by Charles IX. and his court, and also by all the learned men of Paris. In the following year he returned to Italy, and caused to be represented his dramatic pastoral of "Aminta." Several cantos of his "Gerusalemme" were at this time dispersed in MS. throughout Italy, and in 1579, the fourth canto was printed in a collection of poems at Genoa. In the following year, fragments of 16 cantos were published at Venice, and we may naturally imagine that this mode of introducing to public notice a work on which he had bestowed much attention and labour, excited his displeasure. In 1581, three editions were printed; and of these, the third at Ferrara has been considered as that which first exhibited this celebrated work in its genuine form. It has occasioned some degree of surprise, that Tasso himself did not guard against these incorrect publications, by committing his work to the press in a more perfect state. His negligence in this respect has been attributed to some mental malady under which he laboured. Of the cause of this malady, different accounts have been given. Tiraboschi has narrated a variety of circumstances, which operating on a mind like that of Tasso, might have contributed to produce, or at least to aggravate the mental disorder under which he laboured. His first provocation seems to have been excited by a courtier, who divulged the secret of his amours, in the presence-chamber of Alfonso, duke of Ferrara, and whom he publicly insulted, so that he was under a necessity of defending himself with his sword against the aggressor and his three brothers. The brothers were banished, and Tasso was confined to his apartment. Disturbed in his mind, and dreading worse consequences, he made his escape, wandered to Turin, Rome and Sorrento, and at length obtained permission to return to Ferrara. Suspecting some hostile design, he withdrew to the court of Urbino, and again returned to Ferrara. Here his disorder was so manifest, that Alfonso ordered him to be shut up in a hospital appropriated to lunatics. The evidence of his disorder is said by some to have been an indecorous liberty which he took in saluting the princess Leonora, the duke's sister; but others have

have thought this circumstance very improbable, and indeed it is hardly necessary to make an attempt for justifying the duke's conduct in the confinement of Tasso, after he had given so many incontestible proofs of mental derangement. At length, however, Tasso was restored to entire liberty. But his disposition to wander still continued; and it is lamentable to reflect, that, as one of his biographers observes, "the admired author of 'Jerusalem Delivered,' the favourite of princes and the boast of Italy, should have harboured in his mind something which defeated every plan to render his circumstances prosperous." His last retreat was with Cardinal Cinzio Aldobrandini, at Rome, who obtained for him a pension from Pope Clement VIII., and had intended, as a compensation for his sufferings, to procure for him the honour of a solemn poetical coronation in the Capitol; but the ceremony was delayed on account of the cardinal's illness, and Tasso manifested symptoms of approaching dissolution. As soon as he was apprized of his danger, he was removed to the convent of St. Onofrio, where, deriving every possible consolation from the kindness of the cardinal, and exhibiting every evidence of sincere piety, he closed his days in April, 1595, at the age of 51. His remains were honourably interred, and after some time a monument was erected to his memory by Cardinal Bonifacio Bevilacqua, in the church of St. Onofrio. Tasso, "in person, was tall, active, and well-proportioned, naturally of a firm temperament, and fit for all bodily exercises. He was sparing of words, sedate and grave in manner, and in conversation displayed little of the fire that animates his works. He was kind and affectionate in all his social relations, and conducted himself with great propriety in company."

His works are very numerous. Those in prose consist of a great number of treatises, dialogues, and letters, on moral, literary, and familiar topics. In poetry, his "Gerusalemme Liberata" is pre-eminent. His "Gerusalemme Conquistata," published in 1593, was a kind of re-composition of the former work, but less satisfactory to its readers. His "Aminta" has been already mentioned; his "Rime" consisted of occasional and miscellaneous pieces; his "Sella Giornata," or Works of the Seven Days, pieces on sacred topics, bear the impression of the gloomy state of his mind. *Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.* For a criticism on the works of Tasso, see the article POETRY.

TASSO, a small island on the western coast of Africa, at the mouth of the river Sierra Leone.

TASSO, or TASCUS. See THASOS.

TASSONI (Alessandro), an Italian poet and man of letters, was born of an ancient and noble family, at Modena, in the year 1565. Notwithstanding various disadvantages in early life, such as the loss of his parents, a feeble diseased frame, and the persecution of enemies, he successfully cultivated Greek and Latin literature, poetry, and eloquence. At the age of twenty he sought further improvement in the university of Bologna, and here, as well as at Ferrara, he directed his particular attention to jurisprudence. Being under a necessity of seeking employment, he went to Rome, where, being known by his writings, he was admitted into the service of cardinal Colonne, as secretary, and accompanied him to Spain in the year 1600. Being afterwards domesticated with cardinal Cesi, he became a member of the academies degli Umoristi and de' Lincei, and was held in high estimation among the literati of Rome. A specimen of his "Pensieri diversi" (Thoughts on various Subjects) was published in 1608, under the title of "Quesiti" and the whole in 1612. His "Considerations on Petrarch" were first printed in 1609, and were intended to restrain the prevalent idolatry of this author. In 1613 he entered into the service of Charles Emanuel, duke of Savoy, in which situation he was regarded as an enemy to the Spanish monarchy; and he was considered as the author of "Philippics" against the Spaniards, and of a book entitled "Essequie della Monarchia di Spagna." In 1623, he quitted the family of Savoy; and about this time he finished "A Compendium of the Annals of Baronius." In 1626, he was taken into the service of cardinal Lodovico, nephew of Gregory XV.; and upon his death, in 1632, he was invited to the

court of Francis I., duke of Modena, who gave him a pension and some honorary titles. Of this situation death deprived him in 1635, at the age of 70. One of his biographers says of him, that "he had a prepossessing countenance, with a cheerful expression, was open in conversation, a good speaker, serious or pleasant, according to the occasion, of a lively imagination, and sound judgment." The work by which the memory of Tassoni is chiefly preserved, is his mock heroic poem "La Secchia Repita." *Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.*

Another Alessandro Tassoni of Modena, born in 1488, made a compilation of the different annals of that city, published in Muratori's Collection of Italian historians.

TASSOWITZ, or TASZWITZ, a village of the Austrian states, in Moravia, on the Theya, in the circle of Znaym, with 1100 inhabitants.

TASTABLE, *adj.* That may be tasted; savoury; relishing.—Their distilled oils are fluid, volatile and *tastable*. *Boyle.*

To TASTE, *v. a.* [*taster*, to try, French. *Dr. Johnson.*—The old French word *tasten* is to handle, to feel, to touch, as the Germ. and Teut. *tasten*, from which Kilian and Wachter derive the French; and the latter deduces the word from *tatse*, the hand. *Taste-vin* Cotgrave calls a broker for wine-merchants. Richelet shews *taster*, under the form of *tâter*, as common in the sense of perceiving by the palate: "*tâter*, du vin, de la biere, &c." *Dict. 1685.*]

To perceive and distinguish by the palate.—The ruler of the feast *tasted* the water made wine. *St. John.*—To try by the mouth; to eat at least in a small quantity.—Bold deed to *taste* it under ban to touch. *Milton.*—To essay first.

Thou and I marching before our troops
May *taste* fate to them, mow them out a passage. *Dryden.*

To obtain pleasure from.
So shalt thou be despis'd fair maid,
When by the sated lover *tasted*;
What first he did with tears invade,
Shall afterwards with scorn be wasted. *Carew.*

To feel; to have perception of.—He should *taste* death for every man. *Heb.*—To relish intellectually; to approve.—Thou, Adam, wilt *taste* no pleasure. *Milton.*

To TASTE, *v. n.* To try by the mouth to eat.—Of this tree we may not *taste* nor touch. *Milton.*—To have a smack; to produce on the palate a particular sensation.—When kine feed upon wild garlic, their milk *tasteth* of it. *Bacon.*—To distinguish intellectually.

Scholars, when good sense describing,
Call it *tasting* and imbibing. *Swift.*

To be tintured, or receive some quality or character.
Ev'ry idle, nice, and wanton reason
Shall, to the king, *taste* of this action. *Shakspeare.*

To try the relish of any thing.
The body's life with meats and air is fed,
Therefore the soul doth use the *tasting* power
In vains, which through the tongue and palate spread,
Distinguish every relish sweet and sour. *Davies.*

To have perception of.
Cowards die many times before their deaths;
The valiant never *taste* of death but once. *Shakspeare.*

To take to be enjoyed.
What hither brought us? not hope here to *taste*
Of pleasure. *Milton.*

To enjoy sparingly.
This fiery game your active youth maintain'd,
Nor yet by years extinguish'd, though restrain'd;
You season still with sports your serious hours,
For age but *tastes* of pleasures, youth devours. *Dryden.*

TASTE, *s.* The act of tasting; gustation.—Best of fruits, whose *taste* gave elocution. *Milton.*—The sense by which
the

the relish of any thing on the palate is perceived.—Bees delight more in one flower than another, and therefore have *taste*. *Bacon*.—Sensibility; perception.

Music in the close,

As the last *taste* of sweets is sweetest last. *Shakspeare*.

That sensation which all things taken into the mouth give particularly to the tongue, the papillæ of which are the principal instruments hereof. *Quincy*.—Though there be a great variety of *tastes*, yet, as in smells, they have only some few general names. *Locke*.—Intellectual relish or discernment.—Seeing they pretend no quarrel on other psalms which are in like manner appointed to be daily read, why do these so much offend and displease their *tastes*? *Hooker*.—An essay; a trial; an experiment. *Not in use*.—I hope, for my brother's justification, he wrote this as an essay or *taste* of my virtue. *Shakspeare*.—A small portion given as a specimen.—They thought it not safe to resolve, till they had a *taste* of the people's inclination. *Bacon*.

TASTED, *adj.* Having a particular relish.—Coleworts prosper exceedingly, and are better *tasted*, if watered with salt water. *Bacon*.

TA'STEFUL, *adj.* High relished; savoury.—A sharp kind of sourness in sauces is esteemed pleasing and *tasteful*. *Bp. Hall*.

TA'STELESS, *adj.* Having no power of perceiving taste. Having no relish or power of stimulating the palate; insipid.—By deparating chemical oils, and reducing them to an elementary simplicity, they could never be made *tasteless*. *Boyle*.—Having no power of giving pleasure; insipid.—If by his manner of writing a critic is heavy and *tasteless*, I throw aside his criticisms. *Addison*.—Having no intellectual gust.—With all his faults, [as a prose-writer,] and exclusive of his character as a poet, he [Milton] must ever remain the only learned author of that *tasteless* age in which he flourished. *Orrery*.

TA'STELESSNESS, *s.* Insipidity; want of relish.—They are tainted with that creature vanity, a *tastelessness* (as it were) that is in all created pleasure or profit external. *Whitlock*.—Want of perception of taste. Want of intellectual relish.—The work of writing notes is performed by railing at the stupidity, negligence, ignorance, and asinine *tastelessness* of the former editors. *Swift*.

TA'STER, *s.* [*tasteur*, Fr.] One who takes the first essay of food.

Fair hope! our earlier heaven! by thee

Young time is *taster* to eternity.

Crashaw.

A dram cup. *Ainsworth*.

TASTNESS, a cape on the north of the island of Sanday. Lat. 59. 10. N. long. 2. 21. W.

TA'STY, *adj.* Expressed or done so as to shew intellectual relish. *A modern word*.

TAT, an insular rock in the Baltic, forming a part of the group of the Ert Holmer, and lying about 700 feet to the north of the petty isle of Grësholm.

TATA YOUNBA, a name used by some for the tree which yields what the dyers call the fustic, or yellow wood used in dyeing.

TATA, or **DOTIS**, a large town in the west of Hungary, situated on a height in the midst of marshes; 64 miles east-south-east of Presburg. It contains 8600 inhabitants, and is divided into two parts called Dotis and Tovaris.

TATAAG, a black fish much esteemed by the rhode islanders.

TATAR, a fort of Borneo, erected by the Dutch in 1709. It is a dependency on Java, and is situated about 4 degrees north from the east end of it, on a fine river; and, from its commerce and great population, is of considerable importance.

TATARBASAR, or **TATAR BAZARGIK**, a considerable inland town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, near the Marizza, the ancient *Hebrus*. It is situated on the great road from Constantinople to Belgrade, or rather from Philippopoli to Sophia. It is little visited by travellers; but is said to contain several mosques, baths, and other good buildings,

with about 10,000 inhabitants; 14 miles north-north-west of Philippopoli.

TATARBINAR, a small town in the south-west of European Russia, in Bessarabia; 70 miles south of Bender.

TATCHBROOK, **BISHOP'S** and **MALLORY**, two united parishes of England, in Warwickshire; 3½ miles south-east Warwick. Population 574.

TATHAM, a parish of England, in Lancashire; 11½ miles north-east-by-east of Lancaster. Population 676.

TATHWELL, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2½ miles south-west-by-south of Louth.

TATIAN, a native of Assyria, from which circumstance he is sometimes called "the Assyrian," and an ecclesiastical writer, who, according to Cave, flourished about the year 172. He was originally a heathen, and by profession a sophist, and teacher of rhetoric. His reading appears to have been extensive, and he is allowed to have been well acquainted with Grecian literature and philosophy. He appears to have written a considerable number of books, one of which, still extant in Greek, and entitled "Oratio ad Græcos," or Oration against the Gentiles, was either an apology for Christianity, or an attack on Heathenism. This was first printed at Zurich in 1546, with the Latin version of Conrad Gesner, it is annexed to the edition of Justin Martyr's works, and those of other fathers: but the best edition is that of Worth, Greek and Latin, Oxon. 1700, 8vo. His design in this work, which displays great learning, was to prove that the Greeks were not the inventors of any of the sciences, but that they were indebted for their acquaintance with them to those whom nevertheless they denominated Barbarians. This work, according to Brucker, everywhere breaths the spirit of the Oriental philosophy, the leading tenets of which he details; and he seems to have adopted several of the opinions of Plato, and of the Alexandrian Platonists, concerning the creation of the world by the Logos, and its animation by a subordinate spirit; concerning the existence of demons in material vehicles, who occupy the aerial regions, and that of æons, who reside above the stars. He also held with Plato the imperfection of matter as the cause of evil, and thence he inferred the meritoriousness of rising above corporeal appetites and passions. Another work of Tatian, cited by St. Clement, was entitled "Perfection according to the Saviour," in which he argued against marriage. Eusebius cites another work composed by Tatian, which was a "Book of difficult Questions, for the explication of several obscure places of Scripture." We have also in Latin a work ascribed to Tatian, called, "Harmony" or "Dia-Tessaron" of the Four. But some approved writers have doubted whether we have one copy of Tatian's Harmony now extant. Dr. Lardner, however, inclines to the opinion, that we are in possession of this work.

TATISCHEVA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa, on the Oural; 28 miles west of Orenburg.

TATISM KOH, a mountain of Irak, in Persia; 12 miles north of Koom.

TATIUS (Achilles), a Greek writer of Alexandria, is supposed to have lived in the latter part of the third century. He is known to us as the author of a work on the Sphere, of which there remains a fragment, being an introduction to a commentary on the Phenomena of Aratus. A copy of this from a MS. in the Florentine library, by Peter Victorius, was printed. It was afterwards translated into Latin by Petau, under the title of "Isagoga in Phenomena Arati." We learn from Suidas, that Tatius also wrote "Erotics," in which he includes "the Loves of Leucippe and Clitophon." This work is preserved, and affords one of the examples of Greek romance. The Latin version of it was made by Annibal Cruceius, and published at Basil in 1554. The latest edition of this piece is that of Bodem, Greek and Latin, Lips. 1776, 8vo. It is elegantly written, but of a licentious cast; and hence it has been inferred that the author was a heathen, when he composed it; but Suidas affirms, that he afterwards became a christian, and attained to episcopacy.

TATMAGOUCHE, or **TATAMAGOUCHE**, a place in

Nova Scotia, on a short bay which sets up southerly from the straits of Northumberland; about 25 miles from Onslow, and 21 from the island of St. John's. It has a very good road for vessels, and is known also under the name of *Tatamaganabou*.

TATNAM, CAPE, the eastern point of Haye's river, in Hudson's bay. Lat. 57. 35. N. long. 91. 30. W.

TATON HILL, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 3 miles west-south-west of Burton-upon-Trent.

TATOOTCHE, a barren island, on the north-west coast of North America, situated at the entrance of Juan de Fuca's straits.

TATRA, that part of the Carpathian mountains that lies in the Hungarian counties of Zyps, Liptau, and Arva. It contains the highest part of the chain. The peaks are covered with perpetual snow, the Krivan and Lomnitz rising to the height of at least 8500 feet above the level of the sea.

TATSFIELD, a parish of England, in Surrey; 6 miles north-east-by-east of Godstone.

TATTA, or **AKKA**, a station on the southern frontier of Morocco, forming the point of assemblage for the caravans that are to proceed to Tombuctoo; 150 miles south-south-east of Morocco.

TATTA, an extensive district of Hindostan, province of Sinde. Its limits comprehend the whole of the Delta of the river Indus, calculated at 150 miles in length, by 50 in breadth.

TATTA, an ancient and celebrated city, and capital of the above mentioned district. It is situated near the bank of the Indus, about 130 miles from the sea. The town stands in a fertile valley, formed by a range of low hills, which, during the freshes of the river, is frequently inundated; which circumstance often gives the city the appearance of an island. Some of the houses are built of brick and mortar, but the greater number are constructed of mud and timber. The old English factory, purchased in 1751, is still reckoned the best house in the town; it was formerly surrounded by a brick wall, and had a small citadel, but both are fallen to decay. The circumference of the modern town is four miles, and is supposed to contain 15,000 inhabitants. Doctor Robertson was of opinion, that Tatta was the *Pattala* of the Greeks; but this name more probably refers to the ancient capital of Brahminabad. Lat. 24. 44. N. long. 68. 17. E.

TATTARAN, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 6. 10. N. long. 121. 53. E.

TATTENHALL, a parish of England, in Cheshire; 5½ miles south-west-by-west of Tarporley. Population 809.

TATTENHALL, a parish of England, in Staffordshire, near Wolverhampton. Population 1168.

TATTENHOE, or **TOTTENHOE**, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 2½ miles west of Fenney Stratford.

To **TATTER**, *v. a.* [τῶσαν, Sax.] To tear; to rend; to make ragged. *Tattered* is perhaps more properly an adjective.

Through *tatter'd* cloaths small vices do appear,
Robes and furr'd gowns hide all. *Shakspeare.*

TATTER, *s.* A rag; a fluttering rag.—This fable holds, from him that sits upon the throne, to the poor devil that has scarce a *tatter*. *L'Estrange.*

TATTERDEMA'LION, *s.* A ragged fellow.—As a poor fellow was trudging in a bitter cold morning with never a rag, a spark that was warm clad called to this *tatterdema-lion*, how he could endure this weather? *L'Estrange.*

TATTERFORD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles west-by-south of Fakenham.

TATTERSETT, a parish in the above county, adjoining to the foregoing.

TATTERSHALL, a market town of England, in the county of Lincoln, situated in a marshy country on the river Bain, which is navigable by boats to its confluence with the Withan. The town is small, and the houses mostly built of brick. The church, in the form of a cross, is a beautiful and spacious edifice, though few have suffered more dilapi-

ations. It consisted of a nave, transept, and a magnificent choir. The castle stands on a level moor, and is surrounded by two great fosses, one of which is occasionally filled with water from the river. It was originally intended as a place of defence, and was progressively raised to great height and extent. In the civil wars, however, it was dilapidated; and the only part now remaining is a square tower of brick, above 200 feet high, and divided into four stories. It is flanked by four octangular embattled turrets, which are crowned with spires. The castle was built by Sir Ralph Cromwell, who was made treasurer of the exchequer by king Henry VI., in 1433. Tattershall formed part of the possession granted by William the Conqueror to Eudo, one of his Norman followers. Robert Fitz-Eudo obtained a grant from king John, by presenting that monarch with a well-trained gos-hawk, for the inhabitants of this town to have the privilege of holding a market weekly on Fridays; and his son, in the time of Edward III., received the royal licence to erect a castle within the manor. Tattershall contains 104 houses, and 506 inhabitants. Market on Friday, and two annual fairs; 12 miles north-west of Boston, and 127 north of London.

TATTERSHALL, THORPE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire, about three quarters of a mile from the town of Tattershall.

TATTINGSTONE, or **TADINGSTONE**, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5½ miles south-west-by-south of Ipswich. Population 519.

To **TATTLE**, *v. n.* [*tateren*, Dutch.] To prate; to talk idly; to use many words with little meaning.—The one is too like an image, and says nothing; and the other too like my lady's eldest son, evermore *tattling*. *Shakspeare.*

TATTLE, *s.* Prate; idle chat; trifling talk.

They ask'd her, how she lik'd the play?
Then told the *tattle* of the day.

Swift.

TATTLER, *s.* An idle talker; a prater.—Going from house to house, *tattlers*, busy bodies, which are the canker and rust of idleness, as idleness is the rust of time, are reproved by the apostle. *Ep. Taylor.*

TATTON, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 2 miles north of Nether Knutsford.

TATTO'O, *s.* [from *tapotes tous*, Fr.] The beat of drum by which soldiers are warned to their quarters.

All those whose hearts are loose and low,
Start if they hear but the *tattoo*.

Prior.

TATTOOING, a name given at Otaheite, and other islands of the South sea, to the operation of staining the body. For this purpose they prick the skin, so as just not to fetch blood, with a small instrument, somewhat in the form of a hoe, or blade of a saw; that part which answers to the blade is made of a bone or shell scraped very thin, and from a quarter of an inch to an inch and a half wide: the edge is cut into sharp teeth or points, from the number of three to twenty, according to its size. When this is to be used, they dip the teeth into a mixture of a kind of lamp-black, formed of the smoke that rises from an oily nut which they burn instead of candles, and water, or charcoal-dust diluted with water; the teeth, thus prepared, are placed upon the skin, and the handle to which they are fastened, being struck by quick smart blows, with a stick fitted for the purpose, they pierce it, and at the same time carry into the puncture the black composition, which leaves an indelible stain.

TATTORA, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapoor, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 17. 53. N. long. 74. 29. E.

TATTUBT, the remains of a considerable town in Algiers, the ancient *Tadutti*, where some beautiful granite pillars were some years since dug up, and placed in a mosque at Constantina; 25 miles south of Constantina.

TATU, in Zoology, the Brazilian name for the armadillo, or shell-hedge-hog, or *dasypus* of Linnæus. See *DASYPUS*.

TATU-Apara, the name of a creature of the armadillo kind, being three-banded or *tricinctus dasypus* of Linnæus. See **DASYPUS**.

TAU, in our *Ancient Customs*, signifies a cross.—“*Traddendo dicto comiti Thau eboreum.*” So Mr. Selden, in his notes upon Eadmerus, p. 159. “*Ego Eadgisa prædicti regis ava hoc opus egregium crucis Taumate consolidavi.*” See *Mon. tom. iii. p. 121.*

TAUAG, a village of Farsistan, in Persia; 39 miles south-east of Bender Rigg.

TAVAI POENAMMOO, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, being the most southerly of the two which form New Zealand, and separated from the northern island by a channel called Cook's Straits, discovered by Captain (then lieutenant) Cook, who sailed round them both in the year 1769. It is about 500 miles in length from south-west to north-east, and from 55 to 140 broad. The Endeavour passed nearer on the north-west coast than on the south-east. Captain Cook says, “On the 11th March, when we were off the southern part, the land then seen was craggy and mountainous, and there is great reason to believe that the same ridge of mountains extends nearly the whole length of the island. Between the westernmost land which we saw that day, and the easternmost, which we saw on the 13th, there is a space of about six or eight leagues, of which we did not see the coast, though we plainly discovered the mountains inland. The sea-coast near Cape West is low, rising with a gradual and easy ascent to the foot of the mountains, and being in most parts covered with wood. From Point Five Fingers down to lat. 44. 20. S., there is a narrow ridge of hills that rises directly from the sea, and is covered with wood. Close behind these hills are the mountains, extending in another ridge of a stupendous height, and consisting of rocks that are totally barren and naked, except where they were covered with snow, which was seen by Captain Cook in large patches upon many parts of them, and has probably lain there ever since the creation of the world. A prospect more rude, craggy, and desolate, than this country affords from the sea, cannot possibly be conceived; for as far inland as the eye can reach, nothing appears but the summits of rocks, which stand so near together, that instead of valleys there are only fissures between them. From lat. 44. 20. to lat. 42. 8. S., these mountains lie farther inland, and the sea-coast consists of woody hills and valleys of various height and extent, and has much appearance of fertility. Many of the valleys form plains of considerable extent, wholly covered with wood; but it is very probable that the ground in many places is swampy, and interspersed with pools of water. From lat. 42. 8. to 41. 30. S., the land is not distinguished by any thing remarkable: it rises into hills directly from the sea, and is covered with wood; but the weather being foggy while we were upon this part of the coast, we could see very little inland, except now and then the summits of the mountains, towering above the cloudy mists that obscured them below, which confirmed my opinion that a chain of mountains extended from one end of the island to the other.” Lat. 40. 36. to 47. 20. S. long. 184. 45. to 193. 18. W.

TAVALARO, CAPE, a promontory at the southern extremity of Sardinia. Lat. 38. 53. N. long. 8. 27. E.

TAVANDA, a river of Quito, in the province of Ibarra, which rises in the mountain desert of Cayamburu, and passing through the town of Ibarra, the capital, turns east, and enters the Mira.

TAVASTHUS, or **KRONEBURG**, a small town of European Russia, in Finland, formerly the capital of the district of Tavastland. It contains only 1700 inhabitants, and has a fortified castle, with an arsenal and magazines; 80 miles east-north-east of Abo. Lat. 61. 3. N. long. 24. 26. 30. E.

TAVASTLAND, the former name of a district of Finland, bounded by East Bothnia on the north, and by Nyland on the south. Its length from north to south is about 150 miles; its breadth from east to west varies from 35 to 100 miles.

TAVAYVORE, a small island near the east coast of Lewis. Lat. 58. 6. N. long. 6. 29. W.

TAUBE (Frederick William, Von), born in London in the year 1728. After the queen's death, the father settled at Zelle, where he died in 1742; and in the following year his son was entered at the university of Gottingen. Here he assiduously applied to the study of jurisprudence; and before he left the university, being in his 19th year, he published a dissertation “*De Differentiis Juris civilis a jure Natura,*” intended to prove that the principles of the Roman, Canon, and German law were contrary to the law of nature, and inconsistent with the rights of man. Being acquainted with the English language, he was appointed secretary to the Imperial ambassador at the court of London, and repaired hither in October, 1763. Here he married a niece of the celebrated Dean Tucker, with whom he lived in habits of intimacy and friendship. In 1766, he returned to Vienna, and was appointed secretary to the council of trade. When this college was dissolved, in 1776, he retired to Brussels. Having fulfilled another confidential commission with which he was entrusted, he returned from Belgrade to Vienna 1777, and was ennobled by the emperor, and appointed a member of the government of Lower Austria. His health being much impaired, required an attention which it did not suit his inclination or occupation to give it; his disorder, which was an inflammation of the lungs, increased, and terminated his life in June, 1778, in the 50th year of his age. He was justly honoured for his integrity, his zeal to serve his friends, and his liberality. His principal works are the tract already mentioned; “*Thoughts on the present state of our Colonies in America, on their Behaviour to the Mother-Country, and on the true interest of the Nation in regard of the Colonies,*” London, 1766; “*Historical and Political Sketch of the present state of the English Manufactures, Trade, Navigation, and Colonies, &c.*” 1774, 8vo.; “*History of the English Trade, &c., from the earliest Periods till the Year 1776, with an authentic Account of the true Causes of the present War with North America,*” 1776, 8vo.; “*J. J. Schetzen's Elements of Geography, improved and enlarged,*” 1786, 8vo.; “*Historical and Geographical Description of the Kingdom of Sclavonia and Duchy of Syrmia, &c., in three parts,*” 1777, 1778; “*An Account of various New Discoveries made in 1776 and 1777, in Sclavonia, &c. &c.*” Leipsic, 1777, 4to. He contributed also, between the years 1773 and 1778, to Busching's periodical publications. He also communicated to the Royal Society of London “*A short Account of a particular Kind of Torpedo found in the River Danube, with several Experiments on that Fish,*” published in the *Phil. Trans.* for 1775. *Gen. Biog.*

TAUBER, a river in the west of Germany, which rises in Franconia, and after watering the north-east angle of the Wirtemberg and Baden territories, falls into the Maine at Wertheim. It has a pretty large stream, but is not navigable.

TAUCA, a small river of Guiana, which enters the Cayra near its mouth.

TAUCHA, a small town of Germany, in Saxony, on the small river Parde; 6 miles north-east of Leipsic. Population 1300.

TAUD, a river of England, in Lancashire, which runs into the Dowles, near Lathom Park.

TAUDA, a river of Asiatic Russia, formed by the junction of the Sosva and the Losva, and which falls into the Tobol; 40 miles south of Tobolsk.

TAUDENY, a large village in the desert of Sahara, in Africa, on the caravan route from Morocco to Tombuctoo; 270 miles north-north-west of Tombuctoo.

TAUDICOOMBOO, a town of the south of India, district of Dindigul. Lat. 10. 24. N. long. 78. 2. E.

TAVE, a river of Wales, in Carmarthenshire, which runs into the Severn at St. Clear, near Laugharn.

TAVELA, a small river of Mexico, in the province of Culiacan, which runs into the sea in the gulf of California.

TAVERHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles north-west of Norwich.

TAVERN,

TA'VERN, *s.* [*taberna*, Lat.] A house where wine is sold, and drinkers are entertained.

Enquire at London, 'mong the *taverns* there;
For there they say he daily doth frequent,
With unrestrained loose companions.

Shakspeare.

TAVERNA, a small town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra. Population 2000; 12 miles east-north-east of Nicastro, and 22 south-south-east of Cosenza.

TA'VERNER, **TA'VERNKEEPER**, or **TA'VERNMAN**, *s.* [*tabernarius*, Lat.; *tavernier*, Fr.] One who keeps a tavern.—After local names, the most in number have been derived from occupations; as tailor, archer, *taverner*.
Camden.

TAVERNES, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Var. Population 1400; 20 miles north of Brignolles.

TAVERNIER (John Baptist), a distinguished traveller, was the son of a native of Antwerp, and born at Paris in the year 1605. The frequent inspection of the maps and charts sold by his father, inspired him with a passion for travelling; so that at the age of twenty-two he had made tours through France, England, the Low Countries, Germany, Switzerland, Poland, Hungary, and Italy. In his business as a jeweller he was eminently skilful; and he employed 40 years in six journies in Turkey, Persia, and the East Indies, by all the practicable routes. Having acquired great wealth, on his return from his sixth journey in 1668, he determined as a Protestant to live under a free government; and, with this view, purchased the barony of Aubonne, near the lake of Geneva. But having suffered very considerable loss of property by the misconduct of a nephew, he sold his barony in 1687, and commenced a seventh journey, which terminated his life at Moscow in 1689, at the age of 84. Destitute of talents for writing, he employed Sam. Chappuzeau of Geneva to arrange his memoirs, which is said to have been no easy task. The fruit of this labour was given to the public in two volumes, describing his six journies, in 1679; and another was added in 1681, by La Chapelle, containing an account of Japan and Tonquin, with a history of the colony of the Dutch in the East Indies. These memoirs of Tavernier, notwithstanding reflections on his veracity, and charges of plagiarism, have been often cited as authority by later writers. Gibbon represents him as "the jeweller who saw so much and so well." *Bayle. Moreri. Gen. Biog.*

TAVERNIER KEY, a small isle on the north coast of Cuba, one of the Tortugas; 2 miles from the south-west end of Key Largo, and 5 north-east of Old Matabombe. To the northward of this last island is a very good road.

TA'VERNING, *s.* Act of feasting at taverns.—The misrule of our *tavernings*. *Bp. Hall.*

TAUFERS, the name of two large villages of the Austrian states, both in Tyrol. The one is 37 miles south-east of Innspruck; the other on the borders of Switzerland; 4 miles west of Glurantz.

TAUGHT, *pret. and part. passive of teach.*—How hast thou satisfy'd me, *taught* to live. *Milton.*

TAULE, a village of Lower Egypt, on the Nile; 2 miles north of Mansora.

TAVIRA, or **TAVILA**, a sea-port in the south of Portugal, in Algarva, at the mouth of the river Segua, which divides it into two. It is surrounded by a wall, and farther defended by a castle: there are also two small forts at the mouth of the harbour. The house of the governor of Algarva, who resides here, is an elegant structure, and the town is, on the whole, tolerably built. It has two churches, an hospital, five convents, and about 5000 inhabitants. The entrance of the harbour is obstructed by a sand-bank; but the export trade, in figs, almonds, and other fruit, is considerable. The fishery also is abundant; 140 miles south-south-east of Lisbon, and 12 west of Castromarin. Lat. 37. 7. 15. N. long. 7. 34. 15. E.

TAVISTOCK, a market town and borough of England, in Devonshire, situated on the river Tavy or Tave, from

which it derives its name. It is one of the stannary towns, and is large, populous, and well built. The streets are narrow, and but indifferently paved, and many of the houses have an appearance of age. The church is a spacious building, dedicated to St. Eustatius. It consists of four aisles, a chancel, and a tower at the west end, raised on arches. Sir Francis Drake, the celebrated navigator, was a native of this place. Many of the inhabitants of the town are employed in the manufacture of serges for the East India Company. The town contains 503 houses, and 4723 inhabitants. Market on Friday; 32 miles west-by-south of Exeter, and 206 west-by-south of London. Lat. 50. 33. N. long. 4. 8. W.

TAUJEPOOR, a town of Bengal, district of Purneah. It formerly had a cantonment for a battalion of native infantry. Lat. 25. 45. N. long. 88. 15. E.—There are several other places of this name.

TAULE, a small town in the north-west of France, department of Finisterre, with 2500 inhabitants, and some paper manufactures; 3 miles north-west of Morlaix, and 33 north-east of Brest.

TAULIGNAN, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Drome, with 1400 inhabitants, employed partly in the manufacture of silk; 14 miles south-east of Montelimart.

TAULLAR, or **JAULAH MHOORKEE**, a town of Upper Hindostan, province of Lahore, and district of Nadone. It contains a temple, held in high estimation by the Hindoos, on account of a volcanic flame which issues from the side of a mountain in its vicinity, believed by the credulous to be an emanation of the Deity. Lat. 32. 5. N. long. 75. 45. E.

TAUMAGO, an island in the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Quiros in 1606; about 24 or 25 miles in circumference. The island abounds with bananas, cocoa-trees, and palms; it produces also sugar canes, and many kinds of nutritious roots. The fleet here obtained, without difficulty, refreshments, water and wood, of which it stood in great need. The Spaniards lived on good terms with the natives, who were eager to procure them all the assistance that their island afforded; nor was peace infringed till the very moment of their departure. Thinking that it would be of service in the remainder of their voyage, to have some Indians on board, who might act as guides or interpreters, the Spaniards seized four, whom they carried on board by force. Their chief was soon informed of it, and came to demand them in the most earnest manner; but they were refused, and war was instantly declared. A fleet of canoes came out to attack the Spanish ships, which their fire arms quickly dispersed, and would totally have destroyed, had not these brave islanders, with all their courage, been sensible of their inferiority. Lat. 10. S. long. 169. 25. E.

TAUME, a river of England, which rises in Yorkshire, and runs into the Mersey at Stopford, in Lancashire, opposite Stockport.

TAUNDA, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude, advantageously situated on the south side of the river Goggrah, celebrated for its manufacture of cotton cloths, particularly table linen, made in imitation of diaper and dimity. The vicinity also produces indigo, sugar, &c. It is in consequence the residence of several European merchants. Lat. 26. 33. N. long. 82. 38. E.

TAUNDA, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, and district of Cambay. Lat. 22. 55. N. long. 74. 29. E.

TAUNDLA, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 4. N. long. 74. 38. E.

To **TAUNT**, *v. a.* [*tanser*, Fr. *Skinner. Tanden*, Dutch, *to shew teeth. Minsheu*. And thus Serenius refers it to the ancient word *tand*, dens, a tooth; *tanna*, Icel. dentibus mandere, carpere; not without offering also to notice the Swed. *danta*, which means to censure, to blame.] To reproach; to insult; to revile; to ridicule; to treat with insolence and contumelies.

When I had at my pleasure *taunted* her,
She in mild terms begg'd my patience.

Shakspeare.

To

To exprobrate; to mention with upbraiding.

Rail thou in Fulvia's phrase, and *taunt* my faults
With such full licence. *Shakspeare.*

TAUNT, *s.* Insult; scoff; reproach; ridicule.

With scoffs and scorns, and contumelious *taunts*,
In open market-place produc'd they me,
To be a public spectacle. *Shakspeare.*

TAUNTER, *s.* One who taunts, reproaches, or insults.
Huloet.

TAUNTINGLY, *adv.* With insult; scoffingly; with
contumely and exprobaton.

It *tauntingly* replied
To th' discontented members, th' mutinous parts,
That envied his receipt. *Shakspeare.*

TAUNTON, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Somerset. It is situated upon the river Tone, is one of the principal towns in the county, and, in point of size, buildings, and the respectability of its inhabitants, may vie with many cities. It extends in length nearly a mile from east to west, and consists of four principal streets, with various minor ones branching off. The streets are wide and airy; the houses are very well built, and most of them have small gardens behind, which add greatly to their healthiness, as well as to the convenience of the inhabitants. The country in the vicinity is the most delightful imaginable; and the vale of Taunton, or Taunton Dean, is proverbial for its fertile soil and temperate climate. The public buildings are the churches, the market-house and town-hall, with the free grammar school. The parish churches are two in number, viz., St. Mary Magdalen's and St. James's. St. Mary's is a very elegant and splendid building, situated near the centre of the town. It is built in the Gothic style of architecture, whence it has been supposed to have been founded by Henry VII. as were several other churches in Somersetshire, in token of his gratitude to the county for their steady adherence to the house of Lancaster. Besides the parish churches, there are several dissenting meeting-houses in the town. The largest, as well as the oldest, is called Paul's meeting-house.

The market-house stands in the centre of the town, and is a handsome and commodious building, with several apartments for different purposes. In the lower part is the town-hall, and a coffee-room furnished with newspapers, &c. On the first floor there is an elegant assembly-room, 50 feet long, and 30 wide, in which hang two superb chandeliers, presented to the inhabitants of Taunton by the late colonel Coxe, when representative for the county. In the upper floor is a handsome room, supplied with a billiard-table. On each side of this house is a large wing or arcade, for the accommodation of those who attend the markets with poultry, butter, and other articles of provisions. The corn-market is also held in one of the arcades. In front is a spacious area, on which are erected moveable stalls, placed in rows, for the use of the butchers. This area is inclosed by posts and chains. In the middle of it, to the north, is a noble pavement of broad stones, 216 feet in length, and 18 broad, which is called the Parade. The free grammar school of Taunton was founded in the reign of Henry VII. by Richard Fox, bishop of Winchester. It was liberally endowed about the year 1553, by William Walbee. The charitable institutions in Taunton consist of several alms-houses, two work-houses, and an hospital or infirmary. The work-houses support a considerable number of poor. Taunton hospital is an oblong building, situate in East Reach, and was erected by subscription in 1811, to commemorate the jubilee kept in honour of his late majesty's having attained the 50th year of his reign. The building which was erected about 50 years ago for the purpose of an hospital, has been converted into a convent, and is now inhabited by nuns of the order of St. Bridget, who came into England during the troubles occasioned by the revolution in France. Part of the castle of Taunton still remains. It was originally built by Ina, king of the West Saxons, so early as

the year 700. On the north side of the town stands a farmhouse, called the Priory, near to which there was once a priory of black canons, which was founded by William Gifford, bishop of Winchester, in the reign of Henry I. Besides this, there were several chapels and chantries in Taunton, all of which were dependent on the mother church, in the convent dedicated to St. Peter and St. Paul. Taunton carries on some manufactures, and also a considerable trade to Bridgewater by means of the Tone, which is navigable for small craft. It was for a long period the principal seat of the manufacture of coarse woollen goods, such as serges, druggets, shalloons, &c. This manufacture flourished here soon after its introduction into England by the memorable John Kemp, from Flanders.

Large quantities of malt liquor are sent from this town to Bristol for exportation. Taunton is an ancient borough by prescription, but its rights were confirmed by a charter at a very early period. In the reign of Charles II. it was deprived of its charter by that prince, on account of its adherence to the parliament during the reign of his father. He restored its privileges, however, about 17 years thereafter. During the existence of its charter, the corporation consisted of a mayor, recorder, two aldermen, 24 capital burgesses, a town-clerk, two constables, and two serjeants-at-mace. Besides these magistrates, there were six gentlemen, justices of the peace at large, with powers to act within the borough. The mayor and aldermen were elected annually from among the burgesses. About 1792, the corporate body was dissolved, and the charter lost, on account of the number of members having been allowed to decrease below a majority of the whole.

Taunton is a place of great antiquity, and numerous Roman coins have been found in the neighbourhood. It is certain that it was a place of some note in the time of the Saxons, from the circumstance of king Ina building his castle here. In 1821 Taunton contained 1503 houses, and 8539 inhabitants. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday, which are very considerable; 31 miles north-east of Exeter, and 140 west of London. Lat. 51. 1. N. long. 3. 6. W.

TAUNTON, a post township of the United States, and capital of Bristol county, Massachusetts, on the river Taunton. Lat. 41. 24. N. long. 71. 10. W.

TAUNTON, a river of the United States, which empties into Narraganset bay, at Tiverton, opposite the north end of Rhode Island. It is formed by several streams which rise in Plymouth county, Massachusetts. Its course is about 50 miles from north-east to south-west, and it is navigable for small vessels to Taunton, which is about 20 miles.

TAUNTON-DEAN, or the VALE OF TAUNTON, a district of England, in the county of Somerset, extending about 30 miles along the course of the river Tone, and noted for its remarkable fertility and produce.

TAVO POINT, a cape on the north coast of Java. Lat. 6. 27. S. long. 111. 4. E.

TAVOLARA, a small island on the north-east coast of Sardinia, in front of the entrance of the harbour of Terra Nova. The only occupants of this island are wild goats.

TAVORA, a small town of the north of Portugal, in the province of Beria; 6 miles east of Lamego.

TAVOY, a town of the Birman empire, province of Pegue, and district of Martaban. It is advantageously situated on the eastern side of a fine bay, formed by an extensive island of the same name, and were it not for the jealousy of its present possessors, might be a place of considerable commerce. Tavoy formerly belonged to the king of Siam, but was taken by the Birmans in 1785. It was besieged the following year by the Siamese, but was so well defended, or rather the besiegers so awkward, that it remained in possession of the conquerors till the year 1790, when bribery caused the gates to be opened, and restored it to the monarch of Siam. It was again taken by the Birmans in 1792, and confirmed to them by the treaty of peace of 1793. Lat. 13. 20. N. -long. 98. 20. E.

TAURAT, a settlement on the island of Cuba; 38 miles north-north-east of St. Jago.

TAURE, a town of Bengal, district of Mongier. Lat. 24. 31. N. long. 86. 50. E.

TAVRIA, a small town in the north of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Turin. Population 2300.

TAURICASTRO, or **TAURO CASTRO**, a small town of Greece, in Livadia, opposite to Negroponte; 20 miles north-east of Athens.

TAURICORNOUS, *adj.* [*taurus* and *cornu*, Latin.] Having horns like a bull.—Their descriptions must be relative, or the *tauricornous* picture of the one the same with the other. *Brown*.

TAURIDA, a government in the south of European Russia, which consists in the following parts:—1st. The peninsula of the Crimea; 2d, a considerable tract to the north of the peninsula, between the Dnieper and the Berda; 3d, the island of Taman, or Tmutarakan; 4th, the land of the Tschernomorski, or Black Sea Cossacs, lying to the east of the Crimea. This province lies between lat. 44. 32. and 47. 50. N.; and between long. 31. 36. and 40. 24. E.: has a superficial extent of 25,000 square miles, fully equal to that of Scotland; but the inhabitants are so thinly scattered, that their number does not exceed 260,000, making hardly 74 to the square mile. The province is divided into six circles, besides the isle of Taman, and the land of the Czernomorski Cossacs. This name is also given to the range of mountains which form a sweep along the whole coast of the Crimea from east to west.

TAURIS, a great city of Persia, which at different periods has been the capital of the empire. Its antiquity has been the subject of much discussion, Sir William Jones and other writers conceiving it to be the ancient *Ecbatana*. D'Anville, however, imagines it to be Gaza, or Ganzaca, where Cyrus deposited the treasures of Croesus, and which was afterwards taken by Heraclius. It was a favourite city of Haroun al Raschid, and, according to Persian tradition, which, however, is little to be trusted, was founded by Zobeida, one of his wives. It was probably to him at least that it was indebted for that extraordinary magnitude and splendour which it once exhibited. Situated near the frontier of contending empires, it has alternately been the object of contest to Turks, Tartars, and Persians, and has been taken and sacked eight different times. It has suffered still more by earthquakes, which have repeatedly levelled its proudest edifices with the ground. The last, in 1724, is supposed to have destroyed 100,000 inhabitants. At present Tauris does not contain more than 30,000 people, and is, on the whole, one of the most wretched cities in Persia. It is seated in an immense plain at the foot of a mountain, on the banks of a small river, the waters of which are consumed in the cultivation of the land. The ruins of the ancient city cover a great extent of ground, but exhibit a very mean appearance, being nothing but a confused heap of old mud walls. Lat. 38. 10. N. long. 46. 37. E.

TAUROBOLIUM, or **TAUROBOLION**, among the ancients, sacrifices of bulls, which were offered to Cybele, the mother of the gods, to render thanks to the goddess of the earth, for her teaching men the art to tame those animals, and fit them for labour.

TAUROGEN, a small and ill built town of Russian Lithuania, in Samogitia, government of Wilna; 35 miles south of Miedniki.

TAVROV, a town in the south-east of European Russia, in the government of Voronez, situated near a river of the same name. It consists of two adjoining villages, and is inhabited by soldiers, and carpenters who build the boats used in the navigation of the Don. In 1744, all the public buildings were destroyed by fire; 47 miles south east of Voronez.

TAURUS, the name which Europeans give to a lofty chain of mountains, situated in the eastern part of Asia Minor, where it borders on Syria, called by the Turks Gebel Kurin.

TAURUS, *s.* The second sign in the zodiac.—Were we not born under *Taurus*? *Shakspeare*.

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TAURUS, in some ancient customs, signifies a husband.—Leg. H. I. cap. 7. "Videtur autem matris ejus, cujuscunque taurus alluserit."

TAURUS, in Entomology, a species of scarabæus.—Also, a species of cicada, found in Coromandel.—Also, a species of cimex.—In Ornithology, the bittern or butter-pump.—In Zoology. See *Bos*.

TAUSS, **DOMAGLIEZE**, or **DRASTOW**, a town of Bohemia, 15 miles west of Klatau, and 80 west-south-west of Prague. It is surrounded with a wall, contains 4400 inhabitants, and has large manufactures of thread and linen.

TAUSTE, a neat town in the north east of Spain, in Arragon, on the small river Riguel, near its influx into the Ebro. It contains 3200 inhabitants, and is situated in a fruitful district. A canal from this place forms the great canal of Arragon, and promotes the internal trade of the country; 27 miles north-west of Saragossa, and 170 east-north-east of Madrid.

TAUTENBURG, a large village of Germany, in the grand duchy of Saxe Weimar; 1 mile east-south-east of Dornburg.

TAUTOLOGICAL, *adj.* [*tautologique*, Fr.] Repeating the same thing.—Pleonasm of words, *tautological* repetitions. *Burton*.

TAUTOLOGIST, *s.* One who repeats the same thing.—*To TAUTOLOGIZE*, *v. n.* To repeat the same thing.—That in this brief description the wise man should *tautologize*, is not to be supposed. *Smith*.

TAUTOLOGY, *s.* [*ταυτολογία*; *ταυτο* and *λογος*, Gr.; *tautologie*, Fr.] Repetition of the same words, or of the same sense in different words.

Saint Andre's feet ne'er kept more equal time,
Not ev'n the feet of thy own Psyche's rhyme;
Though they in numbers as in sense excel,
So just, so like *tautology* they fell.

Dryden.

Every paper addressed to our beautiful incendiaries, hath been filled with different considerations, that enemies may not accuse me of *tautology*. *Addison*.

TAUVES, a petty town of France, in Auvergne, department of the Puy de Dome, on the small river Mourgagne. Population 2100; 23 miles south-west of Clermont, and 30 west of Issoire.

TAVY, **ST. MARY**, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4 miles north-east of Tavistock. Population 631.

TAVY, **ST. PETER'S**, a parish in the above county, half-a-mile distant from the foregoing.

TAW, a river of England, in the county of Devon. It rises near the centre of the county, about 3 miles south-east of Oakhampton, flows to Barnstaple, and then turns westerly, and joins the Towridge, at its mouth, in the Bristol Channel.

To TAW, *v. a.* [*tauwen*, Dutch; *tauwan*, Sax.] To dress white leather commonly called alum leather, in contradistinction from *tan* leather, that which is dressed with bark.

He's to be made more tractable, I doubt not—

Yes, if they *taw* him as they do whit-leather
Upon an iron, or beat him soft like stock-fish,

Beaumont.

TAW, *s.* A marble to play with.

Trembling I've seen thee
Mix with the children as they play'd at *taw*;
Nor fear the marbles as they bounding flew,
Marbles to them, but rolling rocks to you.

Swift.

TAWALLY ISLE, one of the Gilolo islands; 35 miles long from north to south, and 6 in average breadth. Lat 0. 21. S. long. 127. 14. E.

TAWANDEE, a township of the United States, in Bradford county, Pennsylvania. Population 783.

TAWANDEE CREEK, a river of the United States, in the north part of Pennsylvania, which runs east into the Susquehannah, about 10 miles above Asylum.

TAWAY TOWN, an Indian station in North America, on the Ohio, near the sources of the Au-Glaize.

TA'WDRILY, *adv.* In a tawdry manner. Pulteney uses it in a letter to Swift.

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TA'WDRINESS,

TAWDRINESS, *s.* Tinsel finery; finery ostentatious without elegance.—A clumsy beau makes his ungracefulness appear the more ungraceful by his *tawdriness* of dress. *Richardson*,

TAWDRY, *adj.* [from Stawdrey, Saint Awdrey, or Saint Etheldred, as the things bought at Saint Etheldred's fair. Henshaw, Skinner.] Meanly shewy; splendid without cost; fine without grace; shewy without elegance. It is used both of things and of persons wearing them.

Old Romulus and father Mars look down,
Your herdsman primitive, your homely clown,
Is turn'd a beau in a loose *tawdry* gown.

Dryden.

TAWDRY, *s.* A slight ornament; a kind of necklace worn by country wenches.

Not the smallest beck,
But with white pebbles makes her *tawdries*, for her neck.

Drayton.

TAWED, *part. adj.* Of the colour of tan; embrowned. His knuckles knob'd, his flesh deep dented in,
With *tawed* hands and hard ytanned skin. *Sackville.*

TAWEETAWEE, the chief of a cluster of islands, 56 in number, composing part of the Sooloo archipelago. There is a lake in the centre, abounding in crocodiles, and an island near the shore, which affords refuge to fugitive slaves. Few inhabitants dwell in Tawetawee. The other islands are of various size, some high, others merely rocks; and all these have inhabitants, though but thinly peopled. Fish are very plentiful in the sea; and in the channels separating them are valuable pearl oysters. Most of the islands are named after the different parts of the human body, from a supposed resemblance.

TAWER, *s.* [from *taw*; *taupepe*. Sax.] A dresser of leather. *Barret.*

TAWNY, *adj.* [*tané*, *tanné*, Fr.] Yellow, like things tanned.

This child of fancy that armado hight,
For interim to our studies shall relate,
In high-born words, the worth of many a knight
From *tawny* Spain, lost in the world's debate. *Shakspeare.*

TAWSTOCK, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 3 miles south-by-west of Barnstaple. Population 1136.

TAWTON, **BISHOP'S**, a parish of England, in Devonshire, situated on the river Taw. It was the first bishop's see in the county, from whence it was removed to Crediton, and afterwards to Exeter. Population 978; 2½ miles south-by-east of Barnstaple.

TAWTON, **NORTH**, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 6½ miles north-east of Oakhampton. Population 1417.

TAWTON, **SOUTH**, a parish in the same county; 4½ miles east of Oakhampton. Population 1516.

TAWY, a river of Wales, in Brecknockshire and Glamorganshire, which runs into the Bristol Channel, at Swansea.

TAX, *s.* [*tāsg*, Welsh; *taxe*, Fr., *taxe*, Dutch.] An impost; a tribute imposed; an excise; tallage.—He, says Horace, being the son of a *tax* gatherer or collector, smells everywhere of the meanness of his birth. *Dryden.*—[*taxo*, Lat.] charge; censure.

All private *taxes*, and immodest phrases,
Whatever may but shew like vicious;
For wicked mirth never true pleasure brings,
But honest minds are pleas'd with honest things. *Beaum.*

[*taxa*, low Lat.] Task; lesson to be learned. *Obsolete.*—At the archdeacon's visitation, the archdeacon shall appoint the curate to certain *taxes* of the New Testament, to be conned without book; and at their next synod to exact a rehearsal of them. *Articles of Eccl. Visitation and Inquiry.*

To TAX, *v. a.* [*taxer*, Fr.] To load with imposts.—Jehoiakim gave the silver and gold to Pharaoh, but he *taxed* the land to give the money. 2 *Kings*. [*Taxo*, Lat.] To charge; to censure: to accuse.—It has *of* or *with*, and some-

times *for*, before the fault imputed, and is used both of persons and things.—How many hath he killed; I promised to eat all of his killing.—Niece, you *tax* signior Benedick too much; but he'll be meet with you. *Shakspeare.*

TAXABLE, *adj.* That may be taxed. *Sherwood.*

TAXAMALCA, a town of Mexico; 60 miles south of Mexico.

TAXAMARCA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan; 40 miles east of Mechoacan.

TAXATION, *s.* [*taxatio*, Lat.,] The act of loading with taxes; impost; tax.—I bring no overture of war, no *taxation* of homage; my words are as full of peace as matter. *Shakspeare.*—Accusation; scandal.—My father's love is enough to honour; speak no more of him, you'll be whipt for *taxation* one of these days. *Shakspeare.*

TAXATION.—Taxes should properly imply that money which a nation pays to its servants for the management of its business. This money is to be expended in protecting the state against other nations, or otherwise establishing foreign relations; in the expenses necessary for the administration of the laws; or, lastly, in paying these servants for their labour. The necessity of these disbursements is as great as it is obvious; and hence, while they are properly managed, no good citizen or reasonable man can for an instant demur to contribute his portion of them. But since, by a very excellent provision of nature, men, while uncivilized, are less governed by decisions founded on reason than by the powers of terror and authority, the servants to whom these important powers belonged, were originally *rulers*, and *imposed* a tribute rather than received a reward. In more advanced states of civilization it might appear that this supremacy would no longer be allowed; but when it is considered that we can never expect any state to exist in which force may not be required to compel the refractory to pay their taxes; that authority pays for those devoted services which money never can obtain, but which a state perpetually requires. It is perceived that the union of servant and ruler is natural and proper, and must always continue to a certain extent.

The above being our definition of taxation, it follows that a scheme of taxation is to be sought for and adopted, which will at once serve the ends in view, at the least possible expenditure, and require as little delegation of arbitrary power as is absolutely essential. But this being stated, who is to fix how much, either absolutely or relatively, is necessary for preventing the aggression of foreign states, for repelling invasion, for making war, for obtaining commercial advantages, for preventing dangerous coalitions, and for administering justice with impartiality, for giving her all the pomp necessary to authority, and her officers the fortune necessary to ensure incorruptibility. Or again, how can we lay down the exact degree of power which is absolutely necessary to enforce the payment of contributions, or to give consequence to public servants whether at home or abroad. These great questions are not to be settled without much information and deep reflexion, even in the most general way. And every rule must be essentially modified by the peculiar circumstances of different nations. As we have not the materials necessary to settle those questions, we shall not enter upon them, and have merely stated them in order to establish the problem that is to be solved, leaving its solution to time and abler hands.

But if we cannot decide how much taxation is exactly required, there are some points which are of great importance to human happiness, and have received the consideration of enlightened men. In all these investigations, we conceive writers have been too much led away by a narrow economy; but, nevertheless, economy is of so much importance, that it deserves from states, as well as individuals, every attention. The following maxims are laid down by Dr. Smith with regard to all taxes, and are drawn up with great judgment and comprehension:—

First maxim. "The subjects of every state ought to contribute towards the support of the government, as nearly as possible, in proportion to their respective abilities; that is, *in proportion to the revenue which they respectively enjoy*
under

under the protection of the state. The expense of government to the individuals of a great nation is like the expense of management to the joint tenants of a great estate. In the observation or neglect of this maxim consists what is called the equality or inequality of taxation."

Second. "The tax which each individual is bound to pay ought to be certain, and not arbitrary. The *time* of payment, the *manner* of payment, the *quantity* to be paid, ought all to be clear and plain to the contributor and to every other person. When it is otherwise, every person subject to the tax is put, more or less, in the power of the tax-gatherer, who can either aggravate the tax upon any obnoxious contributor, or extort, by the terror of such aggravation, some present or perquisite to himself. The uncertainty of taxation encourages the insolence and favours the corruption of an order of men who are naturally unpopular, even where they are neither insolent nor corrupt. The certainty of what each individual ought to pay is, in taxation, of so great importance, that a very considerable degree of inequality, it appears, I believe, from the experience of all nations, is not near so great an evil as a very small degree of uncertainty."

Third. "Every tax ought to be levied at the time and in the manner in which it is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay it. A tax upon the rent of land, or of houses, payable at the same term at which rents are usually paid, is levied at the time when it is most likely to be convenient for the contributor to pay, or when he is most likely to have wherewithal to pay. Taxes upon such consumable goods as are articles of luxury, are all finally paid by the consumer, and generally in a manner that is very convenient for him. He buys them by little and little, as he has occasion to buy the goods; and as he is at liberty, too, either to buy or not to buy as he pleases, it must be his own fault if he ever suffers any considerable inconvenience from such taxes."

Fourth. "Every tax ought to be so contrived as both to take out and to keep out of the pockets of the people as little as possible, over and above what it brings into the public treasury of the state."—*Wealth of Nations*, iii. p. 255.

TAXER, *s.* One who taxes.—These rumours begot scandal against the king, taxing him for a great *taxer* of his people. *Bacon*.

TAXIMAROA, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Valladolid; 5 leagues south of Valladolid. Its population consists of above 600 families of Spaniards, Indians, and mulattoes.

TAXUS [of Pliny, &c.], in Botany, a genus of the class, dioecia, order monadelphia, natural order of coniferae. Generic Character.—Male. Calyx none; except a bud like a four-leaved perianth. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments numerous, united at bottom into a column, longer than the bud. Anthers depressed, blunt at the edge, eight-cleft, gaping every way at the base, and, when they have discharged their pollen, flat, peltate, and remarkable for their eight-cleft margin.—Female. Calyx as in the male. Corolla none. Pistil: germ ovate, acuminate. Style none. Stigma obtuse. Pericarp: berry from the receptacle elongated into a præputium, globular, succulent, gaping at the top, coloured, at length wasting from dryness, and evanescent. Seed one, ovate-oblong, prominent at the top, beyond the berry. *Essential Character*.—Male. Calyx none. Corolla none. Stamina many. Anthers peltate eight-cleft.—Female. Corolla none. Style none. Seed one, in a berried calycle that is quite entire.

1. *Taxus baccata*, or common yew tree.—Trunk straight, with a smooth deciduous bark. Wood hard. Leaves thickly set, evergreen. Flowers axillary.—The yew tree is a native of Europe, North America and Japan. Its proper situation is in mountainous woods, or more particularly the clefts of high calcareous rocks. Yew trees sometimes grow to an enormous size, one in the church-yard of Crowhurst in Surrey, was ten yards in compass. Another in Branburne church-yard, not far from Scots-Hall in Kent, which being fifty-eight feet eleven inches in circumference, will bear near

twenty-feet diameter. Such another is also to be seen in Sutton church-yard near Winchester. Near the church at Hedsor in Bucks, is a fine growing yew-tree, which measures twenty-seven feet in circumference. Other remarkable yews that are mentioned are, one at Ifley by Oxford, four yards and six inches round. Talbot's Yew in Takersley parish. One in Martley church-yard, Worcestershire, about twelve yards in circumference. In the church-yard at Ashill, in Somersetshire, are two very large yew-trees; one fifteen feet round, with a vast spread of branches, extending north and south fifty-six feet. The other divides into three large trunks just above the ground, but many of the arms are decayed. Two trees are now growing on the hill above Fountain's abbey, near Ripon, which in 1770 measured in circumference from thirteen feet to twenty-six feet six inches. In the church-yard at Aberistwith are eleven yew-trees, the largest twenty-four feet, and the smallest eleven and a half in circumference. In Mankilad church-yard are twelve fine trees, the largest of which is twenty-five feet in circumference. Doubtless there must be many large ancient yew-trees remaining in Wales.

The twigs and leaves of yew, eaten in a very small quantity, are certain death to horses and cows, and that in a few minutes. A horse tied to a yew-hedge, or to a faggot-stack of dead yew, shall be found dead before the owner can be aware that any danger is at hand; the writer has been several times a sorrowful witness to losses of this kind among his friends; and in the isle of Ely had once the mortification to see nine young steers or bullocks of his own all lying dead in an heap from browsing a little on an hedge of yew in an old garden, into which they had broken in snowy weather. Even the clippings of a yew edge have destroyed a whole dairy of cows when thrown inadvertently into a yard. And yet sheep and turkeys, and, as park-keepers say, deer, will crop these trees with impunity.

Some intelligent persons assert, that the branches of yew, while green, are not noxious: but among the number of cattle that we have known fall victims to this deadly food, not one has been found, when it was opened, but had a lump of green yew in its paunch. True it is, that yew-trees stand for twenty years or more in a field, and no bad consequences ensue: but at some time or other, cattle, either from wantonness when full, or from hunger when empty, will be meddling, to their certain destruction. In the south of England almost every church-yard has its yew-tree, and some have two; but in the north few are to be found.

2. *Taxus nucifera*, or acorn-bearing yew.—Leaves linear distant. The fruit resembles the acorns of the Oak, and is astringent. The wood is in request among the cabinet-makers.—Native of Japan, here and there near Nagasaki and in Nipou.

3. *Taxus macrophylla*, or long leaved yew.—Leaves solitary, lanceolate remote. The wood is used by the cabinet-makers.—Native of Japan near Nagasaki, &c. It flowers in June.

4. *Taxus verticillata*, or whorl-leaved yew.—Leaves whorled linear, sickle-shaped.—Native of Japan.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the berries in autumn, as soon as they are ripe, without clearing them from the pulp upon a shady bed of fresh undunged soil, covering them about half an inch thick with the same earth. In the spring clear the bed carefully from weeds, and if the season prove dry, refresh the bed with water occasionally, to promote the growth of the seeds, many of which will come up the same spring, but others will remain in the ground until autumn or spring following; but where the seeds are preserved above ground, until spring before they are sown, the plants never come up until the year after.

The Yew may likewise be propagated by cuttings of one or two years growth, planted in a shady border, the beginning of April, or the end of August: torn branches are preferable for this purpose.

TAY, one of the largest rivers in Scotland. It has its rise on the frontiers of Lorn, Argyllshire, although it does not assume the name of Tay till it issues from the lake of that name. At its source, it has the name of Fillan, winding in an easterly

easterly course of some miles; its stream is considerably augmented by several brooks falling into it from the neighbouring hills. About 10 miles from its source it discharges itself into Loch Dochart. Issuing from thence, it loses the name of Fillan, and acquires that of Dochart, giving the name of Glendochart to the vale through which it runs. At the eastern extremity of this vale, it, besides other streams, receives the waters of Lochy from the north-west; and shortly after, the united streams are lost in Loch Tay. About two miles after leaving this lake, it receives a considerable addition to its size from the Lyon on the north-west, and it continues its course towards the east. At Logierait it is joined by the united streams of the Garry and Tummel from the north, a river which almost rivals it in size. Here it turns towards the south; and receiving the waters of the Bran from the south, near Dunkeld, it advances to Perth, augmented by various tributary streams, particularly the Isla at Kinclaven from the north-east, the Schochie at Loncarty, and the Almond about two miles above the bridge of Perth, both from the west. A little below this town it turns to the east, and receiving, as it proceeds, the waters of the Ern at Inehyra, it washes the coast of the Carse of Gowrie, a fine level, which, in all probability, was part of its former channel. After receiving the Erne, it enlarges itself to about three miles broad; but contracts to two miles at Dundee, about eight miles below which it opens into the German ocean. At the entrance of the frith, there are sand-banks on both sides; those on the south side named Goa, and on the north Aberlady and Drumlon; and before these, in the very mouth of the frith, lie the Cross sands, upon which a buoy is moored, to direct vessels into the river. On the Buttonness, or Barry sands, are two light-houses. Between the north and south sands, the opening may be about a mile, with about three fathoms water; but it soon turns wider, and the depth of the roads near Dundee is full six fathoms. The river is navigable as far as Newburgh, in Fife, for vessels of 500 tons; and vessels of considerable size can go up as far as Perth. The frith of Tay is not so commodious as that of the Forth; but, from the Buttonness to Perth (nearly 40 miles), the whole may be considered as a harbour. There are fewer great falls of water on the Tay than in most rivers which rise in a Highland district; but it possesses several cascades of considerable height, particularly at the Linn of Campsie, near its junction with the Isla, where the river is precipitated over a huge basaltic dike, into a pool of great depth. There are only a few small islands near the town of Perth, and Mugdrum's Inch, near Newburgh. The salmon fishery on the Tay is very extensive, and the rents of the river are about 7000*l.* sterling. The fishing begins on the 11th of December, and ends on the 26th of August.

TAY, a river of Ireland, in the county of Waterford, which runs into the sea; 7 miles west-north-west from Dunganarvan bay.

TAY, *Loch*, one of the most beautiful of the Scottish lakes, lies in Braidalbin, in Perthshire. It extends about 15 miles in length, and from 1 to 2 in breadth, receiving at its south-west extremity the united streams of the Dochart and Lochy, and pours forth its waters at the north-east end by the river Tay.

TAYA ISLE, a small island in the Eastern seas, situated off the east coast of Sumatra. In this neighbourhood there are many very small islands scattered, among which from 50 to 100 chests of opium may be disposed of; for which pepper, gold, tin, and rattans, are the returns. The inhabitants being all pirates, it is necessary that trading vessels be well armed, and constantly on their guard. Lat. 6. 48. N. long. 105. 5. E.

TAYABO, a town on the east coast of the island of Celebes, in Gunong Tellu bay. Lat. 1. 10. S. long. 121. 30. E.

TAYAC, a small stream in Mexico, which discharges itself into the gulf of Mexico, in about 29. 50. north lat., and 97. west long.

TAYBA, or THAIBE, a ruined town in the deserts of Syria, which shows, in its present state, evident marks of

its former magnificence. In 1691, it was inhabited by some Mahometans, who had had a mosque supposed to have been the remains of a Christian church; but the whole is now desolate, and the houses in ruins.

TAYEQUA, a settlement of South America, in the province of Darion, in the gulf of San Miguel.

TAYLOR (Brook), LL.D. and F.R.S., an eminent mathematician, was born of a good family, at Edmonton, near London, in the year 1685. In early life he devoted himself to music, drawing, and painting, in which he was reckoned to excel. At the same time he pursued his classical studies and mathematics under a private tutor: and in 1701, at the age of 15, he was entered a fellow-commoner at St. John's college, in the university of Cambridge. Such was his assiduity in the prosecution of mathematics, that in 1708 he composed his treatise "On the Centre of Oscillation," which was published in the Phil. Trans. In the next year he took his degree of bachelor of laws, and in 1712, he was elected fellow of the Royal Society. By a letter addressed to Mr. Machin, dated in this year, it appears that he had then given a solution of Kepler's famous problem, pointing out its importance and use. He also at the same period presented to the Society three papers, viz. "On the Ascent of Water between two Glass Planes;" "On the Centre of Oscillation;" and "On the Motion of a stretched string." In consideration of his services to the Society, and distinguished qualifications for the office, he was elected their secretary in 1714, taking in the same year his degree of doctor of laws at Cambridge. In 1715, he published his "Methodus Incrementorum;" a curious essay, preserved in the Phil. Trans. entitled, "An Account of an Experiment for the Discovery of the Laws of Magnetic Attraction;" and also a treatise, of high value and reputation, "On the Principles of Linear Perspective." His correspondence this year with Count de Montmort on the tenets of Malebranche was ably conducted, and gained for him an eulogy from the French academy; and in 1716, on his visit to Paris he was treated with great personal respect. Upon his return to London, in 1717, he composed three treatises, published in the 30th volume of the Phil. Trans.; the titles of which are, "An Attempt towards an Improvement of the Method of approximating in the Extraction of Roots of Equations in Numbers;" "A solution of Demouivre's 15th Problem, with the assistance of Combinations and infinite Series;" and "A Solution of the Problem of G. G. Leibnitz proposed to the English." In 1721, he published the last paper that appears with his name in the Phil. Trans. entitled, "An Experiment made to ascertain the Proportion of Expansion of Liquor in the Thermometer, with regard to the Degree of Heat."

He died of a decline in the 46th year of his age, Dec. 1731.

TAYLOR (Jeremy), an eminent divine and prelate of the established church in Ireland, was the son of a barber at Cambridge, where he was born in the early part of the 17th century. At the age of 13 he was admitted at Gonville and Caius college in the university of that place, where he remained till he took the degree of M.A. Having taken orders, he occasionally preached in London, and obtained by the interest of archbishop Laud, in 1636, a fellowship of All Souls' college, Oxford. Here he resisted attempts that were made to proselyte him to popery, and became more established in Protestant principles. Laud appointed him one of his chaplains, and procured for him the rectory of Uppington, in which he settled about the year 1640, at which time he surrendered his fellowship and married. In 1642 he was chaplain in ordinary to Charles I., and served his cause by writing in defence of the church of England. When the parliament became victorious, his living was sequestered, and he retired into Wales, where he was kindly received by the earl of Carbery, under whose protection he exercised his ministry, and kept a school for the support of his family. In this state of retirement, he composed those discourses, which caused him to be held in high estimation, as one of the first writers in the English language, "with respect to fertility of conception, eloquence of expression, and comprehensiveness of thought." At this period, the death of three hopeful
sons

sons disturbed his tranquillity, and rendered it necessary for him to change the scene, and to remove to London, where he exposed himself to considerable danger by officiating in a private congregation of loyalists. Invited by Edward lord Conway to his seat at Portmore in the county of Antrim, he remained in Ireland until the Restoration. On that event he came over to England, and in January, 1660-1, his services were recompensed by the promotion to the sees of Down and Connor. He was also made privy-counsellor of Ireland, and appointed to the administration of the bishopric of Down, and honoured with the office of vice-chancellor to the university of Dublin. Of his works, which were numerous, consisting chiefly of sermons and devotional pieces, and printed in four, and also in six volumes, folio, the most remarkable is entitled, "Theologia Eclectica, or a Discourse on the Liberty of prophesying; shewing the unreasonableness of prescribing to other men's faith, and the iniquity of persecuting different opinions," 4to. first published in 1647. The author, when this book was written, belonged to a vanquished and persecuted party; and he strongly and boldly pleads for liberty of conscience, and the rights of individuals to judge for themselves in matters of religion. This work, considering the time in which it was written, and the connections of the author, indicates a very enlightened mind with regard to the subjects of discussion; and may be perused with no small degree of interest even in the present period of greater knowledge and liberality. With respect to toleration, however, he limits it to such doctrines as are not inconsistent with society or the public good; a limitation which is capable of being much misconstrued and misapplied. The most popular of Taylor's other writings, have been his "Golden Grove, or Manual of daily Prayers;" his treatise on "Holy Living and Dying;" and his "Ductor Dubitantium, or Rule of Conscience." Dr. Dodwell long since observed, and not unjustly, that "Dr. Taylor, in his voluminous writings, said many lively things, which will not bear a strict examination." *Biog. Brit. Gen. Biog.*

TAYLOR (John), LL.D., the son of a barber at Shrewsbury, was born about the year 1703, and distinguished himself as a scholar and critic. In 1755, still prosecuting his legal studies, he published "Elements of Civil Law," 4to. reprinted in 1769. An abridgment of this learned work, entitled "A Summary of the Roman Law," was published in 1773.

TAYLOR'S ISLES, three small islands on the north coast of New Holland, between Thistle island and the shore, from which they are about 2 miles distant.

TAY-MING, a city of China, of the first rank, in Pechee-lee, situated in a fertile and agreeable country; 232 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 36. 20. N. long. 114. 49. E.

TAYNG, a town of Corea; 25 miles south-east of Haimen.

TAYNGEN, a small but neat town of Switzerland, in the canton of Schaffhausen, and 4 miles north-east of the town of Schaffhausen.

TAYNTON, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 2 miles north-west of Burford.

TAYNTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 3 miles south-south-east of Newent. Population 416.

TAYNUILT, a small ill built village of Scotland, in Argyllshire, on the south coast of Loch Etive, about 6 miles from Bunawe.

TAYOMAYO, a small island of Spain, in the Mediterranean, on the north-east coast of the island of Majorca.

TAZE, a river of Asiatic Russia, which rises from two lakes, Ku and Din, in the northern part of the government of Tobolsk, and after a considerable course from south to north, falls into the Tazovskaia gulf, in the Frozen ocean. Lat. 67. 35. N. long. 80. 14. E.

TAZEWELL, a county of the United States, in the south-west part of Virginia. Population 3007, including 328 slaves.

TAZEWELL, a post township of the United States, and capital of Clairborne county, Tennessee; about 35 miles north of Knoxville.

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TAZLA, or **SALATO**, a lake of Asiatic Turkey, 36 miles long and 2 broad; 30 miles north of Kognieh.

TAZLA, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Caramania; 28 miles north of Kognieh.

TAZOVSKAIA, a gulf or bay in the Obskaia gulf, formed by the waters of several rivers of Siberia, and joined to the Obskaia gulf, about 140 miles in length, and 3 in breadth. Lat. 67. 40. to 69. N. long. 76. to 80. E.

TCHABAR, a river of Chinese Tartary, which runs north into the Songarie.

TCHABISCHI, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, on the Amur; 40 miles north-north-east of Stretensk.

TCHACA-TOHOI, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of Hami; 15 miles north-west of Quatcheou.

TCHADOBETZ, a river of Asiatic Russia, which flows through the governments of Irkoutsk and Tomsk, and after a course of 250 miles falls into the Tunguska, near Yeniseisk.

TCHADOBSKO, a town of Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Tunguska; 212 miles east of Yeniseisk.

TCHAGANE, a river of Asiatic Russia, which rises in the country of the Kirghises, and after a course of 100 miles, falls into the Derkoul, which pours their united waters into the Oural.

TCHAGANSKOL, a fortress of Russia, on the Oural; 16 miles south of Ouralsk.

TCHAIA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Lena, near Tchamska, in the government of Irkoutsk. Lat. 58. 5. N. long. 109. 34. E.

TCHAI-YAM, a river of China, which joins the Lo; 15 miles west-south-west of Pao-king.

TCHAKAN-TOTOHO KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Mongols; 18 miles south-east of Kara-Hotun.

TCHALEI, a Tartarian standard of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 46. 25. N. long. 123. 14. E.

TCHALIN, a city of China, of the third rank, in Hou-quang, on the Mi river; 815 miles south of Peking.

TCHAMDSOU-TIGAC, a lake of Thibet, about 36 miles in circumference. Lat. 31. 30. N. long. 81. 26. E.

TCHAMNAGOM-DOU, a lake of Thibet, about 36 miles in circumference. Lat. 30. 50. N. long. 93. 54. E.

TCHAMSKA, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 64 miles east-north-east of Kirensk.

TCHANG, a lake of China, about 20 miles in circumference; 40 miles north-east of Tcin-tcheou.

TCHANG-CHAN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Tche-kiang, situated on the river Tsien-tang, where it first becomes navigable; 22 miles south-west of Kin-tcheou.

TCHANG-KIA-KEOU, a gate on the great wall which separates China from Tartary, in the northern part of Pechee-lee, the principal passage by which the Tartars enter China; 90 miles north-north-west of Peking.

TCHANG-PING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Pechee-lee; 20 miles north-north-west of Peking. Lat. 40. 14. N. long. 115. 37. E.

TCHANG-TCHA, a city of China of the first rank, in Hou-quang, on the Heng river. The inhabitants of this city have given occasion to a great festival, which is celebrated in the fifth month throughout the empire. The mandarin who governed this city, and was much esteemed and beloved by the people for his probity and virtue, happening to be drowned in the river, they instituted a festival to his honor, which is celebrated by sports, and feasts, and fights upon the waters as if they intended to search for the mandarin, the object of their love and grief. This festival, which was at first peculiar to this city, came afterwards to be observed throughout the empire; 742 miles south of Peking. Lat. 28. 11. N. long. 112. 25. E.

TCHANG-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Fo-kien, the most southerly in the province. It stands on a river, and carries on a considerable trade. The neighbour-

ing mountains abound with the finest crystal; 950 miles south of Peking. Lat. 24. 32. N. long. 117. 34. E.

TCHANG-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Kiang-nan. The population has been estimated at 200,000 souls; 525 miles south-south-east of Peking. Lat. 31. 50. N. long. 119. 29. E.

TCHANG-TE, a city of China, of the first rank, in Hou-quang. It is large, and stands on a river near the great lake Tong-ting; 717 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 29. 2. N. long. 111. 2. E.

TCHAN-CHAN, or CHAN-SAN, a small island in the Chinese sea, and most southerly of those called Mi-a-tou; 18 miles north-west of Tchang-tcheou.

TCHANKOUR, a town of Thibet; 105 miles south-east of Sourman.

TCHAN-TE, a city of China, of the first rank, in Honan. This is one of the most northern cities of the province. Two things are here remarkable: the first is a fish resembling a crocodile, the fat of which is of such a singular nature, that when once kindled, it cannot be extinguished; the second is a mountain in the neighbourhood, so steep and inaccessible, that in time of war, it affords a place of refuge to the inhabitants, and a safe asylum from the insults and violence of the soldiery. Techan-te contains in its district one city of the second class, and six of the third; 255 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 36. 6. N. long. 114. 0. E.

TCHANY, a very large lake of Asiatic Russia, situated in the Barabinski steppe, between the Ob and the Irtysh. It abounds with fish, and receives many small rivers; it is about 65 miles long, and 30 broad; 100 miles west-north-west of Kolivan.

TCHAO, a city of China, of the second rank, in Pe-che-lee; 155 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 37. 48. N. long. 114. 29. E.

TCHAO, a city of China, of the second rank, in Yunan; 1202 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 25. 40. N. long. 100. 4. E.

TCHAO-KING, a city of China, of the first rank, in Quang-tong. It is reckoned the best built city in the province, and is the residence of the tsong-tsi or governor. The port is very spacious, placed at the confluence of three rivers, one of which communicates with Canton; 1062 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 23. 3. N. long. 111. 44. E.

TCHAO NAIMAN SOUMI HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary; 198 miles north of Peking. Lat. 42. 28. N. long. 115. 44. E.

TCHAO-TCHEU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Quang-tong, near the mouth of the Pe-kiang, over which there is a magnificent bridge. Lat. 23. 37. N. long. 116. 21. E.

TCHAOUTCHE AGHISI, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Anatolia, on the Black sea; 12 miles north-west of Erekli.

TCHAPIE DSAKE TOMPSOU, a lake of Thibet, about 54 miles in circumference. Lat. 32. 12. N. long. 84. 34. E.

TCHASOVIA, a village or town of the island of Schoum-shu, one of the Kurile islands.

TCHASTIJA, an island of Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, in the Lena; 112 miles north-east of Kirensk.

TCHAT, a mountain of Thibet, on the frontiers of Yarkan. Lat. 33. 10. N. long. 78. 44. E.

TCHATELLI, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of Hami; 38 miles north-west of Hami-Hotun.

TCHAUNSKAIA, a gulph on the northern coast of Russia, in the Frozen Sea. Lat. 71. to 72. N. long. 166. to 169. E.

TCHAZMIUNSKOI, a cape on the east coast of Kamtchatka; 52 miles south of Verchnei Kamtchatskoi. Lat. 55. 48. N. long. 160. 15. E.

TCHEBARKULSKAIA, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Oufa; 132 miles east of Oufa.

TCHECHUL, a river of Russia, which runs into the Lena, nearly opposite Ilmsk.

TCHECO, a town of Thibet; 93 miles east-south-east of Lassa.

TCHFTKAN, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Aladulia; 45 miles north-north-west of Adana.

TCHEGEN, an island in the Caspian sea; 144 miles south of Astracan.

TCHEGOTCHINA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Kolima. Lat. 68. N. long. 150. 14. E.

TCHEGUEDE HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, on the east bank of the Amur, opposite Teldon; 673 miles north-north-east of Peking. Lat. 49. 26. N. long. 127. 37. E.

TCHÉKENAGUR, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Carmania; 21 miles south of Kirshehr.

TCHÉ-KIANG, a province of China, bounded on the north and north-west by Kiangnan, on the east by the sea, on the south by Fo-kien, and on the south-west by Kiang-see; about 200 miles in length from north to south, and from 120 to 180 broad. This province, which was formerly the residence of some of the emperors, is one of the most considerable in the empire, on account of its maritime situation, extent, riches, and the number of its inhabitants. Excellent hams are brought from this province, and those small gold fish with which ponds are commonly stocked. The tallow-tree grows here, and a species of mushrooms, which are transported to every province of the empire. In Tchekiang there are reckoned to be 11 cities of the first class, 72 of the third, and 18 fortresses, which in Europe would be accounted large cities. According to Sir George Staunton, the number of inhabitants amounts to 21 millions.

TCHÉLAO, a town of Persia, in the province of Korasan. Near it is a narrow defile in a mountain, called by the orientals, Hell, from the difficulty of the passage.

TCHÉLBOSCH, a river of Russia, which joins the Bisuga, and runs with it into the sea of Azoph; 40 miles south-west of Eiskoi.

TCHÉLEH-DAGHI, a mountain of Anatolia, north-east of Boli.

TCHÉLGA, a town of Abyssinia; 20 miles north-west of Gondar. Lat. 12. 44. N. long. 37. 18. E.

TCHÉLABINSK, a town of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Orenbourg. It stands on the river Miasse, which falls into the Ictette, and is one of the most important fortresses upon this frontier. The tribunals of the district were transported thither in 1782. The garrison consists of 300 Cossacs, and a company of invalids; and the town contains 2 churches and 500 houses; 188 miles east of Oufa. Lat. 54. 50. N. long. 62. 4. E.

TCHÉ-LI LÉOU, a city of China, of the second rank, in Se-chuen, on the Kincha river; 840 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 28. 56. N. long. 105. 4. E.

TCHÉMURTAESKOI, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 60 miles south-west of Selen-ginsk.

TCHEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Honan; 416 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 34. 46. N. long. 110. 36. E.

TCHEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in the island of Hai-nan. Lat. 19. 32. N. long. 108. 49. E.

TCHEN-AN, a town of Corea; 35 miles south-south-east of Hetsin.

TCHENBAR, a town of Russia, in the government of Penza; 80 miles west-south-west of Penza. Lat. 52. 52. N. long. 43. 30. E.

TCHENDEI, a river of Russia, which runs into the Yana, near its mouth.

TCHENE, a town of Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 18 miles north of Eusench.

TCHENG-TCHANG, a town of Corea; 30 miles south-south-east of Haimen.

TCHENG-TE, an island in the Eastern seas, near the south coast of Corea, about 10 miles long and 6 broad. Lat. 34. 20. N. long. 128. 37. E.

TCHÉOU-CHAN, or CHU-SAN, an island in the Chinese sea, near the west coast of China, belonging to the province of Tchekiang, about 24 miles long, and from 4 to 10 broad.

TCHÉPETKINA,

TCHEPETKINA, a river of Asiatic Russia, which runs into the Kolima; 88 miles north of Verchnei Kovimskoi. Lat. 67. 35. N. long. 148. 14. E.

TCHERNAIA, a river of Asiatic Russia, which runs into the Anadir; 100 miles below Anadirskoi.

TCHERNAIAGRIADA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, on the Volga; 32 miles north-north-west of Astracan.

TCHERNIKEH, a town of Asia Minor, in the government of Sivas, at the union of the Tosanlu and Jekil-Ermak; anciently a city of Pontus, and called Eupatoria, from Mithridates, surnamed Eupator; 24 miles north of Amasia. Lat. 40. 26. N. long. 36. 38. E.

TCHERNOLUTZKAIA, a fort of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk; 20 miles west of Omsk.

TCHERNORIEGENSKAIA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa, on the Oural; 12 miles west of Orenbourg.

TCHERPLINSKOI, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa, on the Oural; 124 miles east of Orenbourg.

TCHESKAIA, a gulf or bay in the Frozen ocean, on the north coast of Asiatic Russia. Lat. 66. 50. to 77. 40. N. long. 45. to 47. E.

TCHESUCHINSKOI, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, on the borders of China; 104 miles south-west of Nertchinsk.

TCHÉ-TAN, a river of China, which runs into the Tom; 12 miles west of Yeou.

TCHESCHEOU HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of Hami; 983 miles east of Peking.

TCHETKINA, one of the Fox islands, in the North Pacific ocean. Lat. 53. 80. N. long. 184. 44. E.

TCHÉUISKOI, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Tobolsk, on the Obi; 48 miles north-north-east of Kolivan.

TCHIATAM, a town of Thibet; 510 miles east of Lassa. Lat. 28. 3. N. long. 99. 20. E.

TCHICOU, a town of Corea; 18 miles south-south-east of Long Kouang.

TCHIEIN, a village of Asiatic Russia, near the straits which separate the continent of Asia from America. Lat. 65. 40. N. long. 188. 24. E.

TCHIKIRI, a river of Chinese Tartary, which runs into the Amur; 15 miles north of Saghalien Oula Hotun.

TCHILDIRI, a range of mountains in the southern part of Georgia, which bounds on the north the delightful plain of Erivan. It then enters the Persian province of Aderbijan, and sinks gradually into the plain of Mogai.

TCHILINSKOI, a town of Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, on the Ingoda; 60 miles east of Doroninsk.

TCHINDAT TURUKUEVSKA, a fortress of Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 80 miles south-west of Nertchinsk.

TCHINDAT TURUKUEVSKOI, a fort of Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 72 miles south of Nertchinsk.

TCHINEH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in Anatolia; 15 miles west-north-west of Moglah.

TCHING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Honan; 382 miles south of Peking. Lat. 33. 49. N. long. 114. 38. E.

TCHING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Honan; 340 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 34. 50. N. long. 113. 29. E.

TCHI-NGAM, a city of China, of the second rank, in Se-tchuen; 780 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 28. 32. N. long. 107. 4. E.

TCHING-CANG, a city of China, of the second rank, in Yunan; 1302 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 24. 12. N. long. 99. 16. E.

TCHING-HANG, a city of China, of the first rank, in Se-tchuen; 910 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 27. 18. N. long. 104. 26. E.

TCHING-KIANG, a city of China, of the first rank, in Kiang-nan, on the south side of the river Yang-tse. This is not one of the largest cities of the province, for it is not above a league in circumference; but it is one of the most

considerable for its situation and commerce; it is the key of the empire towards the sea, and is also a fortress, where there is a strong garrison. The walls are above 30 feet in height in several places. The streets of the city and suburbs are paved with marble; 470 miles south-south-east of Peking. Lat. 32. 14. N. long. 118. 55. E.

TCHING-KIANG, a city of China, of the first rank, in Yunan; 1082 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 24. 44. N. long. 102. 40. E.

TCHING-NING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Koei-tcheou; 1017 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 26. 3. N. long. 105. 23. E.

TCHING-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Hou-quang. This city is situated on an angle made by two rivers. The country is watered by a great number of brooks, which make the valleys exceedingly fruitful. The district of this city contains one of the second order, and nine of the third; 765 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 23. 23. N. long. 109. 40. E.

TCHING-TEOU, a town of Corea; 30 miles south-south-west of Kang-tcheou.

TCHING-TING, a city of China, of the first rank, in Peché-lee. It is a large city, about 4 miles in circumference. Its jurisdiction is very extensive, and comprehends 32 towns, 5 of which are of the second, and 27 of the third class. Northward from it lie several mountains, where the Chinese say many simples and curious plants may be found. On these mountains there are also several monuments of temples erected in honour of deceased heroes, among which is one consecrated to the memory of the first emperor of the dynasty of Han; 137 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 29. 9. N. long. 114. 20. E.

TCHING-TOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Se-tchuen. This was formerly the residence of the emperors, and one of the largest and most beautiful cities in China; but in 1646 it was almost entirely destroyed, during the civil wars which preceded the last invasion by the Tartars; 810 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 30. 40. N. long. 103. 44. E.

TCHINKITANY BAY, a bay on the west coast of North America, called by the Spaniards Baya de Guadalupe.

TCHIN-KOU, a town of China, of the third rank, in Chan-si, on the river Han; 17 miles east of Han-tchong.

TCHIN-NAN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Yunan; 1187 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 25. 16. N. long. 101. 4. E.

TCHIN-NGAN, a city of China, of the first rank, in Quangsee. From being a small borough, it was surrounded with walls, and made a city of the first rank, but still does not possess any high consideration; 1150 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 23. 21. N. long. 106. 0. E.

TCHIN-YUEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quangsee. Lat. 23. 14. N. long. 106. 49. E.

TCHIRAKI, a town of Chinese Tartary, in the country of the Kalkas. Lat. 48. 36. N. long. 115. 16. E.

TCHIRINKOUTAN, one of the small Kurile islands. Lat. 49. 20. N. long. 153. 4. E.

TCHIRNOOI, one of the small Kurile islands. Lat. 47. 8. N. long. 151. 50. E.

TCHISEGI DAGHI, a mountain of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas, near Divriki.

TCHI-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Kiang-nan. It stands in a hilly country on the banks of the Kyang; 570 miles south of Peking. Lat. 30. 45. N. long. 117. 0. E.

TCHI-TCHOUAN, a town of Thibet; 20 miles north of Chao-ma-ing Hotun.

TCHIUNA, a river of Russia which rises 6 miles from Bratskoi, in the government of Kolivan, lat. 56. N. long. 101. E, and runs into the Tunguska; 58 miles south-east of Yeniseisk, in lat. 57. 54. N. long. 93. 34. E.

TCHIURAC, a river of Anatolia, which runs into the Meinder near Tcheharshebeh.

TCHI-YUEN, a city of China, of the first rank, in Koei-tchoo. The district belonging to it is small, but abounds in fruit,

fruit, and produces the finest flowers in all China. Lat. 27. 1. N. long. 107. 51. E.

TCHO, a city of China, of the second rank, in Chan-si, on the river Fuen; 298 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 36. 36. N. long. 111. 23. E.

TCHOCOUC, a town of Thibet; 18 miles east of Harachar Hotun.

TCHOHA KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary; 45 miles south-west of Kara.

TCHOL, a river of Chinese Tartary, which rises in lat. 48. 20. N. long. 120. 34. E. and runs into the Noup. Lat. 46. 28. N. long. 123. 31. E.

TCHOL HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, on a river of the same name; 500 miles north-north-east of Peking. Lat. 46. 41. N. long. 123. 35. E.

TCHOL-ABADI, a village of Asiatic Turkey, in Carmania; 32 miles south-west of Askshehr.

TCHOM-COU-CHO, a town of Chinese Tartary; 25 miles south-west of Ning-yuen.

TCHOM-YUEN, a town of Chinese Tartary; 15 miles north of Geho.

TCHONG, a town of Corea; 68 miles from Kin-nai-tchan.

TCHONG, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quangsee. Lat. 22. 26. N. long. 107. 4. E.

TCHON-KING, a city of China, of the first rank, in Se-cheun. This is one of the most commercial cities of the province. It is indebted for its trade to its situation at the confluence of two remarkable rivers; one of which, called Kincha-kiang, or Golden-sand, receives in its course all the streams from the mountains which rise on the neighbouring confines of Tartary. The other is Ta-kiang, which has its source beyond the boundaries of China, and is commonly called Yang-tse-kiang. Tchong-king is built upon a mountain, and rises in the form of an amphitheatre. The air round it is wholesome and temperate. The city is celebrated for its fish, and a particular kind of trunks, made with canes, interwoven in the manner of basket-work. It has in its district three cities of the second class, and eleven of the third; 750 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 29. 42. N. long. 106. 19. E.

TCHORRO TOHON KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary; 23 miles north of Odoli.

TCHOSCHO, a small river of Russia, which runs into the Tcheskaja gulf; 40 miles north-north-east of Mezen.

TCHOUCTEY KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary; 10 miles north-east of Tchol.

TCHOUDSONG, a town of Thibet, on the borders of China; 340 miles south-east of Lassa. Lat. 27. 22. N. long. 96. 50. E.

TCHOU-KIONG, or Yung, a city of China, of the first rank, in Yunan; 1187 miles south-west of Peking. Lat. 25. 6. N. long. 101. 20. E.

TCHOUKTCHES, a people inhabiting the peninsula which forms the north-eastern extremity of Asiatic Russia; bounded on one side by the Frozen ocean, and on the other by the gulf of Anadir. Their country, barren and rocky, leaves them no mode of subsistence except fishing and hunting. They are of the same race with the Koriaks, but still ruder in their general habits of life. Their dwelling is often in the hollow of rocks, and their cottages are partly constructed of the bones of whales. Their entire number is not supposed to exceed 4000. Their tents are square, and composed of four rods supporting rein-deer skins, which form the roof. Their bed consists of branches of trees, covered with the skins of wild beasts. Their furniture and mode of feeding are dirty and disgusting. The dress of the women consists solely in the skin of a wild beast, fastened to the neck. The people are skilful in the use of the sling, and shew much courage and address in the whale fishery. Though nominally included in the Russian empire, they live almost entirely independent, protected by their extensive deserts, which would not reward the trouble necessary for their occupation. Though of the same race with the Koriaks, they carry on often bloody contests with that people.

TCHOULGUE HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary; 745 miles east-north-east of Peking. Lat. 44. 1. N. long. 131. 47. E.

TCHOULGUE HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary; 840 miles east-north-east of Peking. Lat. 44. 48. N. long. 133. 49. E.

TCHOUMOU, a town of Thibet; 63 miles east-south-east of Lassa.

TCHOUMOURTI, a town of Thibet, near the Ganges; 225 miles east-south-east of Latac.

TCHOURHATAI, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 43. 4. N. long. 119. 45. E.

TCHOUSOR, a town of Thibet, 36 miles south-west of Lassa.

TCHOU-TAN, a river of China, which runs into the Yuen, near Hong-kiang-se.

TCHUKOTSKOIE NOS, a cape in the country of the Tchouktches, forming the north-eastern extremity of Asia. The attempts to double it have been frequent; but the object seems to have been effected only once, in 1648, by a Cossack named Lemman Deschnef. Doubts have even been raised as to the reality of his achievement; but the concurrence of his description of the coast and people with those of Cook and other recent navigators, seem to leave no reasonable ground of scepticism.

TCHUMARA STANITZ, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, on the Lena. Lat. 61. 12. N. long. 125. 14. E.

TCHUMISCH, a river of Asiatic Russia, which runs into the Obi; 7 miles south-south-east of Kolivan.

TCHU-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Tche-kiang; 730 miles south-south-east of Peking. Lat. 28. 36. N. long. 139. 33. E.

TCI-NAN, or TSI-NAN, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Shantung, situated south of the river Tsing-ho, or Tsi. This city is large and populous, and is much respected by the Chinese, on account of its having been formerly the residence of a long series of kings, whose tombs, rising on the neighbouring mountains, afford a beautiful prospect. Tci-nan has under its jurisdiction four cities of the second class, and 26 of the third; 235 miles south of Peking. Lat. 36. 46. N. long. 116. 46. E.

TCIN-CHOUI, a lake of China, about 37 miles in circumference; 25 miles north-north-east of Tcin-tcheou.

TCING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Pe-che-lee; 130 miles south-south-west of Peking. Lat. 38. 8. N. long. 114. 6. E.

TCI-NGIN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Shantung; 275 miles south of Peking. Lat. 35. 34. N. long. 116. 24. E.

TCIN-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in Shan-tung. The principal branch of its commerce is fish, which are caught in such abundance, that we are assured the profit arising from their skins only is very considerable; 230 miles south-south-east of Peking. Lat. 36. 46. N. long. 118. 20. E.

TCITCICAR HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, capital of a province in the country of the Mantchoos. This is the usual residence of a Tartarian general, and capital of a district. This city was built to guard the frontiers of the Chinese empire from the Russians; 355 miles north-east of Peking. Lat. 47. 25. N. long. 123. 30. E.

TE, a city of China, of the second rank, in Shan-tung, on the grand canal; 150 miles south of Peking. Lat. 37. 35. N. long. 115. 50. E.

TEA, a river of England, in Buckinghamshire, which runs into the Ouse, near Stony Stratford.

TEA, a river of the north-west of Spain, in Galicia, which joins the Minho, near Salvatierra.

TEA, s. [a word, I suppose, Chinese; *thé*, Fr. "Tea was first imported from Holland by the Earls of Arlington and Ossory, in 1666; from their ladies the women of quality learned its use. Its price was then three pounds a pound, and continued the same to 1707. In 1715, we began to use green tea; and the practice of drinking it descended to the lower

lower class of the people." Dr. Johnson's Review of Hanway's Journal.] A chinese plant of which the infusion has lately been much drunk in Europe.

The muse's friend, *tea*, does our fancy aid,
Repress those vapours which the head invade. *Waller.*

When you sweep, never stay to pick up *tea* spoons.
Swift.

To TEACH, *v. a.* pret. and part. pass., *taught*, sometimes *teached*, which is now obsolete. [æcan, Saxon. *Dr. Johnson.*—From the Swed. *te*; Icel. *tia*, to show; the derivation of which by Stiernh. from the M. Goth. *ataugian*, to show; (compounded of *at*, to, and *augo*, the eye,) Serenius pronounces highly ingenious and probable. See also Wachter in V. ZEIGEN.] To instruct; to inform, as a master; correlative to learn.

I am too sudden bold,
To *teach* a teacher ill besemeth me. *Shakspeare.*

To deliver any doctrine or art, or words to be learned.—They *teach* all nations what of him they learned. *Milton.*—To show; to exhibit so as to impress upon the mind.—He is a good divine that follows his own instructions; I can easier *teach* twenty what were good to be done, than to be one of the twenty to follow my own *teaching*. *Shakspeare.*—To tell; to give intelligence.

Huswives are *teached*, instead of a clocke,
How winter night passeth by crowing of cocke. *Tusser.*

To TEACH, *v. n.* To perform the office of an instructor.

I have labour'd
And with no little study, that my *teaching*,
And the strong course of my authority,
Might go one way. *Shakspeare.*

TE'ACHABLE, *adj.* Docile; susceptible of instruction.—'Tis sufficient that matters of faith and religion be propounded in such a way, as to render them highly credible, so as an honest and *teachable* man may willingly and safely assent to them, and according to the rules of prudence be justified in so doing. *Wilkins.*

TE'ACHABLENESS, *s.* Docility; willingness to learn; capacity to learn.—Docility, *teachableness*, tractableness, is the property of wisdom; and he that is wise, is nearest unto happiness. *Granger.*

TE'ACHER, *s.* One who teaches; an instructor; preceptor.

I went into the temple, there to hear
The *teachers* of our law, and to propose
What might improve my knowledge or their own. *Milton.*

One who without regular ordination assumes the ministry.—Dissenting *teachers* are under no incapacity of accepting civil and military employments. *Swift.*—A preacher; one who is to deliver doctrine to the people.—Wolves shall succeed for *teachers*. *Milton.*

TEACHES, an island of the United States, on the coast of Virginia, in Northampton county.

TEAD, or TEDE, *s.* [*tede*, old Fr.; *tada*, Lat.] A torch; a flambeau. *Not in use.*

A bushy *tead* a groom did light,
And sacred lamp in secret chamber hide. *Spenser.*

TEAGUE, *s.* A name of contempt used for an Irishman. His case appears to be like honest *Teague's*,
When he was run away with by his legs. *Prior.*

TEAL, *s.* [*teelingh*, Dutch.] A wild fowl of the duck kind.—Some serve for food to us, and some but to feed themselves; amongst the first sort we reckon the dip chick, coots, *teal*, wigeon. *Carew.*

TEALBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4½ miles east-north-east of Market Raisin. Population 629.

TEALING, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, lying on the south side of the Sidlaw hills, about three miles in length, and from one to two in breadth. Population 779.

TEAM, *s.* [*temo*, the team of a carriage, Latin; *team*,

Sax. *a yoke*.] A number of horses or oxen drawing at once the same carriage.

Making such difference betwixt wake and sleep,
As is the difference between day and night,
The hour before the heav'nly harness'd *team*
Begins his golden progress in the East. *Shakspeare.*

Any number passing in a line.
Like a long *team* of snowy swans on high,
Which clap their wings, and cleave the liquid sky. *Dryden.*

To TEAM, *v. a.* To join together in a team.
By this the Night forth from the darksome bower
Of Erebus her *teamed* steeds gan call. *Spenser.*

TEAN, UPPER and LOWER, two hamlets of England, in Staffordshire, near the Tean river, which runs into the Dove between Cheadle and Checkley.

TEANO, a small town of Italy, in the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, with several churches, an hospital, and 3100 inhabitants. It is the see of a bishop, and has one of the Catholic establishments styled *Conservatorio della Nunziata*; 12 miles north-west of Capua, and 27 north-north-west of Naples.

TEA POT CREEK, a small river of North America.
TEAR, *s.* [*ea* in this word is pronounced *ee*; and *tear* rhymes to *cheer*: *tagr*, M. Goth.; *teap*, Sax.; *daigr*, Welsh and Armor.; *δακρυν*, Gr.; all signifying the same.] The water which violent passion forces from the eyes.

She comes; and I'll prepare
My *tear*-stain'd eyes to see her miseries. *Shakspeare.*

Any moisture trickling in drops.
Let Araby extol her happy coast,
Her fragrant flow'rs, her trees with precious *tears*,
Her second harvests. *Dryden.*

To TEAR, *v. a.* pret. *tore*, anicently *tare*; part. pass. *turn*. [*tairan gatairan*, M. Goth.; *taera*, Su. Goth.; *teapan*, Saxon: *ea* is pronounced as *a*, and *tear* rhymes to *square*.] To pull in pieces; to lacerate; to rend; to separate by violent pulling.

Come seeling night,
And with thy bloody and invisible hand
Cancel and *tear* to pieces that great bond
Which keeps me pale. *Shakspeare.*

To laniate; to wound with any sharp point drawn along.

Old men with dust deform'd their hoary hair,
The women beat their breasts, their cheeks they *tare*.
Shakspeare.

To break or take away by violence.
As storms the skies, and torrents *tear* the ground,
Thus rag'd the prince, and scatter'd death around. *Dryden.*

To divide violently; to shatter.—Is it not as much reason to say, that God destroys fatherly authority, when he suffers one in possession of it to have his government *turn* in pieces, and shared by his subjects? *Locke.*—To pull with violence; to drive violently.—He roar'd, he beat his breast, he *tore* his hair. *Dryden.*

Blush rather, that you are a slave to passion,
Which, like a whirlwind, *tears* up all your virtues,
And gives you not the leisure to consider. *A. Philips.*

To take away by sudden violence.
The hand of fate
Has *turn* thee from me, and I must forget thee. *Addison.*

To make a violent rent.
In the midst a *tearing* groan did break.
The name of Antony. *Shakspeare.*

To TEAR, *v. n.* [*tieren*, Dutch.] To fume; to rave; to rant turbulently.—All men transported into outrages for small trivial matters, fall under the inuendo of this bull that ran *tearing* mad for the pinching of a mouse. *L'Es-trange.*

TEAR, *s.* A rent; a fissure.

TE'ARER, *s.* One who rends or tears; one who blusters.

TE'ARFALLING, *adj.* Tender; shedding tears.

I am in

So far in blood, that sin will pluck on sin,

Tearfalling pity dwells not in this eye.

Shakspeare.

TE'ARFUL, *adj.* Weeping; full of tears.

Is't meet that he

Should leave the helm, and, like a fearful lad,

With *tearful* eyes add water to the sea?

Shakspeare.

TE'ARLESS, *adj.* Without tears.

Why weep ye now? ye saw with *tearless* eye

When your fleet perish'd on the Punic wave.

Shenstone.

TEARN, a river of England, in Staffordshire and Salop, which falls into the Severn.

TEARNSIDE, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Kirkby Lonsdale, Westmorland.

TEARY, or TEHREE, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, and capital of a petty chief under the British protection, whose territories are situated on the north-west boundary of Bundelcund. The title of Rajah has been long established in the reigning family; and although compelled to pay tribute for a long period to the Mahrattas, was never dispossessed of his lands. During the war in 1809, the present rajah, named Bickermajeet Sing, requested to be enrolled among the number of the British allies, and was of considerable utility. His revenue is estimated at about 50,000*l.* per annum. Lat. 24. 45. N. long. 78. 52. E.

To TEASE, *v. a.* [*træjan*, Saxon.] To comb or unravel wool or flax.

Coarse complexions,

And cheeks of sorry grain, will serve to ply

The sampler, and to *tease* the huswife's wool.

Milton.

To scratch cloth in order to level the nap.—To torment with importunity; to vex with assiduous impertinence.—My friends always *tease* me about him, because he has no estate. *Spectator.*

TE'ASEL, *s.* [*træf*, Saxon.] A plant.—The species are three: one is called *carduus fullonum*, and is of singular use in raising the nap upon woollen cloth. *Miller.* See *CARDUUS.*

TE'ASELER, *s.* [from *teasel*; *teizeler*, Norm. Fr.] One who raises the nap on woollen cloth by means of the teasel. *Kelham.*

TE'ASER, *s.* Whoever or whatever torments by incessant importunity.—These *teasers*, rather to rouse than pinch the game only made Whitaker find his spirits. *Fuller.*—A fly buzzing at his ear, makes him deaf to the best advice. If you would have him come to himself, you must take off his little *teaser*, which holds his reason at bay. *Collier.*

TEAT, *s.* [*teih*, Welsh; *tit*; Saxon; *tette*, Dutch; *teton*, French. *Dr. Johnson.*—Germ. *titte*, *dutte*; Heb. *dad*; M. Goth. *daddian*, lactare: vox antiquissima. See Wachter and Serenius.] A dug; a pap.—Even at thy *teat* thou hadst thy tyranny. *Shakspeare.*

TEATH, or TEITH, a river of Scotland, in Perthshire, which takes its rise from two sources; the northern branch, at the western extremity of the parish of Balquhider, where, running eastward some miles, it forms the small Loch Doine, and shortly after falls into Loch Voil, from which it issues near the Kirktown of Balquhider; then, running eastward for a mile or two, it takes a southerly direction, and runs into Loch Lubnaig, from whence it issues at the south end, and, taking a course south-east, joins the other branch at Callander. The southern branch takes its rise from Loch Catharine, between the parishes of Aberfoyle and Callander, from whence it runs in an easterly course through the small lochs of Achray and Vannachoir, until it meets with the north branch. In this neighbourhood it pursues a very winding course. At length it becomes rapid, and takes its course by the church of Kilmadock, passing the town and ancient

castle of Doune, where it receives the waters of the Ardoch. After this it moves more gently through the vales of Blair Drummond, and joins the Forth at the bridge of Drip. The river Teath abounds with trout and salmon. It is a clear but rapid stream, containing a body of water considerably greater than the Forth. The value of this river for driving machinery is exceeded by none in Scotland; yet, excepting the works at Danston, one mile above Doune, it is almost totally neglected, chiefly from the want of coal and lime.

TEATH, ST., or ST. ΕΤΗΑ, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 3½ miles south-west-by-west of Camelford. Population 857.

TEATINOS, a small island in the Pacific Ocean, between the island of Chiloe and the coast of Chili. Lat. 43. 35. S.

TEBALA, a town of Arabia, in the province of Hedsjas; 128 miles south-south-east of Mecca.

TEBAY, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland, on the Lime; 2½ miles south of Orton.

TEBECRIT, a town of Algiers, near the Mediterranean; 2 miles from Ned Roma.

TEBELBELT, a town of Africa, in the country of Tafilet; 100 miles south of Sugulmessa.

TEBELENI, or TEPELENI, a small town in the west of European Turkey, in Albania, situated on the river Bolina, and surrounded on all sides by barren mountains. It contains 2000 inhabitants, and is ill built, but has a strong castle. It was the birth-place of the well known Ali Pacha; 35 miles south of Berat, and 58 north-west of Joannina.

TEBESTA, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis, on the borders of Algiers, where are found several beautiful ruins; 130 miles south-south-west of Tunis.

TEBIARE, a river of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, which runs south-west into the Meta.

TEBIQUARI, a river of South America, which rises in lat. 27. S. and joins the Iquay, to form the Rio Grande, in lat. 30. 55. S.

TEBIQUARI, a river of South America, which runs into the Paraguay, 8 miles below Assumption.

TEBIQUARI-MINI, a river of Paraguay, which runs south-west, and enters the Parana.

TEBOROPI, a river of Paraguay, which enters Yacayohi.

TEBWORTH, a hamlet of England, in Bedfordshire; 3½ miles north-north-west of Dunstable.

TECALETH, a town of Morocco; 121 miles west-north-west of Morocco.

TECALI, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name, which contains above 200 families of Spaniards and mulattoes; 17 miles south-east of Puebla de los Angeles.

TECALTITLAN, the name of two inconsiderable settlements of Mexico.

TECAMACHALCO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico, with a population of above 450 families of Spaniards, mulattoes, and mestizoes or the middle races.

TECEUT, or TECEHT, a town of Morocco, in the province of Sus, situated in a fertile soil, abounding with grain, dates, figs, grapes, and sugar canes. Here is a manufacture of Morocco leather; 150 miles south-west of Morocco.

TECH, a river in the south of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees, which falls into the Mediterranean below Boulon.

TECHE, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which flows south-east, and joins the Atchafalaya, about 15 miles above its entrance into the gulf of Mexico. It is navigable to new Iberia, about 45 miles.

TE'CHILY, *adv.* Peevishly; fretfully; frowardly.

TE'CHINESS, *s.* Peevishness; fretfulness.—Age is not a more common plea than unjust: The young man pretends it for his wanton and inordinate lust; the old, for his grippleness, *teehiness*, loquacity: all wrongfully, and not without foul abuse. *Bp. Hall.*

TE'CHNICAL, *adj.* [*τεχνικος*, Gr.; *technique*, French.] Belonging to arts; not in common or popular use.—In *technical* words, or terms of art, they refrain not from calling

calling the same substance sometimes the sulphur, and sometimes the mercury of a body. *Locke.*

TECHNICALLY, *adv.* In a technical manner.—The first professed English satirist, to speak *technically*, is bishop Joseph Hall. *Warton.*

TECHNOLOGY, *s.* [τεχνη and λογος, Greek.] A description or discourse upon arts.—There were not any further essays made in *technology* for above fourscore years; but all men acquiesced in the common grammar. *Twells.*

TE'CHY, *adj.* [for *touchy*, that is, inclination to be touched with whatever is said or done. *Ray.* Often written *tetchy*; which see.] Peevish; fretful; irritable; easily made angry; forward.

I cannot come to Cressid but by Pandar,
And he is as *tetchy* to be woo'd to woo,
As she is stubborn-chaste against all suit.

Shakspeare.

TECKLENBURG, a small town of Prussian Westphalia; 17 miles north-north-east of Munster, and 11 west-south-west of Osnabruck. It contains 900 inhabitants, and is the chief place of a county, which came to Prussia in the 17th century, and is now included in the government of Munster.

TECLA, *Str.*, a town of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, situate at the source of the river Piray-mini.

TECLA, *Str.*, a fort of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, situate on the Sierra de St. Ignacio, which constitutes the boundary between Buenos Ayres and Brazil. Lat. 31. 16. 8. S. long. 54. 14. 24. W.

TECOCUILCO, a town of Mexico, and the capital of a district of the same name. Its population consists of 340 families of Indians, mulattoes, and mestizoes; 223 miles south-east of Mexico. Lat. 17. 24. N. long. 96. 13. W.

TECOLUTLA, a river of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico, which falls into the Gulf of Mexico, in lat. 21. N. long. 95. 50. W.

TECOMACHALCO, a river of Mexico, which rises in the mountains to the west of the city of Mexico, and running from east to west, enters the lakes in the valley of Mexico.

TECORIONA, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Ostimuri, on the shore of the river Hiaqui.

TECORIPA, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Sonora.

TECRIT, a town of Irak Arabi, in the province of Mosul, on the western bank of the Tigris. It is thought to be the *Birtha* or *Vitra* of the ancients, described as a very strong fortress, and said to have been founded by Alexander the Great. It was a considerable town in 1393, when it was taken by Timur. It contains now only five or six hundred houses, with two coffee-houses; but the ruins are very extensive. Lat. 34. 37. N. long. 42. 37. E.

TECTONA [Τεκτωνια, *structura*, opus fabrile, so named from the use of this noble tree in building.], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of vitices (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, bell-shaped, half-five-cleft, permanent; segments ovate, from upright spreading, obtuse. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form, length of the calyx. Tube short. Border five-cleft; segments spreading, ovate, externally tomentose. Stamina: filaments five, inserted into the orifice of the tube of the corolla, very short. Anthers globular, grooved, standing out. Pistil: germ superior, ovate, very villose, girt with a short pitcher-shaped gland. Style filiform, erect, a little longer than the calyx. Stigma obtuse, two or three-toothed. Pericarp: drupe subglobular, depressed, four-lobed, rounded-four-cornered, hirsute, corky-spongy, juiceless, within the calyx now large, inflated, membranaceous, veined, concealed. Seed: nut subglobular, terminated by a round tubercle, four-ribbed, four-celled; axis bony, hollow within. Kernels compressed.—*Essential Character.* Corolla five-cleft. Stigma toothed. Drupe dry, spongy, within the inflated calyx. Nut three-celled.

1. *Tectona grandis*, teak-wood, or Indian oak.—Trunk erect, growing to an immense size; bark ash-coloured. Branches cross-armed, numerous, spreading; young shoots

four-sided; sides channelled. Leaves opposite, spreading, ovate, a little scalloped, above scabrous, beneath covered with soft white down; larger at a distance from the flowers, and on young trees from twelve to twenty-four inches long, and from eight to sixteen broad. Panicle terminating, very large, cross-armed; divisions dichotomous, with a sessile fertile flower in each cleft; the whole covered with a hoary, farinaceous substance. Flowers small, white, very numerous, fragrant.—Native of the vast forests in Java and Ceylon, Malabar, Coromandel, Pegu, Ava, the confines of Cochinchina and Cambodia, &c. On the coast of Coromandel it flowers in the hot season; and the seed is ripe in August and September. Lord Cornwallis and Colonel Kyd begun some time ago to introduce it into Bengal, where it thrives well.

The wood of this tree has by long experience been found to be the most useful timber in Asia: it is light, easily worked, and at the same time both strong and durable: that which grows near the banks of the Godavery is beautifully veined, and very closely grained; it is particularly fit for furniture, gun-carriages, &c., where small timber is wanted. For ship-building the teak is reckoned superior to many sorts of wood, being light, strong, and very durable, either in or out of the water. Pegu produces the largest quantity; the large rivers there enable the natives to bring it down to the sea-ports from the interior mountainous parts of the country where it grows, at a cheap rate, which enables them to sell it lower than in any other part of India.

TECTONIC, *adj.* [τεκτονικος, Gr.] Pertaining to building. *Bailey.*

TECULET, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco, situated near the coast of the Atlantic, on the edge of a mountain; 15 miles east of Mogodor, and 99 north-west of Morocco.

To TED, *v. a.* [τεαδαν, Saxon, *to prepare.*] To spread abroad new-mown grass, in order to make it into hay.

The smell of grain, or *tedded* grass or kine,
Or dairy, each rural sight, each rural sound.

Milton.

TEDBOURNE, *St. MARY*, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4½ miles south-south-west of Crediton. Population 580.

TED'DER, or **TE'THER**, *s.* [*tudder*, Dutch; *tiudt*, a rope, Icelandic.] A rope with which a horse is tied in the field that he may not pasture too wide. [*teigher*, Erse.]—Any thing by which one is restrained.—We live joyfully, going abroad within our *tedder*. *Bacon.*

To TE'DDER, *v. a.* To tie up; to restrain. Though it is not required that we should be always *teddered* to a formal solemn praying; yet by our mental meditations, and our ejaculatory emissions of the heart and mind, we may go far to the completing the Apostle's counsel. *Feltham.*

TEDDESLEY, a hamlet of England, in Staffordshire; 2 miles east-north-east of Penkridge.

TEDDINGTON, a parish of England, in Middlesex, situated on the banks of the Thames, near Hampton. In the neighbourhood are many handsome villas. Population 732; 14 miles south-west-by-west of St. Paul's, London.

TEDDINGTON, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 5 miles from Thame.

TEDDINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Worcester-shire; 9½ miles south-west of Evesham.

TEDE'UM, *s.* An hymn of the church, so called from the two first words of the Latin.

The choir,

With all the choicest music of the kingdom,
Together sung *te deum*.

Shakspeare.

TEDIEN, a river of Persia, which runs into the Caspian Sea; 20 miles west of Zaweh.

TEDIF, a town of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo. Here is a Jewish synagogue; and the inhabitants have a tradition that one of the minor prophets resided here. On a hill near this town are some sepulchres and aqueducts cut in the rock; 21 miles east of Aleppo.

TEDINGHAUSEN,

TEDINGHAUSEN, a town of the duchy of Bremen; 9 miles south of Ottersberg.

TE'DIOUS, *adj.* [*twdium*, Lat.] Wearisome by continuance; troublesome; irksome.

The one intense, the other still remiss,
Cannot well suit with either, but soon prove
Tedious alike.

Milton.

Wearisome by prolixity. Used of authors or performances.—Slow.

But then the road was smooth and fair to see,
With such insensible declivity,
That what men thought a *tedious* course to run,
Was finish'd in the hour it first begun.

Harte.

TE'DIOUSLY, *adv.* In such a manner as to weary.

Why dost thou wrong
Our mutual love so much, and *tediously* prolong
Our mirthful marriage-hour.

Drayton.

TE'DIOUSNESS, *s.* Wearisomeness by continuance.

She distastes them all within a while;
And in the sweetest finds a *tediousness*.

Davies.

Wearisomeness by prolixity.—In vain we labour to persuade them, that any thing can take away the *tediousness* of prayer, except it be brought to the same measure and form which themselves assign. *Hooker.*—Prolixity; length.

Since brevity's the soul of wit,
And *tediousness* the limbs and outward flourishes,
I will be brief.

Shakespeare.

Uneasiness; tiresomeness; quality of wearying.

TEDLA, or **TADILA**, a province of Morocco, which extends along the east side of the Atlas, to the borders of Fez and Algiers.

TEDNEST, or **TEDOEST**, a town of Africa, in the empire of Morocco. This town was destroyed by the Portuguese in the year 1514, and in part rebuilt by the Jews; 40 miles north-east of Mogodor, and 90 west-north-west of Morocco.

TEDSI, a town of Morocco, in the country of Sus, situated to the east of Terodant; 90 miles south-west of Morocco.

TEDSTONE DE LA MERE, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 3½ miles north-east-by-east of Bromyard.

TEDSTON WAFER, another parish in the above county, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

TEDZEN, a considerable river of Korassan, in Persia, the largest in this part of Asia, next to the Oxus.

TEEBAKAN, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the north coast of Borneo. Lat. 7. 52. N. long. 117. 39. E.

TEEHEENGAN, a small island in the Eastern seas, north of Borneo. Lat. 7. 49. N. long. 117. 30. E.

TEEKOOOL, a small island in the Sooloo Archipelago. Lat. 6. 6. N. long. 120. 25. E.

To TEEM, *v. n.* [*teaman*, Sax. *to procreate*; *team*, *offspring*.] To bring young.

If she must *teem*,
Create her child of spleen, that it may live,
And be a thwart disnatur'd torment to her.

Shakespeare.

To be pregnant; to engender young.

Have we more sons? or are we like to have?
Is not my *teeming* date drunk up with time,
And wilt thou pluck my fair son from mine age?

Shakespeare.

There are fundamental truths the basis upon which a great many others rest: these are *teeming* truths, rich in store, with which they furnish the mind, and, like the lights of Heaven, give light and evidence to other things. *Locke.*—To be full; to be charged as a breeding animal.

To TEEM, *v. a.* To bring forth to produce.

What's the newest grief?
Each minute *teems* a new one.

Shakespeare.

To pour. *A low word*, imagined by Skinner to come from *tommen*, Danish, *to draw out*; *to pour*. The Scots retain it: as, *teem* that water out; hence Swift took this word. *Dr. Johnson.*—What Dr. Johnson has here said, is not accurate. This sense of *teem* is not only still retained in our northern parts of England, but is very old in our language. "The *teeming* or broaching of a vessel, depletio." *Prompt. Parv.* Serenius refers it to the Icel. *tacma*, *to empty*. *Todd.*—*Teem* out the remainder of the ale into the tankard, and fill the glass with small beer. *Swift.*

TEEMBOO, a considerable city of Central Africa, capital of Foota Jallo, the principal kingdom of the Foulahs. It contains about 7000 inhabitants, who manufacture narrow cloths, and work in iron, silver, wood, and leather. The houses are neatly and conveniently built, at a little distance from each other; 160 miles east of Sierra Leone.

TE'EMER, *s.* One that brings young.

TE'EMFUL, *adj.* [*teampul*, Sax.] Pregnant; prolific. Brimful. *Ainsworth.*

TE'EMLESS, *adj.* Unfruitful; not prolific.

Such wars, such waste, such fiery tracks of death,

Their zeal has left, and such a *teemless* earth.

Dryden.

TEEN, *s.* [*teinan*, Sax. *to kindle*; *tenen*, Flemish, *to vex*; *teonan*, Sax. *injuries*.] Sorrow; grief. *Not in use.*

My heart bleeds

To think o' the *teen* that I have turn'd to you. *Shakespeare.*

To TEEN, *v. a.* [*teinan*, Saxon, *to kindle*.] To excite; to provoke to do a thing. *Not in use.*—Why tempt ye me, and *tene*, with such manner speche? *Chaucer.*

TEENS, *s.* The years reckoned by the termination *teen*; as, thirteen, fourteen.

Our author would excuse these youthful scenes,
Begotten at his entrance in his *teens*;

Some childish fancies may approve the toy,
Some like the muse the more for being a boy. *Granville.*

TEENY, a small village of Ireland, in the county of Londonderry; 104 miles north-north-west of Dublin.

TEERAWHITTE, CAPE, a cape forming the southern-most point of the isle of Eaheinomauwe, in Cook's Strait, discovered by Captain Cook, in 1769. Lat. 41. 21. S. long. 184. 12. W.

TEES, a considerable river of England, which rises in the mountains of Westmoreland, and taking an easterly direction, divides the North Riding of Yorkshire from the county of Durham in its whole extent. It passes Barnard Castle, Staindrop, Darlington, Yarm, and Stockton, and falls into the German Ocean, in a wide estuary called the Teesmouth, on the south of Hartlepool.

TEESDALE FOREST, a township of England, in Durham; 11 miles north-by-west of Barnard Castle. Population 998.

TEESE, a large walled town of Central Africa, in the kingdom of Kasson. The Mandingo inhabitants were remarked by Mr. Park for their want of delicacy as to articles of diet, eating without difficulty moles, rats, squirrels, snakes, and locusts. Yet, by a singular caprice, no woman of Teese is allowed to eat an egg; 30 miles north-west of Kooniakary.

TEESGAON, a town of Hindostan, province of Aurungabad, lately, if not still, subject to the Mahrattas. Lat. 19. 13. N. long. 74. 53. E.

TEESGAON, a village of Bengal, 3 miles north of Dacca, in which is situated the bleach grounds of the East India Company.

TEESTA, a considerable river of Bengal. It has its source in the Himmalya mountains; and after separating the Nepaul dominions from those of the Deb rajah, enters the northern region of Rungpoor: it thence continues its course in a south direction, till it joins the Ganges. It is navigable by large boats, and is estimated to be about 400 miles in length.

TEETGAUM,

TEETGAUM, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, district of Neyer. Its inhabitants are Hindoos of the military tribe, and pay tribute to the chief of Theraud. Latitude not ascertained.

TEETH, the plural of *tooth*.—Who can open the doors of his face? his *teeth* are terrible round about. *Job*.

To TEETH, v. n. To breed teeth; to be at the time of dentition.—When the symptoms of *teething* appear, the gums ought to be relaxed by softening ointment. *Arbuthnot*.

TEETON, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 7 miles from Northampton.

TEFE, or **TEFEE**, a settlement of Brazil, in the government of Para, on the shore of the river of its name, and at the mouth by which it enters the Amazons, and where also a fort has been built for its defence. Lat. 3. 20. S. long. 64. 48. W.

TEFE, a river of Brazil, which rises, as is conjectured, in the country of the Indians, between the Purus to the east, and the Jurua to the west; and after several windings, enters the Amazons.

TEFESSAD, a town of Algiers, on whose site are found extensive ruins, reaching two miles in length, and half a mile in breadth, supposed to be those of the ancient Tipasa; 32 miles south-south-west of Algiers.

TEFETHNE, or **TEFTANE**, a small sea-port of Morocco, situated at the mouth of a river of the same name; 60 miles west of Morocco.

TEFFONT, **EVIAS**, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 7 miles west of Wilton.

TEFFONT, **MAGNA**, another parish in the same county, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

TEFLIS, or **TIFLIS**, a city of Asia, and capital of the kingdom of Georgia. This city was visited in 1817 by Sir R. Kerr Porter, who describes it as situated on the precipitous and sublime banks of the Kur, at the extremity of a defile formed by two bold ranges of mountains, which gloomily overshadow it. The city has no claim to an antiquity beyond the lapse of a few centuries; having been founded in the year 1063, by the Tzar Liewvang, who wished to derive personal benefit from certain warm springs in its neighbourhood. Till that period it could boast no habitation in the form of a house; unless, perhaps, a few mud hovels for the convenience of the occupiers of a small fortress, which stood on an adjacent height, and protected the valley.

Teflis has been long celebrated for its baths, which are situated at one extremity of the bazar. At this place is a small bridge over a deep ravine, at the bottom of which flows a mountain stream; pure and cold at its fountain-head, but mingling here with the hot springs which take their rise in the adjacent heights, it becomes warm, and derives all the medicinal properties whose fame gave birth to Teflis. Over this steaming flood the public baths are erected. They form not only a resource in sickness to the natives, and to travellers visiting them with the same object, but they are the daily resort of both sexes, as places of luxury and amusement. On one side of the bridge stand those appropriated to the men; and on the other, immediately below the gloomy walls of the citadel, the range intended for the women. The water which supplies these distinct bath-houses is strongly impregnated with sulphur, having the usual offensive smell of such springs. Its degree of heat may be reckoned at from 15 to 36 degrees of Reaumur in the several basons. At the source of the hot stream it is about 42. The basons are excavated in the solid rock, over whose surface the water had originally flowed; and these are divided, under one immense vaulted roof, into different apartments, whence even the smallest egress of day-light is excluded; and which are merely rescued from total darkness by the faint glimmerings of a few twinkling lamps struggling with the vapours from the stream. The place is kept intolerably filthy, and full of disorder and stench. There is not a spot where a bather could lay down his clothes, without the certainty of taking them up again drenched with wet and dirt. These baths are open to all ranks indiscriminately, who may be seen here huddled to-

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gether, scrubbing, scraping, rubbing, shaving, &c.; the offices of each act being done, either by the companions of the bather, or the persons of the bath, who are always in attendance with the necessary requisites. The baths appropriated to the women were also visited by Sir R. K. Porter, who was admitted without the least scruple.

There are several fine churches, of different Christian persuasions, in Teflis; and that which is dedicated to the Roman Catholic mode of worship, is one of the most beautiful. The cathedral of Holy Sion, the great Arminian church, is more extensive, but does not equal its tolerated rival in richness and grace of architecture; yet it has an advantage in situation, which, adding the majesty of nature to the holy sanctity of the place, seems fully to answer the character of its name. The noble waters of the Kur roll near its base, increasing in rapidity and sound as they pour onward amongst the thickening rocks of the suddenly closing in of the bold cliffs which embank the stream. At this narrowed point, a bridge of one single arch connects the town with a considerable suburb called Avlabar. It is chiefly inhabited by a colony of Arminians, who fled from the neighbourhood of Erivan, during the late wars between Russia and the Persian government. Here also are the ruins of an ancient fort, church, and houses; and about two miles further from this side of the city, stand the remains of another sacred edifice of old times, on the summit of a hill so high, that it commands the most extensive view to be found anywhere in the environs of Teflis. From one side it embraces the city, with its citadel, churches, and gardens; on the other to the north, the windings of the Kur, through the varied shores of the valley and plain; and takes also into the same wide landscape, not only the whole chain of mountains from the province of Kahetia to Kasibek, but their tremendous summits, pile above pile, as far as the eye can reach to the north-west, till all are crowned by the pale and cloud-encircled head of Elborus. A Russian officer, who measured this last-named mountain, calculates it to be 16,700 feet above the level of the sea.

Since the conquest of the Russians, it has been the residence of their governor and commander-in-chief, who has always a great force stationed here under him. The troops are quartered, as in Europe, in the houses of the inhabitants; a circumstance which gives extreme disgust to the Georgians, in consequence of their wives and daughters being exposed to the view of strangers. This habitual intercourse with Europeans has effected within the last 20 years a considerable change in the manners of the female Georgians. The higher ranks have lost much of their Asiatic manners; and it is said that in some cases the change not being well understood, the women have become licentious, and have thrown off their former Asiatic restraint, without assuming the reserve and decorum of European manners. Amongst the lower classes this effect of foreign intercourse has been even more decided, as the customary lines of separation between the women and the men, owing to the introduction of Russian soldiers into their houses, could no longer be preserved. When the women walk abroad, they still so far retain the old custom of concealment, as to wear its costume; and they may be seen tripping along, enveloped from head to foot in a large Asiatic veil, called a *chadre*; and, when any of these females happen to be standing at the doors, without this safeguard, they retreat hastily into the house on observing themselves to be attentively looked at by a man. The beauty of the Georgian women cannot be disputed; having fine dark large eyes, very regular features, and a pleasing mild expression of countenance. The dress of the higher ranks is splendid, and carefully adjusted; but the lower order of females, notwithstanding they share the same taste for the ceremonies of the bath, and regularly go through them all, appear often in rags, and always in dirt.

Before its capture in 1797, by Aga Mohammed Khan, Teflis contained 4000 houses, and 22,000 inhabitants. The greater part of the houses are still standing, and are neatly built; but the population does not now exceed 15,000.

Teflis is distant from St. Petersburg 2627 wersts, or about

1752 English miles, in 42. 45. north lat., and 62. 40½. east long, according to Russian calculation.

TEFZA, a town of Morocco, built on the side of a mountain. The surrounding walls are composed of blocks of marble; 70 miles north-east of Morocco.

TEGADOO BAY, a bay on the east coast of the most northern islands of New Zealand, discovered by Captain, (then lieutenant) Cook, in 1789. Lat. 38. 10. S. long. 181. 14. W.

TEGAPATAM, a sea-port town of the south of India, district of Travancore. It is situated at the mouth of a small river, which may be entered by boats. Lat. 8. 15. N. long. 77. E.

TEGERHY, or **TAIGAREA**, the most westerly town of Fezzan, in Africa, 68 miles south of Mourzouk.

TEGEWSE, a village of the Bled el Jereede, in Africa, to the south of the kingdom of Tunis, on the site of the ancient Tichasa; 38 miles south-south-west of Gafsa.

TEGLIO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Valteline, on the river Adda, with 1500 inhabitants; 10 miles west of Sondrio.

TEGOMAH, a town of Central Africa, in the kingdom of Asben, on the frontier of Cassina. It lies on the great caravan route from Fezzan to Cassina; 50 miles south of Agades.

TEGORARIN, a village in the southern part of the kingdom of Tunis, on the frontier of the Sahara, 70 miles north-north-west of Gardeiah.

TEGUA, a small river of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, which runs east, and enters the Arico.

TEGUALEMU, an Indian settlement of Chili, in the province of Itatu.

TEGUAS, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja.

TEGUCIGALPA, a river of Honduras, which enters the sea near the bay of Truxillo.

TEGUE, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Carthagena, situated in an island formed by the river Cauca.

TEGULET, a city of Abyssinia, in the province of Shoa, said to have been the ancient capital of the kingdom. Lat. 9. 40. N. long. 38. 30. E.

TEGUMENT, *s.* [*tegumentum*, Lat.] Cover; the outward part. This word is seldom used but in anatomy or physics.—In the nutmeg another *tegument* is the mace between the green pericarpium and the hard shell. *Ray*.

TEHAMA, a large belt of sand, which stretches along the eastern shore of the Red Sea, and reaches to the mountains in the interior. It is almost entirely barren, presenting an unvaried picture of desolation.

TEHE'E, *interj.* This is an old expression for a laugh. It is also used in Scotland; and Dr. Janrieson considers it as either derived from the sound, or as allied to *hia*, Su. Goth. and Icel. to sport, to laugh.—*Te-he*, quoth she, and clapt the window to. *Chaucer*.

To **TE'HEE**, *v. n.* To laugh with a loud and more insolent kind of cackinnation; to titter.

They laughed and *te-hee'd* with derision,
To see them take your deposition.

Hudibras.

TEHINCHIEN, a river of Bootan, which, after passing Tassisudon, and being joined by several other streams, enters Bengal, near Buxedwar, and joins the Brahmapootra.

TEHRAUN, a large city of Persia, which, during the two last reigns, has been the capital of the empire, so far at least as the residence of the sovereign confers that character. Its situation is very striking, having to the south the ruins of the immense and ancient city of Rey or Rae; to the north and east the lofty mountain ranges of Elburz and Demavend, and to the west a plain enriched with cultivation and villages. It is about four miles in circumference, surrounded by a strong wall, flanked by innumerable towers, and a broad dry ditch, with a glacis between it and the wall. In the summer season the king pitches his tent in the plains of

Sultania or Unjan, and most of the inhabitants follow the royal camp; so that Tehraun cannot then boast of a population of more than 10,000. In winter, on the contrary, it is supposed to contain 60,000 inhabitants. Lat. 35. 40. N. long. 50. 52. E.

TEHROOT, a small town of Persia, in the province of Kerman, pleasantly surrounded with gardens; 50 miles north-west of Bumm.

TEHRWARRA, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, tributary to a chief named Kumonal Khan. The inhabitants are said to be much addicted to robbery. Lat. 23. 53. N. long. 71. 25. E.

TEHUACAN, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico, and one of the most frequented sanctuaries of the Mexicans, before the arrival of the Spaniards. It is populous, having many families of Spaniards, mulattoes, and mestizoes, besides above 2000 Indians. Lat. 18. 30. N. long. 97. 14. 30. W.

TEHUANTEPEC, **TEGUANTEPEQUE**, or **TECOANTEPEQUE**, a sea-port town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Oaxaca, situated in the bottom of the creek formed by the ocean, between the small villages of San Francisco, San Dionisio, and Santa Maria de la Mar. It is about 196 miles south-east of Mexico. Lat. 16. 16. N. long. 94. 58. W.

TEHUANTEPEC, a very large open gulf in the front of the above city, and from which it takes its name. It is also the name of a point of land nearly separated from the shore.

TEHULOTEPEC, a village of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico, situated near the great mines of Tasco. Long. 29. 99. W.

TEICHEL, a petty town of the Central part of Germany, in the upper county of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt. Population 800.

TEICHOPŒUS, *τεῖχοποιός*, Gr., among the Athenians, an officer who had the care of the city walls; their number was the same with that of the tribes, every tribe having the choice of one.

TEIDI, a small river of Paraguay, in the province of Gaira, which enters the Parana between the Yaguini and the Guazigua.

TEIGH, a parish of England, in Rutlandshire; 5½ miles north by west of Oakham.

TEIGN, a river of England, in Devonshire. It consists of two branches, which rise nearly in the centre of the county, and, after uniting, fall into the English channel at Teignmouth.

TEINGRACE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 2 miles north of Abbot's Newton.

TEIGNMOUTH, a sea-port town of England, in Devonshire, situated at the mouth of the river Teign, a place of great antiquity, and now become one of the principal watering places on the south-western coast. The town stands on a gentle declivity, at the foot of a chain of hills, which shelter it on the east and north-east. It is divided by a small rivulet into two parishes, viz., East and West Teignmouth. The principal resort of visitors is to East Teignmouth, where the public rooms are situated. It is a neat building, containing tea, coffee, assembly and billiard rooms. There are also libraries and reading-rooms in the town. The present theatre has been newly built in West Teignmouth, and is a handsome structure. The view up the river is extremely beautiful, the ground gradually rising into verdant hills, ornamented with wood. The cliffs overhanging the sea have a singular appearance, being mostly of a deep red colour, and rising in rude irregular shapes to the height of 70 or 80 feet. The church of East Teignmouth is a venerable structure, situated near the beach; and, from its architecture, it appears probable that this was one of the earliest structures erected after the coming of the Normans.

The chief trade of Teignmouth consists in the exportation of pipe or potter's clay to Staffordshire, Liverpool, &c. whence are brought back coal, salt, earthenware, &c. A great number of vessels are also sent hence to the Newfoundland fishery. West Teignmouth is a manor of itself, and belongs

belongs to lord Clifford, who, by his deputy, holds annually a court-baron or court-leet in the town or borough, at which a jury is regularly nominated, two constables deputed and sworn, and a portreeve chosen, who is invested with considerable authority. In this court, which has been held here time immemorial, anciently all *petit* causes among the inhabitants were tried, and the culprits amerced according to the pleasure of the lord. East Teignmouth contains the manor of East Teignmouth, or Teignmouth Courtenay, which belongs to lord Courtenay. The dean and chapter of Exeter have also a manor in East Teignmouth, to whom the great tythes and the tythes of fish belong, and who are the lords paramount, Lord Courtenay being the puisne lord. Teignmouth is a place of remote antiquity, and is recorded to have been burnt in the 10th century by the Danes. The parishes of East and West Teignmouth contain about 5000 inhabitants. The market-place has been lately built, and is very commodious; it is well supplied on Saturdays. There are three fairs in the year; the best frequented is in September. The principal inn in the town is the London hotel. There are many handsome seats in the neighbourhood, the principal of which is West Cliff house, belonging to Lord Exmouth; 15 miles south of Exeter, and 185 west-by-south of London. Lat. 50. 33. N. long. 3. 29. W.

TEIGNTON, BISHOP'S, a parish of England, in Devonshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile west-by-north of West Teignmouth. Population 753.

TEIGNTON, DREWS, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 8 miles south-west of Crediton. Population 998.

TEIGNTON, KING'S, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 2 miles north-east of Abbot's Newton. Population 1001.

TEIL, a small town in the south-east of France, in the department of the Ardeche, on the Rhone. Population 1400; 5 miles north of Viviers.

TEIL, *s.* [*tilia*, Lat.] The same with linden or lime tree.

From purple violets and the *teil* they bring
Their gather'd sweets, and rifle all the spring. *Addison.*

TEILLEUL, a small town in the north-west of France, department of La Manche. Population 2400; 9 miles south-south-east of Mortain, and 25 south-east of Avranches.

TEIN, or THEIN, a small town in the interior of Bohemia, on the Mulda; 59 miles south of Prague, and 15 north of Budweis, Population 1900.

TEINT, *s.* [*teinte*, Fr.] Colour; touch of the pencil.—Glaz'd colours have a vivacity which can never be imitated by the most brilliant colours, because the different *teints* are simply laid on, each in its place, one after another. *Dryden.*

TEISSÉ, a large village in the north of France, department of the Orne, with 1500 inhabitants, employed partly on the iron-works of the place.

TEISSHOLZ, or TISZOLTS, a small town in the north-east of Hungary; 92 miles north-north-east of Pest, and 26 east of Libethen, inhabited by Lutheran Slowacs. In the neighbourhood are mines of magnetic iron ore.

TEJUCO, a district of Brazil, of which the town of Tejuco is the capital, around which it extends 16 leagues from north to south, and about 8 from east to west. It was first explored by some enterprising miners from Villa do Principe, a few years after the establishment of that town. These men proceeding north, found an open country, watered by many small rivulets. These rivulets were then washed for gold, and were considered as belonging to the district of Villa do Principe. No idea was first entertained that the rivulets contained diamonds although it is said that some were collected and presented to the then governor of Villa do Principe, as curious bright stones, and were used by him as counters at cards. Soon afterwards a few of them found their way to Lisbon, and were given as pretty pebbles to the Dutch minister, to send to Holland, which was then the principal mart in Europe for precious stones. The lapidaries to whom they were presented for examination, pronounced

these pebbles to be very fine diamonds. Information was accordingly sent to the Dutch consul at Lisbon, who did not fail to profit by the occasion; for he managed the affair with government so well, that he contracted for the precious stones at the same time that he communicated the intelligence. Government afterwards endeavoured to monopolise the diamonds, and made a distinct district of Cerro do Frio, placing it under peculiar laws and regulations. The number of diamonds sent over during the first 20 years after the discovery, is said to be almost incredible, and to exceed 1000 ounces in weight. In its present state the establishment appears to produce much greater wealth than it actually does. During a period of five years, from 1801 to 1806 inclusive, the expenses were 204,000*l.* and the diamonds sent to the treasury at Rio de Janeiro weighed 115,675 carats. The value of gold found in the same period amounted to 17,300*l.* sterling, from which it appears, that the diamonds actually cost government *l.* 13*s.* 9*d.* per carat. These years were esteemed singularly productive; the mines do not in general yield to government more than 20,000 carats annually. Exclusive of this amount, there is a vast quantity smuggled.

TEJUCO, a town of Brazil, and capital of the above district. Owing to its situation by the side of a hill, it is very irregularly built; its streets are uneven, but the houses in general are well constructed and in good condition, compared with those of other towns in the interior. Its name, which, in the Portuguese language, signifies a muddy place, is derived from places of that description in its neighbourhood, which are rendered passable by being covered with large pieces of wood. Owing to the great distance of Tejuco from a sea-port, piano-fortes have not been introduced here, or they would probably be in great demand; for the ladies in general have a taste for music, and touch the guitar with great spirit and elegance. Dancing is a favourite amusement and all appear much pleased and animated with the English country-dance. The ladies seldom go abroad, except to mass, and then they are usually carried in a chair hung with curtains and a canopy, and suspended from a pole borne by two men. The sedentary habits of the females has been thought injurious to their health; but since English saddles have been introduced, they begin to take airings on horseback. Warm baths are very generally used, being considered of great efficacy in removing recent colds, to which all persons here are liable, on account of the peculiar nature of the climate. They are invariably offered at night to travellers, as a means of relieving the pains occasioned by the fatigues of the day. Population 6000.

TEJUCO, or TEJUCA, a small island of Brazil, near the island of St. Catherine's, in lat. 27. 11. S. long. 48. 50. W.

TEJUCOS, BAY OF, on the coast of Brazil, in South America, some miles to the north of the island of St. Catherine's. It is from two to three leagues across, and extends the same distance inland. It is well sheltered, and affords good anchorage, and fine situations for loading timber, with which the mountainous country is thickly clothed, and of which large quantities are felled and embarked for Rio de Janeiro and the river Plata. The bay is esteemed good fishing ground for whales; along the beach of this bay is found a shell of the murex genus, which produces that beautiful crimson dye, so valued by the ancients. It is here called purpura, and, its use is in some degree known to the natives. Lat. 26. 56. S.

TEKELY, a village of Lower Hungary, in the palatinate of Pilis. It gave name to the family of Tekeley, famous for the resistance made by its head to the house of Austria, in the 17th century.

TEKETANOAH, or CYPRUS CREEK, a river of the United States in Alabama, which flows into the Tennessee, a below Florence.

TEKETENGY, a river of the south-east of Transylvania, in the district of Haromszek, which, after flowing through a fertile and beautiful valley, falls into the Aluta.

TEKIN, a village of Caramania, in Asiatic Turkey; 100 miles west of Tocat.

TEKING, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quang-

Quang-tong, near the river Si. Lat. 23. 12. N. long. 111. E.

TEKIR, or TEKIRI DAG, a mountain in the east of European Turkey, in Romania, which is, properly speaking, only a continuation to the eastward of the Argentaro or Rhodope chain. It extends along the north coast of the sea of Marmora, and terminates at the extremity of the Thracian Chersonese, to the north of Constantinople.

TEKOA, a village of Palestine, on the site of which was anciently built a considerable town, of which the ruins are still visible; 9 miles south of Bethlehem.

TEKUPHE, or THEKUPHE, with the Jews, are the times in which the sun proceeds from one cardinal point to the next.

The same term is also applied to the moment in which the sun enters a cardinal point: these four terms, or tekuphæ, into which the Jews divided their solar year, are observed among the Jews with a great deal of ceremony. And hence, they fancy, that if any body drinks the smallest quantity of water at that time, he will infallibly have a dropsy, or some other grievous distemper.

The tekupha of Tisri corresponded to the autumnal equinox; that of Tebeth to the winter solstice; that of Nisan to the vernal equinox; and that of Tamuz to the summer solstice.

TEKUTCH, a small town in the north of European Turkey, in Moldavia, in the district called the Zara de Schoss; 70 miles north-north-west of Calatz, and 76 south of Jessy.

TERY SOUND, on the coast of Georgia, to the south of Savannah river, is a capacious road, where a large fleet may anchor in from 10 to 44 fathoms water, and be land-locked, and have a safe entrance over the bar of the river. The flood tide is generally seven feet.

TELACH, an island of Asiatic Russia, in the Penzinskoi gulf. Lat. 61 35. N. long. 159. 14. E.

TELAMONES, a name given by the Romans to what the Greeks called *Atlantes*; viz. the figures of men supporting entablatures, and other projectures.

The word, according to some, is derived from the Greek *τελαμων*, from *τελαω*, or *τλαω*, *I bear*.

Among the Greeks they were called *Atlantes*, *ατλαντες*, which comes from the same word *ταλαω*, or *τλαω*, by the figure metathesis.

TELANADING ISLANDS, three small islands lying east and west, near the north-west coast of the island of Gilolo. Lat. 2. 18. N. long. 127. 30. E.

TELAPSAR, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 20 miles west of Mosul.

TELARUSE, a river of Asia, in the peninsula of Malacca, which forms the northern boundary of the kingdom of Queda, separating it from Lower Siam, and falls into the Eastern seas. Lat. 6. 56. N. long. 99. 42. E.

TELARY, *adj.* [*tela*, Lat., *a web*.] Spinning webs.—The pictures of *telary* spiders, and their position in the web, is commonly made lateral, and regarding the horizon; although we shall commonly find it downward, and their heads respecting the centre. *Brown*.

TELAUGIA, the name of a genus of scrupi, of a glittering appearance, usually containing flakes of talc, and emulating the structure of the granites. *Hill*.

Of this genus we have twelve species.

TELCH, a river of European Turkey, in Wallachia, which rises on the borders of Transylvania, and falls into the Danube.

TELDOM HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary, situated on the western bank of the river Sagalien. Lat. 49. 56. N. long. 127. 33. E.

TELEGRAPH, *s.* [*telegraphie*, Fr., from *τελος* and *γραφω*, Gr.] An instrument that answers the end of writing by conveying intelligence to a distance through the means of signals. *Mason*

The earliest decisive proof of telegraphic communications, except those by fires (*πυρσειαι*) being in use among the Greeks, is found in the methods described by Polybius. The Romans had their *vexillarii*, and used flags and other

contrivances for regulating the movements of their armies; and they had hollow tubes constructed in the walls of their cities, by which they could communicate with the several ports or works by sound, as is done in our times in some manufactories by means of pipes or trumpets. Wherever the Romans pitched their camp, an elevated spot was selected for the signal station, to convey intelligence to the foraging parties or detachments, but it is nowhere stated to what extent this was carried. Vegetius alludes to something like a beam in the air, on the same principle perhaps as our Semaphore.

The first telegraph on record in modern times, applicable to universal purposes, is that of Dr. Hooke, described in the *Philosophical Transactions* of the year 1684. He minutely details the mode in which the stations should be selected, their height and intermediate ground, so that the refraction of the air may not disturb the clear appearance of the object; the telescopes to be used; the characters to represent the alphabet, which, he says, may be varied ten thousand ways, and "none but the two extreme correspondents shall be able to discover the information conveyed;" and so convinced is he of the practical efficiency of his telegraph, as to leave no doubt on his mind, "that the same character may be seen at Paris within a minute after it hath been exposed in London." His method consisted in exposing in succession as many different shaped figures or signs, at least, as the alphabet consists of letters. If used in the day-time, they might be squares, circles, triangles, &c., made of deals; if at night, torches or other lights disposed in a certain order. These characters or signs were to be brought forth from behind a screen on rods, as they might be wanted, and exposed to view.

In the year 1795, the Rev. J. Gamble produced two plans of a telegraph; the one consisting of five boards, one above the other, which, by opening and shutting singly, or according to all the combinations of which they were capable, gave a certain number of distinct signals, representing either numbers or letters, as might be deemed most expedient. The other plan was that of five beams of wood, turning on the summit of a post, so as to form five radii of a semicircle at equal angles of 45° with each other. This was the foundation of the present semaphore.

In the same year, Lord George Murray presented his plan of a six-shutter telegraph to the Admiralty, which was the one adopted and made use of during the whole war, and until the year 1816, when it was changed for a simplified semaphore, which will be noticed hereafter.

On the same principle as the radiated telegraph of Mr. Gamble, but differently arranged, the French, on the commencement of the second war in 1803, erected signal-posts along the coast, to which they gave the name of semaphores; being two or three beams of wood on the same post, but turning on different pivots.

In 1807, Colonel Pasley published his *Polygrammatic Telegraph*, which differed only from the French semaphore in having two beams turning on one pivot on the same post, and multiplying the number of posts; which he afterwards (in 1810) changed so far as to place three sets of beams or arms, two in each set, on one post, and thus approached still nearer to the French semaphore.

In the year 1816, Sir Home Popham, who had already introduced a new code of signals into the navy, which was admitted on all hands as a great improvement on the old system, both as regarding the number, the arrangement, and the shape of the flags, now turned his attention to the land semaphore, and proposed one on a construction of the same nature with that of Colonel Pasley, but much simplified. It was, in fact, nothing more than two moveable arms on separate pivots on the same mast.

This machine, on account of its simplicity, had obviously the advantage over all others that had been proposed; and being found of sufficient power and efficiency for all required purposes, it was adopted by the Admiralty, instead of the shutter telegraph, which had been in use since the year 1795.

Colonel Pasley, however, in 1822, still farther simplified this useful machine, at the expense of sacrificing a small portion of its powers, by making the two arms revolve on the same pivot, but fixed at the top of the post, to which he has given the name of the "Universal Telegraph."

TEGLET, or ΜΕΖΟΤΕΛΕΓΓ, a small town in the south-east of Hungary; 12 miles east of Great Waradein, and 40 south-south-east of Debreczin,

TELEMBI, a river of New Granada, in the province of Pasto, which rises near the town of Pasto, and enters the Patia, a little before it runs into the sea.

TELEMBI, SAN LUIS DE, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Pasto, situated on the shore of the above river.

TELEMEEN, a village of Africa, in the Bled el Jereede, on the site of the ancient Almora.

TELEPHIUM [of Pliny. Τηλεφριον of Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia, natural order of portulacæ (Juss.).—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved; leaflets oblong, obtuse, concave, keeled, length of the corolla, permanent. Corolla: petals five, oblong, obtuse, narrower below, erect, inserted into the receptacle. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla; anthers incumbent. Pistil: germ three-sided, acute. Style none. Stigmas three, acute, spreading. Pericarp: capsule short, three-sided, three-valved, one-celled, receptacle free, shorter by half than the capsule. Seeds very many, roundish. *Essential Character*.—Calyx five-leaved. Petals five, inserted into the receptacle. Capsule one-celled, three-valved.

1. *Telephium imperati*, or true orpine.—Root composed of yellowish woody fibres, spreading out wide. Stalks and branches slender, trailing, eight or nine inches long. Leaves small, ovate, grayish, smooth, and pretty stiff, having one longitudinal nerve running through the middle. Flowers terminating, in short thick bunches, reflexed like those of Heliotrope.—Native of the South of France, Spain, Switzerland, Italy, and Barbary.

2. *Telephium oppositifolium*. Leaves opposite.—Native of Barbary,

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in autumn, on a bed of fresh light earth, in an open situation; for if they be sown in the spring, the plants will not come up till the following spring. Leave them six or eight inches asunder, and clear them well from weeds, which will soon overbear such trailing plants. They do not transplant well, and therefore should be sown where they are to remain. The seeds will soon scatter, and if the ground be not disturbed, plants will come up in plenty.

TELESCOMBE, a parish of England, in Sussex, chiefly inhabited by smugglers; 3 miles north-west of Newhaven.

TELESCOPE, *s.* [*telescope*, Fr., from *τηλε*, *far*, and *σκοπεω*, Gr., *to view*.] A long glass by which distant objects are viewed.—The *telescope* discovers to us distant wonders in the heavens, and shews the milky way, and the bright cloudy spots, in a very dark sky, to be a collection of little stars. *Watts*. See OPTICS.

TELESCOPICAL, or TELESCOPIC, *adj.* Belonging to a telescope; seeing at a distance.—Mr. Molyneux discoursed of *telescopic* sights. *Hist. R. S.*

TELESE, a petty town of Italy; 17 miles east-north-east of Capua, and 24 north-west of Naples.

TELESIO (Bernardino), a modern philosopher, the descendant of an illustrious family at Cosenza, in Naples, was born in the year 1508 or 1509, and he terminated his life in the year 1588. Teslio distinguished himself by his opposition to the physics of Aristotle, and employed mathematical principles in explaining the laws of nature. These were first divulged in a work printed at Rome in 1565, entitled "De Rerum Natura juxta propria principia, Lib. II." and enlarged to nine books in an edition printed at Naples in 1586. The same system was maintained in other treatises, under the titles of "De his quæ in Aere fiunt, et de Terræ Motibus;" "De Mari;" "De Colorum Genere," &c. His

system was in its essence the doctrine of Parmenides, who taught, that the first principles in nature, by means of which all natural phenomena are produced, are cold and heat. Lord Bacon observes, that Telesio, no less than Plato and Aristotle, places abstract notions at the basis of his system, and produces his world of real beings from non-entities. This eminent philosopher, however, characterises him as a lover of truth and a benefactor to science; and one who prepared the way for subsequent improvements.

TELESM, *s.* [*talism*, Arab. See TALISMAN.] A kind of amulet or magical charm.—This is hugely like the consecrated *telesms* of the pagans. *More*.

TELESMA'TICAL, *adj.* Belonging to telesms.—They had a *telesmatical* way of preparation, answerable to the beginnings and mediocrity of the art. *Gregory*.

TELESPHORUS, a deity invoked by the Greeks for health, together with the Esculapius and Hygeia. The figures of these three divinities occur on several medals, and on some we have Telesphorus with Esculapius alone, and on others with Hygeia.

The figure of Telesphorus is that of an infant clothed with a sort of cloak without sleeves, which enfolds its arms, descends below the knees, and has a kind of hood or cowl covering its head.

TELESTIC, *s.* [from *τελος* and *στιχος*, Gr.] A poem, where the final letters of each line make up a name. *Mason*.—Acrostics and *telestics* on jump names. *B. Jonson*.

TELETZKOI, a lake of Siberia, in the government of Kolivan, extending about 52 miles from north to south and 10 from east to west, supplied by a river which rises in Chinese Tartary, and bordered by a lofty chain of mountains, connected with the Altai.

TELFAIR, a county of the United States, in the south-west part of Georgia. Population 744, including 218 slaves.

TELIA, CAPE ST, a promontory on the south coast of Sardinia. Lat. 38. 20. N. long. 9. 20. E.

TELIGUE, a lake of Independent Tartary, in the steppe of the Kirghises, about 150 miles to the east of the Aral.

TELINGANA, an ancient kingdom of Hindostan, now possessed by the British and the Nizam. It was intersected by the river Godavery. The districts lying to the north of that river were called Andhra; those situated on the south of it, Kalinga. The Telinga language is still spoken by the Hindoos. Between Ganjam and Pulicat, it contains a number of Shanscrit words, and has some affinity to the Bengaly.

TELJE, a small town of Sweden, on the lake of Malar, near which is the beginning of the canal intended to be dug between the lake and the Baltic.

TELL (William), a celebrated Swiss, was an inhabitant of middle rank of Burgeln, in the canton of Uri, and son-in-law of Walter Furst. In 1307 he engaged in the conspiracy against the Austrian tyranny. Gesler, the German bailiff, suspecting a plot, artfully contrived a scheme for ascertaining the extent of submission to the Austrian yoke. Accordingly he set up a hat upon a pole, and commanded that obeisance should be paid to it. Tell resisted the command; and, as tradition reports, the arbitrary bailiff ordered him to shoot with an arrow at an apple placed on the head of his son. He cleft the apple without hurting the child; and being observed to have another arrow, he was interrogated what he intended to do with it. He unhesitatingly replied, that if he had wounded his son, the other shaft should have been directed to the bailiff's heart. This bold declaration caused him to be imprisoned. Of this fact there is no doubt; though the incident of the arrow and apple may be fabulous, as it is applied by Saxo Grammaticus to a Dane at an earlier period. The bailiff took Tell with him across the lake of Lucern, designing to convey him to another canton. In the passage, a storm arose, and the vessel being in danger, the fetters of Tell, who was known to be a skilful boatman, were taken off, and the helm was committed to his hands. Availing himself of this circumstance, he steered to a rock and made his escape.

Gesler on landing met with his fate from an arrow of Tell, who afterwards retired to Stauffacher in the canton of Schweiz; and on the following new-year's day, all the Austrian governors were seized and dismissed from the country; and this circumstance is said to be the commencement of Swiss freedom. Tell's death is supposed to have been occasioned by an inundation at Burgeln in the year 1354.

To TELL, *v. a.* preterite and part. pass. *told*. [*tellan*, Saxon; *taeleu*, *tellen*, Dutch; *talen*, Danish.] To utter; to express; to speak.

Thy message might in *telling* wound,
And in performing end us.

Milton.

To relate; to rehearse.

The rest are vanish'd, none repass'd the gate,
And not a man appears to *tell* their fate.

Pope.

To teach; to inform.

Tell me now, what lady is the same,
To whom you swore a secret pilgrimage,
That you to-day, promis'd to *tell* me of.

Shakspeare.

To discover; to betray.—They will *tell* it to the inhabitants. *Numb.*—To count; to number.

Numerous sails the fearfull only *tell*;
Courage from hearts, and not from numbers grows.

Dryden.

To make excuses. *A low word.*

Tush, never *tell* me, I take it much unkindly,
That thou, Iago, who hast had my purse,
As if the strings were thine, should'st know of this.

Shakspeare.

To TELL, *v. n.* To give an account; to make report.

Ye that live and move, fair creatures *tell*,
Tell, if ye saw, how came I thus, how here?

Milton.

To TELL *on*. To inform of. *A doubtful phrase.*—David saved neither man nor woman alive, to bring tidings to Gath, saying, lest they should *tell on* us, saying, so did David. *Sam.*

TELLA PASHNUM, a name given by the people of the East Indies to a kind of white arsenic, found native in the cliffs of rivers among strata of stone.

TELLER, *s.* One who tells or relates.—The nature of bad news infects the *teller*. *Shakspeare.*—One who numbers; a numberer.

TELLER, an officer in the exchequer, of whom there are four: whose business is to receive all monies due to the crown, and thereupon to throw down a bill through a pipe into the tally-court, where it is received by the auditor's clerks, who attend there to write the words of the said bill upon a tally, and then deliver it to be entered by the clerk of the pells, or his clerk.

The tally is then split or cloven by the two deputy chamberlains, who have their seals; and while the senior deputy reads the one part, the junior examines the other part with the other two clerks.

The teller's places are in the king's gift, and they have besides their chief clerk or deputy, and other clerks for the dispatch of business.

TELLES, a small sea-port of Fez, in Africa, on the coast of the Mediterranean, containing a safe harbour; 120 miles east-south-east of Tangiers.

TELLESFORD, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 6 miles north-north-east of Frome.

TELLICHERY, a sea-port town of the south of India, province of Malabar. Lat. 11. 44. N. long. 75. 36. E.

TELLICO, a post township of the United States, in Blount county, Tennessee, on the north side of the river Tennessee; 50 miles south-west of Knoxville.

TELLICO, a river of the United States, in Tennessee, which flows north-by-west into the Tennessee, just below Tellico.

TELLINA, in the Linnæan system of Conchology, a distinct genus of the class of Vermes, and order of Testacea.

For the characters of this genus, see CONCHOLOGY. Gmelin enumerates ninety-one species.

TELLING, CAPE, a cape on the north-west coast of Ireland. Lat. 54. 40. N. long. 10. 7. W.

TELLO, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes, Lat. 5. 5. S. long. 119. 30. E.

TELLO, POINT, a cape on the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 1. 50. S. long. 100. 31. E.

TELLTALE, *s.* One who gives malicious information; one who carries officious intelligence.

You speak to Casca, and to such a man

That is no fearing *telltale*.

Shakspeare.

TELLTALE, *adj.* Blabbing; telling tales; giving malicious information.

Let not the heavens hear these *telltale* women

Rail on the Lord's anointed.

Shakspeare.

TELLURIUM, in Mineralogy, a metal discovered by Klapproth. See MINERALOGY.

TELOBO, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the west coast of Gilolo. Lat. 1. 6. S. long. 127. 15. E.

TELTAU, or TELTOW, or KRON-TELTOW, a small town of Prussia, in Brandenburg, on a lake; 9 miles south-south-east of Berlin. It contains 1800 inhabitants, and is noted for a particular kind of turnips, which form an article of export.

TELTSCHE, a small town of the Austrian States, in Moravia; 50 miles west of Brunn, and 14 south of Iglau. Population 3000.

TEMASCALTEPEC, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico, and the place where the duties on mines are paid. It contains 520 families of Spaniards, mulattoes, and mestizoes; 65 miles west-by-south of Mexico.

TEMBEY, a river of Paraguay, which runs south-south-east, and enters the Parana, between the Quirapuy and Pirapopo.

TEMBIO, TAMPIO, or TIMBIO, a river of New Granada, in Popayan, which runs from east to west, and which, receiving the waters, of various tributary streams, enters the Patia, in lat. 2. 12. N.

TEMBLEQUE, an inland town of Spain, in New Castile; 30 miles east-south-east of Toledo, and 46 south of Madrid. It contains 4500 inhabitants. Lat. 36. 41. 0. N. long. 3. 30. 59. W.

TEMBLOR, a river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which rises near the coast, and enters the sea between the river La Plata and the straits of Magellan, close to the river Tandil.

TEMDEGUE KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary, in the Mantchoo country; 10 miles south-east of Tcitchitar.

TEME, or TEAM, a river of England, which rises in Radnorshire, and passing through Salop and Worcestershire, runs into the Severn, 1 mile below Worcester.

TEMEACHI, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Durango; 31 leagues south-west of the town of Chihuahua.

TEMEH, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 20 miles south-south-east of Siut.

TAMENDFUSE, or METAFUS, a low cape in Algiers, with a small castle, and some Roman ruins; 10 miles east of Algiers.

TEMENEH, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 52 miles west-north-west of Sinope.

TEMERARIOUS, *adj.* [*temeraire*, Fr., *temerarius*, Lat.] Rash; heady; unreasonably adventurous; unreasonably contemptuous of danger.—Resolution without foresight is but a *temerarious* folly; and the consequences of things are the first point to be taken into consideration. *L'Esrange.*—Careless; heedless; done at random.—Should he find upon one single sheet of parchment, an oration written full of profound sense, adorned with elegant phrase, the wit of man could not persuade him that this was done by the *temerarious* dashes of an unguided pen. *Ray.*

TEMERARIOUSLY, *adv.* Rashly; with unreasonable

able contempt of danger; without heed.—I have ventured, perhaps too *temerariouſly*, to contribute my mite to the learned world. *Swift*.

TEMERITY, *s.* [*temerité*, old French; *temeritas*, Lat.] Rashness; unreaſonable contempt of danger.—Without ſuſpicion of *temerity*. *More*.

TEMES, a navigable river of Hungary, in the bannat of Temesvar, which riſes among the mountains of Wallachia, paſſes by the fortreſs of Temesvar, and after a winding courſe, falls into the Danube at Patschova, below Belgrade. Its courſe being through a level country, it frequently overflows its banks, and forms large marſhes, particularly in the frontier diſtricts.

TEMESVAR, BANAT, or BANNAT OF, a province in the ſouth of Hungary, bounded by Tranſylvania, and by the great rivers the Maroſch, the Theyſs, and the Danube. Its extent is about 9450 ſquare miles; its population above 700,000. In the ſouth-eaſt it contains a range of high mountains, where paſturage and mining form the principal employment of its inhabitants; but the reſt is level, and in many places marſhy or ſandy, though in general of great natural fertility, and only requiring to be well cultivated to make it one of the fineſt provinces in Europe. The inhabitants are a mixture of moſt of the nations on the continent, but the Wallachians are moſt numerous. In 1779, the bannat was declared by the Auſtrian government to form part of Hungary, and divided into the three palatinates of Torontal, Temesvar, and Krassova, and into the military frontier diſtrict of Temesvar.

TEMESVAR, a conſiderable town in the ſouth of Hungary, the capital of the county of the ſame name, and one of the ſtrongeſt fortreſſes of the Auſtrian empire. To the town belongs a track of country, partly level, partly hilly, laid out in ſome meaſure in paſturage, but alſo in the culture of corn, flax, tobacco, and vines; 72 miles north-eaſt of Belgrade, and 160 ſouth-eaſt of Peſt. Lat. 45. 47. 20. N. long. 39. 5. 36. E.

TEMESVAR, a palatinate of Hungary, occupying the central part of the bannat. Its area is 2460 ſquare miles, with 244,000 inhabitants, compoſed of deſcendants of Magyars, Wallachians, Raſcians, and German coloniſts. The chief town is Temesvar.

TEMISCHBERG, a fortreſs of Aſiatic Turkey, in the government of Caucasus; 60 miles weſt of Stanropol.

TEMISSA, a town of Fezzan, the firſt reached by the caravans from Cairo, after croſſing the Lybian deſert; 80 miles eaſt of Mourzouk.

TEMMA, a ſmall ſea-port on the Gold Coaſt of Africa. Lat 5. 45. N. long. 0. 55. W.

TEMNIKOV, a ſmall town in the central part of European Ruſſia, in the government of Tambov, on the ſmall river Mokscha, which is different from the Moskva. In the ſurrounding province is a number of Tartars, partly Mahometans, partly new converts to Chriſtianity. The town has 3300 inhabitants, and is 144 miles north-north-eaſt of Tambov, and 250 eaſt-south-eaſt of Moſcow.

TEMOEL, a cape on the weſt coaſt of the iſland of Celebes, on the line. Long. 119. 25. E.

TEMOGA, a ſettlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 445 families of Indians.

TEMPE, VALE OR, a valley of Greece, in Theſſaly, extending from eaſt to weſt, and having the mountain range of Olympus on the north, and that of Oſſa on the ſouth. Through this valley the Peneus diſcharges its waters into the gulf of Salonica. It was much celebrated by the poets of antiquity.

TEMPELBERG, a ſmall town of Pruſſia, in Pomerania; 67 miles north of New Stettin, and 17 eaſt of Dramburg. Population 1700.

To TEMPER, *v. a.* [*tempero*, Lat., *temperer*, Fr.] To mix ſo as that one part qualifies the other.

I ſhall temper ſo

Justice with mercy, as may illuſtrate moſt
Them fully ſatisfy'd and Thee appeaſe.

Milton.

To compound; to form by mixture; to qualify as an ingredient.

If you could find out but a man
To bear a poiſon, I would temper it;
That Romeo ſhould upon receipt thereof
Soon ſleep in quiet.

Shakſpeare.

To mingle.—The good old knight, with a mixture of the father and maſter of the family, *tempered* the inquiries after his own affairs with kind queſtions relating to themſelves. *Addiſon*.—To beat together to a proper conſiſtence.

Th' uncivil kerns of Ireland are in arms,
And temper clay with blood of Engliſhmen.

Shakſpeare.

To accommodate; to modify.—Thy ſuſtenance ſerving to the appetite of the eater, *tempered* itſelf to every man's liking. *Wiſd*.—To bring to due proportion; to moderate exceſs.

Theſe ſoft fires with kindly heat.
Of various influence foment and warm,
Temper or nourish.

Milton.

To ſoften; to molify; to aſſuage; to ſoothe; to calm.

Woman! Nature made thee

To temper man: we had been brutes without you.

Otway.

To form metals to a proper degree of hardneſs.

The ſword

Of Michael from the armoury of God
Was given him *temper'd* ſo, that neither keen
Nor ſolid might reſiſt that edge.

Milton.

To govern. *A latinism.*

With which the damned ghoſts he governeth,
And furies rules, and Tartare *tempereth*.

Spencer.

TEMPER, *s.* Due mixture of contrary qualities.—Health itſelf is but a kind of *temper*, gotten and preſerved by a convenient mixture of contrarieties. *Arbutnot*.—Middle courſe; mean or medium.—If the eſtates of ſome biſhops were exorbitant before the reformation, the preſent clergy's wiſhes reach no further than that ſome reaſonable *temper* had been uſed inſtead of paring them ſo quick. *Swift*.—Conſtitution of body.—This body would be increaſed daily, being ſupplied from above and below, and having done growing, it would become more dry by degrees, and of a *temper* of greater conſiſtency and firmneſs. *Burnet*.—Disposition of mind.

Remember with what mild
And gracious *temper* he both heard, and judg'd,
Without wrath or reviling.

Milton.

Conſtitutional frame of mind.

Our hearts,
Of brothers *temper*, do receive you in
With all kind love.

Shakſpeare.

Calmneſs of mind; moderation.

Teach me, like thee, in various nature wiſe,
To fall with dignity, with *temper* riſe.

Pope.

State to which metals are reduced, particularly as to hardneſs.

Here draw I

A ſword, whoſe *temper* I intend to ſtain
With the beſt blood that I can meet withal.

Shakſpeare.

TEMPERAMENT, *s.* [*temperamentum*, Lat.] Conſtitution; ſtate with reſpect to the predominance of any quality.—Bodies are denominat'd hot and cold in proportion to the preſent *temperament* of that part of our body to which they are applied. *Locke*.—Medium; due mixture of oppoſites.—The common law has waſted and wrought out thoſe diſtempers, and reduced the kingdom to its juſt ſtate and *temperament*. *Hale*.

TEMPERAMENTAL, *adj.* Conſtitutional.—That *temperamental* dignotions, and conjecture of prevalent humours,
that

that may be collected from spots in our nails, we concede. *Brown*.—Intellectual representations are received with as unequal a fate upon a bare *temperamental* relish or disgust. *Glanville*.

TEMPERANCE, *s.* [*temperantia*, Lat.] Moderation: opposed to gluttony and drunkenness.

Observe

The rule of not too much; by *temperance* taught
In what thou eat'st and drink'st; seeking from thence
Due nourishment, no gluttonous delight. *Milton*.

Patience; calmness; sedateness; moderation of passion.

What, are you chaf'd?

Ask God for *temperance*, that's the appliance only
Which your disease requires. *Shakspeare*.

TEMPERATE, *adj.* [*temperatus*, Lat.] Not excessive; moderate in degree of any quality.

His sleep

Was airy, light, from pure digestion bred,
And *temperate* vapours bland. *Milton*.

Moderate in meat and drink.—I advised him to be *temperate* in eating and drinking. *Wiseman*.—Free from ardent passion.

So hot a speed with such advice dispos'd;
Such *temperate* order in so fierce a course
Doth want example. *Shakspeare*.

TEMPERATELY, *adv.* Moderately; not excessively.

By winds that *temperately* blow,
The bark should pass secure and slow. *Addison*.

Calmly; without violence of passion.

Temperately proceed to what you would
Thus violently redress. *Shakspeare*.

Without gluttony or luxury.—God esteems it a part of his service if we eat or drink; so it be *temperately*, and as may best preserve health. *Bp. Taylor*.

TEMPERATENESS, *s.* Freedom from excesses; mediocrity.—Calmness; coolness of mind.

Langley's mild *temperateness*,
Did tend unto a calmer quietness. *Daniel*.

TEMPERATIVE, *adj.* Having power to temper.—Living creatures are not only fed by the root of the stomach, but by the air drawn in and sent forth by the breath, which is *temperative* of the heart's heat, nutritive of the animal and vital spirits, and purgative of unnatural vapours. *Granger*.

TEMPERATURE, *s.* [*temperatura*, *tempero*, Lat.; *temperature*, Fr.] Constitution of nature; degree of any qualities.—Memory depends upon the consistence and the *temperature* of the brain. *Watts*.—Mediocrity; due balance of contrarieties.

As the world's sun doth effects beget
Different, in divers places every day;
Here autumn's *temperature*, there summer's heat,
Here flowery spring-tide, and there winter gray. *Davies*.

Moderation; freedom from predominant passion.

In that proud port which her so goodly graceth,
Most goodly *temperature* you may descry. *Spenser*.

TEMPERED, *adj.* Disposed with regard to the passions:

When was my lord so much ungently *tempered*,
To stop his ears against admonishment? *Shakspeare*.

TEMPEST, *s.* [*tempeste*, Fr.; *tempesta*, Lat.] The utmost violence of the wind; the names by which the wind is called according to the gradual increase of its force seem to be, a breeze; a gale; a gust; a storm; a tempest.

I have seen *tempests*, when the scolding winds
Have riv'd the knotty oaks. *Shakspeare*.

Any tumult; commotion; perturbation.

The *tempest* in my mind
Doth from my senses take all feeling else,
Save what beats there. *Shakspeare*.

To TEMPEST, *v. n.* [*tempestare*, Ital.] To storm.—Blind night in darkness *tempests*. *Sandys*.—To pour a tempest on.

Other princes —

Thunder and *tempest* on those learned heads,
Whom Cæsar with such honour doth advance. *B. Jonson*.

To TEMPEST, *v. a.* To disturb as by a tempest.

Part huge of bulk,
Wallowing unwieldy, enormous in their gait,
Tempest the ocean. *Milton*.

TEMPEST-BEATEN, *adj.* Shattered with storms.
In the calm harbour of her gentle breast,
My *tempest-beaten* soul may safely rest. *Dryden*.

TEMPEST-TOST, *adj.* Driven about by storms.
Though his bark cannot be lost,
Yet it shall be *tempest-tost*. *Shakspeare*.

TEMPESTA (Antonio), was an ingenious designer and painter, born at Florence in 1555, and was initiated in the art by Santi di Titi; afterwards he studied under another artist, whose name was Stradanus. Tempesta was gifted with a brilliant and powerful imagination, not, however, of the most correct or exalted kind. His favourite subjects were battles, sieges, cavalcades, huntings, processions, &c.: all of which he arranged and designed in a novel and rich style, and executed with uncommon spirit and energy. He was employed by Gregory XIII. in the Vatican, which he adorned with grotesque inventions, and some few historical productions. He was also employed by the marchese Justiniani in decorating his palace; and in several of the churches of Rome, Tempesta's paintings may be found. He not only exercised his genius and time with the pencil, but devoted much of both to the etching needle; having left behind him nearly 1800 plates of different kinds, and of very considerable merit. He died in 1630, aged 75.

TEMPESTIVE, *adj.* [*tempestivus*, Lat.] Seasonable. *Scott*.

TEMPESTIVELY, *adv.* Seasonably.—Dancing is a pleasant recreation of body and mind, if *tempestively* used. *Burton*.

TEMPESTIVITY, *s.* [*tempestivus*, Lat.] Seasonableness.—Since their dispersion, the constitution of countries admit not such *tempestivity* of harvest. *Brown*.

TEMPESTUOUS, *adj.* [*tempestueux*, Fr.] Stormy; turbulent.

Which of them rising with the sun or falling
Should prove *tempestuous*. *Milton*.

TEMPESTUOUSLY, *adv.* Turbulently; as in a tempest.—Thunderbolts so *tempestuously* shot. *Hammond*.

TEMPESTUOUSNESS, *s.* The state of being tempestuous.

TEMPIO, a small town in the island of Sardinia, with a collegiate church, a college of Piarists, and 5000 inhabitants; 32 miles east of Sassari

TE'MPLAR, *s.* [from the *Temple*, an house near the Thames, anciently belonging to the knights-*templars*, originally from the temple of Jerusalem.] A student in the law.

Wits and *templars* every sentence raise,
And wonder with a foolish face of praise. *Pope*.

TEMPLARS, TEMPLERS, or *Knights of the Temple*, a religious military order, first established at Jerusalem, in favour of pilgrims travelling to the Holy Land.

The original of this order, the first military one in the world, is this: in 1118, some pious and noble persons devoted themselves to the service of God, in the presence of the patriarch of Jerusalem; promising to live in perpetual chastity, obedience, and poverty, after the manner of canons. *Tha*

The two principal persons were Hugo de Paganis, and Geoffry of St. Omers. Baldwin II., then king of Jerusalem, gave them an apartment in his palace, near the temple at Jerusalem.

Their first undertaking, and what they had first in view at their institution, was, to guard the highway against robbers, &c., chiefly for the safety of pilgrims and croises.

In the year 1228, this order acquired stability, by being confirmed in the council of Troyes, and subjected to a rule of discipline drawn up by St. Bernard.

The order of Templars flourished for some time, and acquired by the valour of its knights immense riches, and an eminent degree of military renown: but as their prosperity increased, their vices were multiplied, and their arrogance, luxury, and cruelty, rose at last to such a monstrous height, that their privileges were revoked, and their order suppressed with the most terrible circumstances of infamy and severity. Their accusers were two of their own body, and their chief prosecutor Philip the Fair, of France, who addressed his complaints to Clement V. The pope, though at first unwilling to proceed against them, was under the necessity of complying with the king's desire, so that, in the year 1307, upon an appointed day, and for some time afterwards, all the knights, who were dispersed throughout Europe, were seized and imprisoned. Such of them as refused to confess the enormities of which they were accused, were put to death; and those who, by tortures and promises, were induced to acknowledge the truth of what was laid to their charge, obtained their liberty. In 1312, the whole order was suppressed by the council of Vienne. A part of the rich revenues they possessed was bestowed upon other orders, especially on the knights of St. John, and the rest confiscated to the respective treasuries of the sovereign princes in whose dominions their possessions lay.

It is probable, that king Philip set on foot this bloody tragedy, with a view to gratify his avarice, and glut his resentment against the Templars, and especially against their grand-master, who had highly offended him. The principal cause of this invincible hatred against them was, that in his quarrel with Boniface VIII., the knights espoused the cause of the pope, and furnished him with money to carry on the war. *Mosheim's Eccl. Hist. Bower's Hist. of the Popes.*

TEMPLE (Sir William), a statesman and miscellaneous writer, was the son of Sir John Temple, master of the rolls in Ireland, in the reign of Charles I. and II., and author of a History of the Irish Rebellion, born in London in the year 1628. Having finished his course of classical education, he was entered, at the age of seventeen, at Emanuel college, in the university of Cambridge, under the tuition of the learned Cudworth. Being designed for public life, his principal attention at the university was engaged by the study of the modern languages, French and Spanish; and at the age of twenty, he was sent to finish his education by travelling on the continent. Declining to accept any office under Cromwell, he resided with his father in Ireland, and devoted his time to the study of history and philosophy. At the Restoration he became a member of the Irish parliament, and during the reign of Charles II., he was concerned in a variety of negotiations. After the peace of Breda (July 10, 1667), Sir William went over to Holland, and formed an intimate acquaintance and friendship with De Wit, a man frank and open, and of the same generous and enlarged sentiments with himself; and in consequence of the negotiations of these two able statesmen, a defensive alliance was concluded between Holland and England. Sweden acceded to the confederacy; and thus was formed the triple league, which was generally regarded with equal surprise and approbation. In the conduct of this business, Temple acquired great honour; but to all the compliments that were paid to him on the occasion, he modestly replied, that to remove things from their centre, or proper element, required force and labour; but that of themselves they easily returned to it. The French monarch and the court of Spain were equally displeased; but in the treaty at Aix-VOL. XXIII. No. 1615.

la-Chapelle, where Temple appeared as ambassador extraordinary and mediator, on behalf of England, his address prevailed; the Spanish minister complied with the conditions proposed; and the peace between the contending powers was signed in May, 1668. In consequence of this event, Sir William was nominated ambassador to the States-General, and taking up his residence at the Hague in the month of August of this year, he maintained his intimacy with De Wit, and was also on familiar terms with William, prince of Orange, who had then attained the age of eighteen years. But this triple alliance was of short duration. The corruption and intrigues of the English court produced a recall of Temple in the year 1669, and when it was proposed to him to return and make way for a breach with Holland, he declined, much to his honour, engaging in hostility against a country to which he was attached, and retired from public business to his seat at Sheen, near Richmond. Here he employed himself in the improvement of his mansion, and in the cultivation of his garden; and also in writing his "Observations on the United Provinces," and a part of his "Miscellanea." When the war with the Dutch became unpopular through the nation, and the court and its ministers were under a necessity of bringing it to a termination, Sir William Temple was called out of his retirement to negotiate with the Spanish minister in London: and when the separate peace with Holland was concluded, he was requested in the next year, 1674, to undertake the office of ambassador to the States-General, for the purpose of negotiating a general peace. This he performed, but the peace did not last long.

When the king, in January, 1681, dissolved the parliament without the advice of his privy council, Temple boldly remonstrated against the measure; and at length, wearied with the faction and misgovernment which he had witnessed, he declined the offered return for the university to the new parliament, and retired to Sheen, conveying from thence a message to the king, "that he would pass the rest of his life as good a subject as any in his kingdom, but would never more meddle with public affairs." The king replied to the message, that he bore him no resentment; but his name was expunged from the council. The remainder of his life was spent in retirement and seclusion from all public business; and it is said, that he interfered so little in political matters, as not to know the design of the prince of Orange to engage in the expedition that terminated in the revolution, and to be the last person who gave credit to his landing. After James's abdication, however, he waited on the prince at Windsor, and presented to him his son. King William urged upon him the acceptance of the office of secretary of state; but he maintained his purpose of living in retirement. His son was appointed secretary at war; but in the week in which he assumed the office, he was seized with melancholy, and threw himself into the Thames. His reflection on this afflictive event was that which his stoic philosophy alone could have dictated:—"A wise man might dispose of himself, and render his life as short as he pleased." In his state of retirement, he admitted Swift to be his companion. King William occasionally visited him, and confidentially consulted him on several important affairs. In 1694, he lost his wife; and sinking gradually under increasing infirmities, occasioned by repeated fits of the gout, his life was terminated at Moor park, in January, 1698, in his 70th year. The greatest part of his fortune was bequeathed to the daughters of his unfortunate son by a French lady, under the express condition that they should not marry Frenchmen.

As a writer, he is known by his "Observations upon the United Provinces of the Netherlands," printed in 1672: his "Miscellanea;" "Memoirs;" and an "Introduction to the History of England," published in 1695. His "Letters," in 3 vols., which relate to public transactions, were published after his death by Swift. "All Sir William Temple's writings," says one of his biographers, "display much acquaintance both with books and men, and are entirely free from the licentiousness so prevalent in that age. Their style

is negligent and incorrect, but agreeable, resembling that of easy and polite conversation." *Hume, Gen. Biog.*

TEMPLE, *s.* [tempel, Sax.; temple, Fr.; templum, Lat.] A place appropriated to acts of religion.

Most sacrilegious murder hath broke ope
The lord's anointed temple, and stole thence
The life o' the building.

Shakspeare.

[Tempora, Lat.] The upper part of the sides of the head where the pulse is felt.

Her sunny locks

Hang on her temples like a golden fleece. *Shakspeare.*

To TEMPLE, *v. a.* To build a temple for; to appropriate a temple to.—The heathen, in many places, *temped* and adored this drunken god [Bacchus]. *Feltham.*

TEMPLES, among us, denote two inns of court, thus called, because anciently the dwelling-house of the knights Templars.

At the suppression of that order they were purchased by some professors of the common law, and converted into hospitia, or inns of courts.

They are called the *Inner* and *Middle Temple*, in relation to Essex-house, which was also a part of the house of the Templars, and called the *Outer Temple*, because situate without Temple-Bar.

TEMPLE, a parish of Scotland, in Mid-Lothian, on the south borders of the county. Its greatest length is about nine miles, and its greatest breadth about five. Population 1058.—2. A hamlet of England, in the parish of Broad-Windsor, Dorsetshire.—3. A hamlet of England, in the parish of Dartford, Kent.—4. A township of the United States, in Kennebeck county, Maine; 40 miles north-west of Augusta. Population 482.—5. A post township of the United States, in Hillsborough county, New Hampshire; 13 miles west-south-west of Amherst, and 54 south-south-west of Concord. Population 941.

TEMPLE BAY, a bay on the north-east coast of New Holland, to the south of Cape Grenville.

TEMPLE-COMBE, a village of England, in the parish of Combe Abbas, Somersetshire.

TEMPLE, COWLEY, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Cowley, near Oxford.

TEMPLE, GRAFTON, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 3 miles from Alcester.

TEMPLE HURST, a village of England, in the parish of Birkin, West Riding of Yorkshire.

TEMPLEMORE, a neat modern well-built village of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary, pleasantly situated on the banks of the Suir. Here is an elegant modern built church, with a fine spire and steeple; 75 miles south-west of Dublin.

TEMPLE NEWSHAM, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-by-south of Leeds.

TEMPLEPATRICK, a village of Ireland, in the county of Antrim, delightfully situated on the Six Mile Water; 87 miles north of Dublin.

TEMPLET, *s.* A piece of timber in a building.—When you lay any timber or brick-work, as lintels over windows, or *templets* under girders, lay them in loom. *Moxon.*

TEMPLETON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles west-by-north of Tiverton.

TEMPLETON, a post township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 60 miles west-north-west of Boston, and 27 north-west of Worcester. Population 1205.

TEMPLEUVE, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault. Population 3300; 5 miles north-east of Tournay, and 9 east of Lille.

TEMPLIN, a small town of Prussia, in the province of Brandenburg, situated near the lake of Delgen. In October 1806, it was entered by the French, and the prince of Hohenlohe, who had retired hither after the battle of Jena, was made prisoner here. Population 2100; 42 miles north of Berlin, and 18 west-south-west of Prenzlau.

TEMPO, a smart little village of Ireland, in the county of Fermanagh; 77 miles north-west of Dublin.

TEMPORAL, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Tampico, which contains 80 families of Indians.

TEMPORAL, *adj.* [temporalis, low Lat.] Measured by time; not eternal.—As there they sustain *temporal* life, so here they would learn to make provision for *eternal*. *Hooker.*—Secular; not ecclesiastical.

This sceptre shews the force of *temporal* power,
The attribute to awe and majesty,
Wherein doth sit the dread of kings.

Shakspeare.

Not spiritual.—There is scarce any of those decisions but gives good light, by way of authority or reason, to some questions that arise also between *temporal* dignities, especially to cases wherein some of our subordinate *temporal* titles have part in the controversy. *Selden.*—[Temporal, Fr.] Placed at the temples, or upper part of the sides of the head.—Copious bleeding, by opening the *temporal* arteries, are the most effectual remedies for a phrensy. *Arbuthnot.*

TEMPORALITIES, or TEMPORALTIES, the temporal revenues of an ecclesiastic; particularly such lands, tenements, or lay-fees, tithes, &c., as have been annexed to bishops' fees by our kings, or other persons of high rank in the kingdom.

TEMPORALITY, or TEMFORALS, *s.* [temporalité, Fr.] Secular possessions; not ecclesiastic rights. Such revenues, lands, and tenements, as bishops have had annexed to their sees by the kings and others from time to time, as they are barons and lords of the parliament. *Cowel.*—The residue of these ordinary finances is casual, as the *temporalities* of vacant bishoprics, the profits that grow by the teneurs of lands. *Bacon.*

TEMPORALLY, *adv.* With respect to this life.—Sinners who are in such a *temporally* happy condition, owe it not to their sins, but wholly to their luck. *South.*

TEMPORALNESS, *s.* Secularity; worldliness. *Cotgrave.*

TEMPORALTY, *s.* The laity; secular people.—The pope sucked out inestimable sums of money, to the intolerable grievance of clergy and *temporalty*. *Abbot.*—Secular possessions.

TEMPORALNEOUS, *adj.* [temporis, Lat.] Temporary. *Dict.*—Those things may cause a *temporaneous* disunion. *Hallywell.*

TEMPORARINESS, *s.* The state of being temporary; not perpetuity.

TEMPORARY, *adj.* [tempus, Lat.] Lasting only for a limited time.—These *temporary* truces were soon made and soon broken; he desired a straiter amity. *Bacon.*

TEMPORIZAION, *s.* The act of complying with times or occasions.—Charges of *temporization* and compliance had somewhat sullied his reputation. *Johnson.*

To TEMPORIZE, *v. n.* [tempus, Lat.] To delay; to procrastinate.—Well, you will *temporize* with the hours, *Shakspeare.*—To comply with the times or occasions.

They might their grievance inwardly complain,
But outwardly they needs must *temporize*.

Daniel.

To comply. *This is improper.*

The dauphin is too wilful opposite,
And will not *temporize* with my entreaties:
He flatly says, he'll not lay down his arms.

Shakspeare.

TEMPORIZER, *s.* [temporiseur, Fr.] One that complies with times or occasions; a trimmer.

I pronounce thee a hovering *temporizer*, that
Canst with thine eyes at once see good and evil,
Inclining to them both.

Shakspeare.

TEMPSFORD, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 6 miles north-north-west of Biggleswade. Population 475.

To TEMPT, *v. a.* [tento, Lat.; tenter, Fr.] To solicit to ill; to incite by presenting some pleasure or advantage to the mind; to entice.

'Tis not the king that sends you to the Tower:
My lady Gray *tempts* him to this harsh extremity.

Shakspeare.

To

To provoke.

I'm much too venturous
In *tempting* of your patience. *Shakspeare.*

It is sometimes used without any notion of evil; to solicit; to draw.

Still his strength conceal'd
Which *tempted* our attempt, and wrought our fall. *Milton.*

To try; to attempt; to venture on. I know not whether it was not originally *l'attempt*, which was viciously written to *tempt*, by an elision of the wrong syllable. To prove; to try.

He stayde his hand, and gan himselfe advise
To prove his sense, and *tempt* her feigned truth. *Spenser.*

TEMSE BREAD, or TE'MSEE BREAD, *s.* [*temsen*, Dutch; *tamiser*, Fr.; *tamesare*, Italian, to sift; *tems*, Dutch; *tamis*, French; *tamiso*, Italian, a sieve; all from the Saxon *temefian*. *Lye.*] Bread made of flour better sifted than common.

TEMPTABLE, *adj.* Liable to temptation; obnoxious to bad influence. *Not elegant, nor used.*—If the parliament were as *temptable* as any other assembly, the managers must fail for want of tools to work with. *Swift.*

TEMPTATION, *s.* [*templacion*, old French.] The act of tempting; solicitation to ill; enticement.—All *temptation* to transgress repel. *Milton.*—The state of being tempted. When by human weakness, and the arts of the tempter, you are led into *temptations*, prayer is the thread to bring you out of this labyrinth. *Duppa.*—That which is offered to the mind as a motive to ill.—Set a deep glass of Rhenish wine on the contrary casket; for if the devil be within, and that *temptation* without, he will chuse it. *Shakspeare.*

TEMPTATIONLESS, *adj.* Having no motive. *Not in use.*—An empty, profitless, *temptationless* sin. *Hammond.*

TEMPTER, *s.* One who solicits to ill; an enticer.

Is this her fault or mine?
The *tempter* or the tempted, who sins most?
Not she; nor doth she tempt. *Shakspeare.*

The infernal solicitor to evil.—To this high mountain's top the *tempter* brought our Saviour. *Milton.*

TEMPTINGLY, *adv.* So as to tempt or entice.—These look *temptingly*. *Sir T. Herbert.*—Precious trinkets are lavishly and *temptingly* exposed to view. *Peters.*

TEMPTRESS, *s.* She that tempts or entices. *Huloet.*

Be not jealous,
Euphrania; I shall scarcely prove a *temptress*:
Fall to our dance. *Ford.*

TEMSENA, a large province in the empire of Morocco, bordering on the Atlantic ocean. It is very productive in corn of an excellent quality, and abounds also in cattle. The best cavalry in the empire are found in this province.

TEMUCO, a small river of Chili, which runs west, and enters the Dinguilli.

TE'MULENCY, *s.* [*temulentia*, Lat.] Inebriation; intoxication by liquor. *Bullokar.*

TE'MULENT, *adj.* [*temulentus*, Lat.] Inebriated; intoxicated as with strong liquors.

TE'MULENTIVE, *adj.* [*temulentus*, Lat.] Drunken; denoting the state of intoxication.—The drunkard commonly hath a palsied hand; gouty, staggering legs, that fain would go, but cannot; a drawing, stammering, *temulentive* tongue. *Junius.*

TEN, *adj.* [*tyñ*, Saxon; *tien*, Dutch. *Dr. Johnson.*—M. Goth. *taihun*; Icel. *tiju*: aperto lingu. affin. consensu. Ingeniosè satis Wachterus ab Icel. *tyna*, legere, enumerare, digitos nempè omnes, quibus sine dubio numerabant veteres. *Serenius.*—To this numeration of the fingers Mr. H. Tooke also adverts; and pronounces *ten* the past participle of the Sax. *tyñan*, to enclose, to compass. See Div. of Purl. ii. 201. But the Icel. *tyna*, to reckon, is the more likely etymon.] The decimal number; twice five;

the number by which we multiply numbers into new denominations

Thou shalt have more
Than two *tens* to a score. *Shakspeare.*

Ten is a proverbial number.
There's a proud modesty in merit,
Averse from begging; and resolv'd to pay
Ten times the gift it asks. *Dryden.*

TEN, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos.

TENA, a settlement of New Granada; 8 leagues from Santa Fe. Population 800.

TENABLE, *adj.* [*tenable*, Fr.] That may be maintained against opposition; that may be held against attacks.—Infidelity has been driven out of all its outworks: the Atheist has not found his post *tenable*, and is therefore retired into Deism. *Addison.*

TENA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*tenax*, Lat.] Grasping hard; inclined to hold fast; not willing to let go: with *of* before the thing held.—You reign absolute over the hearts of a stubborn and free-born people, *tenacious* to madness of their liberty. *Dryden.*—Retentive.—The memory in some is very *tenacious*; but yet there seems to be a constant decay of all our ideas, even of those which are struck deepest, and in minds the most retentive. *Locke.*—[*tenace*, Fr.] Having parts disposed to adhere to each other; cohesive; viscous; glutinous.—Three equal round vessels filled, the one with water, the other with oil, the third with molten pitch, and the liquors stirred alike to give them a vertical motion; the pitch by its tenacity will lose its motion quickly, the oil being less *tenacious* will keep it longer, and the water being least *tenacious* will keep it longest, but yet will lose it in a short time. *Newton.*—Niggardly; close-fisted; meanly parsimonious. *Ainsworth.*

TENA'CIOUSLY, *adv.* With disposition to hold fast.—Some things our juvenile reasons *tenaciously* adhere to, which yet our maturer judgments disallow of. *Glanville.*

TENA'CIOUSNESS, *s.* Unwillingness to quit, resign, or let go.—An invincible *tenaciousness* of ancient customs. *Burke.*

TENA'CITY, *s.* [*tenacitas*, *tenax*, Latin.] Tenaciousness.—The *tenacity* of prejudice and prescription. *Brown.*—Viscosity; glutinousness; adhesion of one part to another.—Substances, whose *tenacity* exceeds the powers of digestion, will neither pass, nor be converted into aliment. *Arbutnot.*

TENACULUM, an instrument used in surgery, for pulling out bleeding vessels that are to be tied by ligatures.

TENACY, *s.* [*tenacia*, low Lat.] Unwillingness to quit, resign, or let go.—Highest excellence is void of all envy, selfishness, and *tenacy*. *Barrow.*

TENANCY, *s.* [*tenancie*, old French; *tenentia*, law Latin.] Temporary possession of what belongs to another.—This duke becomes seised of favour by descent, though the condition of that estate be commonly no more than a *tenancy* at will. *Wotton.*

TENANGO, the capital of a jurisdiction of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico; 14 leagues south-west of Mexico, now greatly reduced, and scarcely in existence.

TENANT, *s.* One that holds of another; one that on certain conditions has temporary possession and use of that which is in reality the property of another: correlative to *landlord*.

I have been your *tenant*,
And your father's *tenant*, these fourscore years. *Shakspeare.*

One who resides in any place.
O fields, O woods, oh when shall I be made
The happy *tenant* of your shade! *Cowley.*

TENANT *per Statute-Merchant*, he that holds lands forfeited to him by virtue of a statute.

TENANT *in Frank-Marriage*, is he that holds lands or tenements by virtue of a gift of them, made to him upon marriage between him and his wife.

TENANT

TENANT *by Courtesy*, holds for his life, by reason of a child begotten by him of his wife, being an inheretrix, and born alive.

TENANT *in Capite*, or *Chief*, holdeth of the king in right of his crown. See *CAPITE*.

TENANT, or TENAN, in heraldry, is used for something that sustains, or holds up, the shield, or armoury; and is generally synonymous with the word *supporter*.

To TENANT, *v. a.* To hold on certain conditions.—Sir Roger's estate is *tenanted* by persons who have served him or his ancestors. *Addison*.

TENANTABLE, *adj.* Such as may be held by a tenant.—The ruins that time, sickness, or melancholy, shall bring, must be made up at your cost; for that thing a husband is but tenant for life in what he holds, and is bound to leave the place *tenantable* to the next that shall take it. *Suckling*.

TENANTLESS, *adj.* Unoccupied; unpossessed.

O thou, that dost inhabit in my breast,
Leave not the mansion so long *tenantless*;
Lest growing ruinous the building fall,
And leave no memory of what it was.

Shakspeare.

TENANTRY, *s.* Tenancy.—Tenants have taken new leases of their *tenantries*. *Bp. Ridley*.—A body of tenants on an estate.

TENANT-SAW, *s.* [corrupted, I suppose, from *tenon-saw*.] See *TENON*.

TENANZINCO, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Zoquizingo, containing 800 families of Spaniards, Indians, and mestizoes. It is the name of several other inconsiderable settlements.

TENAYUCA, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 160 families; 9 miles north-north-west of Mexico.

TENBURY, a market town of England, in the county of Worcester, situated on the river Teme, over which it has a stone bridge of six arches. The town is not very extensive, nor can it boast of much beauty of appearance. The trade consists chiefly of hops and cyder, of which great quantities are produced in the neighbourhood; and here are also some opulent tanners and glovers. Tenbury contains 300 houses, and 1562 inhabitants. Market on Tuesday, and three annual fairs; 15 miles west-by-north of Worcester, and 130 north-west of London.

TENBY, a market town and borough of Wales, in the county of Pembroke, situated in Caermarthen bay, at the mouth of the Bristol channel. It has been long noted for its trade, and of late years has also become a very fashionable resort for sea-bathing. The town stands on a rocky promontory of considerable elevation, which stretches over the sands in a southerly direction, and at high water is inclosed by the sea on every side except the north, where a narrow isthmus connects it with the mainland. The situation is singularly beautiful, and has a very striking effect from every point of approach. Tenby is one of the contributory boroughs, joined with Pembroke, in the return of the parliamentary representative for that place. It is governed by a mayor, besides whom the corporation consists of aldermen and common councilmen, a chamberlain, town-clerk, two sheriffs or bailiffs, two sergeants-at-mace, and 12 constables. The town is divided into two districts, which are called the *in* liberties and the *out* liberties, the former subject to the jurisdiction of the mayor and magistrates of the borough, and the latter to that of the magistrates of the county. The first charter granted to the town on record, is that by William Marshall, the first earl of Pembroke of that name. Various new charters were granted by subsequent monarchs. From the number of ruined buildings and foundations to be seen in the outskirts of the town, it appears to have spread out at one time over a larger space than it now occupies, and to have contained a more numerous population. It contains 265 houses, and 1176 inhabitants. Market on Wednesday and Saturday, and various annual fairs; 7 miles east of Pembroke, and 233 west of London. Lat. 51. 40. N. long. 4. 40. W.

TENCE, a town in the east of France, in Auvergne, department of the Upper Loire, on the small river Liguon. This part of France is mountainous and thinly peopled. Population 4900; 8 miles east of Yssengeaux, and 24 east-by-north of Le Puy.

TENCH, *s.* [tince, Sax.; *tinca*, Lat.] A pond-fish.—Having stored a very great pond with carps, *tench*, and other pond-fish, and only put in two small pikes, this pair of tyrants in seven years devoured the whole. *Halc.*

TENCH'S ISLAND, an island in the Pacific ocean, two miles in circumference: it is low, but entirely covered with trees, many of which are the cocoa-nut; there were likewise others of a large size. These trees reached to the margin of a very fine sandy beach, which entirely surrounds the island. Lat. 1. 39. S. long. 150. 31. E.

To TEND, *v. a.* [contracted from *attend*.] To watch; to guard; to accompany as an assistant or defender.—Go thou to Richard, and good angels *tend* thee. *Shakspeare*.—To attend; to accompany.

Despair

Tended the sick, busiest from couch to couch. *Milton*.

To be attentive to.—Unsucc'd of lamb or kid that *tend* their play. *Milton*.

To TEND, *v. n.* [*tendo*, Lat.] To move towards a certain point or place.

To these abodes our fleet Apollo sends:

Here Dardanus was born, and hither *tends*. *Dryden*.

[*tendre*, Fr.] To be directed to any end or purpose; to aim at.

Admiration seiz'd

All heaven, what this might mean and whither *tend*. *Milton*.

To contribute.—Many times that which we ask would, if it should be granted, be worse for us, and perhaps *tend* to our destruction; and then God, by denying the particular matter of our prayers, doth grant the general matter of them. *Hammond*.—[From *attend*.] To wait; to expect. *Out of use*.

The bark is ready, and the wind at help;

Th' associates *tend*. *Shakspeare*:

To attend; to wait as dependants or servants.

She deserves a lord,

That twenty such rude boys might *tend* upon,
And call her hourly mistress. *Shakspeare*.

To attend as something inseparable. In the three last senses it seems only a colloquial abbreviation of *attend*.—Threelfold vengeance *tend* upon your steps. *Shakspeare*.

TENDA, a small town in the north of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Sospello, situated on the side of a steep hill, near the river Roja. The Piedmontese were defeated near this by the French, in the beginning of May, 1794; 20 miles south of Con, and 25 north-east of Nice.

TENDA, a country of Western Africa, extending along the northern bank of the Gambia. A considerable trade is carried on in ivory and gum.

TE'NDANCE, *s.* Attendance; state of expectation.

Unhappy wight, born to disastrous end,

That doth his life in so long *tendancee* spend. *Spenser*.

Persons attendant. *Out of use*.

His lobbies fill with *tendancee*,

Rain sacrificial whisp'rings in his ear. *Shakspeare*.

Attendance; act of waiting.

She purpos'd,

By watching, weeping, *tendancee*, to

O'creome you with her shew. *Shakspeare*.

Care; act of tending.

They at her coming sprung,

And touch'd by her fair *tendancee* gladlier grew. *Milton*.

TENDENCE, or TENDENCY, *s.* Direction or course towards any place or object.—It is not much business that distracts any man; but the want of purity, constancy, and *tendency*

tendency towards God. *Bp. Taylor*.—Direction or course toward any inference or result; drift.—These opinions are of so little moment, that, like notes in the sun, their *tendeneies* are little noticed. *Locke*.

TENDER, *adj.* [*tendre*, Fr.] Soft; easily impressed or injured; not firm; not hard.—The earth brought forth the *tender* grass. *Milton*.—Sensible; easily pained; soon sore.

Unneath may she endure the flinty street,
To tread them with her *tender* feeling feet. *Shakspeare*.

Effeminate; emasculate; delicate.—When Cyrus had overcome the Lydians, that were a warlike nation, and devised to bring them to a more peaceable life, instead of their short warlike coat he clothed them in long garments, like women; and instead of their warlike music, appointed to them certain lascivious lays, by which their minds were so mollified and abated, that they forgot their former fierceness, and became most *tender* and effeminate. *Spenser*.—Exciting kind concern.

I love Valentine;
His life's as *tender* to me as my soul. *Shakspeare*.

Compassionate; anxious for another's good.—This not mistrust but *tender* love enjoins. *Milton*.—Susceptible of soft passions.

Your tears a heart of flint
Might *tender* make, yet nought
Herein they will prevail. *Spenser*.

Amorous; lascivious.
What mad lover ever died
To gain a soft and gentle bride?
Or for a lady *tender* hearted,
In purling streams or hemp departed? *Hudibras*.

Expressive of the softer passions.
The *tender* accent of a woman's cry
Will pass unheard, will unregarded die. *Prior*.

Careful not to hurt: with *of*.—As I have been *tender* of every particular person's reputation, so I have taken care not to give offence. *Addison*.—Gentle; mild; unwilling to pain.

You, that are thus so *tender* o'er his follies,
Will never do him good. *Shakspeare*.

Apt to give pain.—In things that are *tender* and unpleasing, break the ice by some whose words are of less weight, and reserve the more weighty voice to come in as by chance. *Bacon*.—Young; weak: as, *tender* age.—When yet he was but *tender* bodied, a mother should not sell him. *Shakspeare*.

To **TENDER**, *v. a.* To regard with kindness. *Not now in use*.

I thank you, madam, that you *tender* her:
Poor gentlewoman, my master wrongs her much. *Shakspeare*.

To render susceptible of soft passions: a colloquial expression in some parts of England.

To **TENDER**, *v. a.* [*tendre*, Fr.] To offer; to exhibit; to propose to acceptance.

I crave no more than what your highness offer'd;
Nor will you *tender* less. *Shakspeare*.

To hold; to esteem.
Tender yourself more dearly;
Or not to crack the wind of the poor phrase,
Wringing it thus, you'll *tender* me a fool. *Shakspeare*.

TENDER, *s.* Offer; proposal to acceptance.
Then to have a wretched puling fool,
A whining mammet, in her fortune's *tender*,
To answer I'll not wed. *Shakspeare*.

Regard; kind concern. *Not used*.
Thou hast shew'd thou mak'st some *tender* of my life,
In this fair rescue thou hast brought to me. *Shakspeare*.

A small ship attending on a larger.

TENDER-HEARTED, *adj.* Of a soft compassionate disposition.—Be ye kind to one another, *tender-hearted*. *Eph*.

TENDERHEARTEDNESS, *s.* A compassionate disposition. *Sherwood*.

TENDERLING, *s.* The first horns of a deer. A fondling; one who is made soft by too much kindness.—Our *tenderlings* complain of rheums. *Harrison*.

TENDERLY, *adv.* In a tender manner; mildly; gently; softly; kindly; without harshness.
She embrac'd him, and for joy
Tenderly wept. *Milton*.

With a quick sense of pain.—[This] the chancellor took very heavily; and the lord Falkland, out of his friendship to him, more *tenderly*, and expostulated it with the king with some warmth. *Ld. Clarendon*.

TENDERNESS, *s.* [*tendresse*, Fr.] The state of being tender; susceptibility of impressions; not hardness.—Pied cattle are spotted in their tongues, the *tenderness* of the part receiving more easily alterations than other parts of the flesh. *Bacon*.—State of being easily hurt; soreness.—A quickness and *tenderness* of sight could not endure bright sunshine. *Locke*.—Susceptibility of the softer passions.

Weep no more, lest I give cause
To be suspected of more *tenderness*
Than doth become a man. *Shakspeare*.

Kind attention; anxiety for the good of another.—Having no children, she did, with singular care and *tenderness*, intend the education of Philip and Margaret. *Bacon*.—Scrupulousness; caution.

My conscience first receiv'd a *tenderness*,
Scruple, and prick, on certain speeches utter'd
By th' bishop of Bayon. *Shakspeare*.

Cautious care.—There being implanted in every man's nature a great *tenderness* of reputation, to be careless of it is looked on as a mark of a degenerate mind. *Gov. of the Tongue*.—Soft pathos of expression.—We must not expect to trace the flow of Waller, the landscape of Thomson, the fire of Dryden, the imagery of Shakspeare, the simplicity of Spenser, the courtliness of Prior, the humour of Swift, the wit of Cowley, the delicacy of Addison, the *tenderness* of Otway, and the invention, the spirit and the sublimity of Milton, in any single writer. *Shenstone*.

TENDINOUS, *adj.* [*tendinis*, Latin.] Sinewy; containing tendons; consisting of tendons.—Nervous and *tendinous* parts have worse symptoms, and are harder of cure than fleshy ones. *Wiseman*.

TENDON, *s.* [*tendo*, Lat.] A sinew; a ligature by which the joints are moved.—A struma in her instep lay very hard and big amongst the *tendons*. *Wiseman*.

TENDMENT, *s.* Act of tending; care. *Not in use*.
Whether ill *tendment*, or recureless pain,
Procure his death. *Bp. Hall*.

TENDRE, **MONT**, a petty town of the west of France, department of the Lower Charente, with 900 inhabitants; 7 miles north-west of Montlieu.

TENDRIL, *s.* [*tendrillon*, Fr.] The clasp of a vine, or other climbing plant.

In wanton ringlets wav'd,
As the vine curls her *tendrils*; which imply'd
Subjection. *Milton*.

TENDRIL, *adj.* Clasping or climbing as a tendril.
The curling growth
Of *tendril* hops, that flaunt upon their poles. *Dyer*.

TENDRING, a parish of England, in Essex; 5½ miles south-south-east of Manningtree. Population 619.

TENE'BRICOSE, or **TENE'ROUS**, *adj.* [*tenebricosus*, *tenebrosus*, Lat.] Dark; gloomy.

The most dark *tenebrous* night
Is fain to flee and turn her back. *J. Hall*.
10 R **TENE'BRIO**,

TENEBRIO, in Entomology, a genus of the Coleoptera order of insects, the generic character of which is, that the antennæ are moniliform, with the last joint rounded; the thorax plano-convex, margined; the head exerted, and wing-sheaths stiffish.

In the insects of this genus the body is oblong-oval, and in most species somewhat pointed at the extremity. Several species are also destitute of wings. This is a numerous genus, and is divided by Fabricius and others into several distinct genera, under the appellations of *Pimelia*, *Bleps*, *Aturnus*, &c. In Gmelin's edition of Linnæus it comprehends 63 species.

I. Six filiform Feelers; anterior Legs formed for digging, palmate-dentated; including the *Scaritæ* of Fabricius and Pallas.

1. *Tenebrio complanatus*.—Black, with a subquadrate thorax, and smooth shells or wing-sheaths; of a large size.—Found at Cayenne.

2. *Tenebrio marginatus*.—Black, with a subquadrate thorax; sulcated shells; blue margin.—Found at Cayenne.

3. *Tenebrio giganteus*.—Black, with sulcated mandibles, and smooth shells.—Found in Africa: nearly allied to the next species, but thrice as large.

4. *Tenebrio subterraneus*.—Black, with the fore-part of the head sulcated, and striated shells.

5. *Tenebrio cyaneus*.—Blue, very smooth; antennæ and feet black.—Found in New Holland.

6. *Tenebrio fossor*.—Pitchy.—Found in sand-hills, which it perforates.

7. *Tenebrio cursor*.—Brown; oblong thorax; five angles denticulated.—Found as the former.

8. *Tenebrio Arabs*.—Black; serrated thorax; antennæ and feet testaceous.—Found in the East.

9. *Tenebrio minutus*.—Black; thorax margined; antennæ clavated, and feet pitchy.—Found in Sweden, and twice as large in Saxony.

10. *Tenebrio collaris*.—Black, with shells punctate-striated, and head brown; antennæ and feet pitchy; the anterior spinous.—Found at Berlin.

11. *Tenebrio bucephalus*.—Wholly brown, punctated, eyes black.—Found in India.

II. With unequal filiform Feelers.

12. *Tenebrio atratus*.—Wholly black, smooth.—Found in Egypt.

III. With four Feelers; the anterior subclavate: the posterior filiform; the *Tenebriones* of Fabricius, and *Mylarides* of Pallas.

13. *Tenebrio laminatus*.—Black; thorax subquadrate, smooth; shells sulcated; anterior legs incurvated at the apex, and ferruginous lamina acute.—Found in India; the largest of the genus.

14. *Tenebrio gigas*.—Black; shell striated; thorax smooth.—Found in Surinam.

15. *Tenebrio punctatulus*.—Black; thorax quadrate; margin subdenticulate; shells striate-punctated.—Found in India; of a large size.

16. *Tenebrio serratus*.—Black, smooth; shells striated; posterior legs striated.—Found in Sierra Leone.

17. *Tenebrio molitor*.—Wholly black; thighs anterior, thicker:—an insect often seen in houses, one of the smaller kinds, proceeding from a larva commonly known by the name of meal-worm, from its being so frequently found in flour, &c.; it is of a yellowish-white colour, about an inch long, slender bodied, and of a highly polished surface, and is considered as the favourite food of the nightingale, in its captive state, and said to remain two years before it changes into a chrysalis.

18. *Tenebrio luridus*.—Black, with brown feet.—Found in Brazil.

19. *Tenebrio chalybeus*.—Violet, with feet and antennæ pitchy.—Found in Guinea.

20. *Tenebrio Mauritanicus*.—Black, beneath pitchy; mar-

gins of the thorax anterior and posterior angulated.—Found in Algiers.

21. *Tenebrio variegatus*.—Oblong, with varied brown and cinereous.—Found in Africa.

22. *Tenebrio abbreviatus*.—Ovate, black, with shell striated, and head tuberculated.—Found in India.

23. *Tenebrio Capensis*.—Ovate, black; shell striated; anterior legs dentated-spinous.—Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

24. *Tenebrio cornutus*.—The margins of the double-horned thorax crenated, and the angles projecting.—Found in Smyrna.

25. *Tenebrio sanguinipes*.—Black, with antennæ and feet sanguineous.—Found in New Holland.

26. *Tenebrio buprestoides*.—Black thorax; oval margined; the connate shells smooth.—Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

27. *Tenebrio dermestoides*.—Black; thorax oval, margined; shells striated.—Found in Saxony.

28. *Tenebrio culinaris*.—Ferruginous; shells striated; shield emarginated.—Found in Spain and Sweden.

29. *Tenebrio barbarus*.—Black, very smooth; thorax orbiculated; the shield of the head on the fore-part, with the margin elevated.—Found in Mauritania.

30. *Tenebrio erraticus*.—Black; the antennæ, suborbiculate thorax, and shells ferruginous; brown at the apex.

31. *Tenebrio pallens*.—Palely testaceous; thorax transverse.—Found, of a small size, at the Cape of Good Hope.

32. *Tenebrio ferrugineus*.—Ferruginous, with shells striated, testaceous.—Found in Africa.

33. *Tenebrio villosus*.—Brown, cinereous-villose, shells smooth and ferruginous.

34. *Tenebrio carboides*.—Black; thorax oval, margined; shells striated.

35. *Tenebrio brunipes*.—Black, smooth; shells striated; antennæ and feet ferruginous.—Found at Dresden.

36. *Tenebrio lævigatus*.—Oblong, black, with smoothish shells.—Found in Africa, of a less size than the molitor.

37. *Tenebrio gibbosus*.—Subovate, wholly brassy, shells gibbous-convex; the very fine striæ crenulated.—Found in Brazil.

38. *Tenebrio spinimanous*.—Thorax margined, smooth, shells very smooth; posterior obtuse; fore legs produced with a very strong arched spine.—Found in Southern Russia.

39. *Tenebrio uncinous*.—Apterous, black; thorax margined, sub-equal; shells striated, punctated and angulate; thighs anterior, clavated, very large, buncinate.—Found in Spain.

40. *Tenebrio piceus*.—Depressed, black; beneath pitchy; shells striated.—Found in Saxony.

41. *Tenebrio cylindricus*.—Very black; thorax with elevated points; antennæ brown; the tarsi beneath yellow-haired.—Found at Berlin.

42. *Tenebrio montanus*.—Wholly black; shells opaque.—Found in Hungary.

43. *Tenebrio tristis*.—Black, sub-opaque, varied with excavated points.—Found in Carniola.

44. *Tenebrio pomonæ*.—Above pitchy, beneath black; shells with five elevated striæ.—Found in Carniola.

45. *Tenebrio capræ*.—Black; points impressed on the thorax, and shells testaceous.—Found in Carniola and Switzerland.

46. *Tenebrio flavus*.—Yellow, with black eyes.—Found in Carniola.

47. *Tenebrio æstivus*.—Black; feelers and feet yellow.—Found in Denmark.

48. *Tenebrio striatus*.—Black; the abdomen beneath densely striated.—Found in Denmark.

49. *Tenebrio festinans*.—Wholly black, smooth; thorax ferruginous.

50. *Tenebrio globosus*.—Black; thorax globose; two rough lines elevated.—Found in Siberia.

51. *Tenebrio incurvatus*.—Wholly pitchy; shells striated across the middle.—As the last.

52. *Tenebrio*

TENEBRIO, TENTHEDO THRIPS AND TIPULA.



J. Pass. sc.

1 *Tene gigas*. 2 *Tene femoratus*. 3 *Tene molitor*. 4 *Tene curvipes*. 5 *Tent bimaculata*.
 6 *Tent femorata*. 7 *Tent fulciformis*. 8 *Tip riroca*. 9 *Tip variegata*. 10 *Tip plumosa*.
 11 *Tip ichneumonina*. 12 *Tip hortorum*. 13 *Tip phosphorus*. 14 *Tip juniperina*.



52. *Tenebrio ovatus*.—Ovate, blackish-brown; shells with eight striæ, smooth.

53. *Tenebrio rotundatus*.—Black, wholly smooth: the coleoptera rotundata.

54. *Tenebrio subvillosus*.—Wholly ferruginous, subvillose.

55. *Tenebrio glaber*.—Wholly ferruginous, smooth.—The four last found in France.

56. *Tenebrio lignarius*.—Thorax with two cavities; shells violet or red; antennæ and feet ferruginous.

57. *Tenebrio lardarius*.—Oblong, yellow-fulvous; eyes black; shells with punctated striæ.—Found in Belgium.

58. *Tenebrio curvipes*.—Ovate, pitchy; shells punctated-striate; thighs crenated; the hinder beneath ciliated.

59. *Tenebrio bicolor*.—Ovate; shells striated; above black; the antennæ beneath and feet, ferruginous.

60. *Tenebrio ater*.—Black; antennæ ferruginous.

61. *Tenebrio lunatus*.—Black; depressed thorax lunated; shells striated; feet ferruginous.

62. *Tenebrio hispidus*.—Black, rough; shells striated; a spot at the base on both sides red; the antennæ and legs red.

63. *Tenebrio glaber*.—Ferruginous; head and thorax smooth, and shells black; these striated; mouth ferruginous; feet livid.

TENEBRIO MORTISAGUS, a species of the *PIMELIA*, (which see,) in the Gmelinian edition of the Linnæan system, thus described by Dr. Shaw:—It is a coal-black insect, measuring about an inch in length, of rather slow motion, and distinguished by the remarkably pointed appearance of the wing-sheaths, which, at their extremities, project a little beyond the abdomen; they are also perfectly connate or undivided, forming a complete covering to the body, and being carried over the sides to some distance beneath, and the insect is totally destitute of real or under wings. It is usually found in dark neglected places, beneath boards, in cellars, &c., and if handled, especially if crushed, diffuses a very unpleasant smell.

TENE'BRIOUS, *adj.* Gloomy; tenebrous.

Were moon and stars for villains only made
To guide yet skreen them with *tenebrious* light? *Young*.

TENE'BRIOUSITY, *s.* [*tenebrosité*, old French; from *tenebræ*, Lat.] Darkness; gloom.—Peculiar signs of head melancholy, from the motion alone, and *tenebrosity* of spirits. *Burton*.

TENEDOS, a small rocky island of the Grecian archipelago, close to the coast of Asia Minor, and at a small distance from the entrance of the Dardanelles. It is mentioned by Homer under the same name which it now bears, and its position tends to identify the site of the plain of Troy. It continued always to derive an importance from its situation near the mouth of the Hellespont. Tenedos was anciently famous for its earthenware, fragments of which are found in the district of Troas. A mountainous ridge incloses the port, and the town stands on the slope of a hill. It is supposed to contain 600 Turkish, and 300 Greek families. Lat. 39. 53. N. long. 26. E.

TENEMBER, an island in the Eastern seas; 12 miles long and 3 broad. Lat. 6. 30. S. long. 132. 45. E.

TENEMENT, *s.* [*tenementum*, law Lat.] Any thing held by a tenant.

Treat on, treat on, is her eternal note,
And lands and *tenements* glide down her throat. *Pope*.

TENEME'NTAL, *adj.* To be held by certain tenure. *Mason*.—The other *tenemental* lands they distributed among their tenants. *Blackstone*.

TENEME'NTARY, *adj.* Usually let out; denoting tenancy. *Cowel*.—Ceorls among the Saxons were of two sorts; one hired the lord's *tenementary* land, like our farmers. *Spelman*.

TENENE, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman, on the shore of the river Coromoros.

TEN'ENT, *s.* See **TENET**.

TENERIFFE, a considerable island, forming part of the group of the Canaries, situated off the western coast of Africa. It is of a triangular form, each side being about 36 miles in length. As a natural object, it is chiefly remarkable by that lofty peak, of the sloping sides of which the island actually consists. The lofty height to which it rises, the distance from which it is perceived at sea, and the volcanic eruptions which issue from its sides, have long rendered it an object of curiosity to naturalists. By none, however, has it been so carefully examined as by Humboldt, on his way to the American continent. The climate of Teneriffe is peculiarly delightful and salutary. By the rapidity of its rise, it presents, within a very short distance, every variation of temperature, from the colder climates of Europe to those of the equinoctial regions. The port of Santa Cruz, indeed, from which the principal trade is carried on, is intensely hot, not only from the lowness of its situation, but from the reflection of the basaltic rocks that rise above it. Laguna, however, elevated about 2000 feet above it, is cool and agreeable, and being placed on a wood-crowned hill, surrounded by gardens, forms a delightful residence.

The view from the top of the Peak appears characterised by peculiar beauty. The traveller, placed on the summit of such colossal mountains, sees usually only their own barren steeps; while the plains, covered with rich vegetation, appear in the immensity of distance. But the slender form and rapid rise of this mountain causes the cultivated and wooded parts of the island to be seen in very close proximity.

The summit of the Peak may be considered as a solfatara or extinguished volcano, having remained tranquil during many ages, and presenting no symptom threatening a new eruption, which, however, cannot be considered as impossible. From its flanks several violent eruptions have taken place in the course of the present century.

The commercial importance of Teneriffe depends chiefly on its wine, which, though of an inferior quality to that of Madeira, yet being afforded at a cheaper rate, is in considerable demand. From 10,000 to 15,000 pipes are annually exported. The island derives also great advantage, in consequence of its port of Santa Cruz forming a great place of refreshment, or, as Humboldt terms it, a grand caravansery, between Spain and the Indies. For this purpose it affords beef and fish in plenty, and excellent water. A considerable trade is also carried on between this island and the Spanish West Indies.

TENERIFFE, a town of New Grenada, in the province of Santa Martha, founded on the shore of the river Magdalena, in the year 1536. It was formerly a large and commercial town; but is now reduced to a miserable village; 97 miles south-south-west of Santa Martha. Lat. 9. 45. N. long. 74. 33. W.

TENERITY, *s.* [*teneritas*, *tener*, Lat.] Tenderness. *Ainsworth*.

TENE'SMUS, *s.* The stone shutting up the orifice of the bladder, is attended with a *tenesmus*, or needing to go to stool. *Arbuthnot*.

TENET, *s.* [from *tenet*, Lat., *he holds*. It is sometimes written *tenent*, or *they hold*.] Position; principle; opinion.

They wonder men should have mistook
The *tenets* of their master's book. *Prior*.

TENFOLD, *adj.* Ten times increased.—Fire kindled into *tenfold* rage. *Milton*.

TENGALLE, a sea-port town of Ceylon. It is situated near the south-east extremity of the island, having a small bay, and tolerably good anchoring ground. It contains about 300 inhabitants, many of whom are fishermen. It formerly possessed a small fort, but which is now in ruins. Lat. 6. 3. N. long. 80. 48. E.

TENGAN, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Houquang. It is situated in a very fertile district, on a river which falls into the Yangtsee-kiang. It is distinguished for a species of white wax, peculiarly adapted for making candles. Lat. 31. 20. N. long. 113. 17. E.

TENGO,

TENGO, a cape of Italy, on the east coast of the kingdom of Naples. Lat. 41. 47. N. long. 16. 10. E.

TENG-TCHOUEN, a town of China, of the second rank, in Yunan. Lat. 26. 2. N. long. 99. 49. E.

TENGUE, a river of Quito, in the province of Guayaquil, which enters the Pacific Ocean, in the gulf of Guayaquil, opposite the island of Puna.

TENGUILEN, a small river of Chili, in the district of Guadalabquen, which runs south-south-east.

TENJO, a settlement of New Granada, in Bogofa, containing 200 housekeepers, and 100 Indians.

TEN JURISDICTIONS, LEAGUE OF THE, the name of one of three districts or leagues, into which the Swiss canton of the Grisons is divided. It occupies the north part of the canton, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. Notwithstanding its name, it consists of only seven jurisdictions, of which six and a half are inhabited by German Calvinists; the remaining half belongs to Catholics of Italian descent.

TENIERS (David), the elder, was born at Antwerp in 1582. He received his education in painting in the school of Rubens, and under that great artist's immediate tuition obtained the mode of preparing his grounds, and managing his materials. Intending to continue the study of historic painting, he went to Rome; but there abandoned it, and attached himself to his countryman, Adam Elsheimer, under whom he continued for six years to study landscape, and from him most probably acquired the neatness of penciling for which his works are esteemed.

On his return to his native country, he blended the styles of both his masters, and employed the compound in a novel and ingenious manner, upon subjects original and at the same time agreeable; such as merry-makings, both interior and at the doors of cabarets; rural sports, cattle, sheep, and those who tended them; numerous groups and grotesque combinations; such as the temptation of St. Anthony, &c. For pictures of these kinds, he was fortunate enough to find admirers and purchasers; and they would still have been the theme of admiration, had not his son, following the same track, have proved how possible it was to proceed infinitely farther. He died in 1649, aged sixty-seven.

TENIERS (David), the younger, son of the foregoing artist, was born at Antwerp in 1610, and was initiated in the art of painting by his father; but he afterwards became a disciple of Adrian Brauwer, and is also said to have had the happiness and honour of receiving instructions from Rubens. The subjects and the style he adopted were, as we have said, the same with those employed by his father; but with a more fertile imagination, he produced compositions infinitely more varied and ingenious, with colouring and effect more vivid and engaging, more rich and transparent; and with a facility of execution perfectly enchanting. It is true they seldom exhibit much research of character or expression; what there may be of those qualities, was more probably a fortunate hit, than any result of meditation or intention. In this respect Jan Stein, and our own Wilkie have as much the superiority over Teniers, as he possesses by the power of his execution.

At the first display of his powers he was not so successful as he merited, but it was not long that he lay neglected: the archduke Leopold, being made acquainted with his merits, immediately distinguished him by his patronage; appointed him his principal painter; honoured him by making him a gentleman of his bed-chamber; presented him with a chain of gold, to which his portrait was affixed; and gave him the superintendance of his gallery of pictures, which contained works of the most distinguished masters of the Italian and Flemish schools. Of this gallery, Teniers made several pictures, in which he imitated the manners of the various masters so successfully, as to obtain the name of the Proteus of painting. He also amused himself by making compositions in the styles of different painters of renown, as Titian, Tintoretto, the Bassans, Rubens, &c., and in their execution endeavoured to imitate the touch of those great men. These imitations are generally known under the name of pasticcios,

and have frequently been mistaken for originals; and sold as such.

These were the amusements or indulgencies of idle fancy; his fame rests for more full and honourable support upon his original productions in his own proper style. He was a constant and faithful observer of nature; and in his favourite subjects, village festivals, fairs, and merry-makings, he has exhibited, with a most engaging freedom, the manners and characters of his countrymen. That he might conveniently mingle with the scenes he chose to represent, he established himself in the village of Perk, between Antwerp and Mechlin, and there, with a painter's eye, he observed the undigested impulse of the natural character of the lower class among the people, and has left many beautiful and pleasing remembrances of occurrences uninteresting, nay sometimes disgusting in themselves, but rendered engaging by his delightful mode of representing them. One peculiar charm there is to be found in the best pictures of Teniers more perfectly obtained than in the works of other artists, and that is, the complete effect of atmosphere, silvery, pure, and natural. Claude de Lorraine himself does not surpass him; and this truth, though yielded on simple materials, in scenes flat and insipid in their forms, yet makes amends for their natural want of interest by its truth and simplicity.

In the interior of apartments, of the cottage, the cabaret, the guard-room, or chemist's laboratory, he is not less admirable by his clearness and precision than in his exteriors. He surpassed Ostade in his knowledge of perspective, and in his freedom, as much as he is excelled by the latter in truth of tone and completion of character. His pencil is exceedingly light and dexterous; and by continual practice upon the same system, he had acquired a promptness almost unparalleled. This freedom of execution enabled him to paint an immense number of pictures: it was not unusual for him to finish a picture in a day; and he used jocosely to observe, that to contain all the pictures he had painted, it would be necessary to have a gallery two leagues long. He not unfrequently assisted the landscape painters of his day, by putting figures into their pictures: and many works of Artois, Van Uden, Breughel, and many others, owe an increased value to this circumstance. His works are numerous in the collections of this country, and still bear very high prices. Teniers lived to the advanced age of eighty-four, and died at Brussels in 1694.

He had a younger brother named Abraham, who also painted the same kind of subjects in the same style, and from this circumstance his works are sometimes mistaken for those of David, though they are much inferior in taste and execution.

TENMENTALE, or TENMANTALE, in our ancient customs, originally signifies the number of ten men, which number, in the time of the English Saxons, was called a decennary; and ten decennaries made what we call an hundred.

These ten men were bound for each other to preserve the public peace; and if any of them was found guilty of a breach of it, the other nine were either to make satisfaction, or to bring the criminal before the king.

TENMENTALE was also used for a duty, or tribute paid to the king, consisting of two shillings for each plough-land; probably thus called, because each person of the decennary was bound to see it paid.

TENNE, TENNY, or TAWNY, in Heraldry, a bright colour, made of red and yellow mixed; sometimes also called *brusk*, and expressed in engraving by diagonal lines drawn from the dexter to the sinister side of the shield, traversed by perpendicular lines from the chief; and marked with the letter T.

In the coats of all below the degree of nobles, it is called *tenny*; but in those of nobles, it is called *hyacinth*; and, in princes' coats, the *dragon's head*.

TENNESBERG, a large village of Bavaria, in the Upper Palatinate; 37 miles north-by-east of Ratisbon, and 7 east of Pfreimt. Population 800.

TENNESSEE, one of the United States, bounded north by Kentucky, east by North Carolina and Virginia, south by Georgia, Alabama territory, and Mississippi State, and west by the Mississippi. Lat. 35. to 36. 30. N. long. 81. 28. to 91. 37. W.; 420 miles long and 102 broad, containing 40,000 square miles.

This state is divided by the Cumberland mountains into two divisions, East Tennessee and West Tennessee.

The counties and population are exhibited in the following table:—

East Tennessee.—Anderson, 3,959; Bledsoe, 8,839; Blount, 3,259; Campbell, 2,668; Carter, 4,190; Claiborne, 4,798; Cocke, 5,154; Granger, 6,397; Greene, 9,713; Hawkins, 7,643; Jefferson, 7,309; Knox, 10,171; Rhea, 2,504; Roane, 5,581; Sevier, 4,595; Sullivan, 6,847; Washington, 7,740.—Total: Counties, 17; Population, 101,367.

West Tennessee.—Bedford, 8,242; Davidson, 15,608; Dickson, 4,516; Franklin, 5,730; Giles, 4,536; Hickman, 2,583; Humphries, 1,511; Jackson, 5,401; Lincoln, 6,104; Montgomery, 8,021; Maury, 10,359; Overton, 5,643; Robertson, 7,270; Rutherford, 10,265; Sumner, 13,792; Smith, 11,649; Stuart, 4,262; Wilson, 11,952; Williamson, 13,153; White, 4,028; Warren, 5,725.—Total: Counties, 21; Population, 160,350.

This country is marked by bold and varied features. It is washed by the great river Mississippi on the west; and the fine rivers Tennessee and Cumberland pass through it in very serpentine courses. The western part is undulating; some of it level; in the middle it is hilly; and the eastern part, known by the name of East Tennessee, abounds in mountains, many of them lofty, and presenting scenery peculiarly grand and picturesque. Of these mountains, the Cumberland, or great Laurel ridge, is the most remarkable. Stone, Yellow, Iron, Bald, Smoky, and Unaka mountains, join each other, and form, in a direction nearly north-east and south-west, the eastern boundary of the state. North-west of these, and separated from each other by valleys of from five to fifteen miles wide, are Bay's mountain, Copper ridge, Clinch mountain, Powell's mountain, and Welling's ridge. The last four terminate north by Tennessee river. They are all encircled by valleys, which open passages for rivers and roads, and which, together with the numerous cascades, render the views very sublime. In the Cumberland mountains there are caverns of great extent, with fine streams running through them several hundred feet. In the free-stone rocks there are also numerous excavations called coves, from which issue fine springs of water.

TENNESSEE, a large and navigable river of the United States, in Tennessee, which rises in the mountains of Virginia and Carolina, traverses the eastern parts of this state in a south-west direction, then passing into the Alabama and Mississippi countries, forms a great bend there, crosses the western parts of Tennessee in a northern direction, and after flowing 60 miles through Kentucky, joins the Ohio, 57 miles from the Mississippi, by an outlet 600 yards wide.

TENNESSEE RIDGE, mountains in the state of Tennessee, in the United States, between the rivers Tennessee and Cumberland.

TENNIS, *s.* [this play is supposed by Skinner to be so named from the word *tenez*, take it, hold it, or there it goes, used by the French when they drive the ball.] A play at which a ball is driven with a racket.—The barber's man hath been seen with him, and the old ornament of his cheek hath already stuffed tennis balls. *Shakspeare.*

To TENNIS, *v. a.* To drive as a ball. *Not used.*—Those four garrisons issuing forth upon the enemy, will so drive him from one side to another, and tennis him amongst them, that he shall find no where safe to keep his feet in, nor hide himself. *Spenser.*

TENNIS, the ruins of a large city of Lower Egypt, situated on an island formed by the Lake Menzaleh, which bears sometimes the name of Tennis. The remains are now almost entirely subterranean, the columns and other monuments of architecture having been carried away for the ornament of

Damietta and the neighbouring cities; 28 miles south-east of Damietta. Lat. 31. 2. N. long. 32. 14. E.

TENNIS, or TNISS, a sea-port of Tlemsan, in Algiers, at the mouth of a river which falls into the Mediterranean, and has a small island at its mouth; 110 miles west of Algiers. Lat. 36. 33. N. long. 1. 10. E.

TENNSTADT, a small town of Prussian Saxony; 15 miles north-north-west of Erfurt, and 15 east-south-east of Muhlhausen. It contains 3000 inhabitants, whose chief employment, after agriculture, is the manufacture of flax. This was the native place of Ernesti, the well-known philologist.

TENO, a river of Chili, in the district of Chauco, which runs east, and enters the Martaquino.

TENOCHTITLAN, the ancient name of Mexico.

TE'NON, *s.* The end of a timber cut to be fitted into another timber.—The *tenant saw* being thin, had a back to keep it from bending. *Moron.*

TENOS, TINE, or ISTENDIL, an island of the Cyclades group, in the Grecian archipelago, between Myconi and Andros. The chief products are silk, wine, figs, oranges, and honey. The quantity of corn raised is scarcely sufficient to supply the wants of the inhabitants, who pay an annual tribute to the Porte. The island has no good harbour. St. Nicolo is the chief town.

TE'NOUR, *s.* [*tenor*, Lat.] Continuity of state; constant mode; manner of continuity; general currency.

Still I see the *tenor* of man's woe

Hold on the same, and from woman to begin. *Milton.*

Sense contained; general course or drift.

By the stern brow and gaspish action,
Which she did use as she was writing of it,
It bears an angry *tenor*. *Shakspeare.*

A sound in music.

Water and air he for the *tenor* chose,
Earth made the base, the treble flame arose. *Cowley.*

TENSA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, containing 400 housekeepers and 100 Indians; 10 leagues south-east of Tunja.

TENSAW, the eastern outlet of the river Mobile, in Louisiana, in the United States. It branches off six or seven miles below Fort Stoddart, and flows into Mobile bay five or six miles east of the western branch. Its channel is deeper and wider than that of the western branch.

TENSAW, a small river of the United States, in Louisiana, which flows south-south-west a few miles from the Mississippi, and falls into the Washita at the same point with the Catahoola. It communicates with the Mississippi low lands by the intervention of various creeks and lakes.

TENSAW, NINE BROTHERS OF, a channel in the United States, which unites the north end of Lake Chetimaches with the Atchafalaya.

TENSAW, a post township of the United States, in Washington county, Alabama, near Mobile bay.

TENSE, *s.* [*tempus*, Lat. In grammar.] *Tense*, in a strict speaking, is only a variation of the verb to signify time. *Clarke.*—Ladies, without knowing what *tenses* and participles are, speak as properly and as correctly as gentlemen. *Locke.*

TENSE, *adj.* [*tensus*, Lat.] Stretched; stiff; not lax.—For the free passage of the sound into the ear, it is requisite that the tympanum be *tense*, and hard stretched, otherwise the laxness of the membrane will certainly dead and damp the sound.

TE'NSENESS, *s.* Contraction; tension: the contrary to *laxity*.—Should the pain and *tenseness* of the part continue, the operation must take place. *Sharp.*

TENSIBLE, *adj.* [*tensus*, Lat.] Capable of being extended.—Gold is the closest, and therefore the heaviest of metals, and is likewise the most flexible and *tensible*. *Bacon.*

TE'NSILE, *adj.* [*tensilis*, Lat.] Capable of extension.—All bodies ductile and *tensile*, as metals, that will be drawn into wires, have the appetite of not discontinuing. *Bacon.*

TEN'SION, *s.* [*tension*, Fr., *tensus*, Lat.] The act of stretching; not laxation.—It can have nothing of vocal sound, voice being raised by stiff *tension* of the larynx; and on the contrary, this sound by a relaxed posture of the muscles thereof.—*Holder*.

The state of being stretched; not laxity.
Still are the subtle strings in *tension* found,
Like those of lutes to just proportion wound,
Which of the air's vibration is the force. *Blackmore*.

TEN'SIVE, *adj.* [*tensus*, Latin.] Giving a sensation of stiffness or contraction.—From cholera is a hot burning pain; a beating pain from the pulse of the artery; a *tensive* pain from distension of the parts by the fulness of humours. *Flower*.

TEN'SURE, *s.* [*tensus*, Lat.] The act of stretching, or state of being stretched; the contrary to laxation or laxity.—This motion upon pressure, and the reciprocal thereof, motion upon *tensure*, we call motion of liberty, which is, when any body being forced to a preternatural extent, resto eth itself to the natural. *Bacon*.

TEN-TCHEOU, a city of China, of the first rank, in the province of Shantung. It is a sea-port, with a convenient harbour, and is defended by a strong garrison, and by several ships of war; 250 miles south-east of Peking. Lat. 37. 48. N. long. 120. 44. E.

TENT, *s.* [*tentorium*, Lat., from *tendo*, to stretch.]—A soldier's movable lodging place, commonly made of canvass extended upon poles.—The Turks, the more to terrify Corfu, taking a hill not far from it, covered the same with *tents*. *Knolles*.—Any temporary habitation; a pavilion.

He saw a spacious plain, whereon
Were *tents* of various hue: by some were herds
Of cattle grazing. *Milton*.

[*tente*, Fr.] A roll of lint put into a sore.
Modest doubt is call'd
The beacon of the wise; the *tent* that searches
To th' bottom of the worst. *Shakspeare*.

[*vino tinto*, Spanish.] A species of wine deeply red, chiefly from Galicia in Spain.

While the tinker did dine, he had plenty of wine,
Rich canary with sherry and *tent* superfine. *Old Ballad*.

To TENT, *v. n.* To lodge as in a tent; to tabernacle.
The smiles of knaves
Tent in my cheeks, and schoolboys' tears take up
The glasses of my sight. *Shakspeare*.

To TENT, *v. a.* To search as with a medical tent.
I'll *tent* him to the quick; if he but blench,
I know my course. *Shakspeare*.

TENTAGE, *s.* An encampment. *Not in use*.—Upon the mount the king his *tentage* fixed. *Drayton*.

TENTA'TION, *s.* [*tentatio*, Latin.] Trial; temptation.—If at any time, through the frailty of our wretched nature and the violence of *tentation*, we be drawn into a sinful action, yet let us take heed of being leavened with wickedness. *Bp. Hall*.

TENTATIVE, *adj.* [*tento*, Latin.] Trying; essaying.—This is not scientific but *tentative*. *Berkeley*.

TENTED, *adj.* Covered with tents
These arms of mine till now have us'd
Their dearest action in the *tented* field. *Shakspeare*.

TENTER, *s.* [*tendo*, *tentus*, Latin; *тентерзан*, Sax. torquere.] A hook on which things are stretched.—Every term he sets up a *tenters* in Westminster hall, upon which he racks and stretches gentlemen like English broad-cloth. *Overbury*.

To be on the TENTERS. To be on the stretch; to be in difficulties; to be in suspense.
In all my past adventures,
I ne'er was set so on the *tenters*,
Or taken tardy with dilemma,
That ev'ry way I turn does hem me. *Hudibras*.

To TENTER, *v. a.* To stretch by hooks.—A blown bladder pressed riseth again, and when leather or cloth is *tentered*, it springeth back. *Bacon*.

To TENTER, *v. n.* To admit extension.—Woollen cloth will *tenter*, linen scarcely. *Bacon*.

TENTERDEN, a market town of England, in the county of Kent, situated near the river Rother, and about six miles from the edge of Romney marsh. Tenterden was incorporated by letters patent of Henry VI. who at the same time annexed it as a member to the town and port of Rye, in Sussex, to which it is yet subject. Queen Elizabeth, in her 42d year, granted the inhabitants a new charter, by which, in place of a bailiff, &c., the government of the town was vested in a mayor, 12 jurats, 12 common councilmen, a chamberlain, and town-clerk. Tenterden was one of the first places in which the woollen manufacture was established in the reign of Edward III. Market on Friday, and a large annual fair on the first Monday of May; 24 miles south-west of Canterbury, and 56 east-by-south of London. Lat. 51. 5. N. long. 0. 42. E.

TENTERGATE, a hamlet of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, in the parish of Knaresborough.

TENTERGROUND, *s.* Ground on which tenters are erected for stretching cloth.—I entered Kendal almost in the dark, and could distinguish only a shadow of the castle on a hill, and *tenter-grounds* spread far and wide round the town. *Gray*.

TENTH, *adj.* [τεοδα, Sax.] First after the ninth; ordinal of ten.—It may be thought the less strange if others cannot do as much at the *tenth* or twentieth trial, as we did after much practice. *Boyle*.

TENTH, *s.* The tenth part.
Of all the horses,
The treasure in the field achiev'd, and city,
We render you the *tenth*. *Shakspeare*.
Tithe.

With cheerful heart
The *tenth* of thy increase bestow, and own
Heav'n's bounteous goodness, that will sure repay
Thy grateful duty. *Phillips*.

Tenths are that yearly portion which all livings ecclesiastical yield to the king. The bishop of Rome pretended right to this revenue by example of the high priest of the Jews, who had *tenths* from the Levites, till by Henry the Eighth they were annexed to the crown. *Cowel*.

TENTHLY, *adv.* In the tenth place.
TENTHREDO, in Entomology, a genus of the Hymenoptera, order of insects, the characters of which are, that the mouth has a horny, arcuated mandible, within dented; a straight jaw, obtuse at the apex; a cylindrical, trifid lip, with four unequal filiform feelers; the wings flat, and tumid or slightly inflated; the piercers consisting of two serrated scarcely prominent laminæ; and the scutellum with two distant granules.

The larvæ of this genus resemble those of the order Lepidoptera, or real caterpillars; but are distinguished from them by their more numerous feet, which are never fewer than sixteen, exclusive of the three first or thoracic pairs. When disturbed or handled, they usually roll themselves into a flat spiral. They feed, like the caterpillars of the lepidoptera, on the leaves of plants; and undergo their chrysalis state in a strong gummy case or envelopement, prepared in autumn, out of which, in the ensuing spring, emerges the complete insect. The tenthredines form a numerous genus, and are divided into tribes or sections, according to the form of the antennæ. Gmelin reckons 143 species.

I. Antennæ elevated.

1. *Tenthredo femorata*.—Antennæ yellow; black body; hinder thighs largest; the larva green, with a blueish line on the back, and yellow at the sides.

2. *Tenthredo marginata*.—Antennæ yellowish at the apex; black body; the hinder segments of the abdomen white at the margin.

3. *Tenthredo*

3. *Tenthredo lutea*.—Antennæ yellow; segments of the abdomen mostly yellow. This insect proceeds from a large green larva, of a finely granulated surface, with a double row of black specks on each side, and a dusky dorsal line bounded on each side by yellow. It feeds on various species of willow, alder, and beech. The parchment-like case in which it envelopes itself in autumn is of a pale yellowish-brown colour; and the chrysalis, which is of a pale dusky or brownish cast, exhibits the limbs of the future fly, in size equal to a common wasp, and of a yellow colour, bound with black; the antennæ rather short, and strongly clavated.

4. *Tenthredo amerinæ*.—Body cinereous; abdomen beneath red; white lip. This insect is somewhat smaller than the preceding: its caterpillar, like that of the former, is of a green colour, and of a finely roughened surface, powdered with numerous whitish specks. Feeds on the willow.

5. *Tenthredo tristis*.—Black, with yellow antennæ, and wings brown at the apex; green larva, with an azure line on the back, black and yellow fringed.

6. *Tenthredo vitellinæ*.—Abdomen above black; sides red; hinder thighs dentated; larva greenish.

7. *Tenthredo lucorum*.—Antennæ black; body villous black.—Found on the beech and alder.

8. *Tenthredo fasciata*.—Black; antennæ black; primary wings with a brown band.

9. *Tenthredo sericea*.—Antennæ yellow; thorax black; abdomen brassy; larva green, with two yellow lines.

10. *Tenthredo obscura*.—Body smooth and black.—Found in the groves of Sweden.

11. *Tenthreda connata*.—Black; abdomen with yellow bands.—Found on the alder.

12. *Tenthredo nitens*.—Antennæ yellow; abdomen green-blueish, shining. Suggested to be a variety of the *sericea*.

II. Antennæ exarticulate; the outer ones thicker.

13. *Tenthredo clavicornis*.—Black; abdomen yellow; apex black.—Found in North America.

14. *Tenthredo annulata*.—Black; abdomen yellow; hinder tarsi black, annulated with white.

15. *Tenthredo enodis*.—Antennæ smooth; body black-blueish; larva green, spotted with black, a rough lateral line yellow, sharp tail.

16. *Tenthredo ciliaris*.—Antennæ beneath ciliated; hinder legs white.—Found in Germany.

17. *Tenthredo ustulata*.—Body black; abdomen blueish; legs pale. On the canine rose. Larva green, with two white lines; head testaceous; obscure band.

18. *Tenthredo cyanocrocea*.—Head and thorax bright blue; abdomen saffron-coloured.

19. *Tenthredo atrata*.—Black; back, zone, and three arcs, yellow-greenish.

20. *Tenthredo bicolor*.—Black-blue; abdomen and base of the wings yellow; wings with a black band.—Found in Austria.

21. *Tenthredo melanochra*.—Black; abdomen yellow; a small black line on both sides of the anus; legs and soles yellow; wings with a black spot.

22. *Tenthredo tricolor*.—Head and thorax black; wings and feet brown; abdomen yellow.

23. *Tenthredo ochropus*.—Head, thorax, middle of the breast, and apex of the hinder legs, black; abdomen and feet yellow.

III. Antennæ pectinated.

24. *Tenthredo cephalotes*.—Black; abdomen with four yellow zones or belts.—Found in Germany.

25. *Tenthredo dorsata*.—Whitish; head and back of the thorax and abdomen black.

IV. Antennæ pennated.

26. *Tenthredo pini*.—Antennæ lanceolate, and thorax subvillous; larva blueish, and yellow at the tail end.

27. *Tenthredo juniperi*.—Antennæ obtuse; thorax smooth; larva green, pointed with black.

V. Antennæ filiform, with from seven to nine joints.

28. *Tenthredo Americana*.—Thorax yellow; abdomen blue; wings black.—Found in Surinam.

29. *Tenthredo costalis*.—Black, with the rib of the wings ferruginous.—Found in Germany.

30. *Tenthredo lateralis*.—Black; middle of the back red; sides white.—Found on the flowers of Sweden.

31. *Tenthredo arcuata*.—Abdomen black; five arcs, with a band at the base and sides, yellow-greenish.

32. *Tenthredo rustica*.—Black; abdomen with three yellow belts, the hinder two interrupted; larva cinereous, with triangular brown spots on the back.

33. *Tenthredo scrophulariæ*.—Antennæ yellow; abdomen with five yellow belts, the first more distant.

34. *Tenthredo abietis*.—Body black, with four ferruginous segments of the abdomen,

35. *Tenthredo Germanica*.—Body black; thorax before and abdomen red.—Found in the groves of Germany.

36. *Tenthredo padi*.—Black, with thighs and legs white.

37. *Tenthredo cynipiformis*.—Green brassy; yellow feet; hinder thighs brassy.

38. *Tenthredo cerasi*.—Body black; scutellum and feet yellow; larva gelatinous, black.

39. *Tenthredo salicis*.—Body variegated.—Found on the elder and willows.

40. *Tenthredo flavicornis*.—Yellow; head and tail black.—Found in Germany and Italy.

41. *Tenthredo luteicornis*.—Black, with antennæ, mouth, base of the abdomen, and legs, yellow.

42. *Tenthredo mesomelas*.—Abdomen yellowish; back black; arcs yellowish.

43. *Tenthredo punctum album*.—Body black; abdomen at the sides white; hinder thighs red.—Found in Germany.

44. *Tenthredo blanda*.—Black; abdomen in the middle red; hinder thighs with a white spot.

45. *Tenthredo quadrimaculata*.—Black; hinder feet red; two spots at the base white.

46. *Tenthredo rufipes*.—Body black; abdomen with two yellow belts; feet red.

47. *Tenthredo campestris*.—Body black; abdomen with an unequal yellow belt; antennæ and legs yellow.

48. *Tenthredo atra*.—Body black; feet red.

49. *Tenthredo viridis*.—Body green; abdomen above brown.

50. *Tenthredo ovata*.—Body black; thorax above red; larva greenish, sprinkled with a kind of white powder.

51. *Tenthredo alni*.—Body black; head and thorax red.

52. *Tenthredo cærulescens*.—Violet; abdomen yellow; wings with a brown spot.

53. *Tenthredo pavidæ*.—Black; the abdomen with three segments, and feet ferruginous; larva green, sprinkled with white farina; head yellow.

54. *Tenthredo rosæ*.—Black; abdomen yellow, and ridge of the primary wings black; larva yellow, pointed with black.

55. *Tenthredo bicincta*.—Body black; belt of the abdomen, anus, mouth, and legs yellow.

56. *Tenthredo cincta*.—Body black; the abdomen with a white belt; perhaps a variety of the former.

57. *Tenthredo livida*.—Body black; antennæ before the apex white.

58. *Tenthredo albicornis*.—Black; antennæ at the apex white; legs testaceous; wings at the apex brown.—Found in Italy.

59. *Tenthredo gonogra*.—Body black; knees testaceous.—Found in Germany.

60. *Tenthredo nigra*.—Whole body black.—Found at Upsal.

61. *Tenthredo æthiops*.—Smooth, black; with the four legs pale.

62. *Tenthredo rapæ*.—Body black; belly, feet, and scutellum whitish.

63. *Tenthredo septentrionalis*.—Feet posterior, compressed and dilated; larva gregarious, green, spotted with black; yellow apices.

64. *Tenthredo*

64. *Tenthredo opaca*.—Black; thorax with a spot on both sides, red at the apex.—Found in the gardens of Sweden.
65. *Tenthredo Carbonaria*.—Black, with a white mouth; fore-legs testaceous.—Found in Germany.
66. *Tenthredo nassata*.—Yellow; scutellum and point of the wings white.
67. *Tenthredo 12-punctata*.—Body black, with twelve white points.
68. *Tenthredo capreae*.—Yellow; head, thorax, and abdomen above, black; wings with a yellow point.
69. *Tenthredo morio*.—Black; with pale feet.—Found in Germany.
70. *Tenthredo annularis*.—Black, shining; antennæ white at the apex; legs ferruginous.—In the gardens of Austria, perhaps a variety of the *livida*.
71. *Tenthredo ferruginea*.—Antennæ black, annulated with white; body ferruginous; thorax, breast, and vertex black.—Found as the last.
72. *Tenthredo crassa*.—Black; feet and double points under the scutellum elevated, red.—In Austria and Carniola.
73. *Tenthredo albicincta*.—Black; the belt at the base of the abdomen and legs with a ring milky.—In Austria and France.
74. *Tenthredo vespiformis*.—Antennæ yellow; all the segments of the abdomen with yellow margins.—In Austria.
75. *Tenthredo semicincta*.—Black; the belt of the abdomen broken behind, yellowish; the feet of the abdomen beneath yellow.—In Austria.
76. *Tenthredo Viennensis*.—Black; abdomen with five yellow belts; the base of the antennæ fulvous.—In Vienna.
77. *Tenthredo ribis*.—Black; legs and apophyses of hinder thighs white at the exterior side.—In Austria.
78. *Tenthredo fuliginosa*.—Black, with fuliginous wings.—In Austria.
79. *Tenthredo dealbata*.—Black; the abdomen on both sides marked with a white spot, hinder thighs clavated, yellowish.—In Austria.
80. *Tenthredo alneti*.—Yellow; abdomen above black.—In Austria.
81. *Tenthredo hæmatodes*.—Black, thorax before on both sides red.—In Austria.
82. *Tenthredo erythrogonia*.—Black; the apex of the thighs and base of the legs red.—In Austria.
83. *Tenthredo fulviventris*.—Black; with red and deep yellow abdomen.—Found in Austria and Carniola.
84. *Tenthredo fulvivenia*.—Black; with the exterior margin of the wings fulvous, or deep yellow.—Found at Vienna.
85. *Tenthredo sulphurata*.—Black; antennæ subclavated; four fore-feet sulphureous: the hinder soles with three intermediate white joints.
86. *Tenthredo flaveola*.—Antennæ subclavated, black; base, mouth, sides, and five first segments of the abdomen and feet, yellow.
87. *Tenthredo annulata*.—Yellow; antennæ subclavated, black; apex of the thighs and soles annulated with black.
88. *Tenthredo rubiginosa*.—Black; antennæ subclavated, and base with feet yellow; third, fourth, and fifth segments of the abdomen ferruginous.
89. *Tenthredo subulata*.—Black; antennæ subulate at the apex; second to the fifth segments of the abdomen, as far as the hinder margin, legs and soles, yellow, and these annulated with black.
90. *Tenthredo mucronata*.—Black, with the seven-knotted antennæ and abdomen yellow; the last segments from the second to the fourth black; the apex of the wings brown.
91. *Tenthredo varia*.—Black; mouth, scutellum, and scutellar spots, white; the hinder segments of the abdomen and feet ferruginous.
92. *Tenthredo sanguinolenta*.—Black; with the hinder feet sanguineous.
93. *Tenthredo dealbata*.—Black; the three last joints of the antennæ and jaws white; legs and soles yellow.
94. *Tenthredo canescens*.—Grey-downy, brown, with grey wings.
95. *Tenthredo bifasciata*.—Brown, with black thorax; mouth, scutellum, and four spots at the scutel, white; abdomen with two interrupted yellow bands; margin of the wings and feet yellow.
96. *Tenthredo braccata*.—Black, with red thighs: the base of the four hinder legs, and the three penultimate joints of the antennæ, white.
97. *Tenthredo rufipes*.—Black; the base of the abdomen with a spot on both sides, and jaws, white; four fore-legs red.
98. *Tenthredo melanoleuca*.—Black; mouth, thorax with a small line on both sides before the wings; a spot on the hinder thighs; legs, the sides of the abdomen from five to seven segments, and apex, white.
99. *Tenthredo melanochra*.—Black; mouth, four fore-feet, and base-flexure of the hinder thighs, yellow.
100. *Tenthredo leucopus*.—Black; the base flexures of the thighs white; four anterior legs without, and middle of the hinder, white.
101. *Tenthredo varicornis*.—Black, with red feet; fourth and fifth joints of the antennæ and hinder legs at their base, white.
102. *Tenthredo obscura*.—Brown; with the rib of the wings as far as the spot and feet testaceous.
103. *Tenthredo limbata*.—Black; the hinder margins of the segments of the abdomen white; feet reddish.
104. *Tenthredo exalbida*.—Black; with feelers and fore-legs obsoletely white.
105. *Tenthredo ferruginosa*.—Black; the antennæ ferruginous forwards; the base and anterior margin of the wings, the first and fifth segment of the abdomen, the legs and soles white.
106. *Tenthredo angusta*.—Black; body narrow, and grey-downy.
107. *Tenthredo lutescens*.—Black; with the abdomen beneath and feet yellow-reddish.
108. *Tenthredo albipes*.—Black: with legs and soles white.
109. *Tenthredo flaviventris*.—Black; mouth white; abdomen yellow; back and apex black; feet testaceous.
110. *Tenthredo picea*.—Pitchy; anterior legs before, spot of the hinder thighs, and base, white; hinder feet red; the knees and soles black.
111. *Tenthredo fuscipes*.—Black; feet red; posterior soles brown.
112. *Tenthredo bimaculata*.—Pale; eyes, abdomen above the base, breast and two spots, black.
113. *Tenthredo lata*.—Broad, black; the posterior segments of the abdomen white, from the second to the fifth interrupted.
114. *Tenthredo annalicornis*.—Pale, the antennæ spotted with black at the base; vertex of a branchy figure, eyes, and the conjugate points at the back of the thorax and abdomen black.
115. *Tenthredo scripta*.—Pitchy; mouth, and on the middle of the fore-part of the thorax the mark resembles V; the spot on both sides the scutellum white; two scutellar points white; feet, and under margin of the segments of the belly, yellow.
116. *Tenthredo literata*.—Black: segments of the abdomen from the second to the fifth in the back, ovated spot on both sides and margins white; anterior feet, and four hinder legs on the fore-part, white.
117. *Tenthredo melanorhœa*.—Black, with yellow abdomen; the transverse spots of the back and anus black.
118. *Tenthredo geminata*.—Black, with geminated antennæ, and joints and legs pale.
119. *Tenthredo ochrogustes*.—Pitchy; with the abdomen beneath and feet yellow.
120. *Tenthredo ruficapilla*.—Head and thorax red; the posterior margin of the latter and eyes black; the abdomen and feet yellow.
121. *Tenthredo dubia*.—Black; thorax before red; joints whitish.
122. *Tenthredo pallescens*.—Black; mouth and feet pale.

VI. Antennæ setaceous; many joints.

123. *Tenthredo erythrocephala*.—Body cæruleous; head red.
124. *Tenthredo sylvatica*.—Body black; feet and marks of the thorax yellow.
125. *Tenthredo nemoralis*.—Body black; segments of the abdomen white at the side.
126. *Tenthredo cynosbati*.—Body black; feet ferruginous, hinder annulated with white and black.
127. *Tenthredo signata*.—Pale; thorax and three dorsal longitudinal spots black.—Found in Germany.
128. *Tenthredo populi*.—Black-blueish; mouth, feelers, and legs yellow.
129. *Tenthredo vafra*.—Head black, variegated with white; feet testaceous.—Found in Sweden.
130. *Tenthredo reticulata*.—Wings varied with pale and brown, with elevated veins, white and reticulated.—Found in Finland.
131. *Tenthredo betulæ*.—Body red; thorax, anus, and eyes black; wings behind brown.
132. *Tenthredo flava*.—Yellow, with the spot on the wings ferruginous.
133. *Tenthredo hæmorrhoidalis*.—Black; with the anus and feet testaceous.—In Germany.
134. *Tenthredo nemorum*.—Middle of the abdomen red; scutellum and point on the wings white.
135. *Tenthredo depressa*.—Head and thorax black; marks yellow; abdomen and feet ferruginous.—In Austria and France.
136. *Tenthredo linearis*.—Black; legs, and five bands of the filiform abdomen, yellow.—In Austria.
137. *Tenthredo bipunctata*.—Antennæ sub-setaceous; nine joints black, and two points of the black scutellum white.

VII. Of doubtful order.

138. *Tenthredo intertinctus*.—Black; with yellow feet subclavated antennæ.
139. *Tenthredo rumicis*.—Found on the dock.
140. *Tenthredo ulmi*.—Found on the leaves of the wild elder.
141. *Tenthredo pruni*.—Found on the plum-tree.
142. *Tenthredo loniceræ*.—Brown, tomentose, shining, with subclavated antennæ, and subferruginous wings.
143. *Tenthredo polygona*.—Black; antennæ subclavated with eighteen knots; the hinder margin of the segments of the abdomen from the third to the fifth yellow greenish: the thighs black; the face anterior at the apex and the anterior yellow; the hinder at the apex black: the linear abdomen compressed.
- TENTUGINOUS**, *adj.* [*tentigo*, Lat.] Stiff; stretched.
- TENTOLI**, a town of the island of Celebes, near the north extremity, on the west coast, which gives name to a road. Lat. 1. N.
- TENTORY**, *s.* [*tentorium*, Lat.] The awning of a tent. *Mason*—The women who are said to weave hangings and curtains for the grove, where no other than makers of *tentories*, to spread from tree to tree. *Evelyn*.
- TENTSMOOR POINT**, a cape of Scotland, on the coast of Fife, at the mouth of the Tay. Lat. 56. 25. N. long. 2. 55. W.
- TENTUGAL**, a small town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, with 1200 inhabitants; 11 miles west-north-west of Coimbra.
- TENTWORT**, *s.* [*adiantum album*, Lat.] A plant. *Ainsworth*.
- TENTZELL** (William Ernest), a German antiquary and historian, was born in 1659, at Greussen in Thuringia, and finished his education at Wittenberg, directing the course of his studies to philosophy and the Oriental languages, and also to history, both sacred and profane. In 1685 he was appointed a teacher in the gymnasium at Gotha, and entrusted with the care of the Duke's collection of antiquities and coins. In order to qualify him-

self for the more honourable discharge of his duties as historiographer to the house of Saxony of the Ernestine line, to which office he was appointed in 1696, he visited various courts in Germany, and carried on an epistolary correspondence with many distinguished foreigners. In 1702, he removed to Dresden, where he was made historiographer to the king of Poland, by whom he was honoured with the title of counsellor; but his manners not being adapted to a court, he obtained leave to retire. What remained of his life was devoted to literary pursuits; and he died, very poor, in November 1707, in his 49th year. His works were numerous, among which we may reckon the following: viz. "De Phenice," Vitemb. 1682, 4to.; "De Ritu Lectionum Sacrorum," Vitemb. 1685, 4to., a work highly commended by Bayle; "Judicia Eruditorum de Symbolo Athanasiano studiosè collecta et inter se collata," Francs. et Lips. 1687 12mo.; "Animadversiones in Casimiri Ordinis Supplementum de Scriptoribus Ecclesiasticis," 1688, 12mo.; "Casparis Sagittarii Historici Saxonici Historia Gothona plenior, &c." Jena 1700, 4to.; "Supplementum Historiæ Gothonæ," ibid. 1701, 4to.; "Supplementum Hist. Goth. secundum," ibid. 1701, 4to.; "Saxonia Numismatica, Pars I." Francs. et Lips. 1705, 4to.; "Pars II." 1705. Tentzel was also a contributor to several literary journals. *Gen. Biog.*

TENUIFOLIUS, *adj.* [*tenuis* and *folium*, Lat.] Having thin leaves.

TENUITY, *s.* [*tenuitas*, from *tenuis*, Latin.] Thinness; exility; smallness; minuteness; not grossness.—At the height of four thousand miles the æther is of that wonderful *tenuity*, that if a small sphere of common air, of an inch diameter, should be expanded to the thinness of that æther, it would more than take up the orb of Saturn, which is many million times bigger than the earth. *Bentley*.—Poverty; meanness. *Not used*.—The *tenuity* and contempt of clergymen will soon let them see what a poor carcass they are, when parted from the influence of that supremacy. *King Charles*.

TENUOUS, *adj.* [*tenuis*, Lat. Glanville writes it *tenuious*.] Thin; small; minute.

Could I but follow where you lead,
Disrob'd of earth and plum'd by air,
Then I my *tenuous* self might spread
As quick as fancy every-where.

J. Hall.

TENURE, *s.* [*teneo*, Lat., *tenure*, Fr., *tenure*, law Lat.] The manner whereby tenements are holden of their lords.—In Scotland are four *tenures*, the first is *pura eleemosina*, which is proper to spiritual men, paying nothing for it, but *devota animarum suffragia*; the second they called *feu*, which holds of the king, church, barons, or others, paying a certain duty called *feudi firma*; the third is a holding in blanch by payment of a penny, rose, pair of gilt spurs, or some such thing, if asked; the fourth is by service of word and relief, where the heir being minor is in the custody of his lord, together with his lands, and lands holden in this manner is called *feudum de hauberk* or *haubert*, *feudum militare* or *loricatum*. *Tenure* in gross is the *tenure* in capite; for the crown is called a seignory in gross, because a corporation of and by itself. *Cowel*.—The service follows the *tenure* of lands; and the lands were given away by the kings of England to those lords. *Spenser*.

TEODORA, *Str.*, a small island near the north coast of Candy; 8 miles north-west of Canea.

TEOLO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the government of Venice. Population 1600; 10 miles south-west of Padua, and 15 south-south-east of Vicenza.

TEOLOYUCA, a settlement of Mexico, near the city of Mexico.

TEOMAHAL, a small island in the Sooloo archipelago. Lat. 6. 15. N. long. 120. 51. E.

TEONA, a small island of Scotland, in Inverness-shire, in the opening of the arm of the sea called Loch Moidart.

TEORA, a small town in the south of Italy, in the central

part of the kingdom of Naples, province of the Principato Ultra. Population 3300.

TEOTALCO, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name, in the intendency of Mexico.

TEOTIHUACAN, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name, in the intendency of Mexico; 23 miles north-east of Mexico. Lat. 19. 41. N. long. 98. 48. W.

TEOTIHUACAN, a river of Mexico, on which the former capital of Mexico was situated.

TEOWENISTA, a stream of the United States, which falls into the Allegany river.

TEOZAPOTLAN, a settlement of Mexico.

TEOZAQUALCO, or TEOCOCUILCO, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Oaxaca, and capital of a district of the same name; 204 miles south-east of Mexico. Lat. 17. 27. N. long. 96. 12. W.

TEPACI, a river of South America, in Paraguay, which runs east, and enters the Paraguay.

TEPEACA, a town of Mexico, in the district of Tlaxcala. The principal square is large; and in the middle of it is a fort, which served as a retreat and place of defence to Cortez and his army, upon his retiring from Mexico. Its population consists of 700 families of Spaniards, Indians, and mulattoes; 66 miles east-by-south of Mexico, and 15 south-south-east of Puebla de los Angeles. Lat. 19. N. long. 98. 2. W.

TEPEFACTION, *s.* [*tepefacio*, Lat.] The act of warming to a small degree.

TEPEHUACAN, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 550 families.

TEPEL, or TOEPEL, a small town of the north-west of Bohemia, at the source of a small river also called Tepel, which joins the Eyra, near Carlsbad; 66 miles west of Prague, and 27 north-west of Pilsen.

TEPEMAXALCO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico.

TEPETLACINCO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Vera Cruz, containing 470 families of Indians—It is also the name of another insignificant settlement of Mexico.

TEPETLASTOC, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico; 4 miles north-east of Tezcucó, containing 875 families of Indians, mestizoes, and Spaniards.

TEPEXI, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Puebla, inhabited by 100 families of Spaniards, mestizoes, and mulattoes, and by 1570 Mexican Indians; 91 miles south-east of Mexico. Lat. 18. 21. N. long. 97. 59. W.

TEPIC, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name. It has a Franciscan convent; and is 97 miles north-north-west of Guadalajara, and 344 north-west of Mexico. Lat. 21. 36. N. long. 104. 45. W.

TEPID, *adj.* [*tepidus*, Lat.] Lukewarm; warm in a small degree.

The *tepid* caves, and fens, and shores,
Their brood as numerous hatch.

Milton.

TEPIDITY, *s.* [*tepidite*, old Fr.] Lukewarmness.—This kindness, it seems, is not so well improved by her as it deserved; but she is surprized by another fit of drowsy negligence and *tepidity*. *Bp. Richardson.*

TEPIQUE, an abundant river of Mexico, which has its rise near the settlement of Santiago de Calimaya; 14 leagues from Mexico. It runs more than 200 leagues from east to west, until it unites itself with the Guadalaxara. Its course, however, is not well ascertained.

TEPIRU, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman, on the shore of the river Dolce.

TEPITITLAN, two settlements of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico.

TEPLICSKA, a village of the north of Hungary; 10 miles south-west of Kesmark, with 1200 inhabitants, chiefly Catholics.

TEPLITZ, TOEPLITZ, or TEPLICE, a small town of Bohemia; 45 miles north-west of Prague, and 14 west-north-

west of Leutzmeritz. Near this the Austrians defeated the Prussians in 1762. Lat. 50. 38. 23. N. long. 13. 51. E.

TEPLITZ, which is derived from TOEPEL, a hot spring, is the name of several small towns and villages of the Austrian states, all of which have warm mineral springs.

TEPLIWODA, a small town of Prussian Silesia; 21 miles south of Breslau, and 8 north-west of Munsterburg.

TEFLOW (Gregory Nicolaivitch), a Russian writer, educated in a seminary at Novogorod, where he distinguished himself by a Latin translation of prince Cantemir's *Satires*, and a work on the geography of Russia, neither of which was ever printed. In 1740, he was employed in the Academy of Sciences, and in forming a catalogue of objects contained in the Cabinet of Natural History. He thus acquired a taste for that science, and particularly for botany; in consequence of which he was made an adjunct of the society in 1741, and in the following year delivered lectures on moral philosophy, that were much approved. The empress Elizabeth appointed him tutor and travelling companion to her favourite, count Rasumovsky, who, on his return from his travels in 1746, was made president of the Academy of Sciences. Teflow then became an honorary member, directed the institution in the name of the president, and drew up rules for its better regulation. At the time of the empress's death, he was a counsellor of state; but as he was an enemy to Peter III., he was arrested; afterwards he was restored to favour; nevertheless, two months after his being made a member of the council of state, it was discovered that he had joined in a conspiracy to dethrone that unfortunate prince. After the deposition of Peter, he published manifestations, in order to render him odious, and, as Busching says, was the principal agent in putting him to death. For this service he is said to have received a reward of 20,000 rubles. The empress afterwards made him a privy-counsellor and member of the senate, and honoured him with the orders of Alexander Newsky and St. Ann. He died in March, 1779; and his works in the Russian language, are, "A General View of Philosophy;" "Instructions to his Son;" "A Collection of Songs, with Melodies for three Voices;" "Instructions for the Cultivation of foreign Tobacco, in Lesser Russia," distributed by order of the empress through that province, in 1763. *Gen. Biog.*

TEPOLULA, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 178 families of Indians, besides a numerous population of mestizoes and mulattoes.

TEPOR, *s.* [*tepor*, Lat.] Lukewarmness; gentle heat.—The small pox, mortal during such a season, grew more favourable by the *tepor* and moisture in April. *Arbuthnot.*

TEPOTE, a river of Paraguay, which runs west, and enters the Paraguay.

TEPOXTLAN, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 960 families of Indians.

TEPOZCOLULA, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name; 150 miles south-south-east of Mexico. Lat. 71. 16. N. long. 79. 51. W.

TEPWIA, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 1. 4. S. long. 119. 10. E.

TEQUALTICHI, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name; 33 miles east of Guadalaxara. Lat. 21. 10. N. long. 102. 30. W.

TEQUENDAMA, CATARACT OF, a remarkable fall of the Rio Bogota, in South America. This river has its rise in the great plain in which is situate the city of Bogota, and which is separated from the surrounding country by steep precipices, or very deep ravines, down which the river Bogota is precipitated. The face of the rock, which finishes and borders the vast plain of Bogota, near the cataract, is so steep, that it takes three hours to descend from the river Funza to the Rio Meta; and the basin or gulf cannot be approached very close, as the rapidity of the water, the deafening noise of the fall, and dense mass of vapour, render it impossible to get nearer the edges of the abyss than 4 or 500 feet. The loneliness of the spot, the dreadful noise, and the beauty of the vegetation, render this situation one of the

the wildest and most picturesque scenes that are to be observed in the Andes.

TEQUEPA, a port of Mexico, in the province of Mechoacan, on a river near the Pacific Ocean; 80 miles south-east of Zacatula. Lat. 17. 50. N. long. 102. 26. W.

TEQUERY BAY, on the south-east part of the coast of the island of Cuba, between Cape Cruz and Cape Maizi, at the east end. It affords good anchorage and shelter for ships, but is not much frequented.

TEQUIA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, containing 1500 housekeepers.

TEQUIARI, a river of Peru, in the province of Pomabamba, which runs east, and enters the Beni.

TER, a river in the north-east of Spain, in Catalonia, which rises among the Pyrenees, and flows southwards to Vique, where it takes an eastern direction, till it falls into the Mediterranean below Cabo de Cruz.

TERABLE, a fort of South America, in Terra Firma; 29 miles east-north-east of the city of Panama.

TERAKACO, a peninsula on the east coast of New Zealand, of which Cape Table forms the eastern point.

TERAMA ALTA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, containing 600 housekeepers.

TERAMNUS [*Τεραμνος*, the same with *τεραμνω* and *τερων*, Gr., *soft*; properly predicated of legumes and seeds which are made tender by boiling], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria; natural order of papilionaceæ or leguminosæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, two lipped; upper lip a little larger, bifid; lower three-toothed, teeth acute, erect, approximating. Corolla: papilionaceous; standard obcordate, spreading, erect, bent down a little; wings length of the standard, erect, approximating, rounded at the tip; keel very small, concealed at the base by the calyx between the lower part of the wings, bipartite, covering the stamens. Stamina: filaments ten; five very small and barren, alternate with the others, which are fertile, longer, and united at the base; anthers roundish. Pistil: germ elongated, pubescent; style none; stigma round-headed. Pericarp: legume linear, compressed, margined. Seeds, many, roundish, compressed, retuse at the end.—*Essential Character*. Keel very small, concealed within the calyx. Stamina alternate; five barren. Stigma sessile, headed.

1. *Teramnus volubilis*.—This creeping or climbing plant is pretty common in the lower hills of Jamaica, and runs generally the length of six or seven feet from the root. The leaves are oblong, and covered moderately with down. The flowers are small, and disposed in slender spikes at the axils of the leaves. The seed-vessels are long, slender and compressed.

2. *Teramnus uncinatus*.—Leaves oblong, obtuse, silky beneath.—Native of Jamaica.

TERAMO, a town of Italy, in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the Abruzzo Ultra, on the river Tordino. It has some manufactures of woollens, and is the see of a bishop; 28 miles north-north-east of Aquila, and 115 north of Naples.

TERANE, a town of Egypt, situated in the district to the west of the Nile, containing the lakes of Natron.

TERAPEA, or TARAPIA, a small town of European Turkey, about 10 miles north-north-east of Constantinople, and much admired for the beauty of its situation.

TERAPIN, *s.* A kind of tortoise. *Phillips*.—It is observed, that though the heads of snakes, *terrapins*, and such like vermine, be cut off; yet the head will not die in a long time after. *Hist. of Virginia*.

TERATOLOGY, *s.* [*τερατος* and *λεγω*, Gr.] Bombast, affection of false sublimity. *Bailey*.

TERBURGH (Gerard), a painter of domestic scenes of exquisite skill, was born at Zwoil in the province of Overyssel, in 1608. He was the son of a painter little known, from whom he received the rudiments of the art. He began his career as a painter of portraits in small, and had acquired considerable reputation, when he determined upon travelling

through Germany and Italy. Unengaged by the sublimer beauties of art which the latter country offered to his view, he never changed his style, but went thence to Paris to practise it; and there met with considerable success. From thence he returned to Holland, and was highly appreciated, and fully employed. He attended the congress assembled at Munster in 1648, for the negotiation of the treaty of peace, and there painted his celebrated picture containing portraits of the plenipotentiaries and principal personages assembled on that occasion, which is regarded as his master-piece; and of which there is a print by Suyderhoef. While engaged upon this work, he was invited by count Pigorandor, the Spanish ambassador at the congress, to visit Spain, and went there in consequence; where he was most favourably received, and much employed. The king conferred upon him the order of knighthood, and rewarded him munificently for the pictures he painted. Besides portraits, which constituted the principal part of his practice, he frequently painted conversations, musical parties, ladies at their toilette, and domestic subjects, which he executed with a free, but rather a heavy pencil, not equal to the brilliancy of Metz and Netscher, but nevertheless, exceedingly meritorious and agreeable; particularly in the close imitations of his draperies. He died in 1681, at Deventer where he settled on his return from Spain.

TERCE, *s.* [*triens*, Lat.] A vessel containing forty-two gallons of wine; the third part of a butt or pipe. *Ainsworth*.

In the poet's verse

The king's fame lies, go now deny his tierce. *B. Jonson*.

TERCEL, *s.* A hawk. See TASSEL.

TERCERA, an island near the coast of Africa, forming part of the group of the Azores. The Portuguese are said to have given this name to it, from its being the third in succession that was discovered. The people of Tercera are reckoned mild, benevolent, and superior in civilization to those of the other islands. The police is better enforced, and the manners of Lisbon generally prevail. The only two places of consequence are Angra and Praya.

TERCERO, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which rises in the mountains to the south-west of the city of Corduba. It runs east, collecting the waters of a smaller river, called Saladillo. It enters the river Parana just above the town of Rossario, and 73 miles south of the city of Santa Fe.

TERDOPPIO, a small river in the north of Italy, which rises near the southern extremity of the Lago Maggiore, and falls into the Po; 12 miles east-south-east of Lumello.

TEREBELLA, in Natural History, a genus of the Mollusca order of Vermes; the characters of which are, the body oblong, creeping; naked, furnished with branchiæ at the sides, more frequently in the tube; the mouth labiated, toothless, and projecting a clavated proboscis; the tentacula or feelers about the mouth numerous, capillary, and ciliated.

1. *Terebella cirrata*.—Round, body with triple lateral pencils.—Found in the sandy bottom of the Iceland sea.

2. *Terebella lapidaria*.—With eight cirri at the anterior parts of the body, about the mouth four.—Found in the Mediterranean sea, within the clefts of rocks.

3. *Terebella conchilega*.—Whitish, with numerous filiform cirri at the mouth, the upper longest; the branchiæ very red.—Found in the sea washing the coast of Holland.

4. *Terebella complanata*.—Depressed mouth with four cirri; the lateral pencil-bearing warts of the body arranged on both sides in a two-fold series.

5. *Terebella carunculata*.—Depressed-quadrangular with a four-fold series of ventral pencils, and no cirri.—Found in the American and Indian seas.

6. *Terebella rostrata*.—Tetraedrous, with a quadruple series of pencils from the body, and palate elongated.—Found in the Indian sea.

7. *Terebella flava*.—Depressed, with thirty-seven branchiæ

chiæ on both sides, and bifurcated tail.—Found in the Indian sea.

8. *Terebella rubra*.—Red, depressed; tail terminating with two cirri; the head with two horny moveable jaws.—Found in the sea surrounding the islands of Zeland.

9. *Terebella aphroditois*.—Round, gradually attenuated backwards, below somewhat depressed with an obsolete furrow; no branchiæ in the eight first segments, in the following three simple, in the last sensibly greater, one being turned, pinnated.—Found in the Indian sea.

10. *Terebella bicornis*.—With a simple terminal two-horned disc of the proboscis.—Found in the American ocean.

11. *Terebella stellata*.—With a perfoliated triple disc of the proboscis; the anterior armed with a truncated horn, radiated with prickles.—Found in the American ocean.

TEREBELLA, (dim. of *terebra*.) in Surgery, a trepan, or circular saw, for removing portions of the skull.

TEREBES, or TREBISSOW, a small town in the north of Hungary; 22 miles east-south-east of Caschau, situated on the river Bodrog.

TEREBINTH, *s.* [*terebinte*, Fr.; *τερεβινθος*, Gr.] The turpentine tree.

Here grows melampode every where, And *terebinth*, good for goats.

Spenser.

TEREBINTHINATE, or TEREBINTHINE, *adj.* [*terebinthine*, French; *terebinthum*, Lat.] Consisting of turpentine; mixed with turpentine.—Salt serum may be evacuated by urine, by *terebinthinates*, as tops of pine in all our ale. *Flower.*

TO TEREBRATE, *v. a.* [*terebro*, Lat.] To bore; to perforate; to pierce.—Consider the threefold effect of Jupiter's trisulc, to burn, discuss, and *terebrate*. *Brown.*

TEREBRATION, *s.* [from *terebrate*.] The act of boring or piercing.—*Terebration* of trees makes them prosper better; and also it maketh the fruit sweeter and better. *Bacon.*

TEREDO, in Natural History, a genus of the Testacea order of Vermes, the characters of which are, that the animal is a *terebella*, with two hemispheric calcareous valves, cut off before, and two lanceolated; the shell is round, flexuous, and capable of penetrating wood.

Teredo navalis.—The shell very slender, cylindric and smooth.

The head of the *Teredo navalis*, called by Linnæus *calamitas navium*, is well prepared by nature for the hard offices it is to undergo, being coated with a strong armour, and furnished with a mouth like that of the leech; by which it pierces wood, as that animal does the skin; a little above this it has two horns, which seem a kind of continuation of the shell; the neck is as strongly provided for the service of the creature as the head, being furnished with several strong muscles; the rest of the body is only covered by a very thin and transparent skin, through which the motion of the intestines is plainly seen by the naked eye; and by means of the microscope, several other very remarkable particulars become visible there.

This creature is wonderfully minute when newly excluded from the egg, and, at its utmost bigness, is a foot long; three or four inches are however its more frequent length.

When the bottom of a vessel, or any other piece of wood constantly under water, is inhabited and injured by ever so great a number of these worms, there is no sign of the damage to be perceived on the surface, nor are the creatures visible till the outer part of the wood is cut or broken away; then their shelly habitations come in sight: these lie so near the surface, however, as to have an easy communication with the water, and there is a multitude of little perforations in the very surface through which the inhabitant insects throw out the extremities of their little shelly horns; these are of a reddish colour, and may be distinguished by an accurate observer in form of so many red prominent points; they are all retracted on the least touch, and

are thrown out again as soon as all is quiet. From these points, or the small apertures which give them a way out, are the cells of the teredines to be traced. They are composed of a pearly or shelly matter, which forms a long tube with various windings and turnings, which mark the abode of the creature; but which usually neither adheres to the body of the animal nor to the wood. These cases or tubes are always more or less loose in the wood, and there is ever a large space within them, for the body of the animal to be surrounded every way with water. They are very smooth on the inner surface, and somewhat rougher without; and are much harder and firmer in the cells of the older and larger animals than in those of the young ones.

These shelly tubes are composed of several rings, or annular parts; but these differ greatly in their length. There is an evident care in these creatures, never to injure one another's habitations; by this means each tubule or case is preserved entire, and in such pieces of wood as have been found eaten by them into a sort of honey-comb, there never is seen a passage or communication between any two of the tubules, though the woody matter between them often is not thicker than a piece of writing paper.

The vast increase of these animals, and their shelly tubules, naturally lead to a consideration of the manner of their generation; and when we consider that each of these creatures is, from the time when it is produced from the egg, immediately lodged in a cell, in which it lives without the least possibility of getting into that of another animal of its own kind, of receiving one of them in its own, it is not easy to account for the propagation of the species in the common way. This however, is solved by an accurate anatomical observation of the animals themselves, since in every individual the parts of generation in both sexes, and both the semen and ovula are found. Each individual therefore evidently serves by itself for the propagation of the species; and this is probably very often the case in earth-worms, and other of the hermaphrodite animals. All the yet known kinds of these being soft-bodied; and probably, though they often meet one another, and copulate in pairs, yet when they have not opportunity, the parts copulate in the individual.

Eggs are found in great plenty in the bodies of these animals in June, and are discharged with the water into the sea, where the far greater part of them, doubtless, become food for other small marine animals; and the few that affix themselves to any piece of wood they are washed against, hatch and get into its substance in the manner of their parents.

The kind of wood in which these worms are lodged, makes a great difference in the appearance of their cells, as they work much more speedily and successfully in some kinds than in others. The fir and alder are the two kinds they seem to eat with the greatest ease, and in which they grow to the greatest size. In the oak they seem to make but a very slow progress, and usually appear very small, and poorly nourished. The colour of their shelly tubules is often brown in this wood; which seems plainly owing to the effect of its juices.

Poisonous ointments are also found to be of some use in destroying them, on rubbing over the wood: some have thought that burning the surface was an effectual way of preserving them, but this has been found to be otherwise. The surest method of avoiding them in particular works, is the using of bitter or very solid woods; the first kind they are found never to touch, and in the other they make but slow progress. Mixtures of lime, sulphur, and colocynth, with pitch, for covering over the surfaces of boards, &c., have been found of some use.

It seems very evident, that boards and other pieces of wood have been subject to be eaten by these animals, from all times that we have any knowledge of; for the stone called *lapis syringoides* is evidently no other than wood thus eaten, petrified by long lying in the earth, together with the tubules of the worms. The masses of this with the grain of wood

wood yet plain in them, are common in many places among sea-shells, and other marine remains at great depths, and have evidently been brought thither in very distant times, and before those changes were made in the surface of the earth, of which we have no accounts in our earliest histories.

2. *Teredo utriculus*.—Shell solid, cylindrical and undulated.

3. *Teredo clava*.—Shell clavated at one end, the other curved, narrower, obtuse, and perforated in the middle. Sellii Hist. Natur. *Teredinis*.

TEREK, a considerable river of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Caucasus. It rises amid snow-covered mountains, in the loftiest part of the Caucasian chain, on the frontier of Circassia and Georgia. After passing Kizlar, it divides into three branches, and falls into the Caspian.

TEREMENDO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Valladolid, inhabited by 90 families of Indians.

TERENCE (Publius Terentius), a Latin writer of comedies, was born, as it is supposed, at Carthage about the year of Rome 560 (B. C. 194.) Being brought to Rome as a slave, when young, he was in the service of a person named Terentius, a senator, from whom he derived his name. The purity and politeness of his language evince his having enjoyed the benefit of a good Roman education. After his emancipation, he was honoured with the friendship of several Romans of rank, such as Scipio Africanus the younger, and the younger Lelius. His comedies were founded upon the Greek model, and translated, either wholly or in part, from the Greek. The first comedy which he is said to have brought upon the stage, was the "Andrio," represented in the year before Christ 166. But though this was the first of his comedies that was acted, it appears that it was not the first which he had written. The six comedies of Terence that are still extant were exhibited at Rome from the year before Christ 166 to 160. They were heard with great applause; the "Eunuchus" was repeated twice in the same day, and he is said to have received for it 8000 sesterces (about 64*l.*) Scipio and Lelius, as tradition reports, had a great part in the composition of Terence's comedies. Terence himself in a prologue seems tacitly to acknowledge the fact. But modern writers and critics, who have reasoned on this fact, think it very improbable. Generals and statesmen were not persons likely to possess the habit of dramatic composition, whatever previous hints or subsequent corrections they might furnish; and besides it is observed, that no writings more strongly indicate by their style and manner that they are the production of a single hand than those of Terence. After he had presented these comedies to the public he departed for Greece, and never returned to Rome. Some have accounted for this circumstance, by supposing that he perished by shipwreck; others affirm that he died in Greece, from the grief he experienced on account of the loss of his baggage and some new comedies, which he had composed, by an accident at sea.

The judgment of critics on the performances of Terence, has been very different, though their real merit is said not to be of difficult estimation. It is generally allowed that he is defective in invention and originality of observation. This sufficiently appears from his having Greek manners and characters in all his plays. He was likewise a plagiarist, with regard to the sentiments, as well as to the plots and incidents of his pieces; but a very competent judge observes, "that he is justly entitled to the praise of judicious selection, happy disposition, and purity and neatness of language; and that, as a Latin writer, in a style of elegance, of which there are so few examples, he was highly prized in his own times, and is invaluable in ours. Cicero, who speaks of him as a translator of Menander, applauds him as the only one who had expressed in the Latin language, all the politeness and amenity of the original; and Cæsar, in some well-known lines, calls him 'the lover of pure diction;' and also by the epithet of the *Halved Meander*; and his regret that Terence did not possess the *vis comica*, as well as the

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other excellencies of his model, points out his deficiencies." Of the numerous editions of Terence, the most esteemed are the following; viz., the "Variorum," Amst. and Lugd. Batav. 1686; "Bentleii," Cantab. 4to. 1726; "Westerhovii," Hag. C. 4to. 1726; "Zeunii," Lips. 8vo. 1774; "Brunckii," Basil, 4to. 1779. Voss. Poet. Lat. *Gen. Biog.*

TERESA, a small town in the east of Spain, in Valencia, with 2200 inhabitants; 10 miles west-by-north of Segorbe.

TERESA, St., a town of New Granada, at the conflux of the Meta and Orinoco; 300 miles east of Santa Fe de Bogota.

TERESA, St., a town of New Mexico, in the province of Cinaloa; 95 miles north-east of Cinaloa.

TERESA, St., a fort of the province of Buenos Ayres, situate near the sea coast, about 80 miles north-east of Maldonado. Lat. 33. 58. S. long. 53. 34. W.

TERESPOL, a small town in the east of Poland; 3 miles south-south-west of Brzesc, and 103 east-by south of Warsaw, inhabited by the descendants of German settlers.

TERRET, *adj.* [*terres, teretis*, Lat.] Round. *Not in use*.—To the stars Nature hath given no such instruments, but made them round and *teret* like a globe. *Fotherby*.

TERFOWI, a watering place in the desert of Nubia; 150 miles south of Syene.

TERGE/MINOUS, *adj.* [*tergeminus*, Lat.] Threefold.

To TERGIVE/RSATE, *v. n.* [*tergum*, the back, and *verto*, (*versus*,) to turn, Lat.] To boggle; to shift; to use evasive expressions. *Bailey*.

TERGIVERSA'TION, *s.* [*tergiversation*, Fr. Cotgrave; *tergin* and *verto*, Lat.] Shift; subterfuge; evasion.—Writing is to be preferred before verbal conferences, as being freer from passions and *tergiversations*. *Bramhall*.—Change; fickleness.—The colonel, after all his *tergiversations*, lost his life in the king's service. *Clarendon*.

TERGLOU, one of the highest mountains of Germany, situated among the Julian Alps, in the north-west of Carniola. It is 10,855 feet above the sea, and is covered with continual snow on the north side, where there are immense glaciers.

TERGOVISTA, or TIRGOWISCHT, a town of European Turkey, in Wallachia, in the district called Zara de Suss, situated in a pleasant track on the river Jalomiza; 64 miles south-east of Hermanstadt, and 180 east-north-east of Belgrade. Lat. 45. 3. N. long. 25. 29. E.

TERHALTEN, a small island near the coast of Terra del Fuego. Lat. 55. 20. S.

TERHEYDEN, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of north Brabant. Population 1900; 3 miles north of Breda.

TERKAT, a village of Asia Minor, in the government of Sivas; 20 miles north-west of Tocat.

TERKI, a fortress built by Russia, at the mouth of the Tumenka, which forms one of the branches by which the Terek falls into the sea.

TERKUL, a river of Asiatic Russia, which falls into the Oural at Oursk.

TERLING, a parish of England, in Essex; 3½ miles west of Witham. Population 766.

TERLIZZI, a considerable town of Italy, in the south-east of the kingdom of Naples. Terlizzi stands 20 miles south of the site of Cannæ, and 60 north-west of Tarentum.

TERM, *s.* [*terminus*, Lat.] Limit; boundary.—Corruption is a reciprocal to generation; and they two are as nature's two *terms* or boundaries and the guides to life and death. *Bacon*.—[*Terme*, Fr.] The word by which a thing is expressed. A word of art.—To apply notions philosophical to plebeian *terms*, or to say where the notions cannot fitly be reconciled, that there wanteth a *term* or nomenclature for it, be but shifts of ignorance. *Bacon*.—Words; language.

Would curses kill, as doth the mandrakes groan,
I would invent as bitter searching *terms*,
As curst, as harsh, as horrible to hear.

Shakspeare.

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Condition;

Condition; stipulation.—Well, on my *terms* thou wilt not be my heir? *Dryden*.—[*Termine*, old French.] Time for which any thing lasts; a limited time.

I am thy father's spirit,
Doom'd for a certain *term* to walk the night. *Shakspeare*.

[In law.] The time in which the tribunals are open to all that list to complain of wrong, or to seek their right by course of law; the rest of the year is called vacation. Of these *terms* there are four in every year, during which matters of justice are dispatched: one is called Hilary *term*, which begins the twenty-third of January, or, if that be Sunday, the next day following, and ends the twenty-first of February; another is called Easter *term*, which begins eighteen days after Easter, and ends the Monday next after ascension day; the third is Trinity *term*, beginning the Friday next after Trinity Sunday, and ending the Wednesday-fortnight after; the fourth is Michaelmas *term*, beginning the sixth of November, or, if that be Sunday, the next day after, and ending the twenty-eighth of November. *Cowel*.

What are these to those vast heaps of crimes,
Which *terms* prolong. *Dryden*.

These terms are supposed by Mr. Selden to have been instituted by William the Conqueror; but Sir H. Spelman hath shewn that they were gradually formed from the canonical constitutions of the church; being no other than those leisure seasons of the year, which were not occupied by the great festivals or fasts, or which were not liable to the general avocations of rural business. Throughout all Christendom, in very early times, the whole year was one continued term for hearing and deciding of causes. For the Christian magistrates, in order to distinguish themselves from the Heathens, who were very superstitious in the observation of their *dies fasti* and *nefasti*, administered justice upon all days alike; till at length the church interposed, and exempted certain holy seasons from being profaned by the tumult of forensic litigations; as, particularly, the time of Advent and Christmas, which gave rise to the winter vacation; the time of Lent and Easter, which created that in the spring; the time of Pentecost, which produced the third and long vacation, between Midsummer and Michaelmas, which was allowed for the hay-time and harvest. All Sundays also, and some peculiar festivals, as the days of the Purification, Ascension, &c., were included in the same prohibition, which was established by a canon of the church, A. D. 517, and fortified by an imperial constitution of the younger Theodosius, comprised in the Theodosian code. Afterwards, when our own legal constitution was established, the commencement and duration of our law terms were appointed, with a view to these canonical prohibitions; and it was ordered by the laws of King Edward the Confessor, that from Advent to the octave of the Epiphany, from Septuagesima to the octave of Easter, from the Ascension to the octave of Pentecost, and from three in the afternoon of all Saturdays till Monday morning, the peace of God and holy church shall be kept throughout the whole kingdom.

And so extravagant was afterwards the regard paid to these holy times, that though the author of the *Mirror* mentions only one vacation of considerable length, containing the months of August and September, yet Britton says, that in the reign of King Edward I., no secular plea could be held, nor any man sworn on the Evangelists, in the time of Advent, Lent, Pentecost, harvest, and vintage, the days of the great litanies, and all solemn festivals. He adds, that the bishops and prelates granted dispensations for taking assizes and juries in some of these holy seasons, upon reasonable occasions; and soon after a general dispensation was established in parliament by stat. Westm. 1. 4 Edw. 1. cap. 51, that assizes of novel disseisin, mort d'ancestor, and darrein presentment, should be taken in Advent, Septuagesima, and Lent, as well as inquests; at the special request of the king to the bishops. The portions of time that were not included

within these prohibited seasons, fell naturally into a fourfold division; and from some festival or saint's day, that immediately preceded their commencement, were denominated the terms of St. Hilary, of Easter, of the Holy Trinity, and of St. Michael: which terms have been since regulated and abbreviated by several acts of parliament; particularly Trinity term by stat. 32 Hen. VIII. c. 2., and Michaelmas term by stat. 16 Car. I. c. 6., and again by stat. 24 Geo. II. c. 38. *Blackst. Com.*

At Oxford, Hilary or Lent term begins January 14th, and ends the Saturday before Palm-Sunday. Easter term begins the tenth day after Easter, and ends the Thursday before Whitsunday. Trinity term begins the Wednesday after Trinity-Sunday, and ends after the act, or 6th of July, sooner or later, as the vice-chancellor and convocation please. Michaelmas term begins October 10th, and ends December 17th.

At Cambridge, Lent term begins January 14th, and ends the Friday before Palm-Sunday. Easter term begins the Wednesday after Easter-week, and ends the week before Whitsunday. Trinity term begins the Wednesday after Trinity-Sunday, and ends the Friday after the commencement, or 2d of July. Michaelmas term begins October 10th, and ends December 16th.

In Scotland, Candlemas term begins January 23d, and ends February 12th. Whitsuntide term begins May 25th, and ends June 15th. Lammas term begins July 20th, and ends August 8th. Martinmas term begins November 3d, and ends November 29th.

In Ireland the terms are the same as at London, except Michaelmas term, which begins October 13th, and adjourns to November 3d, and thence to the 6th.

To TERM, *v. a.* To name; to call.—Men *term* what is beyond the limits of the universe imaginary space, as if no body existed in it. *Locke*.

TERMAGANCY, *s.* Turbulence; tumultuousness.—By a violent *termagancy* of temper, she may never suffer him to have a moment's peace. *Barker*.

TERMAGANT, *adj.* [търм and маган, Saxon, *eminently powerful*.] Tumultuous; turbulent.—'Twas time to counterfeit, or that hot *termagant* Scot had paid me scot and lot too. *Shakspeare*.—Quarrelsome; scolding; furious.—The eldest was a *termagant*, imperious, prodigal, profligate wench. *Arbuthnot*.

TERMAGANT, *s.* A scold; a brawling turbulent woman. It appears to have been anciently used of men. It was a kind of heathen deity extremely vociferous and tumultuous in the ancient farces and puppet shows.—This terrible *termagant*, this Nero, this Pharaoh. *Bale*.—I would have such a fellow whipt for o'erdoing *termagant*; it outheroed's Herod. *Shakspeare*.—She threw his periwig into the fire: well, said he, thou art a brave *termagant*. *Tatler*.

TERMER, *s.* One who travels up to the term.—Let the buyer beware, saith the old lawbeaten *termmer*. *Milton*.—One that holds for a term of years or life. *Cowel*.

TERMES, a small town of Turkey in Europe, in Macedonia, near the gulf of Salonica.

TERMES, in Entomology, a genus of the Aptera order of insects. Its characters are, that it has six legs formed for running; two eyes; setaceous antennæ, and a mouth with two jaws. According to Gmelin, the characters are, that the mouth has two horny jaws, with a horny, quadrifid lip, linear acute fringes, four equal filiform feelers, or palpi, antennæ (mostly) moniliform, and two eyes. Linnæus enumerates three, and Gmelin eight species.

1. *Termes fatale*.—Above brown; thorax with three segments; wings pallid, and costa, or rib, testaceous. This is the destructor of Degeer, and *termes bellicosum* of Smethman.—It is found in the shady parts of the equinoctial regions of India and Africa.

2. *Termes destructor*.—Above testaceous; head black; antennæ yellow.—Found in the islands opposite to South America, Africa, and India.

3. *Termes arda*.—Black; abdomen with segments white at

at the apex; legs pallid.—Found in the equinoctial parts of Africa.

4. *Termes mordax*.—Black; the segments of the abdomen white at the apex; legs black.—Found in the equinoctial parts of Africa.

5. *Termes Capense*.—Yellow, with hyaline wings; brown at the margin.—Found in India and Southern Africa.

6. *Termes fatidicum*.—Abdomen ovate; mouth pallid; brown eyes; antennæ setaceous.—Found in Europe, chiefly the southern part.

7. *Termes pulsatorium*.—Abdomen oblong; mouth red; eyes yellow; antennæ setaceous.—Found in Europe and America.

8. *Termes divinatorium*.—Abdomen transversely sulcated; brown mouth, and black eyes.—Chiefly found in books; very lively, irritable, and whitish.

It is observed, that the European species of termes are very small, compared with those of the warmer regions of Africa and America; and instead of being gregarious, as in those climates, are usually found single. Of these, the most known is the *termes pulsatorius* of Linnæus, a small insect of a whitish colour, and distinguished by Derham and some other naturalists, by the appellation of "*Pediculus pulsatorius*." During the months of summer, it is common in houses, particularly in decayed wainscots, and is remarkable for emitting a long-continued sound, resembling the ticking of a watch; it is commonly met with in collections of dried plants, &c., to which it is very injurious. It cannot bear, on account of its tender frame, the slightest pressure, and it is very quick in its motion. When magnified, the head appears large, the eyes very conspicuous, of a beautiful golden colour, and divided into innumerable hexagonal convexities; the antennæ long and setaceous; the palpi two in number, moderately long, and terminating in a large club-shaped top; the thorax rather narrow, and the abdomen obtusely oval; the thighs, or first joints of the legs, thick, the remaining ones slender, and the feet furnished with very small claws. The whole animal is beset with scattered hairs. This insect, according to the observations of Derham, when first hatched from the egg, is white, oval, and very small, exactly resembling the common mite; furnished with eight legs, and beset with long hairs. After a certain time it casts its skin, and appears in the form already described. Degeer has found on each side of the thorax the appearances of rudiments of wings, resembling a pair of oblong scales; and Dr. Shaw affirms, from his own observations, that some individuals of this species become winged at their full growth; the wings, four in number, being very large, of a slightly indistinct appearance, and variegated with blackish and brown clouds or spots. In the beginning of July this change takes place, and several insects may be seen with the wings half-grown; in a few days they gain their full size.

Dr. Derham is of opinion, that the ticking sound of this animal is analogous to the call of birds to their mates during the breeding season; and this opinion is very probable. This sound, says Dr. Shaw, as well as that produced by the "*Ptinus fatidicus*," or death-watch, seems to prove in a convincing manner, that insects possess the faculty of hearing, though this be denied by some naturalists.

Of the exotic termites, the most remarkable is the *termes bellicosus*. The animals of this species have been minutely described by Mr. Smeathman, from whose account the following particulars are extracted.

The termites, which have been taken notice of by various travellers in different parts of the torrid zone, and called by the name of white ants, resemble the ants in their manner of living, which is in communities, forming extraordinary nests in the surface of the ground, and various subterraneous passages, and also in their provident and diligent labour; but in both respects much surpass them. The termites are represented by Linnæus as the greatest calamity of both Indies, because of the havoc they make in all kinds of wooden buildings, utensils, and furniture, so that nothing but metal or stone can escape their destructive jaws.

Smeathman observes, that the insect in its perfect state has four wings without any sting, and should therefore be ranged under the *neuroptera*, and not under the *aptera* of the Linnæan system. The communities of termites consist of one male and one female, generally the parents of all the rest, and of three orders of insects, apparently of very different, though really of the same species. Those of the first order are the working insects, or labourers; the second comprehends the fighting insects, or soldiers, which do no labour; and the third are the winged ones, or perfect insects, which are male and female, and capable of propagation, but neither labour nor fight; the kings and queens belong to this order, and within a few weeks after they are elected and elevated to this rank, they migrate, and either establish new kingdoms, or perish within a day or two. The largest species, called *termes bellicosus*, is the best known on the coast of Africa; it erects immense buildings of well-tempered earth or clay, which are constructed with signal ingenuity: it does infinite mischief in one respect, and in another it is peculiarly important and useful, by destroying those vegetable or animal substances which encumber the earth, and are noxious on account of their putridity. The buildings (usually termed hills) which these insects erect, are in their general form like sugar-loaves, and about ten or twelve feet high; and consist of an exterior part, which is large and strong, intended partly for defence, and partly for preserving a regular degree of warmth in order to hatch the eggs and cherish the young; and an interior, which is the habitable part, divided into many apartments for the residence of the king and queen, the nursing of their progeny, the accommodation of the soldiers and labourers, or magazines of provision. The royal chamber, in the interior building, or that occupied by the king and queen, is situated near the centre, and usually in the shape of a semi-oval within.

In the infant state of the colony, it is not more than about an inch in length, but in time it is enlarged to six or eight inches in the clear, being in size adapted to that of the queen. It has doors or entrances, at pretty equal distances from each other, which entrances are of a size not to admit any animal larger than the soldiers and labourers: so that the king and queen, when once immured, can never go out. The royal chamber is surrounded by many others of different sizes, shapes, and dimensions; and they either open into each other, or communicate by passages suitably contrived. These apartments are connected with the magazines, formed altogether of clay, and nurseries. The provisions lodged in the former appear, by the microscope, to consist principally of the gums or inspissated juices of plants. The nurseries are composed entirely of wooden materials, joined together apparently with gums. These nurseries are occupied by the eggs, and young insects, which appear at first in the shape of labourers, but white as snow. They are very compact, and divided into small chambers, not one of which is to be found of half an inch in width. They are placed round and near the royal apartments. As the queen enlarges, her chamber is also enlarged; and new apartments are fitted up for her attendants; and also new nurseries at a remoter distance. Thus, says Mr. Smeathman, they continually enlarge their apartments, pull down, repair, and rebuild, according to their wants, with a degree of sagacity, regularity, and foresight, not even imitated by any other kind of animals or insects which he has ever heard of. These nurseries are always found slightly overgrown with or plentifully sprinkled with small white globules, about the size of a small pin's head, first supposed to be the eggs, but found by the microscope to be small mushrooms. The royal chamber is situated at about a level with the surface of the ground, at an equal distance from all the sides of the building, and in every direction surrounded by the apartments of labourers or soldiers, for the purpose of attendance. These apartments compose an intricate labyrinth, extending a foot or more in diameter, from the royal chamber on every side. Here the nurseries and magazines of provisions commence, and being separated by small empty chambers or galleries,

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are continued on all sides to the outward shell, and reaching up within it two-thirds or three-fourths of its height. All these chambers, and passages leading to and from them, being arched, help to support one another: and the exterior building supports them on the outside. Our limits will not allow our describing all the subterranean galleries or passages, and the manner in which they are artfully made to communicate with different parts of the building, and to suit the convenience of the labourers and soldiers, as thoroughfares for passing and repassing with their loads of materials and provisions.

There are other nests or habitations constructed by other species, which are in the form of turrets, or upright cylinders, and contain a number of cells: they are of two sizes, for the accommodation of a larger and smaller species: and again another kind of nests, which is the habitation of a distinct species; this is generally spherical or oval, and built in trees.

Of the three orders above-mentioned, the labourers, which are about one-fourth of an inch long, and twenty-five of them weigh about a grain, are the most numerous; e. g. in the termes bellicosus, there seem to be at least one hundred labourers to one of the fighting insects or soldiers. The soldiers are about half an inch long, and equal in bulk to fifteen of the labourers; the mouth of the latter is evidently calculated for gnawing and holding of bodies, whereas that of the former, or soldiers, has its jaw shaped like two sharp awls, a little jagged, and as hard as a crab's claws, so that they are incapable of any thing but piercing or wounding: in insects of the third order, which have arrived at their perfect state, the head, thorax, and abdomen, are wholly different from those of the other orders, and they are furnished with four large brownish transparent wings; their length is six or seven-tenths of an inch, and each is equal in bulk to thirty labourers: they have now two eyes which are visible, whereas if they had them before they are not distinguishable. These insects are gathered and eat by the inhabitants, and reckoned both delicious and nourishing food. The king and queen are lodged in apartments, which are closed up, so that a passage remains merely for the ingress and egress of the labourers and soldiers, but at which (as we have already said) neither of the royal pair can come out: and in the business of propagation the abdomen of the female extends to an enormous size, so that an old queen's will be fifteen hundred or two thousand times the bulk of the rest of her body, and twenty or thirty thousand times the bulk of a labourer, and by its peristaltic motion, are protruded eggs to the amount of sixty in a minute, or eighty thousand and more in twenty-four hours: the eggs are removed by the attendants into the nurseries, and after they are hatched, the young are provided with every thing necessary till they are able to shift for themselves. It is remarkable of all the different species of termites, that the working and fighting insects never expose themselves to the open air; but either travel under ground, or within such trees or substances as they destroy, or through pipes made of the same materials with their nests. The termites which build in trees, frequently construct their nests within the roofs and other parts of houses, to which they do considerable damage, unless soon extirpated; and the larger species enter under the foundations of houses, through the floors, or bore through the posts of buildings, making lateral perforations and cavities, as they proceed. They are equally destructive when they get into a trunk containing clothes and other things, and into stores, &c.

Upon opening the hills in which the termites lodge, the behaviour of the soldiers excites admiration. When a breach is made, however quickly it be done, a soldier will run out, and walk about the breach, as if to see whether the enemy is gone, or to examine what is the cause of the attack. He will sometimes return again, as if to give the alarm; but in a short interval he is followed by two or three others, running as fast as they can, and these are followed by a large body, others also succeeding them, as long as any one continues to

batter their building: nor is it easy to describe the rage and fury which they manifest on the occasion; biting every thing in their way, and making a vibrating noise, like the ticking of a watch, perceptible at the distance of three or four feet. If they get hold of any one who attacks their habitation, they will in an instant suck out blood enough to weigh against their whole body; and if they chance to wound the leg, the stain upon the stocking will be seen to extend an inch in width. They make their hooked jaws to meet at the first stroke, nor will they quit their hold, but suffer themselves to be pulled away leg by leg, and piece after piece, without the least attempt to escape. If, however, they are left to themselves undisturbed, they will, in less than half an hour, retire into the nest, as if they conceived their castle to be secure. Before they all get in, the labourers will be seen in motion, hastening to bring materials for repairing the breach. This they do without mutual obstruction, though their number be immense, and the work is soon finished. While the labourers are thus employed, the soldiers take no part with them. On a renewed attack, the labourers run with celerity into the numerous pipes and galleries with which the building is perforated; and the soldiers rush out as numerous and as vindictive as before. One circumstance more deserves to be mentioned; and that is the loyalty and fidelity displayed by the labourers and soldiers in their attendance on the royal chamber. This chamber is a large nest, is capacious enough to hold many hundreds of the attendants, besides the royal pair, and it is always found full. These faithful subjects never abandon their charge in the last distress, but rather die in their defence than desert them. If in an attack upon the hill, you stop short of the royal chamber, and cut down about half of the building, and leave open some thousands of galleries and chambers, they will all be shut up with their sheets of clay before the next morning. If even the whole is pulled down, and the different buildings are thrown together in a heap of confused ruins, provided the king and queen are not destroyed or taken away, every interstice between the ruins, at which either cold or wet can possibly enter, will be so covered, as to exclude both; and if the insects are left undisturbed, in about a year they will raise the building to nearly its pristine size and grandeur.

There is another species, called the *marching* termites, which is much larger, and seems to be less frequent than the other.

TERMIGNON, a small town of Savoy, district of Maurienne, near the river Arcq. Population 1100. Here is an iron forge and a manufacture of anchors; 12 miles east-north-east of St. Andre.

TERMINABLE, *adj.* Limitable; that admits of bounds.

TERMINALIA, in Antiquity, feasts celebrated by the Romans, in honour of the god Terminus.

Varro is of opinion, that this feast took its name from its being at the term or end of the year; but Festus is of a different sentiment, and derives it from the name of the deity in whose honour it was held.

TERMINALIA [so named, it is presumed, from the leaves in clusters terminating the branches, with spikes of flowers intermixed,] in Botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order monoecia, natural order of elæagni (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Hermaphrodite flowers, at the lower part of the raceme, flowering first.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, superior, five-cleft, coloured within; segments ovate, acute, equal. Corolla none. Nectary pitcher-shaped, in the bottom of the calyx, consisting of five small hispid corpuscles. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, from erect spreading, longer than the calyx, and inserted into the bottom of it. Anthers roundish, erect. Pistil: germ inferior, ovate-oblong. Style filiform, erect, length of the stamens. Stigma simple. Pericarp: drupe oval, depressed, two-grooved; or compressed, acuminate. Seed nut oval-oblong, two-valved; kernel oblong. Males superior, flowering later. Calyx, as in the hermaphrodites. Corolla none. Nectary, as in the hermaphrodites. Stamina, as in the hermaphrodites.—*Essential Character.*

Character. Calyx five-parted. Corolla none. Stamina ten. Hermaphrodite: style one. Drupe inferior, boat-shaped.

1. *Terminalia catappa*.—Leaves obovate, tomentose beneath. This is a large tall leafy tree, with spreading branches in whorls. Racemes among the leaves, very many, round. Bracts oblong, caducous, cordate.—Native of the East Indies.

2. *Terminalia glabrata*.—Leaves obovate, smooth on both sides.—This also is a lofty widely-branching tree, with a straight stem clear of branches to a great height; the branches mostly opposite, round, spreading, smoothish, with a cinereous cloven bark.—Native of the Society and Friendly isles in the South Seas.

3. *Terminalia latifolia*.—Leaves obovate, subserrate; drupes fleshy. This tree has a very large trunk, and grows to a vast height, covered with a gray or very light-brown bark.—It grows in all the inland great woods of the island of Jamaica.

4. *Terminalia arbuscula*.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, entire, pubescent; branches dichotomous; racemes erect.—This also is a native of Jamaica.

5. *Terminalia chebula*.—Leaves ovate, naked; petioles biglandular above; racemes simple. This tree scarcely exceeds three or four times the height of a man, and is not much diffused. Branches scattered, covered with an ash-coloured bark.—Native of the East Indies.

6. *Terminalia angustifolia*.—Leaves lanceolate, pubescent.—Native of the East Indies.

To **TERMINATE**, *v. a.* [*termino*, Lat.; *terminer*, Fr.] At first our word was *terminer*: "He *termineth* sum dai." Wicliffe, Heb. iv. 7.] To bound; to limit.—Bodies that are solid, separable, *terminated*, and moveable, have all sorts of figures. *Locke*.—To put an end to: as, to *terminate* any difference.

To **TERMINATE**, *v. n.* To be limited; to end; to have an end; to attain its end.

Ere I the rapture of my wish renew,
I tell you then, it *terminates* in you.

Dryden.

TERMINATION, *s.* The act of limiting or bounding; bound; limit.—Its earthly and salinous parts are so exactly resolved, that its body is left imporous, and not discreted by atomical *terminations*. *Brown*.—End; conclusion; last purpose.—It is not an idol *ratione termini*, in respect of *termination*; for the religious observation thereof is referred and subservient to the honour of God and Christ: neither is it such *ratione modi*, for it is kept holy by the exercise of evangelical duties. *White*.—[In grammar; *terminatio*, Lat.; *terminaison*, Fr.] End of words as varied by their significations.—Those rude heaps of words and *terminations* of an unknown tongue, would have never been so happily learnt by heart without some smoothing artifice. *Watts*.—Word; term. *Not in use*.—She speaks poniards, and every word stabs; if her breath were as terrible as her *terminations*, there were no living near her, she would infect the North star. *Shakspeare*.

TERMINATION ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific ocean, so named by Captain Vancouver, as being the termination of his researches on the south-west coast of New Holland, near which it lies. Lat. 34. 32. S. long. 122. 8. E.

TERMINATIVE, *adj.* Directing termination.—This objective, *terminative* presence flows from the fecundity of the divine nature. *Bp. Rust*.

TERMINATIVELY, *adv.* Absolutely; so as not to respect any thing else.—Whoever worships the image of any thing, cannot possibly worship that image *terminatively*, for the very being of an image is relative. *Bp. Taylor*.

TERMINI, a considerable sea-port of Sicily, in the Val di Mazzara, situated on the north coast, at the mouth of the river Termini; 18 miles east-south-east of Palermo. Lat. 38. 5. N. long. 13. 45. E.

TERMINI, a river of the island of Sicily, which flows towards the north, in the Val di Mazzara, to the south-east of Palermo.

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TERMINISTS, or **TERMINISTÆ**, in Ecclesiastical History, a sect or party among the Calvinists, whose particular tenets are reducible to five points:—

1. That there are several persons, both in and out of the church, to whom God has fixed a certain term before their death, after which he no longer wills their salvation, how long soever they live afterwards. 2. That God has fixed this fatal term of grace by a secret decree. 3. That this term once elapsed, he makes them no farther offer of repentance or salvation, but takes away from his word all the power it might have to convert them. 4. That Pharaoh, Saul, Judas, most of the Jews, and many of the Gentiles, were of this number. 5. That God still bears with several of this sort of people, and even confers benefits on them after the term is expired; but that he does not do it with any intention they should be converted.

TERMINOS, a lake or bay on the coast of Tabasco, in the bay of Campeachy. Lat. 18. 12. N. long. 92. 46. W. Its mouth is a secure port, and has secured many vessels from being wrecked.

TERMINTHUS, *s.* [*τερμινθος*, Gr.] A tumour.—*Terminthus* is of a blackish colour; it breaks, and within a day the pustule comes away in a slough. *Wiseman*.

TERMLESS, *adj.* Unlimited; boundless.—These betraying lights look not up towards *termless* joys, nor down towards endless sorrows. *Raleigh*.

TERMLY, *adj.* Occurring every term.—The clerks are partly rewarded by that means also, besides that *termly* fee which they are allowed. *Bacon*.

TERMLY, *adv.* Term by term; every term.—The fees or allowances that are *termly* given to these deputies I preterm. *Bacon*.

TERMOLI, a town of Italy, in the east part of the kingdom of Naples, in the province called Capitanata; 40 miles south-east of Ortona a Mare, and 90 north-north-east of Naples. Lat. 42. 2. N. long. 15. 5. E.

TERNA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the delegation of Como, which gives name to a small lake in the neighbourhood; 30 miles north-west of Milan.

TERNARY, *adj.* [*ternarius*, Lat.] Proceeding by threes; consisting of three.

TERNARY, or **TERNION**, *s.* [*ternarius*, and *ternio*, Lat.] The number three.—These nineteen consonants stood in such confused order, some in *ternaries*, some in pairs, and some single. *Holder*.

TERNATE, the northernmost of a chain of islands on the west coast of Gilolo, and formerly the seat of sovereignty over all the adjacent Molucca islands, Tidore, Bachian, Motir, and Machian. The king of Ternate is still the most powerful of the Molucca princes, possessing the northern part of Gilolo, with Morty, Bachian, Motir, &c., and part of Papua, whence he receives a tribute of gold, amber, and birds of paradise.

TERNERA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Carthagenia; 6 miles north of Carthagenia.

TERNETH, a small town of the Netherlands, in South Brabant, near Brussels, with 1500 inhabitants, and large breweries and distilleries.

TERNEUSE, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Zealand, situated on the banks of the Hondt or Western Scheldt. Population 1100; 12 miles south-east of Flushing, and 20 north-north-east of Ghent.

TERNI, a town of Italy, in the State of the Church, situated in a luxuriant valley, between two branches of the river Nera. The cascades of the Evelino, called the *Caduta delle Marmore*, about four miles from Terni, are considered among the finest in the world. They consist of several streams, which, after running with great impetuosity, precipitate themselves from the brink of a rock, upwards of 300 feet in height, and fall into the Nera with a noise like thunder. The neighbouring scenery is highly picturesque. Terni gave birth to several emperors, and to Tacitus the historian; 12 miles south of Spoleto, and 45 north of Rome

TERNOE, a small island in the Baltic, on the coast of Blekingen, in Sweden, near Carlshafen.

TERNOIS, a small river in the north-east of France, department of the north. It joins the Canche at Hesdin, and the adjacent district is called the Ternois.

TERNOVA, an inland town in the north of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, the see of a Greek archbishop; 50 miles south-east of Nicopolis, and 110 north-north-west of Adrianople. Lat. 43. 20. N. long. 25. 24. E.

TERNSTROEMIA [so named by Mutis, in memory of one Ternstroem], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of columniferae, aurantia (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-parted, upon which two smaller scales are incumbent: all the segments are orbicular, concave, and permanent. Corolla one-petalled, bell shaped; tube none; border five-parted; segments orbicular, concave, emarginate, longer than the calyx. Stamina: filaments numerous, filiform, inserted in a double row into the base of the corolla, and shorter than it. Anthers linear, erect, length of the filaments. Pistil: germ superior, roundish. Style cylindrical, length of the stamens. Stigma capitate. Pericarp: berry juiceless, ovate, even, two-celled. Seeds about eight, convex on one side, flat on the other.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla one-petalled, wheel-shaped, with the border bell-shaped, five or six-parted. Anthers thick at the tip. Berry juiceless, two-celled.

1. *Ternstroemia meridionalis*.—Leaves obovate, emarginate quite entire; peduncles axillary. This is a tree with determinate branches, and more simple stiffish branchlets, with an ash-coloured bark. Berry dry, falling when ripe without splitting. The flowers are whitish below, but yellow above, and the seeds scarlet.—Found in New Granada, and Jamaica, Nevis and Dominica.

2. *Ternstroemia elliptica*.—Leaves elliptic, quite entire. The branches have a smooth wrinkled bark. Peduncles towards the top, a little above the leaves, scattered, an inch long, one-flowered, purplish.—Native of the West Indies, Guadaloupe, St. Vincent's, &c.

3. *Ternstroemia punctata*.—Leaves oblong, quite entire, subemarginate, dotted at the edge; peduncles axillary. This is a tree of about twenty-five feet in height, and branching in a scattered manner at the top.—Native of Guiana, in the woods of Serpent mountain.

4. *Ternstroemia Japonica*.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate serrulate at the tip. Stem arboreous, branched, smooth all over. Flowers axillary, one, two, or three together, on drooping, one-flowered peduncles, half an inch long.—Native of Japan.

5. *Ternstroemia dentata*.—Leaves oblong, acuminate, tooth-serrate; peduncles axillary and lateral. A tree, of the height of about twenty feet.—Native of the woods of Guiana, flowering in August and September.

TERODANT, or **TARUDANT**, a city of Morocco, capital of the province of Sus. The population is reckoned at 25,000; 110 miles south-south-west of Morocco.

TERRA, CAPO DI, a cape on the north coast of Naples, between Sorrento and Massa.

TERRA AUSTRALIS, the ancient name of New Holland, revived by Flinders, who applies it to the whole continent, in contradistinction to New Holland and New South Wales, which he applies to different divisions of this extensive island.

TERRA AUSTRALIS DEL ESPIRITU SANTO, an island in the South Pacific ocean, and the most westerly, as well as the largest, of those called New Hebrides; discovered by Quiros, and visited by Captain Cook, in the year 1774; 60 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. The land of it, especially the west side, is exceedingly high and mountainous; and in many places the hills rise directly from the sea. Besides the bays of St. Philip and St. Jago, the isles which lie along the south and east coast cannot, in the opinion of Captain Cook, fail of forming some good bays or harbours. Lat. 14. 40. to 15. 40. S. long. 166. 45. to 167. 32. E.

TERRABY, a township of England, in Cumberland; 2 miles north-east of Carlisle.

TERRACE, *s.* [*terraccia*, Ital.] A mount of earth covered with grass, or gravel.—He made her gardens not only within the palaces, but upon *terrasses* raised with earth over the arched roofs, planted with all sorts of fruits. *Temple*.—A balcony; an open gallery.

Fear broke my slumbers, I no longer stay,
But mount the *terrace*, then the town survey. *Dryden*.

To **TERRACE**, *v. a.* To open to the air or light.—The reception of light into the body of the building must now be supplied, by *terracing* any story which is in danger of darkness. *Wolton*.—Clermont's *terraced* height and Esher's groves. *Thomson*.

TERRACINA, a town of Italy, in the State of the Church, situated at the southern extremity of the Pontine marshes. The present population of Terracina is about 9000. It is the see of a bishop, and is 50 miles south-east of Rome, and 55 north-west of Naples. Lat. 41. 18. 14. N. long. 13. 13. 22. E.

TERRÆ-FILIUS, *s.* [Latin.] Formerly a satirical orator at the public acts in the university of Oxford, not unlike the prevaricator at Cambridge.—The gay part of the university have great expectation of a *terræ-filius*, who is to lash and sting all the world in a satirical speech. *Guardian*..

TERRA FIRMA, an extensive track of country in South America, which comprehended the three provinces of Darien, Veragua, and Panama or Terra Firma proper. Its length from east to west is about 150 leagues, but if measured along the coast it is above 200. It is 90 leagues wide in the broadest part; and at the isthmus of Darien, where it is narrowest, its breadth is only eight leagues. Rivers, the most considerable of which are the Chagre, Bayano, Atrato, and Tiura, intersect it, and it consists for the most part of craggy and mountainous territory, with some fertile valleys interspersed.

TERRA FIRMA or **MINGAN**, a seigniorly partly in Lower Canada, which extends from Cape Cormorant along the northern shore of the Labrador channel, to Goynish river.

TERRA DEL FUEGO, a large island, separated from the southern extremity of America, by a narrow sea called the straits of Magellan; so called from the volcanoes observed on it. The aspect of the country is represented as dreary and uncomfortable, consisting of a chain of stupendous rocks, and continually covered with snow. The inhabitants are said to be naturally as fair as Europeans, but they go naked, and paint their bodies with the most gorgeous colours. Those on the south side are said to be uncivilized, treacherous, and barbarous; while those on the opposite side are simple, affable, and perfectly harmless. The skins of wild animals are sometimes used to cover their bodies, upon occasions of extraordinary pomp; and their tents are made of poles, disposed in a conical form, covered with skins, or the bark or leaves of trees. Lat. 52. 30. to 55. 35. S. long. 51. 20. to 58. W.

TERRA NIEVA, a bay in Hudson's bay. Lat. 62. 4. N. long. 67. W.

TERRA NOVA, a small town on the east coast of the island of Sardinia, situated on a fine bay to which it gives name. It has a good harbour; 50 miles east-by-north of Sassari.

TERRA NOUVA, a considerable sea-port on the south coast of Sicily, in the Val di Noto, situated at the mouth of a river to which it gives name. Its population is about 9000. Wine, corn, and fruits of various kinds, form articles of export; 19 miles east of Licata, and 50 west of Syracuse. Lat. 37. N. long. 14. 10. E.

TERRA NOUVA, a small town of Italy, in Tuscany, province of Florence, situated in the valley of the Arno; 15 miles west-north-west of Arezzo, and 25 south-east of Florence.

TERRA

TERRA NUOVA, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra; 50 miles south-east of Policastro.

TERRA'QUEOUS, *adj.* [*terra* and *aqua*, Lat.] Composed of land and water.—The *terraqueous* globe is, to this day, nearly in the same condition that the universal deluge left it. *Woodward.*

TERRAR, *s.* [*terrarium*, low Lat., from *terra*, land.] A terrier or register of lands.—In the Exchequer there is a *terrar* of all the glebe-lands in England, made about 11 Edw. III. *Cowel.*

TERRASON, a small town in the south of France, department of the Dordogne, situated on a hill, watered by the small river Vezere. Population 2400; 20 miles north of Sarlat, and 27 east of Perigueux.

TERRAUBE, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Gers. Population 1200; 4 miles south-west of Lectoure, and 16 north of Auch.

To **TERRE**, *v. a.* To provoke. See *To* **TAR**. But *terre* is the old and more correct word.—*Fadris*, nyle ye *terre* your sonnes wrathe. *Wieliffe.*

TERREBONE, a village in Lower Canada. It is situated on a point of land projecting into the St. Lawrence, having several islands in front, remarkable for their romantic scenery. It is about 16 miles north of Montreal.

TERREBORNE, a seigniory of Lower Canada, in the district of Montreal.

TERREGLES, a parish of Scotland, in the stewartry of Kirkcudbright, about 5 miles long, and 3 broad. Population 534.

TERRE HAUTE, a village of the United States, in Sullivan county, Indiana, on the Wabash; 2 miles below Fort Harrison.

TER'REMOTE, *s.* [*teremuet*, old Fr.; *terre motus*, Lat.] An earthquake. *Obsolete.*

All the halle quoque,
As it a *terremote* were.

Gower.

TERRE NAPOLEON, a track of coast on the south shore of New Holland, first explored by the French navigator, Captain Baudin, in *Le Geographe*. According to Captain Flinders, it is comprised between lat. 37. 36. and 33. 40. S. and between long. 140. 10. and 138. 58. E.

TERRE-BLUE, *s.* [*terre* and *bleu*, Fr.] A sort of earth.—*Terre-blue* is a light, loose, friable kind of lapis armenus. *Woodward.*

TERRE-VERTE, *s.* A sort of earth.—*Terre-verte* owes its colour to a slight admixture of copper. *Woodward.*

TERRE'NE, *adj.* [*terrenus*, Latin.] Earthly; terrestrial.

Our *terrene* moon is now eclips'd,
And it portends alone the fall of Antony. *Shakspeare.*

TERRE'NE, *s.* The surface of the whole earth.

Over many a tract
Of heav'n they march'd, and may a province wide,
Tenfold the length of this *terrene*. *Milton.*

TER'REOUS, *adj.* [*terreus*, Lat.] Earthly; consisting of earth.—There is but little similitude betwixt a *terreous* humidity and plantal germinations. *Glanville.*

TERRE'STRIAL, *adj.* [*terrestris*, Lat.] Earthly; not celestial.

Terrestrial heaven! danc'd round by other heavens
That shine, yet bear their bright officious lamps,
Light above light. *Milton.*

Consisting of earth; terreous. *Improper.*—I did not confine these observations to land or *terrestrial* parts of the globe, but extended them to the fluids. *Woodward.*

TERRE'STRIALLY, *adv.* After an earthly manner.—They fancying it as *terrestrially* modified, though called a celestial or spiritual body in Scriptures, as that body is which we put into the grave. *More.*

To **TERRE'STRIFY**, *v. a.* [*terrestris* and *facio*, Latin.] *To* reduce to the state of earth.—Though we should affirm,

that heaven were but earth celestified, and earth but heaven *terrestrified*; or, that each part above had an influence on its divided affinity below; yet to single out these relations is a work to be effected by revelation. *Brown.*

TERRE'STRIOUS, *adj.* [*terrestris*, Lat.; *terrestre*, Fr.] Terreous; earthy; consisting of earth.—This variation proceedeth from *terrestrious* eminences of earth respecting the needle. *Brown.*

TERRIA, or **TELLIA GURHY**, a small town of Hindostan. It is situated in the pass which divides the provinces of Bengal and Bahar, formed by a range of hills composed of rock, approaching very near the Ganges. Lat. 25. 15. N. long. 87. 37. E.

TERRIANI, a considerable district of Hindostan, which divides the province of Bengal from Nepal, part of which belongs to the British, part to the nabob of Oude, and the remainder to Nepal.

TER'RIBLE, *adj.* [from *terribilis*, Lat.] Dreadful; formidable; causing fear.

Was this a face to be expos'd
In the most *terrible* and nimble stroke
Of quick, cross lightning?

Shakspeare.

Great so as to offend: a *colloquial hyperbole*.—Being indisposed by the *terrible* coldness of the season, he reposed himself till the weather should mend. *Clarendon.*

TERRIBLE, **MON**, a chain of mountains in what was once the bishopric of Bale (now in the Swiss canton of Bern), which brings the Jura mountains into connection with the Vosges.

TER'RIBLENESS, *s.* Formidableness; the quality of being terrible; dreadfulness.—Having quite lost the way of nobleness, he strove to climb to the height of *terribleness*. *Sidney.*

TER'RIBLY, *adv.* Dreadfully; formidably; so as to raise fear.

The polish'd steel gleams *terribly* from far,
And every moment nearer shows the war. *Dryden.*

Violently; very much. The poor man squalled *terribly*. *Swift.*

TERRIER, *s.* [*terra*, Lat., *earth*.] A dog that follows his game under-ground.—The fox is earthed, but I shall send my two *terriers* in after him. *Dryden.*—[*Terrier*, Fr.] A survey or register of lands.—King James's canons require that the bishops procure a *terrier* to be taken of such lands. *Ayliffe.*—[*Terebro*, Lat.] A wimble; auger or borer. *Ainsworth.*

TERRIFIC, *adj.* [*terrificus*, Lat.] Dreadful; causing terror.

The serpent, subtlest beast of all the field,
Of huge extent sometimes, with brazen eyes
And hairy mane *terrific*. *Milton.*

The British navy through ocean vast
Shall wave her double cross, t' extremest climes
Terrific. *Philips.*

To **TER'RIFY**, *v. a.* [*terror* and *facio*, Lat.] *To* fright; to shock with fear; to make afraid.—Thou scarest me with dreams, and *terrifyest* me through visions. *Job.*

TERRINGTON, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles west-by-south of New Malton. Population 641.

TERRINGTON, **ST. CLEMENT'S**, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles west-by-north of Lynn Regis. Population 1211.

TERRINGTON, **ST. JOHN'S**, another parish in the above county, adjoining the foregoing. Population 483.

TERRIORE, a town and fortress of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. Lat. 11. 12. N. long. 78. 48. E.

TERRIT'ORIAL, *adj.* Belonging to a territory.—The church universal in general causes; each particular and private church for special, and particular, and *territorial* questions. *Montagu.*

TER'RITORY, *s.* [*territorium*, low Latin; *territoire*, Fr.]

Fr.] Land; country; dominion; district.—Linger not in my *territories* longer than swiftest expedition will give thee time to leave our royal court. *Shakspeare.*

TE'RROR, *s.* [*terror*, Lat.; *terreur*, Fr.] Fear communicated.

The thunder when to roll
With *terrou* through the dark aerial hall. *Milton.*

Fear received.

It is the cowish *terrou* of his spirit
That dares not undertake. *Shakspeare.*

The cause of fear.—So spake the grisly *terrou*. *Milton.*

TERROWFH, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, and district of Bundelcund. Lat. not ascertained.

TERRY VILLE, a post village of the United States, in Mecklenburg county, Virginia.

TERSE, *adj.* [*ters*, Fr.; *tersus*, Lat.] Smooth. *Not in use.*—Many stones precious and vulgar, although *terse* and smooth, have not this power attractive. *Brown.*—Cleanly written; neat; elegant without pompousness.

To raw numbers and unfinish'd verse,
Sweet sound is added now to make it *terse*. *Dryden.*

TERSELY, *adv.* Neatly: used ironically by Ben Jonson.—Fastidious Brisk, a courtier,—speaks good remnants; swears *tersely*, and with variety! *B. Jonson.*

TERSENESS, *s.* Smoothness or neatness of style.—They [Ogden's Sermons] display that perfect propriety and purity of English diction, that chastised *terseness* of composition, which has scarcely been equalled by any writer. *Wakefield.*

TE'RTIAN, *s.* [*tertiana*, Lat.] Is an ague intermitting but one day, so that there are two fits in three days.—*Tertians* of a long continuance do most menace this symptom. *Harvey.*

To TE'RTIATE, *v. a.* [*tertio*, *tertius*, Lat.] To do any thing the third time.

TERTRE (John Baptist du), a missionary, and writer of history, was born at Calais in 1610; and having served in the army in early life, he joined the Dominicans at Paris, and made his profession in 1635, assuming the name of John-Baptist instead of James. About five years afterwards, he was sent as a missionary to the French American islands, where he collected materials for the work which engaged his attention after his return to France in 1658; that was his "Histoire Generale des Antilles habitées par les François;" 4 vols. 4to., 1667—71. After having filled various posts in the houses of his order, he died at Paris in 1687. *Moreri.*

TERTULLIAN (Quintus Septimius Florens Tertullianus), generally reckoned the most ancient Latin father extant, was born at Carthage, not long after the middle of the second century. He was the son of a proconsular centurion, or military officer under the proconsul of Africa, and well acquainted with the Roman laws, though he does not seem to have practised the law as a profession. He was also intimately conversant with the Greek and Roman poets, historians, orators, and philosophers, and other heathen writers of every description. His skill in Greek was so considerable, that he wrote several books in that language. It has been inferred from his parentage, and from some expressions in his works, that he was once a Heathen; but the time and circumstances of his conversion to Christianity are not known. Cave supposes that he embraced Christianity about the year 185, and was made a presbyter of the church of Carthage about the year 192. According to Du Pin, he flourished chiefly from about the year 194 to 216. Tillemont is of opinion that he was born in 160, and that he died about the year 245, when he was between 80 and 90 years of age, having lived, as St. Jerome says, to an extreme, or decrepit, old age. Cave conjectures that he died about the year 220. It is said that he was married, probably after his conversion to Christianity. Having been a member of the Catholic church for many years, he separated from it and became a Montanist, as Cave says, about the year 199, but about 205, according to Tille-

mont. Different accounts have been given of this change; but the most probable seems to be, that the specious pretences of the Montanists to greater mortification in fasts and continence had an influence on his temper, which was severe. But whatever might have been his reasons for adopting the principles of Montanism, they seem to have made so little alteration in him as an author, that there are several of his pieces, concerning which it is not easy to determine, whether they were written by Tertullian a Montanist, or Tertullian still a Catholic. Although, in consequence of this change, his reputation sunk in the church, yet it produced no separation between him and other Christians, except in point of discipline, which, agreeably to his temper, he wished to be harsh and rigorous. His doctrine remained the same with that of the Catholics. In process of time, however, he believed the divine inspiration of Montanus and his two prophetesses, Priscilla and Maximilla, and that they were thus enabled to make further discoveries than had before been made, for the greater perfection of Christians. He approved of the longer, more strict, and more frequent fasts of the Montanists; he condemned all second marriages; and denied that the church was authorised to receive again into communion any who were chargeable with fornication, adultery, or any such offences, after baptism. He often arrogantly calls his own people *spiritual*, and the Catholics, as contemptuously, animal or *carnal*. We have already observed that his knowledge was extensive; his fancy also was lively; and though his temper was severe, and his mode of expression vehement and positive, yet his writings frequently manifest unaffected humility and modesty. The character given of his style by Lactantius must be universally allowed; that it is "rugged and unpolished, and very obscure;" and yet, as Cave observes, "it is lofty and masculine, and carries a kind of majestic eloquence along with it, that gives a pleasant relish to the judicious and inquisitive reader." His books still extant, though many are lost, are numerous, some of which were written before and others after he embraced the errors of Montanism. Of these, the Apology is reckoned his principal work; and has been highly commended both by ancient and modern writers; whilst his other performances are written with wit and force, and are edifying and instructive. The time when his "Apology" was written has been differently stated by various authors; some refer it to the year 200, others to 203 and 205; but Mosheim, after laborious examination, concludes that it was composed in the year 198. All allow that it was written before he joined the Montanists. Learned men generally agree, that it was not addressed to the senate of Rome, but to the governors of provinces, or perhaps to the proconsul of Africa, and the chief magistrates residing at Carthage, where it was written, according to Lardner; though others are of opinion that it was written at Rome. From this Apology, it appears that Christians underwent a variety of grievous sufferings; they were, as he says, "crucified, hung upon stakes, burnt alive, thrown to wild beasts, condemned to the mines, and banished into desert islands." That this was the case, appears also from Tertullian's book to the proconsul Scapula, not written before the year 211 or 212. The "Apology" is written for the purpose of shewing the injustice of the persecutions inflicted upon Christians, and the falsehood of the charges brought against them; and likewise to display the excellence of the Christian religion, and the folly and absurdity of that of the Heathens. His two books "Ad Nationes" are connected with his Apology, and indicate his characteristic vehemence. His address to Scapula, already mentioned, was written under the emperor Caracalla, and contains an avowal of admirable principles. "It ought," he says, "to be left to the free choice of men, to embrace that religion which seems to them most agreeable to truth. No one is injured or benefited by another man's religion: it is not an act of religion to force religion, which ought to be adopted spontaneously, not by compulsion." He proceeds to vindicate the conduct of Christians, and to shew that their religious principles induced them to pay entire obedience to the emperors, and that therefore they did not deserve to incur the penalties of treason.

treason. Another work of Tertullian has been often cited, viz.: "De Præscriptionibus adversus Hæreticos." In this work he treats of heresy in general, and then discusses particular heresies in his five books against Marcion, in others against Praxeas, in defence of the Trinity, and against Hermogenes, and the Valentinians. In his book "On the Soul," he inquires into the nature of the soul and its properties. In his treatise "On Baptism," he absurdly maintains that the moral stain of the soul is effaced by the external washing of the body, and that punishment is likewise remitted; a doctrine which some later divines have zealously supported. Baptism by heretics he considers as no baptism, and contends that it ought to be repeated. In cases of necessity, he thinks infant-baptism to be allowable, but he recommends deferring rather than hastening the administration of this sacrament. His book "On Penance" refutes the opinion advanced by the Montanists, that sins committed after baptism cannot be absolved by the church. In his treatise "On Idolatry," he extends this crime to practices that are almost unavoidable in society; such as bearing arms for the defence of the empire, adorning houses in honour of the prince, and using customary expressions that have any reference to Heathen mythology. In his work "De Corona Militis," he applauds a Christian soldier who refused to place a crown or garland on his head. In another work he considers "flight in time of persecution" as prohibited, and also giving money to escape it. In his treatise "De Spectaculis," he dissuades Christians from attending public shows. In his moral tracts is an exhortation to "patience," in which, as well as in a discourse addressed to martyrs, or confessors, he dwells in an eloquent strain on the motives which should bind a Christian to the practice of that virtue. After his union with the Montanists, Tertullian wrote four books in opposition to the discipline of the Catholic church; viz., "On Modesty;" "On Monogamy;" "An Exhortation to Charity;" and "A Treatise on Faith."

Tertullian, in his various writings, has afforded plain testimonies to all the books of the New Testament, commonly received by Christians at this time, except the Epistle of James, the 2d of Peter, the 2d and 3d of John. The Epistle to the Hebrews he ascribes to Barnabas. This ancient father has been much admired: Cyprian calls him "my master." Some persons, however, have doubted whether he has done more good or harm in the Christian church. His character is judiciously appreciated by one of his biographers (*Gen. Biog.*) in the following manner. Tertullian "was certainly a man of lively parts and large acquisitions, of copious invention, and warm feelings. In his reasonings, however, he displayed more fancy and subtilty than sound judgment; and the ardour of his temper inclines him to violence and exaggeration, while a propensity to superstition renders him weakly credulous and gloomily austere." His works have been frequently printed both separately and collectively. Of his whole works, the editions of Rigaltius, fol. Paris, 1641, and of Semler, Hal. Magd. 6 vols. 1770—76, are most esteemed. *Dupin. Lardner. Mosheim.*

TERTZENA, or TREZNA, a small town of Greece, in the west of the Morea. It is inhabited by Greeks; and the environs are very productive in wine and olives; 12 miles north of Dimiczana.

TERUEL, a town of the north-east of Spain, in the province of Arragon, at the confluence of the rivers Guadalaviar and Alhambra. It stands on a hill, and is defended by a citadel; 87 miles south-by-east of Saragossa, and 13 east-south-east of Abarrazana.

TERUNCIUS, a very small brass coin in use among the Romans. The inconvenience of such very small pieces being soon found, the teruncius became disused, but its name is still retained in reckoning, and thus it became a money of account.

TERVENGARY, a town of the south of India, province of Malabar. Near to this place, a decisive victory was obtained by the British troops over those of Tippo Sultan, in 1790. Lat. 11. 2. N. long. 76. E.

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TERVISO, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Istria; 8 miles west of Mitterburg.

TERVUREN, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of South Brabant. Population 1500; 6 miles east of Brussels.

TERWICH, a parish of England, in Sussex, near Midhurst.

TERZA, LA, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra d'Otranto; 25 miles west of Taranto.

TESCHEN, a circle of Austrian Silesia, comprehending the eastern part of that province, with an area of 740 square miles, and 152,000 inhabitants. It is very hilly on the south side, where the Carpathian chain commences, but the north is flat and marshy, so that throughout it is better adapted for grazing than tillage. The inhabitants are mostly of Slavonian origin. The greatest part of this circle is formed of the ancient duchy of Teschen, which belongs to the emperors in their quality of kings of Bohemia.

TESCHEN, a town of Austrian Silesia, and the chief place of the foregoing circle and principality, is surrounded with a wall, and situated on the river Elsa; 32 miles east-south-east from Troppau, and 62 east-north-east of Olmutz.

TESCHEN, a small town in the south-east of Bohemia; 59 miles south-south-east of Prague, and 14 south-east of Tabor. Population 800.

TESEGDELT, a village of Morocco, situated on a lofty rock, supposed to be impregnable; 20 miles south of Mogodor.

TESENI, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 34 miles south-east of Dëgnizlu.

TESIA, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Cinaloa.

TESORO, a small island in the Spanish Main, near the coast of South America. Lat. 10. 8. N. long. 75. 46. W.

TESSARACONTA, *τεσσαρακοντα*, among the Athenians, were forty men who went their circuits round the several boroughs, and had cognizance of all controversies about money, if not above ten drachms; as also of actions of assault and battery. *Potter.*

TESSARACOSON, *τεσσαρακωσον*, Gr. in Antiquity, a solemnity kept by women on the fortieth day after child-birth, when they went to the temple, and paid some grateful acknowledgments for their safe delivery. *Pott. Archæol. Græc.*

TESSELARII, among the Romans, artificers of checker or mosaic work.

Tesselated pavements were much used in the tents of the Roman generals.

TESSLATED, *adj.* [*tessella*, Latin.] Variegated by squares.—Van Helmont produced a stone very different from the tessellated pyrites. *Woodward.*

TESSERA, in Roman antiquity, denoted in its primary sense a cube or dye; so called from the Greek word *τεσσαρα*, or *τεσσερα*, *four*; respect being had to its number of sides, distinct from the two horizontal planes, above and below. And it was thus distinguished from the *talus*, which, being round at each end, contained only four planes or faces on which it could stand; and, therefore, when thrown, had no more than two side faces in view. Hence *ludere talis et ludere tessæris* are spoken of by Roman writers as two different games.

TESSERATIC, *adj.* [*tessera*, Latin.] Variegated by squares; tessellated.—Some of the *tesseraic* work of the Romans has lately been dug up. *Sir R. Athyns.*

TESSERMUIT, an island near the south-west coast of East Greenland. Lat. 59. 59. N. long. 44. 20. W.

TESSIN (Charles Gustavus), a Swedish count and considerable statesman, was born at Stockholm in 1695, and received the rudiments of his education under his father. In 1714, he set out on his travels, and continued them through various countries of Europe for five years, availing himself of every opportunity that occurred of acquainting himself with their respective constitution and laws. At the age of twenty-five he was deputed to the courts of Great Britain,

Denmark, and France, and also to the States of Holland, to announce the accession of Frederic I. to the Swedish throne; and in 1725 he was sent to Vienna, to solicit the attention of that court to the new treaty of alliance between Sweden and Russia. On the death of his father, in 1728, he succeeded him as principal intendant of the court, and in order to qualify himself for the office, he undertook a new tour at his own expense. In 1735, he was again dispatched to the court of Vienna, where he remained two years. He was chosen by the nobility speaker at the famous diet of 1738, on which occasion he obtained, in recompence of his conduct, a gold medal, bearing on one side his crest, and on the other the motto "Conscius Recti." He was appointed in 1739 to conduct an embassy from this diet to France, and resided at Paris till the year 1742, concluding during this interval an advantageous treaty of commerce with the king of the two Sicilies, and terminating a subsidiary treaty of alliance with France, by which Sweden was to receive, in the course of three years 27 tons of gold. In 1743 he was sent to Denmark, and in the following year to Berlin, on business of great importance. At Berlin he was honoured with the Prussian order of the Black Eagle. He occupied several other stations of dignity and trust, the duties of which he discharged with singular wisdom and fidelity. But the most important office assigned him, was that of preceptor to the crown prince, Gustavus III., to which he was appointed in 1747. On this occasion he wrote his "Letters addressed to a Young Prince," for the use of his royal pupil, which were afterwards translated into most of the languages of Europe. Retiring from public business in 1761, he lived on his estate till the time of his death, which happened in January 1770. *Gen. Biog.*

TESSIURSAK, an island near the west coast of West Greenland. Lat. 61. 10. N. long. 47. 30. W.

TESSOWA, a considerable town of Fezzan, in Central Africa; 100 miles east-south-east of Mourzouk.

TESSY, a small town in the north-west of France, department of La Manche. Population 1700; 12 miles south of St. Lo, and 17 east of Coutances.

TEST, *s.* [*test*, Fr.; *testa*, Ital.] The cupel by which refiners try their metals.—Our ingots, *tests*, and many things mo. *Chaucer*.—Trial; examination: as by the cupel.

All thy vexations

Were but my trials of thy love, and thou
Hast strangely stood the *test*.

Shakspeare.

Let there be some more *test* made of my metal,
Before so noble and so great a figure
Be stamp't upon it.

Shakspeare.

Means of trial.

To be read for herself she need not fear:
Each *test*, and every light, her muse will bear.

Dryden.

That with which any thing is compared in order to prove its genuineness.

Unerring Nature, still divinely bright,
One clear, unchang'd, and universal light,
Life, force, and beauty, must to all impart,
At once the source, and end, and *test* of art.

Pope.

Discriminative characteristic.

Our penal laws no sons of yours admit,
Our *test* excludes your tribe from benefit.

Dryden.

Judgment; distinction.

Who would excel, when few can make a *test*,
Betwixt indiff'rent writing and the best?

Dryden.

TESTA (Pietro), called *Il Lucchesino*, from having been born at Lucca. His birth took place in 1611, and he was first instructed in painting by Pietro Paolini; afterwards he studied at Rome, under Domenichino and Pietro da Cortona. The principal objects of his study were antique marbles, and the remains of ancient architecture; in which employment such was his assiduity, that few vestiges of antiquity were

known which had escaped his pencil. His extreme poverty made him morose and melancholy. From this state of trouble he was relieved by Sandrart, who clothed and entertained him, and introduced him to the prince Justiniani. After this he succeeded; and the great freedom and ease of his pencil procured him many patrons. Several of the churches and palaces at Rome are adorned with his productions: the best are esteemed to be the Death of St. Angelo, in the church of St. Martino a Monti, and the Death of Iphigenia, in the Palazzo Spada. His works, however, are more frequently to be met with at Lucca. As a designer, Pietro Testa was unequal: he frequently tacked to antique torsos ignoble heads, and extremities copied from vulgar models. Of female beauty he appears to have been ignorant, though he adopted a character and form which are peculiar to himself. Of his compositions, generally perplexed and crowded, the best known and most correct is that of Achilles dragging Hector from the walls of Troy to the Grecian fleet. He delighted in allegoric subjects, and produced many of picturesque effect and attitudes: but in their meaning, as obscure as the occasions to which they allude. Of expression, he only knew the extremes, grimace, or loathsomeness and horror. As a colourist, he was frequently rich and effective, harmonious and warm; and his execution bears the stamp of incredible freedom; while his chiaro-scuro is managed with great breadth and depth. His just character is that of a powerful machinist. He was drowned in the Tyber, in 1650, endeavouring to recover his hat, which the wind had blown into the water; though some suspect that he threw himself in, in a fit of despondency, to which he was prone.

He was an eminent engraver as well as a painter, and the number of his works in both arts attest his industry and ingenuity, considering the short period of his life.

TE'STABLE, *adj.* [*testable*, Fr.] Capable of witnessing or bearing witness. *Cotgrave.*

TESTA'CEOUS, *adj.* [*testaceus*, Lat.; *testacée*, Fr.] Consisting of shells; composed of shells. Having continuous, not jointed shells: opposed to *crustaceous*.—Several shells were found upon the shores, of the crustaceous and *testaceous* kind. *Woodward.*

TESTAMENT, *s.* [*testament*, Fr.; *testamentum*, Lat.] A will; any writing directing the disposal of the possessions of a man deceased.—He ordained by his last *testament*, that his *Æneid* should be burnt. *Dryden*.—The name of each of the volumes of the Holy Scripture.—It is not out of any satiety that I change from the Old *Testament* to the New: these two, as they are the breasts of the church, so they yield milk equally wholesome, equally pleasant unto able nurselings. *Bp. Hall.*

TESTAMENTARY, *adj.* [*testamentaire*, Fr.; *testamentarius*, Lat.] Given by will; contained in wills.—How many *testamentary* charities have been defeated by the negligence or fraud of executors? by the suppression of a will? the subornation of witnesses, or the corrupt sentence of a judge? *Atterbury.*

TESTAMENTA'TION, *s.* The act or power of giving by will.—By this law the right of *testamentation* is taken away, which the inferior tenures had always enjoyed. *Burke.*

TE'STATE, *adj.* [*testatus*, Lat.] Having made a will.—By the canon law, the bishop had the lawful distribution of the goods of persons dying *testate* and intestate. *Ayliffe.*

TESTA'TION, *s.* [*testatio*, Lat.] Witness; evidence.—How clear a *testation* have the inspired prophets of God given of old to this truth. *Bp. Hall.*

TESTA'TOR, *s.* [*testator*, Lat.; *testateur*, Fr.] One who leaves a will.—He bringeth arguments from the love or good will which always the *testator* bore him. *Hooker.*

TESTA'TRIX, *s.* [Lat.] A woman who leaves a will.

TE'STED, *adj.* Tried by a test.—Not with fond shekels of the *tested* gold. *Shakspeare.*

TE'STER, *s.* [The Italians and French had their *testone*, and *teston*; the latter of which *Cotgrave* states to be of the value of eighteen-pence. Our word was also *teston*, and *testern*.

testern. "You cannot give him less than a shilling in conscience; for the book he had it out of cost him a *teston* at least." *B. Jonson.*—"Such another piece as our *testerne.*" *Latimer.*—It was of the value of a shilling in our eighth Henry's time, and sunk first to nine-pence, then to six-pence in Edward the sixth's.] A sixpence.—Come manage me your caliver: hold, there is a *tester* for thee. *Shakspeare.*—The cover of a bed.

Each hole and cupboard they explore,
Each creek and cranny of his chamber,
Run hurry-skurry round the floor,
And o'er the bed and *tester* clamber.

Gray.

TE'STERN, *s.* A sixpence. See TESTER.

To TE'STERN, *v. a.* To present with sixpence. *Not in use.*—To testify your bounty, I thank you, you have *tested* me. *Shakspeare.*

TESTERTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2½ miles south-east-by-south of Fakenham.

TESTI (Fulvio, Count), an Italian poet, was born in 1593, at Ferrara, and settling, when young, at Modena, he rose to the highest offices and honours of the state. Nevertheless, alternate prosperity and adversity visited him: inconstant and ambitious, he fell into disgrace with Francis I., who imprisoned him in the citadel of Modena, where he died in 1646. His poems are chiefly of the lyric class. The productions of his maturer judgment are distinguished above those of his contemporaries for vigour and poetical spirit; and some of them, with respect to elevation of sentiment and beauty of imagery, will bear comparison with the productions of the best Italian poets. He also attempted tragedy, in two compositions, intitled "Arsinda," and "L'Isola d'Alcina;" but their style is lyric rather than dramatic composition. *Tiraboschi. Gen. Biog.*

TESTICLE, *s.* [*testiculus*, Lat.] Stone.—That a beaver, to escape the hunter, bites off his *testicles* or stones, is a tenet very ancient. *Brown.*

TESTIFICATION, *s.* [*testificatio*, Lat.] The act of witnessing.

TESTIFICATOR, *s.* [from *testificor*, Lat.] One who witnesses.

TESTIFIER, *s.* One who testifies.

To TESTIFY, *v. n.* [*testificor*, Lat.] To witness; to prove; to give evidence.

Th' event was dire,
As this place *testifies.*

Milton.

To TESTIFY, *v. a.* To witness; to give evidence of any point.—We speak that we do know, and *testify* that we have seen, and ye receive not our witness. *St. John.*

TESTIGOS, *Los*, a cluster of small islands, about ten leagues from the continent of South America, and the same distance from the island of Grenada. Lat. 11. 25. N. long. 62. 5. W.

TESTILY, *adv.* Fretfully; peevishly; morosely.

TESTIMONIAL, *s.* [*testimonial*, Fr.; *testimonium*, Lat.] A writing produced by any one as an evidence for himself.—Hospitable people entertain all the idle vagrant reports, and send them out with passports and *testimonials*, and will have them pass for legitimate. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

TESTIMONY, *s.* [*testimonium*, Lat.] Evidence given; proof by witness.—If I bring you sufficient *testimony*, my ten thousand ducats are mine. *Shakspeare.*—Public evidences.—We maintain the uniform *testimony* and tradition of the primitive church. *White.*—Open attestation; profession.

Thou for the *testimony* of truth hast borne
Universal reproach.

Milton.

To TESTIMONY, *v. a.* To witness. *A word not used.*—Let him be but *testimonied* in his own bringings forth, and he shall appear a scholar, a statesman, and a soldier. *Shakspeare.*

TESTINESS, *s.* Moroseness; peevishness.—He may be a little angry for my so rough usage; but my mother, having

power of his *testiness*, shall turn all into my commendations. *Shakspeare.*

TESTON, *s.* [*teston*, Fr.] A sixpence; a tester. See TESTER.

Lo! what it is that makes white rags so deare,
That men must give a *teston* for a queare.

Bp. Hall.

Testoons, or shillings, were first coined in Scotland about the year 1553, and they bore the bust of the queen and the arms of France and Scotland on the reverse: they were of the same intrinsic value with those of England, and were worth four shillings; the half-testoon two; Scottish money. The silver testoon of Mary, chiefly of 1553 or 1562, with her bust, are rare, and now worth about 30s.; half still more rare, valued at 3*l.* *Pinkerton on Medals.*

The teston, testoon, or tester, among us, succeeded the groat, which was introduced by Edward III. in 1354. It was also called shilling, and first coined by Henry VII. in 1503; and was rated at 12d. in the reign of Henry VIII., and afterwards reduced to 6d. The testoon of the first year of Edward VI. is extremely rare.

TESTON, a parish of England, in Kent; 4 miles west-by-south of Maidstone.

TESTOON, or TESTONE, a silver coin in Italy, and also in Portugal. In Florence, the testoon, or testone, as a money of account and a silver coin, is worth two lire, or three paoli. The testoon is a money of account at Lisbon, and is valued at 100 rees. And of the gold coins struck since 1722, there are the Dezeseis testoon of 1600 rees, and the Oito testoon of 800 rees. The silver coins are testoons of 100 and halves of 50 rees.

TESTU'DINATED, *adj.* [*testudo*, Latin.] Roofed; arched.

TESTUDINEOUS, *adj.* [*testudo*, Latin.] Resembling the shell of a tortoise.

TESTUDO, in Antiquity, was particularly used among the poets, &c., for the ancient lyre, or lyre of Amphion; because it was said to have been originally made, by its inventor Mercury, of the back or hollow shell of a *testudo aquaticæ*, or sea-tortoise, which he accidentally found on the banks of the river Nile.

Mr. Molyneux has an express discourse, in the Philosophical Transactions, to shew that the tortoise-shell was the basis of the ancient lyre, and that the whole instrument had thence the denomination *testudo*; which account throws some light on an obscure passage in Horace, ode iii. lib. 4., mistaken by all the commentators:—

"O, *testudinis aureæ*
Dulcem quæ strepitum, Pieri, temperas!
O mutis quoquæ piscibus
Donaturæ cygni, si libeat, sonum!"

TESTUDO, THE, was also a kind of cover, or screen, which the soldiers, e. gr. a whole company, made themselves of their targets, by holding them up over their heads, and standing close to each other.

Thus, if we suppose the first rank to have stood upright on their feet, and the rest to have stooped lower and lower by degrees, till the last rank kneeled down on their knees, so that every rank covering with their targets the heads of all in the rank before them, they represented a tortoise-shell, or a sort of sloping roof.

TESTUDO, Tortoise, in Zoology, a genus of animals of the class of Amphibia and order of Reptiles; the generic characters of which are, that the body is furnished with a tail, and defended by a bony or coriaceous integument above and below, or above by scales; and that the upper mandible of the mouth closes over the lower; without distinct or proper teeth, the teeth, as they are called in the generality of tortoises, being no other than the serratures of the mandibles.

I.—Marine Tortoises, or Turtles with pinniform feet, the former being longer.

The animals of this class are distinguished from the land tortoises

tortoises by their very large and long fin-shaped feet, in which are inclosed the bones of the toes, the first and second on each foot being furnished with visible or projecting claws, the others not appearing beyond the edge. The shield, as in the land tortoises, consists of a strong bony covering, in which are imbedded the ribs, and which is coated externally by hard horny plates, in one or two species much thicker and stronger than those of the land tortoises. Mr. Schœpf, cited by Dr. Shaw, observes, that the apparent number of claws or projecting extremities on the feet of the marine tortoises, appears to be no certain criterion of the species; but, on the contrary, is found to vary so as to contradict the Linnæan specific characters.

1. *Testudo coriacea*, or coriaceous tortoise.—Striated lengthwise; or brown turtle, paler beneath, with coriaceous shell, marked by five longitudinal tuberculated ribs. This is the largest of the marine tortoises, being found eight feet long, and one thousand pounds weight. It is larger than others of its tribe, and its external covering differs by not being horny, but resembling strong leather, marked over the surface into small, obscurely subhexagonal and pentagonal divisions, without destroying its general smoothness. The longitudinal ribs or ridges are five; and comprehending those that border the sides, the number is seven. It has no under or thoracic shell; the head is large, and the upper mandible notched at the tip, so as to exhibit the appearance of two large teeth, between which, when the mouth is closed, is received the tip of the lower mandibles; the fins are large and long, and covered with a tough leathery skin; the tail is rather short and sharp-pointed.—This species is a native of the Mediterranean, and has occasionally been taken on the coasts both of France and England. It is also found, not only in the European seas, but in those of South America, and about some of the African coasts. The Greeks, according to Cépède, were well acquainted with this specimen, and used it in the construction of the lyre or harp. Pennant says, that this species is extremely fat, but the flesh coarse and bad; but the Carthusians will eat no other species. The small sea tortoise described by Pennant in the Phil. Trans. for 1771, is said to be the young of this animal. Gmelin mentions this and another as varieties.

2. *Testudo imbricata*.—The imbricated or variegated turtle with thirteen imbricated scales on the disk; these lap over each other at the extremities like tiles on the roof of a building. The head is smaller than in other turtles; the neck longer; and the beak narrower, sharper, and more curved, so as considerably to resemble the bill of a hawk, and from this circumstance the animal derives its popular name of the "hawkbill turtle."—This turtle is a native of the Asiatic and American seas, and is sometimes found in the Mediterranean. It has been often known to measure five feet in length, and to weigh 5 or 600 pounds. In the Indian Ocean it attains a prodigious size. Its shell was anciently used for a shield, and still serves for that purpose among barbarous nations. The flesh is not esteemed as a food; the lamellæ or plates of the shell, being much stronger, thicker, and clearer than those of any other kind, constitute its sole value.

3. *Testudo Mydas*.—Brownish turtle, with thirteen scales on the disk; the green turtle of some writers, with two nails on the fore-feet, and single ones on the hind-feet. This common green turtle (esculent turtle), is so named from the green tinge, derived from the vegetable substances on which it feeds, often exhibited by its fat, when the animal is in its highest perfection. It is one of the largest of this genus, often measuring above five feet in length (sometimes more than six), and weighing more than 500 or 600 pounds. Its colour is a dull palish brown, variegated with deeper undulations, but not exhibiting the beautiful colours which distinguish the *testudo imbricata*. Its flesh, however, is in such estimation, that the inhabitants of the West Indian islands have long considered it as one of the most excellent articles of food, and have introduced a similar taste into some of the European nations. In our own country it is much esteemed, and considerable quantities of it are imported to

supply the luxury of the metropolis. Its introduction, however, cannot be traced farther than about 50 or 60 years backward. Sir Hans Sloane informs us in his History of Jamaica, that forty sloops were employed by the inhabitants of Port Royal, in Jamaica, for catching them, and that the markets there are supplied with turtle, as ours are with butcher's meat. The method of taking them at the Bahama islands, is by striking them with a small iron peg two inches long, put in a socket at the end of a staff twelve feet long. Two men usually set out for this work in a little light boat or canoe, one to row and gently steer the boat, while the other stands at the head of it with his striker. The turtle are sometimes discovered by their swimming with their head and back out of the water, but they are oftenest discovered lying at the bottom, a fathom or more deep. If a turtle perceives he is discovered, he starts up to make his escape, the men in the boat pursuing him, endeavour to keep sight of him, which they often lose, and recover again by the turtle putting his nose out of the water to breathe: thus they pursue him, one paddling or rowing; while the other stands ready with his striker. It is sometimes half an hour before he is tired; then he sinks at once to the bottom, which gives them an opportunity of striking him, which is by piercing him with an iron peg, which slips out of the socket, but is fastened with a string to the pole. If he is spent and tired by being long pursued, he tamely submits, when struck, to be taken into the boat or hauled ashore. There are men who by diving will get on their backs, and by pressing down their hind parts, and raising the fore-part of them by force, bring them to the top of the water, while another slips a noose about their necks.

The sea tortoises or turtles, says Catesby, never go on shore but to lay their eggs, which they do in April: they then crawl up from the sea above the flowing of high water, and dig a hole above two feet deep in the sand, into which they drop in one night above an hundred eggs, at which time they are so intent on nature's work, that they regard none that approach them; but will drop their eggs into a hat if held under them; but if they are disturbed before they begin to lay, they will forsake the place, and seek another. They lay their eggs at three, and sometimes at four different times; there being fourteen days between every time; so that they hatch and creep from their holes into the sea, at different times also. When they have laid their compliment of eggs, they fill the hole with sand, and leave them to be hatched by the heat of the sun, which is usually performed in about three weeks. It may be proper to add, that the eggs are about the size of tennis-balls, round, white, and covered with a smooth parchment-like skin. Gmelin mentions several varieties of this species.

4. *Testudo caretta*.—The variegated turtle with fifteen dorsal scales, those of the middle range gibbous towards their tips. This species is larger than any yet discovered, except perhaps, the *coriacea*. It is called the "loggerhead turtle;" and though it resembles the last species, or green turtle, it is distinguished by the superior size of the head, the proportional breadth of the shell, and by its deeper and more variegated colours: but the principal distinction consists in the number of dorsal segments or scutella of the shell, which amount constantly to fifteen. The fore-feet are very large and long; the hind feet much shorter, though broad. In a commercial view, this species is of little importance; its flesh being rank and coarse, and the laminæ of the shell too thin for general use. It is said, however, to afford a good quantity of oil, which may be used for lamps, &c. This turtle is very strong and fierce, and even dangerous.—It is an inhabitant of the same seas with the green turtle, but has been found in remote latitudes, even in the Mediterranean, and particularly about the coasts of Italy and Sicily.

5. *Testudo macropus*.—With an ovate, carinate, emarginate shield, and the feet very large and bifariouly unguled.

11.—Fluviatile, with palmated feet, shell joined with the sternum by a membrane, and supported in the middle on both sides, by two processes of the sternum.

6. *Testudo orbicularis*.—The *testudo* Europea of Schneider, with oval, flattish, smooth, dark brown shell, marked with very numerous, yellowish specks and streaks. This speckled tortoise of the "Naturalist's Miscellany," or *testudo inleagrís*, is of small size, the shell measuring about four or five inches in length, and its disk composed of thirteen, and the margin of twenty-five pieces; the under shell whiteish-yellow, tinged towards the joints with brown; the head ovate, somewhat convex above, and flattish on each side and beneath; the skin of the neck lax and wrinkly; the legs short and scaly, feet webbed, fore feet having five toes and hinder only four; the claws on all the feet sharp-pointed, and crooked; the tail nearly half as long as the body, thin, attenuated, compressed and scaly, and also spotted like the body.

This elegant species is a native of many parts of Europe, being found in Italy, Sardinia, France, Hungary, Prussia, &c., inhabiting lakes and muddy waters, and feeding on aquatic plants, insects, snails, and small fish. The flesh is said to be good as food, for which purpose it is sold in the markets, and occasionally kept in ponds, and fed or fattened with lettuce-leaves, bread, &c. &c. It may be conveniently kept in a cellar, and fed with oats, scattered on the floor, which it greedily eats when they begin to germinate. It deposits its eggs in sandy and sunny places in the beginning of spring, which are not hatched, as it is pretended, till the succeeding spring.

7. *Testudo membranacea*.—With three claws on the feet, and well striated on the back, membranaceous, ovate, and grey.—Found in the sea that washes Guiana.—See *Testudo* *ferox*.

8. *Testudo triunguis*.—With three claws on the feet; the disk of the back rugose and orbiculated, the lower border smooth, and nostrils in a cylinder elevated above and projecting beyond the head.—Found rarely in the Nile, and supposed to be the same with the former.

9. *Testudo cartilaginea*.—Shell orbicular, membranaceous, striated on the back; three claws on the feet, and nose cylindrical and prolonged. This is the *testudo* Boddaerti and a rare species. See the next article.

10. *Testudo ferox*, or fierce tortoise.—With ovate, cartilaginous shell; three claws on the feet, and tubular, prominent nostrils. Dr. Shaw queries whether the *testudo* rostrata of Schœpf, the *testudo* with palmated feet, &c. of Thunberg, the *testudo* cartilaginea of Boddaert, the *testudo* Boddaerti of Schneider, the *testudo* triunguis of Forskall, and the *testudo* membranacea of Blumenberg, do not belong to this species. This is a remarkable species, and distinguished by the unusual nature of its shield, which is hard and osseous only in the middle part, while the edges gradually degenerate into a flexible coriaceous verge; obscurely marked with five or six transverse bands, and granulated with small warts or prominences, gradually enlarging as they approach the flexible edge; the head rather small, somewhat trigonal, with the snout much lengthened, and the upper part drawn out into a sub-cylindric form, terminated by the nostrils, and projecting much beyond the lower mandible; the neck, when retracted, thick, and surrounded with many folds of skin, but when exerted, equal in length to that of the whole shell; the legs short, thick, and covered with a wreathed skin; the feet furnished with strong and broad webs, connecting the three last toes of each; the three first on each foot furnished with strong claws, and the remaining ones unarmed; having, besides the proper toes, two spurious ones on the hind and one on the fore feet, strengthening and expanding the web; the tail short, pointed and curving inwards; the eyes very small and round; the colour above deep-brownish olive, and below white; the shell marked beneath in a very elegant manner, with ramifications of vessels.

This species is found in Pennsylvania, Carolina, &c. &c.; and is possessed, differently from most others of the tribe, of

considerable vigour and swiftness of motion, springing towards its assailant, when attacked, with great alacrity and fierceness; about a foot and half long, and fifteen inches broad. It was first described by Dr. Garden. Its flesh is said to be extremely delicate, being equal, if not superior even to that of the green turtle. The great soft-billed turtle, described by Mr. Bartram in his travels, appears to be the same with this.—Found in all the rivers, lakes, and pools of East Florida, weighing from 30 to 40 pounds. The *testudo* rostrata of Thunberg seems to be the young of the species above described; and the *testudo* triunguis of Forskall, is allied to the same species. *Shaw*.

11. *Testudo scabra*.—With smooth discoloured head, and shield, oval, convex, carinated and rough. The *scabra* of Linnæus is described as having palmated feet and flattish shell, with all the intermediate scutella elevated on the back. The shell of this species is figured by Seba; it measures about two inches and a half in length, and nearly two inches in breadth; being of a cordated figure, or somewhat pointed at the bottom. Its colour is light-reddish variegated on the head and shell with white lines and spots, the feet marked with red specks, and having each five toes with sharp claws; the head prominent, and eyes small. *Shaw*.

12. *Testudo squamata*, or scaly tortoise.—With ovate body, smooth beneath, but covered above, together with the neck, feet, and tail, with numerous scales. According to Bontius, in his history of Java, this singular species is an inhabitant of fresh waters, where it burrows under the banks, in order perhaps to deposit its eggs. The Javanese call it *taunah*, or the digger, and the Chinese *lary*, or the runner, a burlesque title given to it on account of its slow pace. Its flesh is said to be extremely delicate; and the Chinese use the pulverized scales, dissolved in water, as a remedy in dysenteric cases and against the cholera. It is said to prey on small fish. This species seems to connect the lizard and tortoise tribes. *Shaw*.

13. *Testudo lutaria*; mud or brown tortoise.—With flattish shell, and tail half the length of the body; carinated, says Gmelin, behind with three scutella. This species is said to be common in many parts of Europe, as well as Asia, being found in India, Japan, &c. According to Cépède, it is not more than seven or eight inches from the tip of the nose to that of the tail, and about three or four inches in breadth; the disk consists of thirteen pieces, striated and slightly punctated in the centre, and along the middle range, runs a longitudinal carina; the margin consists of twenty-three pieces, bordered with slight striæ; the colour of the shell is blackish and also of the skin; the feet are webbed, with five toes before, and four behind; the exterior toe of each foot is unarmed; the tail is stretched out in walking, from which circumstance the animal has been called "Mus aquatilis." Like other tortoises, it sometimes utters a kind of broken hiss.—This animal is common in France, and particularly in Languedoc and many parts of Provence; and in a lake situated in the plain of Durance, such numbers were found as to supply the neighbouring peasantry for more than three months. Although the species be aquatic, it always lays its eggs on land, digging a hollow and covering them with mould. This animal is useful in a garden, which it frees from noxious animals, without doing any mischief itself. It may be domesticated, and kept in a basin or receptacle of water, so contrived on the edges as to give it a ready egress, when it wishes to wander about for prey. In fish ponds, it is destructive. *Shaw*. Gmelin mentions two varieties, viz., *testudo tabulata* and *testudo campanulata*.

14. *Testudo scorpioides*.—See *Testudo fimbriata*.

15. *Testudo hermanni*.—With four claws on the feet, and the tip of the tail unguiculated.—See *Testudo Tricarinata*. Gmelin mentions several varieties of this species.

16. *Testudo Carolina*.—With digitated feet, gibbous shell, and no tail. This is the *testudo* clausa, or close tortoise of Linnæus and other writers, with blackish shell, irregularly spotted with yellow, with obtuse dorsal carina, and bivalve

under-shell completely closing the upper, whence it obtains its name. The under part of the shell is so continued round the margin, that when the animal withdraws its head and legs it is able accurately to close all parts of the shell together, so as to be perfectly secure. The defence of this little animal, which rarely exceeds four or five inches in length, is such, that it is uninjured by a weight of 500 or 600 pounds, and able to walk under this heavy load.—It is a native of many parts of North America, found chiefly in marshy situations, and occasionally in the driest and hottest places. It is principally sought for on account of its eggs, which are reckoned a delicacy. It feeds on small animals, as beetles, mice, and even serpents, which it draws into its shell, and crushes to death; and also on various vegetable substances.

17. *Testudo palustris*.—With depressed shell, five claws on the fore-feet, and four on the hind-feet; found in the stagnant waters of Jamaica, and seeking food in the adjoining meadows. This is the *testudo terrapin* of Schœpf, and the *testudo concentrica* of other writers, with sub-depressed, sub-carinated, oval yellow shell, with the scutella marked by concentric brown zones. The shell measures from four to six inches, or more.—It is a native of North America, and sold in the markets at Philadelphia, and elsewhere, under the name of "Terrapin," which name is indiscriminately applied in America to several other species. It is common, as we have already said, in Jamaica, and first described by Dr. Browne, in his "History of Jamaica," who says it is a wholesome and even delicate food. *Shaw*.

18. *Testudo caspica*.—With orbicular shell, scaly head, five claws on the fore-feet, four on the hind, and naked tail. The pieces composing the disk are sub-quadrate; those of the border parallelogrammic; the colour variegated with black and green; the lower shell blackish, spotted with white.—Gmelin represents it as a native of Hircania, inhabiting fresh waters, and sometimes growing to a vast size.

19. *Testudo clausa*. See *Testudo Carolina*, *supra*.

20. *Testudo Pennsylvanica*.—Tortoise, according to Schœpf, with smooth, elliptic, brown shell, with flattish back, the middle range of scutella sub-rhomboid and sub-imbricated, the first sub-triangular; and according to Gmelin, with five claws on the fore-feet and four on the hind, and the apex of the tail horny and acute. This is the small mud tortoise of Edwards; the shell measuring three or four inches in length. The head on the parts surrounding the jaws and eyes, is of a reddish-yellow colour; the upper part, as well as the neck, legs, and tail, dusky; feet webbed; the tail small.—It is a native of North America, and is found in Pennsylvania, &c., inhabiting muddy waters. When living, it is said to exhale a strong musky odour. Mr. Schœpf mentions a variety. *Shaw*.

21. *Testudo serpentina*.—The snake tortoise, characterised by Schœpf as having an ovate, depressed, triply carinated, sharp-scaled shell, rounded and acutely serrated at the posterior margin; and by Gmelin as having digitated feet, sub-carinated shell, behind obtuse, and acutely quindentated. This is the serrated tortoise of Pennant. The head is large, depressed, triangular, and covered with a scaly and warty skin; the orbits of the eyes are oblique; the mouth wide; the mandibles sharp; the neck covered by scaly warts; the toes distinct; the tail straight, and about two-thirds the length of the shell; and the under part of the body covered by a loose, wrinkled skin, beset with smallish soft scales and granules. This animal conceals itself in muddy water, leaving out only a part of its back, and thus appearing to be a stone or other inanimate object, more easily obtains its prey.—It is a native of North America, inhabiting stagnant waters, growing to the weight of fifteen or twenty pounds, or more, preying on fish, ducklings, &c., seizing its prey with great force, and at the same time stretching out its neck, and hissing. In New York, it is known by the title of the "snapping tortoise."

22. *Testudo spengleri*. See *Testudo Serrata*, *infra*.

23. *Testudo fimbriata*.—Tortoise, according to Bruguiere,

with oval, sub-convex, triply carinated shell, sub-digitated feet, cylindrical snout, and neck fimbriated on each side. This is an animal of very singular and disagreeable appearance. The shell is about fifteen inches or more in length, and its breadth eleven; but the whole animal, from the nose to the end of the tail, is two feet three inches. The head is large and flat, rounded in front, and edged on the sides with warty and wrinkled membranaceous appendages, about five inches wide, and covered behind by a three-lobed prominence; the nose resembles a proboscis, cylindrical, ten lines long, truncated, pierced by the nostrils, at the tip, where they are separated by a cartilaginous division; the eyes are round; seated at the base of the proboscis, and ten lines distant from each other; the mandibles are equal in length, and entire; the gape of the mouth is wide; the neck seven inches long, and four and a half broad; above flat and warty, and furnished on each side with six fimbriated membranaceous appendages disposed lengthwise, and alternately larger and smaller; the under part of the neck is beset with four similar appendages, placed opposite to the two on the head, and increased by two longitudinal wrinkles: the fore-feet are scaly and warty, having five indistinct toes, with as many longish sharp claws, convex above and flat beneath; the hind-feet are also scaly, with less distinct toes, having four claws, the fifth toe being unarmed, and very short: the tail is an inch long, bent slightly, and covered with a granulated skin; all the thirteen semicircular pieces, of which the shell consists, are wrinkled and irregularly notched at the hind part; the twenty-five marginal pieces are almost square, radiated on the surface with oblique wrinkles, and toothed in the interior edge. The colour of the whole is brown, somewhat paler beneath.—This animal is said to be a native of Guiana, but is now rare in the rivers of Cayenne, as it has been plentifully taken by fishermen, it being considered as excellent food. It feeds on aquatic plants, and wanders by night to some distance in search of pasture. It has been suggested, but without certainty, that this is the *testudo scorpoidea* of Linnaeus. *Shaw*.

24. *Testudo picta*.—Tortoise with plane shell, marked on both sides with a double spot of a black-blueish colour; scutella surrounded with a yellow margin, and neck striated longitudinally with yellow and black; or tortoise with oblong, slightly convex, smooth, brown shell, with the scutella bordered with yellow. This is the cinereous tortoise of Brown's Zoology, and sufficiently distinguished from all others by the remarkable colours of the shield.—This is a fresh-water species, and inhabits slow and deep rivers in North America, and should have been referred by Gmelin to his second class. In clear sunny weather, these animals are said to assemble in multitudes, sitting on the fallen trunks of trees, stones, &c., and immediately plunging into the water on the least disturbance. They are said to swim very swiftly, but to walk slowly; to be able to continue many hours entirely beneath the water, but not to survive many days if kept out of their favourite element. They are very voracious, destroying ducklings, &c., which they seize by the feet, and drag under water. They are sometimes used as a food. The colour, as has been above observed, varies; being sometimes of a blackish-brown, at other times of a reddish-chestnut: the yellow markings are also either pale or deep in different individuals, and sometimes whitish; the inferior, or under edges of the upper shell, as well as the upper edges, or commissures of the lower, are elegantly streaked with black, as if artificially painted, and this variegation is continued over the skin of the sides of the body. *Shaw*.

25. *Testudo guttata*.—Tortoise spotted, with oblong, moderately convex, smooth, brown shell, with scattered yellow spots. This is *testudo punctata* of Schœpf.—It is rather a small species, and a native of North America, inhabiting rivers and lakes. The young are scarcely larger than pigeon's eggs, and are very black, beautifully spotted with gold colour.

26. *Testudo longicollis*, or long-necked tortoise.—Smooth, ovate,



1. *T. fontinalis*. 2. *T. emarginata*. 3. *T. guttata*. 4. *T. picta*. 5. *T. angustata*. 6. *T. imbricata*.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1827.

ovate, with extremely long neck.—This species is a native of New Holland, and is of the river or fresh-water kind. The colour of the whole animal above is deep olive-brown; beneath paler, and inclining to whitish. *Shaw*.

III.—Land tortoises, with clavated unguiculated feet, convex shell, and bony commissures joined with the sternum.

27. *Testudo denticulata*.—Tortoise with sub-digitated feet, and orbicularly-cordated shell, with denticulated marginal segments. The shell is of a pale yellowish-brown colour, about four inches long and three broad, covered on the disk by broad hexagonal and pentagonal scutella, of a flattened form, with a large distinct middle space, granulated by small tubercles, and the remainder marked by five lines or furrows. The edge of the shell consists of twenty-three pieces, projecting in a serrated manner round the outline.—It is supposed to be a native of North America. The feet, in Gmelin's edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, are said to be without distinct toes; and the tail short.

28. *Testudo Græca*.—The common land tortoise, with sub-digitated feet, hinder part of the shell gibbous, lateral margin very obtuse, and scutella flattish. *Gmelin*.

It is described by others as the tortoise with hemispheric black and yellow shell, gibbous behind; the pieces composing the disk convex, and the sides obtuse. This tortoise is supposed to be a native of almost all the countries bordering on the Mediterranean sea, and to be more frequent in Greece than in other regions.—It is found in the European Archipelago islands, and in Corsica and Sardinia, and also in many parts of Africa. In Greece, it is an article of food; the eggs are eaten boiled, and the blood is often swallowed recent. In September, the animal hides itself under ground, and emerges in February: it lays its eggs in June, in a small hole on a sunny spot, out of which, after the first rains of September, the young are hatched. In England, it retires about the end of October, and re-appears about the middle of April; but these seasons vary with the climate and weather, &c. The males often fight, butting at each other with a noise that may be heard at a considerable distance. This animal lives to a most extraordinary age, exceeding the period of even a century.

One of the most remarkable instances, is that of a tortoise introduced into the archiepiscopal garden at Lambeth, in the time of archbishop Laud, and as near as can be collected from its history, about the year 1633, which continued to live there till the year 1753, when it was supposed to have perished rather from accidental neglect on the part of the gardener, than from the mere effect of age. This tortoise has had the honour of being commemorated by Derham, and many other writers, and its shell is preserved in the library of the palace at Lambeth.

The general manners of the tortoise, in a state of domestication in this country, are very agreeably detailed by Mr. White, in his *History of Selbourn*. "A land tortoise, which has been kept thirty years in a little walled court, retires under ground about the middle of November, and comes forth again about the middle of April. When it first appears in the spring, it discovers very little inclination for food, but in the height of summer grows voracious; and then, as the summer declines, its appetite also declines; so that for the last weeks in autumn it hardly eats at all. Milky plants, such as lettuces, dandelions, sowthistles, &c., are its principal food.

"The tortoise is totally a diurnal animal, and never stirs after it becomes dark. The tortoise," adds Mr. White, "like other reptiles, has an arbitrary stomach, as well as lungs, and can refrain from eating, as well as breathing, for a great part of the year. I was much taken with its sagacity, in discerning those that do it kind offices; for as soon as the good old lady comes in sight who has waited on it for more than thirty years, it hobbles towards its benefactress with awkward alacrity; but remains inattentive to strangers. Thus, not only 'the ox knoweth his owner, and the ass his master's crib,' but the most abject and torpid of beings dis-

tinguishes the hand that feeds it, and is touched with the feelings of gratitude. This creature not only goes under the earth from the middle of November to the middle of April, but sleeps great part of the summer; for it goes to bed in the longest days at four in the afternoon, and often does not stir in the morning till late. Besides, it retires to rest for every shower, and does not move at all in wet days. When one reflects on the state of this strange being, it is a matter of wonder that Providence should bestow such a seeming waste of longevity on a reptile that appears to relish it so little as to squander away more than two-thirds of its existence in a joyless stupor, and be lost to all sensation for months together in the profoundest of all slumbers! Though he loves warm weather, he avoids the hot sun; because his thick shell, when once heated, would, as the poet says of solid armour, 'scald with safety.' He therefore spends the more sultry hours under the umbrella of a large cabbage leaf, or amid the waving forests of an asparagus bed. But as he avoids heat in the summer, so in the decline of the year he improves the faint autumnal beams, by getting within the reflection of a fruit-tree wall; and though he has never read that planes inclining to the horizon receive a greater share of warmth, he inclines his shell by tilting it against the wall, to collect and admit every feeble ray."

The tortoise is said to be more tenacious of life than any other of the amphibia; many experiments performed upon them by Redi, of a cruel nature, such as opening their shells, taking out the brain, cutting off the head, evince their tenaciousness of life, and that the vital principle is very slowly discharged from these animals. *Shaw*.

29. *Testudo carinata*.—Tortoise with digitated feet, and gibbous shell, with the four first dorsal scutella carinated, and entire sternum.—Found in warm regions, but very little known.

30. *Testudo geometrica*.—Shell ovated, with all the elevated scutella above plane, marked with a yellow striæ issuing from the centre in form of a star: or, according to others, this is the tortoise with ovate black shell, and elevated scutella radiated with yellow; the *testudo tessellata* minor of Ray. The pieces of which the disk of the shell consists are very prominent, striated, or furrowed pretty distinctly with numerous lines on their sides, and terminated above by a yellowish, flat, square, or rather hexagonal roughened space or centre, from which proceed, in a radiated direction, several well-defined yellow streaks towards the edge; thus constituting a beautiful kind of geometrical appearance on the black ground colour on which they are disposed. The marginal pieces, which are commonly twenty-four, sometimes twenty-six, in number, are also streaked with yellow, but in a somewhat different style.

The native country of this beautiful tortoise is, perhaps, not truly ascertained; though the shell is more frequently seen in Europe than that of almost any other kind. It is said, however, to inhabit Asia and Africa, and even to be found in America. According to Thunberg, it is particularly common in shrubby places about the Cape of Good Hope. It is said to lay about twelve or fifteen eggs at a time. The Count de Cépède supposes this species to be the *Terapin* of Dampier, which that navigator represents as very beautifully variegated, and as delighting in moist and marshy places; adding, that its flesh is esteemed as a food, and that it is found in plenty on the coasts of the Pine islands, between the continent of America and Cuba: they are found in the forests, where they are easily taken: the hunters mark them on the shield, and let them wander about the woods; being sure to find them again at no great distance, every one easily recognizing his own property, and afterwards carrying them to Cuba. *Shaw*.

31. *Testudo pusilla*, or little tortoise.—With sub-digitated feet, and hemispheric shell, with convex, trapezial, scutella, striated on the margin, and punctated on the disk. This is the African land tortoise of Edwards, and thus described by him from a specimen obtained from West Barbary. "The iris of the eye is of a reddish hazel colour; the lips hard, like

like the bill of a bird; the head covered with scales of a yellowish colour; the neck, hind legs, and tail, covered with a flexible skin of a dirty flesh-colour; the fore-legs covered with yellow scales on their outsides, which are partly exposed when the legs are drawn in; the shell round, and pretty much rising on its upper side, and flat beneath; the pieces or compartments are of a yellowish colour, clouded and spotted with large and small irregular dusky or blackish spots, and are also furrowed or creased, the creases lessening, one within the other, till they reach the top or middle part of each; the tail is thick, scaly, and about an inch in length; and the vent is situated within the tail itself near the base: there are five claws on the fore-feet, and four on the hind, all strong, black, rather bowed, and sharp-pointed.—This species is found at the Cape of Good Hope, and much resembles the *testudo græca*.

32. *Testudo Indica*.—Tortoise with brown shell, reflected above the neck, and marked with a tubercle on the three upper scutella. This is the great Indian tortoise, first described by Perrault in the "History of Animals," published by the Royal Academy of France; and confounded by M. Cépède with the *testudo græca*.—It is found in India, on the coast of Coromandel, &c. Of this there are two varieties; one brought from the Cape of Good Hope, and another from the Southern Islands.

33. *Testudo sulcata*.—Tortoise with a tail, digitated feet, gibbose shell, and scutella lined and circumscribed with a furrow; or tortoise with brown ovate shell, with furrowed scutella yellow on each side. This is one of the larger species of land tortoise, being about a foot or more in length from the nose to the tip of the tail. The shell is very convex, and has the general habit of the *græca* and *geometrica* as to shape.—This species is said to be a native of the West Indies, and perhaps may be the "Hicatee" of Brown, described in his History of Jamaica. Dr. Shaw suggests that this species may be the same with *testudo tabulata*.

34. *Testudo planairia*.—Tortoise with digitated feet, and shell oval, convex, and smooth.—Found at Surinam.

35. *Testudo Americana terrestris*.—Tortoise with oval, gibbose shell; scutella yellow in the middle of the disk; the margin marked with shining black, furrowed, lateral polygons. This is conjectured by Gmelin to be the Jaboti of the Brazilians, and the cagoda of the Portuguese.—Found in South America.

36. *Testudo tabulata*.—Tortoise with oblong, gibbose, brown shell, with the scutella of the disk rectangular and furrowed; with yellowish centres. This was first described and figured in Seba's "Thesaurus," and there said to be a native of Brazil, though it is believed to be rather an African species. The general length of the shell is about five or six inches: suspected to be the same species with *testudo sulcata*, *supra*. Shaw.

37. *Testudo marginata*.—Tortoise with blackish-brown, oblong, gibbose shell, variegated with yellow, widened and depressed on the hind part.—The true native country of this species is not very distinctly known. Mr. Schæpf inclines to think that it is an American species. Cépède has confounded it with the *testudo græca*. Shaw.

38. *Testudo radiata*.—Tortoise with ovate black shell, and flattish scutella radiated with yellow. This is the great chequered tortoise-shell of Grew's Mus. Reg. It has been concluded by some persons, from a general resemblance in the pattern of the shell, and a similarity in colours, that this is the same species with *testudo geometrica*, or a variety of it. But Dr. Shaw has pointed out a variety of differences between them, and such as warrant our stating that the two shells are perfectly distinct. Grew, who has described this species, says that its native country is Madagascar; but Dr. Shaw suggests that it is also a native of Jamaica, and that in characters and size it agrees with the "Hicatee" tortoise mentioned in Brown's Zoology. Shaw.

39. *Testudo rugosa*.—A tortoise wrinkled, with black wrinkled shell, mottled and variegated with yellow; with the middle dorsal pieces subpanduriform, or fiddle-shaped.

40. *Testudo elegans*.—Tortoise with orbicular, convex, yellow shell, with transverse, oval, brown spots. Seba has described it under the name of the *testudo terrestris Ceylonica elegans minor*. Shaw.

41. *Testudo areolata*.—Tortoise with moderately convex shell, with subquadrangular, elevated, deeply furrowed scutella, and depressed rough areola. This is described by Seba under the appellation of *testudo terrestris Brasiliensis*.

42. *Testudo serrata*.—Tortoise with depressed yellowish shell, minutely freckled with dusky specks; all the scutella of the disk carinated, and the hinder margin of the shell serrated. This is supposed by Dr. Shaw to be the *testudo splengleri* of Gmelin's Linnean System.

43. *Testudo tricarinata*.—Tortoise with oval, slightly convex shell, with entire margin, and all the scutella of the disk carinated. This species agrees, in shape and other particulars, with Linnæus's description of his *testudo orbicularis*. Shaw.

44. *Testudo scripta*.—Tortoise with orbicular depressed shell, with all the scutella marked by variously-formed characters, and the marginal pieces spotted beneath. This is the *testudo scabra* of Thunberg.—Its native place is not ascertained. Shaw.

45. *Testudo galeata*.—Tortoise with depressed oval shell, with the three middle scutella sharply carinated, and twenty-four marginal pieces.—The native place of this species is not known; but it was brought to Retzius from India, and lived two years kept in fresh water: it subsisted on bread, &c., and sometimes on flies. From the beginning of October in the middle of May it remained without food, scarcely elevating its head above the water. It delighted in sunshine, and endeavoured to climb up the sides of the vessel occasionally, in order to enjoy its influence. It is doubtful, whether this be the *testudo scabra* of Linnæus. It is called *galeata* by Retzius, from the armed or cataphracted covering of the head. Shaw.

46. *Testudo granulata*, or chagrin tortoise.—With orbicular, flattish, granulated shell, with cartilaginous border. This species seems to be allied to the *testudo ferox*, having the shield furnished with a cartilaginous and flexible border. It is described by M. Cépède, and was brought from India by M. Sonnerat. Shaw.

Dr. Shaw, among the sea-tortoises or turtles, has described the turtle with green variegated shell, so named by the Count de Cépède.—These turtles are said to be found in great numbers in the Southern Ocean, and about Cape Blanco, in New Spain. They also occur in the gulf of Mexico, and many of the large American rivers, both above and below the line; but they have never been discovered in the seas of the Old Continent. The flesh is said to be very delicate; and is even preferred in some places to that of the common turtle. M. Bomare is said by Cépède to have first described this species.

The "trunk turtle" is mentioned by Catesby, who says, without ever having seen it, from the report of others, that these turtles grow to a very large size, of a narrow form, but very deep, the upper shell being more convex than in other kinds of turtle. Their flesh is rank, but affords a large quantity of oil, which constitutes their value.

The "rhinoceros turtle," or *la tortue nasicornne*, has not been accurately described. Count de Cépède says, that it is a native of the American seas, and bears a general resemblance to the common or green turtle; but is distinguished by having a large soft tubercle on the tip of the snout, in which are situated the nostrils. It is eaten in the same manner as the green turtle, and is chiefly found in the equatorial regions. Shaw.

TESTUDO *Veliformis Quadrabilis*, an hemispherical vault or ceiling of a church, &c., in which four windows are so contrived, as that the rest of the vault is quadrable, or may be squared.

TESTY, *adj.* [*testiu*, Fr.; *testoso*, Ital., both rendered headstrong, as well as testy, by Cotgrave and Florio; thus pointing to the head, *teste*, *testa*, as the origin of the word.]

Fretful;

Fretful; peevish; apt to be angry.—Must I stand and crouch under your *testy* humour? *Shakspeare*.

TETAUS, Indians of the United States, in Louisiana, near the sources of Red river and the Platte. Number 8200.

TETBURY, a market town of England, in the county of Gloucester, a large and respectable town, pleasantly situated on a rising ground, and in a healthy air, near the source of the river Avon. The market, which is principally for yarn, is held in a large market-house in the middle of the town: cheese, butter, &c., are sold at a smaller market-house. Tetbury has a manufacture of woollen cloth, and is a considerable thoroughfare; the direct road from Bath and Bristol to Cirencester passing through the town, as also the road from Gloucester and Stroud to Bath, Devizes, Salisbury, and Southampton. To the north of the town there is a petrifying spring. Market on Wednesday; 25 miles east-north-east of Bristol, and 99 west of London.

TE/TCHY, *adj.* Froward; peevish; a corruption of *testy* or *touchy*.

A grievous burthen was thy birth to me,
Tetchy and wayward was thy infancy. *Shakspeare*.

TETCOT, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles south-by-west of Holsworthy.

TETE, *s.* [French.] False hair; a wig worn by ladies. *Unused*.—An old baronet fell in love with a young lady of small fortune for her beautiful brown locks. He married her on a sudden: but was greatly disappointed upon seeing her wig or *tete* the next morning thrown carelessly upon her toilette, and her ladyship appearing at breakfast in a very bright red hair, a colour the old gentleman happened to have a particular aversion to. *Graves*.

TETE-A-TETE, *s.* [French.] Private; applied to a company of only two persons.

Long before the squire and dame
Are *tête-à-tête*. *Prior*.

TETELA, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Puebla, and capital of a jurisdiction of the same name, containing 100 families of Mexican Indians; 60 miles south-east of Mexico.

TETEROW, a small town in the north of Germany, in Mecklenburg-Schwerin; 15 miles east of Gastrow, and 26 south-east of Rostock.

TETFORD, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-east-by-east of Horncastle.

TE/THER, *s.* [See TEDDER.] A string by which horses are held from pasturing too wide.

Hamlet is young,
And with a larger *tether* may he walk
Than may be given you. *Shakspeare*.

To TE/THER, *v. a.* To confine with a tether

TETHERINGTON, a village of England, in Cheshire, near Macclesfield.—Also a small village in Gloucestershire, near Thornbury.

TETAUROA, a small island in the South Pacific ocean, subject to Otaheite, composed of six or seven low islets near each other, not many feet above the level of the sea. The inhabitants are about 3000, chiefly employed in catching fish, which they bring to Otaheite, and exchange for bread-fruit; 24 miles north-west of Point Venus. Lat. 17. 4. S. long. 149. 30. W.

TETJUSCHI, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Kasan, on the Wolga, with 1000 inhabitants.

TETNANG, a small town in the south-west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 19 miles east of Constance.

TETNEY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10½ miles north-by-east of Louth. Population 489.

TETON, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 8 miles north-north-west of Northampton.

TETON, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri; 1263 miles from the Mississippi.

TETONS, Indians of the United States, on the Missouri, below the river Teton. Number 11,500.

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TETRACERA [*Tetragas* and *kegas*, quadruplex cornu. The seed-vessel, in some species, being composed of four capsules, like horns], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria tetragynia, order icosandria tetragynia, of Schreb, natural order of rosaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five or six parted, (five or six-leaved,) spreading, permanent; segments roundish, a little unequal. Corolla: petals three to five, or none? (four or five) roundish, concave, inserted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments numerous, capillary, widening at the top, permanent, inserted into the calyx. Anthers twin, with the cells disjoined. Pistil: germs three or four, sometimes solitary, ovate, oblique, diverging. Styles simple, permanent. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: capsules as many (four) as there are germs, ovate, divaricating, opening by the inner side. Seeds solitary or few, surrounded by a rayed aril.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five or six-leaved. Corolla four or five-petalled. Filaments widening above, and anther-bearing on each side. Capsules four, opening on the side. Seed arilled at the base.

I.—Flowers one-styled.

1. *Tetracera sarmentosa*.—See DELIMA.
2. *Tetracera tomentosa*.—Leaves ovate, acuminate, toothed, smooth above, tomentose beneath; flowers one-styled.—It is a native of Guiana: flowering in January.
3. *Tetracera aspera*.—Leaves roundish, superband, rugged; flowers one-styled.—A shrub, native of Guiana, where it grows in woods.
4. *Tetracera doliacarpus*.—Leaves oblong, acuminate, toothed at the end; peduncles axillary, one-flowered; flowers one-styled.—A shrub, native of Surinam.
5. *Tetracera stricta*.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, toothed; flowers terminating, one-styled; stem strict.—A shrub, native of Surinam.
6. *Tetracera calinea*.—See DOLIOCARPUS CALINEA.
7. *Tetracera obovata*.—See MAPPIA GUIANENSIS.
8. *Tetracera nitida*.—Leaves lanceolate-oblong, rugged, quite entire; flowers one-styled. Branches round, smooth; germ ovate, acute, smooth.—Found in the island of Trinidad.

II.—Flowers mostly four-styled.

9. *Tetracera Euryandra*.—See EURYANDRA.
 10. *Tetracera volubilis*.—Leaves very rugged, serrate; flowers four-styled. This has a woody stalk, rising to the height of twelve or fourteen feet, covered with a grey bark, and sending out several slender woody branches which twine about any neighbouring support.—Native of South America.
 11. *Tetracera lævis*.—Leaves oblong, even, almost quite entire, acuminate; flowers terminating. Branchlets flexuose, with an ash-coloured bark, smooth, somewhat angular.—Native of the East Indies.
 12. *Tetracera alnifolia*.—Leaves oblong, acute, almost quite entire, somewhat rugged beneath; panicle terminating; branches round, smooth.—Native of Guiana.
- Propagation and Culture*.—The seeds being procured from the countries where the plant naturally grows, should be sown in pots filled with light earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed of tanner's-bark, where they must be treated in the same way as other exotic seeds from the same countries.

TE/TRAD, *s.* [*tetras*, *tetradis*, Lat.] The number four; a collection of four things.—Four here takes place again in the assignment of the masculine and feminine numbers; whence I further conceive, that, under the number of this more complex *tetrad*, he [Pythagoras] taught his disciples the mystery of the whole creation. *More*.

TETRA/GONAL, *adj.* [*τετραγωνος*, Gr.] Four square.—From the beginning of the disease, reckoning on unto the seventh day, the moon will be in a *tetragonal* or quadrate aspect, that is, four signs removed from that wherein the disease began; in the fourteenth day it will be an opposite aspect, and at the end of the third septenary *tetragonal* again. *Brown*.

TETRAGONIA [abbreviated by Linnæus, from *Tetragonocarpus*, a name of Commelin's, given from the four-cornered form of the fruit.], in Botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order pentagynia, natural order of succulentæ, ficoideæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved, superior; leaflets four, ovate, bent down and flat, rolled back at the edge, coloured, permanent. Corolla none, unless the calyx be called so. Stamina: filaments twenty, capillary, shorter than the calyx. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ roundish, five-cornered, inferior. Styles four, awl-shaped, recurved, length of the stamens. Stigmas longitudinal of the style, pubescent. Pericarp: drupe coriaceous, four-cornered, with four longitudinal wings, the opposite angles narrower, not opening. Seed one, bony, four-celled; kernels oblong.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three to five-parted. Petioles none. Drupe inferior, inclosing a nut from three to eight-celled.

1. *Tetragonia fruticosa*, or shrubby tetragonia.—Shrubby; leaves linear; fruits winged. Flowers axillary, at every joint towards the ends of the branches, solitary, or two or three together.—This and all the species except the two last are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Tetragonia decumbens*, or trailing tetragonia.—Shrubby; leaves obovate; fruits winged. This has larger stalks than the preceding, but they branch out in like manner.

3. *Tetragonia herbacea*, or herbaceous tetragonia.—Herbaceous, even; leaves ovate, petioled; fruits winged.

4. *Tetragonia hirsuta*, or hairy tetragonia.—Herbaceous, hirsute, procumbent; leaves ovate, villose; flowers axillary, tern, sessile.

5. *Tetragonia spicata*, or spiked tetragonia.—Smooth, herbaceous, erect; lower leaves ovate, uppermost lanceolate, smooth; flowers racemed.

6. *Tetragonia echinata*, or hedge-hog tetragonia.—Herbaceous, leaves rhomb-ovate; fruits echinate. Root biennial.

7. *Tetragonia expansa*, or horned tetragonia.—Herbaceous, leaves ovate-rhomboid; fruits four-horned.—Native of New Zealand, by the sides of woods in bushy sandy places; also within the tropics on the shore of the island Tongatabu; and in Japan.

8. *Tetragonia crystallina*, or diamond tetragonia.—Herbaceous, frosty; leaves ovate, sessile; fruits unarmed; root annual.—Found in Chancaye, a province of Peru, by Dombey, whence he sent the seeds to the Paris garden, where it flowers and fruits during the summer, growing up and perishing in a few months.

Propagation and Culture.—All the Cape plants may be propagated by cuttings, which should be cut off from the plants a few days before they are planted, that the part where they are cut may be healed, otherwise they will rot, for the leaves and stalks are very full of moisture. The best time to plant these cuttings is in July, that they may have time to make good roots before winter. The two last species are more tender, especially the eighth, and must be kept in the tan-stove. They are propagated only by seeds.

TETRAMETER, *s.* [*tetrametrum*, Lat.] A verse consisting of four feet.—The first are couplets interchanged of sixteen and fourteen feet; the second of equal *tetrameters*. *Selden.*

TETRAMETER, *adj.* Having four metrical feet.—Every reader who has an ear for metre will easily perceive, that it is written very exactly in verses of fifteen syllables without rhyme, in imitation of the most common species of the Latin *tetrameter* iambic. *Tyrwhitt.*

TETRANTHUS [so named from having four flowers within one common calyx.], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia segregata, natural order of capitata, cinarocephalæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common five-leaved, four-flowered; leaflets linear, erect, ciliate, at the base of the florets. Perianth proper, one leaved, tubulous, attenuated at the base, compressed, oblique at the throat, ciliate at the edge, one-flowered, many times longer than the common calyx. Corolla: compound, uniform,

equal. Corollets four, hermaphrodite. Proper one-petalled, funnel-form; tube gradually widening; border five-cleft, unequal; the two upper segments smaller and less divided, the three lower more spreading, oblong, obtuse. Stamina: filaments five, from the base of the corollets, half the length of the tube. Anther tubulous. Pistil: germ from the bottom of the perianth, under the filaments, oblong. Style longer than the stamens and corolla, filiform, divided beyond the middle. Stigmas reflexed, linear, obtuse. Pericarp none. Perianth proper, unchanged, permanent, including. Seed oblong, striated, crowned with the membranaceous ciliate margin of the apex. Receptacle very small, naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx common, four-flowered. Perianth proper, one-leaved. Seeds crowned.

Tetranthus littoralis.—It is an annual plant.—Native of Hispaniola.

TETRAO, in Ornithology, a genus of the Gallinæ order of birds; the characters of which are, that it has a spot near the eyes naked, or papillose, or rarely covered with feathers. It comprehends sixty-seven species, classed under several divisions and subdivisions.

I.—With the naked spot above the eyes, and hairy legs.

LAGOPODES.—With four-toed feet.

1. *Tetrao urogallus.*—With roundish tail, and white axillæ. This is the cock of the wood of Ray and Willughby, and wood grouse of Pennant and Latham.

2. *Tetrao phasianellus.*—With wedge-shaped tail; head, neck, and body above, testaceous, and black-banded.—Found in Hudson's Bay and the uncultivated parts of Virginia.

3. *Tetrao tetrix.*—With bifurcated tail, secondary quills white towards the base. This is the urogallus minor of Brisson and Gesner, and black cock, black game, or black grouse of Ray, Willughby, Pennant, and Latham.—Found in the woods, heaths, &c. of the cold parts of Europe and Siberia. See GROUSE.

4. *Tetrao nemesianus.*—With red tail, spotted with black; black tip, and body varied with black and red: the Nemesian grouse of Latham.

5. *Tetrao betulinus.*—With black tail, varied with black transverse spots; and rump whitish, with black bands: the birch grouse of Latham.

6. *Tetrao Canadensis.*—With black tail-feathers, yellow at the tip, and two white streaks at the eyes: the black and spotted heath-cock of Edwards.

7. *Tetrao canace.*—With entire tail, and white spot near the ears and nostrils.—Found at Hudson's Bay.

8. *Tetrao lagopus.*—Cinereous; hairy toes; white quills; black tail-feathers, tipped with white; the intermediate white; this is the white game of Willughby, and ptarmigan of Pennant and Latham.—Found in Siberia and the northern parts of Europe.

9. *Tetrao albus.*—Orange, varied with black bands and white streaks; hairy toes; tail-feathers black, tipped with white; the intermediate wholly white: this is the white partridge of Ellis and Edwards, and the white grouse of Pennant and Latham.—Found gregarious in the forests of North America, Europe, and Asia.

10. *Tetrao rupestris.*—Orange, varied with black bands and white streaks; plumose toes; black tail-feathers tipped with white; the intermediate wholly white with black lores: this is the rock grouse of Pennant.—Found at Hudson's Bay.

11. *Tetrao lapponicus.*—With naked scaly legs; with a superciliary scarlet line covered with a membrane of the same colour; the primary quill-feathers and tail-feathers tipped with white.

12. *Tetrao cupido.*—With succenturiate cervical wings: the attinga Americana of Brisson, and pinnated grouse of the Arctic Zoology and of Latham.—Found in North America.

13. *Tetrao umbellus.*—With the cervical umbo exstant: this is the ruffed heath-cock of Edwards, and ruffed grouse of Latham.—Found in North America.

14. *Tetrao togatus.*—With the greater axillary feathers black-azure: this is the bonasia major canadensis of Brisson and

and shoulder-knot grouse of Forsters and of Latham.—Found at Hudson's Bay.

15. *Tetrao bonasia*.—The tail-feathers cinereous, with black points and band; the two intermediate excepted.—Found among the hazels of Europe and Western Siberia.

16. *Tetrao canus*.—Body grey, undulated with brown; the beak and legs black.—Found in Sweden.

17. *Tetrao alchata*.—Above varied; the two intermediate tail-feathers twice longer than the others, and subulate.—Found in Europe, Africa, and Asia.

18. *Tetrao namaqua*.—Above spadiceous, with the two intermediate tail-feathers longer and subulate: the Namaqua grouse of Latham.—Found in Africa amid the dry deserts inhabited by the Namaquis, flying gregarious to fountains.

19. *Tetrao Indicus*.—Front white, surrounded by a wreath behind black; the body above yellowish-red, varied with black lunules: the Indians grouse of Latham.—Found at Coromandel.

20. *Tetrao arenarius*.—Ruff, abdomen, and vent black; tail-feathers with brown and grey bands, tipped white; the two intermediate yellowish: the sand grouse of Latham.—Found about the Volga near Astrachan.

With three-toed Feet.

21. *Tetrao paradoxus*.—With three-toed feet; toes hairy, almost joined at the apex: this is the heteroclitous grouse of Latham.—Found in the Southern Tartarian desert.

II.—With papillose skin about the eyes; and naked legs.—With the feet of the male spurred. *PERDICES*, or Partridges.

22. *Tetrao francolinus*.—Abdomen and throat black, and wedge-formed tail.—Found in the south of Asia and Europe, and in Africa, of the size of the partridge, feeding on seeds, emitting a hissing sound, flesh delicious.

23. *Tetrao Madagascariensis*.—Abdomen black, varied with large red spots; throat white; the two intermediate tail feathers reddish with black bands.

24. *Tetrao rufus*.—Legs and beak sanguineous; throat white, surrounded with a band black, white pointed.—Found gregarious in the woody mountains of Europe, Asia, and Africa, much larger than the partridge.

25. *Tetrao perdix*.—With a naked scarlet spot under the eyes; tail ferruginous; breast brown; and legs whiteish: this is the common partridge. Of this species there are several varieties, differing chiefly in colour.

26. *Tetrao Damascenus*.—With a naked scarlet spot under the eyes; tail ferruginous; breast brown; and legs yellow. This species migrates in flocks through the middle of Europe, and is allied to the partridge, but less, with a longer beak.

27. *Tetrao montanus*.—Legs and beak red; throat reddish and dingy: the *perdix montana* of Brisson.—Found in the mountains of Europe.

28. *Tetrao rubricollis*.—Legs, beak, chin, and throat naked, all red: the red-necked partridge of Latham.—Found in Africa.

29. *Tetrao petrosus*.—Beak and legs red; body brown, and ferruginous spot on the breast: the rufous-breasted partridge of Latham.—Found amid the rocks and mountains near Gambia.

30. *Tetrao perlatus*.—Legs and eye-brows red; beak blackish; throat white; and body varied with brown.—Found in China: and it has a variety with beak and legs brown, eye-brows spotted with white and black, at the Cape of Good Hope.

31. *Tetrao bicalcaratus*.—With double-spurred feet, and black eye-brows: the Senegal partridge of Latham.—Found near the Senegal.

32. *Tetrao Zeylo nensis*.—With double-spurred feet; beak and naked area of the eyes red; tail round and brown.

33. *Tetrao spadiceus*.—With two-spurred feet red; beak yellow; and body spadiceous or bright red-coloured: the brown African partridge of Latham.—Found in Madagascar.

34. *Tetrao nudicollis*.—With two-spurred feet, and naked throat red.

35. *Tetrao gingicus*.—Bill black; rump and tail red, grey and black mixed; and eye-brows white.—Found near Gingi, in Coromandel.

36. *Tetrao Pondicerianus*.—Bill black; two intermediate tail-feathers red, numerous angulated lines brown; and four bands ochre-coloured: the Pondicherry partridge of Latham.—Found in Coromandel.

37. *Tetrao nævius*.—Legs and bill reddish; body brown, variegated with yellow.—Found in the temperate parts of New Spain.

Coturnices, or Quails.—With four toes.

38. *Tetrao ferrugineus*.—Legs and beak brown; body beneath diluted light red, above ferruginous-brown; feathers of the neck longer and acutely tipped.—Found in China.

39. *Tetrao Javanicus*.—Legs flesh-coloured; front, spot on the hind head, and abdomen, orange; beak, breast, and tail cinereous, varied with black: Javan partridge of Latham.

40. *Tetrao viridis*.—Green; legs and beak reddish; area of the eyes red; wings spadiceous.

41. *Tetrao Virginianus*.—With a black band above and below the eyes; vertical line yellow.—Found among the trees of America.

42. *Tetrao marilandus*.—With white eye-brows; neck pointed with white and black.

43. *Tetrao kakelik*.—Bill, eye-lids and legs scarlet; breast cinereous; back undulated with white and cinereous.—Found in Bucharica, &c.

44. *Tetrao caspius*.—Cinereous, spotted with light-red; the nostrils, orbits, and temples dusky.—Found near Astrabad, in Persia.

45. *Tetrao Mexicanus*.—Legs and bill sanguineous; the superciliary line white.

46. *Tetrao Falklandicus*.—Variegated with brown spots and curved striæ; beneath white; bill lead-coloured; legs brown; temples spotted with white.—Found in the Falkland islands.

47. *Tetrao Novæ Hispaniæ*.—Legs and bill black; crested head, and head variegated with white and black; body and quill feathers yellow, the latter tipped with white.—Found in New Spain.

48. *Tetrao coyolcos*.—With yellow legs; crown and neck fasciated with white and black; body above yellow, varied with white. This is the *coturnix mexicana* of Brisson; the *coyolcozquo* of Ray and Willughby; the *coyolcos* of Buffon; and lesser Mexican quail of Latham: the eyes are black.

49. *Tetrao suscitator*.—Variegated with yellowish, red, black and grey; bill longer. This is the *coturnix javensis* of Brisson; the *coturnix indica Bontii* of Ray and Willughby; the *reveil-matin* or *caille de Java* of Buffon; and noisy quail of Latham.—Found in the woods of Java.

50. *Tetrao striatus*.—With reddish legs; white eye-brows; tail, throat, lower breast and abdomen black, white guttated: the Madagascar quail of Latham.

51. *Tetrao griseus*.—With black legs and bill; body dilutely and sordidly grey, black banded.—Found in Madagascar.

52. *Tetrao Coromandelicus*.—Head black; vertex and ocular fascia red and yellow; throat white, surrounded with a black stria; body striated; quill-feathers brown.

53. *Tetrao Novæ Guineæ*.—Brown; greyish legs; black quill-feathers, the covers of the wings obsolete yellow.

54. *Tetrao Manillensis*.—Above black; legs and bill black; throat white; breast grey, spotted black; abdomen yellow, black-banded.

55. *Tetrao cristatus*.—The dependent crest and throat yellow.—Found in Guiana and New Spain.

56. *Tetrao sinensis*.—Body spotted grey; throat black, with a white bow.—Found in China and the Philippine isles.

57. *Tetrao coturnix*.—Body spotted grey; eye-brows white; the margin and lunule of the tail-feathers ferruginous.

With

With three toes.

58. Tetrao Gibraltaricus.—With pale legs; black bill; quill-feathers and tail black.

59. Tetrao Andalusicus.—Red, variegated with black; beneath reddish-white; legs and bill flesh-coloured.

60. Tetrao nigricollis.—Body above cinereous, variegated with red and black beneath; legs and bill cinereous; chin and throat black; quill-feathers brown.

61. Tetrao luzonniensis.—Head, neck, and throat variegated with white and black; throat and breast bay; abdomen yellowish; legs and bill dilutely grey.—Found in the Manilla islands.

III.—With the area about the eyes covered with feathers, but naked and tetradactyle. TINAMAU.

62. Tetrao Guianensis.—With legs and bill brown; back variegated with cinereous brown and blackish streaks; throat cinereous; abdomen palely orange and brown.

63. Tetrao major.—Legs yellowish and brown; bill black; vertex red; body olivaceous; spots on the back and tail black.—Found in South America.

64. Tetrao cinereus.—Cinereous-brown.

65. Tetrao variegatus.—Legs and bill brown; head and neck black; body above variegated with transverse lines, light red and black; beneath red; throat and middle of the abdomen white.—Found in Guiana.

66. Tetrao suvi.—Legs and bill yellow; head and neck black; body above brown; beneath red.—Found in Guiana.

TETRAPETALOUS, *adj.* [τεσσαρες and πεταλον, Gr.] Such flowers as consist of four leaves round the style: plants having a *tetrapetalous* flower constitute a distinct kind. *Miller.*—All the *tetrapetalous* siliquose plants are alkalescent. *Arbutnot.*

TETRAPHIS. See MNIUM.

TE'TRARCH, *s.* [tetarcha, Lat.; tetarque, Fr.; τετραρχης, Gr.] A Roman governor of the fourth part of a province.

All the earth,

Her kings, and *tetrarchs*, are their tributaries:

People and nations pay them hourly stipends. *B. Jonson.*

TETRA'RCHATE, or TE'TRARCHY, *s.* [τετραρχια, Gr.; *tetrarchat*, Fr.] A Roman government of a fourth part of a province.—After his death, the kingdom was divided by Augustus into *tetrarchies*; Archelaus being made tetrarch of Judea, and the rest of the country divided between Philip and Antipas. *Patrick.*

TETRA'RCHICAL, *s.* Belonging to a tetrarchy.—The whole isle was lately *tetrarchical*, four several kings swaying their ebony scepters in each toparchy. *Sir T. Herbert.*

TETRASTATER, τετραστατηρ, in ancient Coinage, a Grecian gold coin of Lysimachus, Antiochus III., and of some of the Egyptian monarchs. It was the quadruple clirusus (χρυσος), weighing about 530 grains, and current for 80 drachmas of silver, valued at about 3*l.*, now worth 4*l.* sterling.

TETRA'STICK, *s.* [τετραστιχος, Gr.] An epigram or stanza of four verses.—The *tetrastick* obliged Spenser to extend his sense to the length of four lines, which would have been more closely confined in the couplet. *Pope.*

TE'TRASTYLE, *s.* [tetrastyle, Fr.; τετραστα and στυλος, Gr.] A building with four pillars in front.

TETRASYLLABLE, *s.* [tetrasyllabe, Fr.; τετραστα, Gr.; and *syllable*.] A word of four syllables.

TETRAX, in Ornithology, the name of a bird of the otis or bustard kind, called by some authors *anas campestris*, or the field-duck, and also little bustard; and by some others, the canna. See OTIS.

TETRICAL, or TE'TRICOUS, *adj.* [tetricus, Lat.; *tetricue*, Fr.] Froward; perverse; sour.—In this the *tetrical* bassa finding him to excel, gave him as a rare gift to Solyman. *Knolles.*

TETRICITY, *s.* [tetricité, old Fr.] Sourness; perverseness. *Cockeram.*

TE'TRICK, *adj.* [tetricue, Fr.] Sour; harsh; perverse;

morose.—In a thick and cloudy air men are *tetrick*, sad, and peevish. *Burton.*

TETRODON, in Ichthyology, a genus of the Branchiostegi order of fishes, according to the arrangement of Gmelin; the characters of which are, that the jaws are long, divided at the tip; the branchiæ or gills have a linear aperture; the body is roughened beneath, and the ventral fins are wanting. The fishes of this genus, like the Chiodon, have the power of inflating their bodies at pleasure, by means of an internal membrane, and during this time the small spines of the sides and abdomen rise so as to be a defence against their enemies. They live principally on crustaceous and testaceous animals. Gmelin enumerates thirteen species.

1. Tetrodon sceleratus, or the noxious tetrodon.—Tetragonal, with very large head; length two feet or more.—Found in the American and Pacific oceans, and considered as highly noxious, producing, when eaten, very severe symptoms.

2. Tetrodon testudineus, or tortoise-shell tetrodon.—Abdomen plane, smooth, and back with white curved sutures; length two feet; colour rufous-brown above, marked by numerous round pale blue spots; beneath blueish or ash-coloured, beautifully varied by longitudinal brown streaks; fins and tail bright, ferruginous; the whole abdomen is furnished with numerous small spines, which, when the animal is undisturbed, are imbedded in corresponding cavities in the skin, but elevated, when the fish is alarmed and disturbs its body.—Found in the Indian seas.

3. Tetrodon lagocephalus, or hare tetrodon.—Abdomen aculeated; smooth body, and prominent shoulders; length twelve inches; thick in front; hinder parts tapering suddenly towards the tail; colour above yellowish-brown, beneath whitish with a silvery cast; across the back marked with short, black, or dark-brown bars, and over the sides with many, scattered, round, blackish spots; sides and abdomen beset with radiated spines; fins small, and tail slightly rounded.—Found in the Indian and American seas; and straying into northern latitudes, are taken about the British coasts. This fish has the power of inflating the abdomen to a large size; and derives its name from the resemblance of its head to that of a hare.

4. Tetrodon lineatus.—With brown and pale bands; length ten or twelve inches, square shape; and when inflated, like the last, body beset with small spines; colour grey on the abdomen, with longitudinal, deep brown streaks; fins and tail as in the last species.—Found in the Indian and American seas, and also in the river Nile.

5. Tetrodon electricus.—With red, green, and white spots; above brown, and beneath sea-green; yellow at the sides, and green fins; length seven or eight inches; eyes large, with red circles.—Found in the Indian and American seas, among coral rocks; and when touched with the hand, affecting it with an electric or galvanic shock.

6. Tetrodon ocellatus.—Ocellated on the shoulder-band; length six or eight inches; thick, ovate shape, contracting towards the tail; colour deep green above, paler on the sides and abdomen, which are whitish; across the middle of the back, as far as each pectoral fin, a broad black crescent, edged with yellow; dorsal fin situated on a round black spot with yellow edges; lateral line from beneath the eyes to the tail, which is small and roundish; under parts beset with many spines.—Found in the Indian seas and adjoining rivers, particularly those of China and Japan; very poisonous in its nature, and it is prohibited to be eaten under very severe penalties by the emperor of Japan.

7. Tetrodon lævigatus, or smooth tetrodon.—With the abdomen aculeated in front; a large species; blueish above, with two white stripes on each side; under parts white; from the mouth to the end of the pectoral fins aculeated; the other parts being smooth.—Found in the American seas.

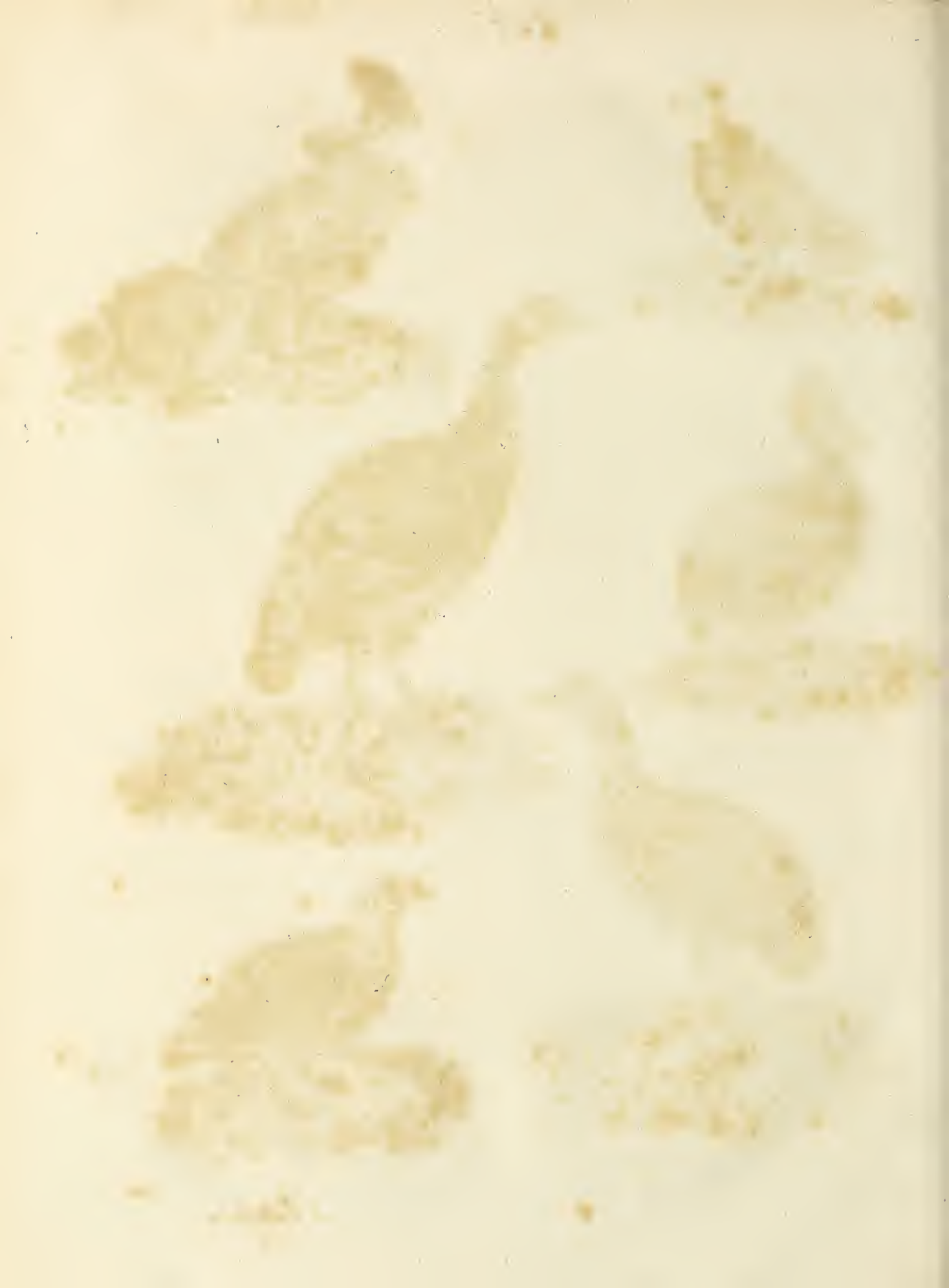
8. Tetrodon hispidus.—Entirely hispid, with bristly papillæ; length two feet; shape, when inflated, like that of tetrodon lagocephalus; colour whitish; upper parts marked across

TETRAO.



1. *T. Montanus*. 2. *T. Umbellus*. 3. *T. Viridis*. 4. *T. Major*. 5. *T. Variatus*. 6. *T. Pictus*.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1827.



the back by three or four semi-decurrent brown bands; whole body beset with small spines.—Found in the Mediterranean and Indian seas. Small remains of this species are said to occur among the petrifications of mount Bolca near Verona.

9. *Tetrodon mola*.—Unarmed, sharp, compressed, rounded; a very short rounded tail; dorsal fin annexed to the anal with oval spiracles. Dr. Shaw has made a distinct genus of the sun-fish under the name of *cephalus*, the characters of which are, that the jaws are bony, and body terminating abruptly, so as to resemble the head of a fish. This genus comprehends the mola, or short sun-fish; the oblong sun-fish, with truncated body, or oblong diodon of Pennant; the variegated, with whitish undulations and spots; and the Palladian *cephalus* or silvery sun-fish, with brownish back, and spiny carinated abdomen.—The mola or short sun-fish, is a native of the European seas. Its general colour is brown, with a silvery cast on the sides and abdomen; the skin rough; the pectoral fins small, rounded, and placed horizontally; the dorsal and anal fins placed opposite, and of a lengthened shape, with rounded tips continued into the tail fin. This fish is sometimes seen lying on its side, on the surface of the water, when it may be easily taken. In the Northern seas it arrives at a vast size, of the length of eight or even of ten feet, and 500 pounds in weight: it is supposed to feed principally on shell-fish, and in the night it is said to exhibit a high degree of phosphoric splendour.

Of this there is a variety, viz. the *truncatus*, unarmed, smooth, compressed, oblong, with a very short tail, the dorsal and anal fins annexed, with lunated spiracles. This is the oblong sun-fish of Pennant.

10. *Tetrodon punctatus*, or spherical brown tetrodon.—With black specks, whiteish abdomen, and very narrow dorsal fin: the tetrodon pointellé of Cépède. Resembling the former.—Found in the Indian seas.

TETSCHEN, DACZIN, or WARTHA, a small town in the north of Bohemia, on the Elbe; 18 miles north of Leutmeritz, and 48 north-by-east of Prague. Population 1600.

TETSO, a small town in the north-east of Hungary; 40 miles north of Nagy-Banya.

TETSWORTH, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire, situated on the river Thames, over which is a bridge which divides it from Wheatley. Population 426; 12½ miles east-south-east of Oxford.

TETTER, *s.* [τετηρ, Sax.] A scab; a scurf; a ring-worm.

A most instant tetter bark'd about
Most lazar like, with vile and loathsome crust,
All my smooth body. *Shakspeare.*

To TETTER, *v. a.* To infect with a tetter.

As for my country I have shed my blood,
Not fearing outward force, so shall my lungs
Coin words till their decay, against those measles,
Which we disdain should tetter us. *Shakspeare.*

TETTIGES, τετιγες, Gr., grasshoppers, a title the Athenians assumed to themselves.

TETTIGOMETRA, a name by which the ancients called the nymph of the cicada, or tetter.

TETTIGONIA, a word used by the ancients to express the smaller species of Cicada.

TETTISH, *adj.* [perhaps a corruption of *tetchy*. *Unused.*] Captious; testy; ill-humoured.—This rogue, if he had been sober, sure had beaten me, he's the most tettish knave. *Beaumont and Fl.*

TETTON, or TEETON, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 3 miles west-north-west of Sandbach.

TETTUA MOTU, a cape on the east-coast of New Zealand, the north-east point of Poverty bay. Lat. 38. 36. N. long. 181. 30. W.

TETUAN, a considerable sea-port of Morocco, in the province of El Garb, on the Mediterranean, immediately within the straits of Gibraltar. A branch of the Atlas, passing

through the province of Tedla, comes to within a few miles of the town. The environs are carefully planted with vineyards and gardens; the grapes are exquisite, and the oranges reckoned by some superior to any in the world. Our fleets entering the Mediterranean, often water and victual in the bay of Tetuan. The coast, however, though safe in a west wind, must be avoided when the wind blows from the east; 30 miles south-east of Tangiers. Lat. 35. 50. N. long. 5. 20. W.

TETWORTH, a hamlet of England, in Huntingdonshire; 6 miles south-by-east of St. Neot's.

TETUAN HEAD, a cape on the west coast of the island of Mindanao. Near it is a harbour, the entrance without danger, except such as may be seen. Lat. 7. 20. N. long. 124. 36. E.

TEUCHITES, in Botany, a name used by some for the *scænanthus* or *schænanthus*; which see.

TEUCRIUM [so named from Teucer, son of Scamander, and father-in-law of Dardanus, king of Troy,] in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillatæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, half-five-cleft, acute, almost equal, gibbous at the base on one side, permanent. Corolla one-petalled, ringent; tube cylindrical, short, ending in an incurved throat; upper lip erect, acute, deeply two-parted beyond the base, the segments at the sides distant; lower lip spreading, trifid; the lateral segments of the same form with the upper lip, almost erect; the middle one very large, and somewhat rounded. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, longer than the upper lip of the corolla and ascending in the cleft of it, prominent. Anthers small. Pistil: germ four-parted. Style filiform, situation and size of the stamens. Stigmas two, slender. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged, fostering the seeds at the bottom. Seeds four, roundish.—The upper lip of the corolla, divided beyond the base and gaping, resembles a corolla destitute of an upper lip.—*Essential Character.* Corolla: upper lip two-parted beyond the base, divaricating where the stamens are.

1. *Teucrium campanulatum*, or small-flowered germander.—Leaves multifid; flowers lateral, solitary.—Native of the Levant, and of Apulia, in moist ground.

2. *Teucrium orientale*, or great-flowered germander.—Leaves multifid, flowers racemed.—Native of the Levant.

3. *Teucrium botrys*, or cut-leaved annual germander.—Leaves multifid; flowers lateral in threes, peduncled. Root annual.—Native of the South of Europe, and of Barbary about Algiers.

4. *Teucrium chamæpitys*, or ground pine.—Leaves trifid, linear, quite entire; flowers sessile, lateral, solitary; stem diffused. Root small, branched, annual.—Native of many parts of Europe, the Levant, Barbary and Virginia. In England, it abounds in Kent and Surry, but otherwise it is a scarce plant.

5. *Teucrium nissolianum*, or trifid-leaved germander.—Leaves trifid and quinquefid, filiform; flowers peduncled, solitary, opposite; stem decumbent.—This is an annual plant.—Native of Spain and Portugal.

6. *Teucrium pseudo-chamæpitys*, or bastard ground pine.—Leaves three-parted, trifid, linear; flowers racemed; stem rough-haired.—Native of Spain, Portugal, the South of France about Marseilles, and Algiers in Barbary.

7. *Teucrium iva*, or musky germander.—Leaves three-cusped, linear; flowers sessile, lateral, solitary. Annual.—Native of the South of Europe, and of Barbary.

8. *Teucrium Mauritanum*, or Moorish germander.—Leaves pinnate-multifid; stem quite simple, erect; bractes subulate-palmate.—Found in Barbary.

9. *Teucrium fruticans*, or narrow-leaved tree germander.—Leaves quite entire, elliptic, tomentose beneath; flowers lateral, solitary, peduncled.—Native of Spain, Sicily, and Corsica, near the coast.

10. *Teucrium latifolium*, or broad-leaved tree germander.—Leaves quite entire, rhombed, acute, villose, tomentose beneath.

11. *Teucrium resupinatum*, or resupine-flowered germander.—Villose, leaves lanceolate, deeply serrate; flowers solitary, sessile; corollas resupine. Roots annual.—Native of Barbary, near Mascar, in clayey fields.

12. *Teucrium ramosissimum*, or branched germander.—Hoary, stem fruticlose, very much branched; branchlets filiform; leaflets obovate, crenate; flowers solitary, axillary.—Native of Barbary, near Cassa, in clefts of rocks; also of Spain.

13. *Teucrium Creticum*, or Cretan germander.—Leaves lanceolate-linear, quite entire; flowers racemed.—Native of Candia and Egypt.

14. *Teucrium marum*, common marum or cat-thyme.—Leaves quite entire, ovate, acute, petioled, tomentose beneath; flowers racemed, all directed one way.—Native of Spain.

15. *Teucrium multiflorum*, or many-flowered germander.—Leaves ovate, smooth above, serrate-toothed; flowers racemed, whorls six-flowered.—Native of Spain.

16. *Teucrium laxmanni*.—Leaves ovate-oblong, quite entire, sessile; flowers solitary, sessile.—Found in Siberia. It is a native also of Hungary and Sclavonia.

17. *Teucrium Sibiricum*, or Siberian germander.—Leaves serrate, ovate; peduncles solitary, three-flowered, the middle flower sessile; bractes linear-lanceolate.—Native of Siberia. Perennial.

18. *Teucrium salicifolium*, or willow-leaved germander.—Leaves lanceolate-elliptic, bluntish, quite entire; calyxes quadrifid, solitary.—Native of the Levant.

19. *Teucrium Asiaticum*, or Asiatic germander.—Leaves lanceolate, repand-serrate, rectangular at the base; flowers solitary.—Native place not known.

20. *Teucrium Cubense*, or Cuba germander.—Leaves wedge-shaped, serrate-gashed, smooth, attenuated into the petiole; flowers solitary, peduncled.—Native of Cuba in moist hedges and meadows; flowering in December and the following months.

21. *Teucrium arduini*.—Leaves ovate, serrate; raceme spiked round, sessile, terminating.—Its native place not known.

22. *Teucrium Canadense*, or nettle-leaved germander.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, serrate; stem erect; raceme round, terminating; whorls six-leaved.—Native of North America.

23. *Teucrium Virginicum*, or Virginian germander.—Leaves ovate, unequally serrate; racemes terminating.—Native of Virginia.

24. *Teucrium inflatum*, or three-spiked germander.—Leaves oblong, acuminate, unequally serrate, pubescent; spikes sessile, terminating; calyxes inflated, villose.—It is a native of Jamaica, and pretty frequent in the lower parts of St. Mary's, where it grows very luxuriantly.

25. *Teucrium hircanicum*, or betony-leaved germander.—Leaves cordate-oblong, obtuse; stem brachiate, dichotomous; spikes very long, terminating, sessile, spiral.—Native of Persia.

26. *Teucrium abutiloides*, or mulberry-leaved germander.—Leaves cordate, toothed, acuminate; racemes lateral, nodding.—Native of Madeira.

27. *Teucrium scorodonia*, sage-leaved germander, or wood sage.—Leaves cordate, serrate, petioled; racemes lateral, directed one way; stem erect. Root perennial, creeping. Stems a foot and half or two feet high, four-cornered, nearly upright, hairy, leafy, hard, often purple, panicle-racemed. Leaves opposite, wrinkled, hairy, veiny and wrinkled like sage, somewhat glutinous, strong-smelling, bitter. Flowers in pairs, on long opposite naked racemes, pedicelled. Corolla straw-coloured, woolly; tube longer than the calyx, upper lip none, but the top of the tube slightly cleft. Stamens violet-coloured.—Native of Europe and Morocco, in woody and hilly situations, among bushes and under hedges, where the soil is dry and stony: in such places frequent in most parts of Great Britain; flowering from July to September.

28. *Teucrium pseudo-scorodonia*, or bastard wood sage.

—Shrubby; leaves cordate, toothed, petioled, hoary beneath; racemes directed one way.—Native of Barbary.

29. *Teucrium massiliense*, or sweet-scented germander.—Leaves ovate, wrinkled, gash-crenate, hoary; stems erect; racemes straight, directed one way.—Native of the South of France, Candia, and Cochinchina.

30. *Teucrium betonicum*, or hoary germander.—Leaves lanceolate, crenate, tomentose, hoary beneath; racemes terminating, flowering stem brachiate.—Native of Madeira.

31. *Teucrium scordium*, or water germander.—Leaves oblong, sessile, tooth-serrate; flowers axillary, in pairs, peduncled; stem diffused.—Native of many parts of Europe.

32. *Teucrium chamædrys*, common or wall germander.—Leaves subovate, petioled, gash-crenate; flowers axillary, peduncled, tern; stem round, hairy. Root perennial, creeping. Stems bushy, almost upright, six or eight inches high, round, leafy, hairy. Leaves hairy, attenuated at the base, where they are entire, in the other parts deeply cut: from each axil a bunch of smaller leaves. Flowers from the upper axils, often three together, but sometimes single, opposite, pedicelled, forming a leafy spike.—Native of many parts of Europe, the islands of the Archipelago, and Palestine near Jerusalem. In England scarcely indigenous, being found chiefly on ruins of old buildings. There are also *Teucrium heterophyllum*. *Teucrium lucidum*. *Teucrium flavum*. *Teucrium bracteatum*. *Teucrium montanum*. *Teucrium supinum*. *Teucrium Pyrenaicum*. *Teucrium polium*. *Teucrium capitatum*. *Teucrium pumilum*. *Teucrium spinosum*. *Teucrium corymbiferum*. *Teucrium lævigatum*. *Teucrium trifoliatum*. *Teucrium Gnaphalodes*. *Teucrium villosum*. *Teucrium undulatum*. *Teucrium thea*. *Teucrium trifidum*. *Teucrium parviflorum*. *Teucrium brevifolium*. *Teucrium regium*. *Teucrium Japonicum*. *Teucrium salviastrum*. *Teucrium scordioides*. *Teucrium nitidum*. *Teucrium thymifolium*. *Teucrium rotundifolium*. *Teucrium buxifolium*. *Teucrium flavescens*. *Teucrium valentinum*. *Teucrium Lusitanicum*. *Teucrium pycnophyllum*. *Teucrium verticillatum*. *Teucrium libanitis*. *Teucrium angustissimum*. *Teucrium cœleste*.

Propagation and Culture.—All the species may be propagated by seeds, cuttings, or parting the roots, always remembering to treat them according to the climate from which they originally came.

TEVERONE, the ancient *Anio*, a river of Italy, in the State of the Church, which joins the Tiber, a short distance above Rome.

TEVERSALL, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-by-north of Mansfield.

TEVERSHAM, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; 4 miles north-east-by-east of Cambridge.

TEVESAR, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 2. 2. S. long. 119. 21. E.

TEUFFEN, a large and finely situated village of the Swiss canton of Appenzel, in what is called the Outer Rood; 2 miles south-south-east of St. Gall. It contains, with the surrounding parish, 3300 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in spinning and weaving cotton.

TEVIOT, or ΤΙΒΙΟΤ, a river of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, which has its rise in Moss-paul, on the confines of Dumfriesshire; takes a course nearly north-east, being joined by Allan water at Raesknows, by Borthwick water at Martin-house, by the Slittrick at Hawick, the Rule at Cavers, the Ale below Aucrum, the Jed two miles below Jedburgh, the Oxnam near Crailing, the Kale at Eckford, and other tributary streams, and unites with the Tweed at Kelso. From this river, the county of Roxburgh has its ancient name of Teviotdale.

TEVIOTDALE, a district of Scotland, so named from the river Teviot.

TEURERT, or TEVRERT, a town of Fez, on the borders of Algiers; 40 miles east-north-east of Teza.

TEUSACA, formerly a city of New Granada, in the province of Bogota, of which nothing now remains but a miserable village of Indians.

TEUSCHNITZ, a small town of the interior of Germany, in Bavaria; 20 miles east-north-east of Coburg.

TEUSCARUTZ, a petty town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, with 700 inhabitants; 21 miles north-east of Coburg, and 19 north of Culmbach.

TEUTATES, a name or attribute of the Supreme Being, which was worshipped by the Gauls and Britons as a particular divinity. It is evidently compounded of the two British words "Deu-tatt," which signify God the parent or creator.

"Et quibus immifis placetur sanguine divo
Teutatus; horrensque feris altanibus Hesus."

Lucan.

TEUTHIS, in the Linnæan system of Ichthyology, a genus of the abdominal fishes; the characters of which are, that the head is a little truncated on the fore part; that the branchiostege membrane has five rays; and that the teeth are equal, rigid, and near each other, and forming a regular chain. Linnæus and Gmelin mention two species; viz., *hepatus*, and *javus* or *java*. This genus is now annulled, and the species are transferred to *Acanthurus* and *Chaetodon*.

TEUTILA, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Oaxaca, containing 164 families of Indians; 29 leagues east-south-east of Mexico.

TEUTILAN, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name, in the intendency of Oaxaca. It contains 237 families of Indians, besides some Spaniards and mestizoes. Lat. 17. 2. N. long. 96. 30. W.

TEUTLEBEN, a village in the central part of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Gotha; 4 miles west of Gotha.

TEUTO'NIC, *adj.* Spoken by the Teutones, or ancient Germans.—Our knowledge of the northern literature is so scanty, that of words undoubtedly *Teutonic* the original is not always to be found in any ancient language. *Dr. Johnson*.

TEUTO'NIC, *s.* The language of the Teutones: by ellipsis.—The Icelandic is the mother of the modern Swedish and Danish tongues, in like manner as the Anglo-Saxon is the parent of our English. Both these mother-tongues are dialects of the ancient Gothic or *Teutonic*. *Bp. Percy*.

TEUTONIC, something belonging to the Teutones, an ancient people of Germany, inhabiting chiefly along the coast of the German ocean.

The Teutonic language is the ancient language of Germany, which is ranked among the mother tongues. It is now called the German, or Dutch, and is distinguished into *upper* and *lower*.

The *upper* has two notable dialects; viz., 1. The Scandinavian, Danish, or perhaps Gothic; to which belongs the languages spoken in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and Iceland. 2. The Saxon, to which belong the several languages of the English, Scots, Frisian, and those on the north of the Elbe.

To the *lower* belong the Low Dutch, Flemish, &c., spoken through the Netherlands, &c.

The learned Mr. Whitaker has lately, in his History of Manchester, controverted the opinion of those who affirm the English language to be genuinc and unmixed Teutonic, and asserted it to be of Celtic origin. Mr. Drake, in his Essay on the Origin of the English Language, Archæol. vol. 5., has endeavoured to support the former opinion, by comparing part of Ulfhila's Gothic version of the gospel of St. John, executed above 1400 years ago, with the same in our present translation, and evincing the striking affinity between the two languages; notwithstanding the different mediums through which they have descended, and the many ages that have elapsed since they have been separated. Every circumstance, he observes, that constitutes the true genius of language, is visibly derived to the English from the Goths and Saxons. The articles, flexure of the genitive case, prepositions and auxiliary verbs, are all absolutely Teutonic. The English, he says, is clearly the natural descendant of the Gothic or Teutonic; and he challenges the deepest inquirer into the Celtic to produce so decisive a proof of any affinity

of that tongue with ours. The British, he adds, has little or no resemblance to the English. Many of their terms may have gained admission among us, as, from the vicinity and long intercourse we have had with that people, may necessarily be imagined, but their idioms and genius are as radically and essentially different as any two languages can possibly be.

TEUTONIC ORDER, a military religious order of knights, established towards the close of the twelfth century; and thus called, because it consisted principally of Germans, or Teutones.

The origin, &c. of this order were thus: the Christians, under Guy of Lusignan, laying siege to Acre, or Acon, a city of Syria, on the borders of the Holy Land, at which siege were present, Richard king of England; Philip Augustus of France, &c., some Germans of Bremen and Lubec, touched with compassion for the sick and wounded of the army, who wanted common necessities, set on foot a kind of hospital under a tent, which they made of a ship's sail; and here betook themselves to a charitable attendance on them.

The habit of this order was a white mantle, with a black cross.

TEUW, a small island in the Eastern seas. Lat. 7. 11. S. long. 129. 20. E.

TEUZITLAN, a town of Mexico, and capital of a district of the same name, containing about 600 families of Mexican Indians, Spaniards, mestizoes, and mulattoes; 120 miles east-north-east of Mexico.

TEW, *s.* [*towe*, a hempen rope, Dutch.] Materials for any thing. *Skinner*.—An iron chain. *Ainsworth*.

To **TEW**, *v. a.* [*capian*, Sax.] To work; to beat so as to soften: of leather we say to *taw*. This is a naval expression applied to hemp: to *taw* hemp.—To tease; to tumble over or about; to pull.

Do not anger 'em,

But go in quietly, and slip in softly,
They will so *tew* you else.

Beaum. and Fl.

TEW, GREAT, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3½ miles north-north-east of Neat Enstone. Population 457.

TEW, LITTLE, a township in the foregoing parish.

TEW'WEL, *s.* [*tuyau* or *tuyal*, Fr.] In the back of the forge, against the fire-place, is fixed a thick iron plate, and a taper pipe in it above five inches long, called a *tewel*, or *tewel* iron, which comes through the back of the forge; into this *tewel* is placed the bellows. *Moron*.

Soche a smoke—

As—where that men melte lead,
Lo, all on high from the *tewwel*.

Chaucer.

TEWENHAVEN, a harbour of the Baltic, on the east coast of the island of Dago, on the coast of Esthonia, near Revel.

TEWIN, or **TEWING**, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 3¼ miles east-south-east of Welwyn. Population 438.

TEWKESBURY, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Gloucester, situated in a delightful and fertile vale on the eastern bank of the river Avon, near its confluence with the Severn, and between two other streams called the Carron, and the Swillgate, which flow into the Avon, the one just above the town, and the other a short distance below it. The access to the town is by several commodious bridges. That over the Avon is a stone structure of considerable length. The town is pretty large, handsome, and populous. Tewkesbury abbey was founded in the year 715, by two Saxon brothers, Dodo and Odo, who were then dukes of great opulence and high consideration in the kingdom of Mercia, and the first lords of the manor here. Besides the church, Tewkesbury contains meeting-houses for Independents, Quakers, Baptists, and Methodists. The town-hall is a handsome building. Tewkesbury was formerly famous for its manufactures; it had once a considerable share in the elthing business, but this trade has long since declined. It was likewise noted for its mustard. At present the

the chief manufacture carried on in the town is that of stocking frame-work knitting, particularly in cotton. A considerable trade is also carried on in malting, and some business in the making of nails. Tewkesbury was incorporated by a charter granted by queen Elizabeth, and confirmed by James I.; but in the reign of James II., the corporate officers surrendered their seal to that monarch, who in his second year re-incorporated them by the names of the mayor, aldermen, and common council. The revolution which immediately followed prevented the charter from being carried into effect, and the town remained in a state of uncertainty as to its government till the 13th of William III., when the present form was ordained. By this the government of the town is vested in two bailiffs and four justices, annually chosen, and a recorder. The corporate body consists of 24 principal burgesses, and the same number of assistants; but as each principal burgess holds also the office of assistant, the members of the corporation are now uniformly confined to 24 persons, instead of 48, as formerly. The town sends two members to parliament, the privilege of which was obtained from James I. in 1609. The right of election is possessed by the freemen and freeholders, who amount to about 500. It was at Tewkesbury that the last battle was fought between the adherents of the houses of York and Lancaster. This battle, it is well known, proved fatal to the Lancastrians. The field on which it was fought is still called the Bloody Meadow, and is situated about half a mile from the town. In the civil wars in the reign of Charles I., Tewkesbury was the scene of many severe contests between the contending forces. Markets on Wednesday and Saturday, and various annual fairs; 10 miles north of Gloucester, and 102 west-north-west of London. Lat. 51. 59. N. long. 2. 8. W.

TEWKESBURY, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Quebec, on the north side of the St. Lawrence, except a small part, which is in the county of Northumberland.

TEWKSBURY, a post township of the United States, in Middlesex county, Massachusetts, 23 miles north of Boston. Population 943.

TEWKSBURY, a township of the United States, in Hunterdon county, New Jersey. Population 1308.

To TEWTAW, *v. a.* [formed from *teu* by reduplication.] To beat; to break.—The method and way of watering, pilling, breaking, and *tewtawing* of hemp and flax, is a particular business. *Mortimer.*

TEXAS, a track of country of North America, claimed by the United States, as a part of Louisiana, and by Spain as a part of the Internal Provinces, and included in the intendency of San Louis Potosi. It is bounded north by Red river, east by the state of Louisiana, south by the gulf of Mexico, and west by the Del Norte; containing upwards of 100,000 square miles.

TEXEL, an island of the Netherlands, at the entrance of Zuyder Zee, separated from the continent of North Holland by the narrow channel called the Mars-diep. Its form is oblong; 12 miles in length, and about 6 in breadth. It is secured from the sea by strong dikes. Its soil is well fitted for sheep-pasture, and it has long been noted for its cheese. Besides the petty town of Texel, it contains six villages, and has in all about 5000 inhabitants.

TEXMELUCAN, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 150 families of Spaniards, mestizoes, and mulattoes, and 94 Indians.—There is another settlement of the same name in the same intendency, containing 91 families of Indians.

TEXT, *s.* [*texte*, Fr.; *textus*, Lat.] That on which a comment is written.

We expect your next
Should be no comment but a *text*,
To tell how modern beasts are vext.

A sentence of Scripture.

In religion
What error but some sober brow
Will bless it, and approve it with a *text*.

Waller.

Shakspeare.

To TEXT, *v. a.* To write as a text.

Indifferent judges might condemn me for
A most malicious slanderer, nay *text* it
Upon my forehead.

Beaum. and Fl.

TEXT-HAND, *s.* A particular kind of large handwriting: so called, because formerly the *text* was ever written in a large hand, and the comment in small. *Pegge.*

Once she writ only *text-hand*, when
She scribbled giants, and no men.

Cleveland.

TEXTILE, *adj.* [*textilis*, Lat.] Woven; capable of being woven.—The placing of the tangible parts in length or transverse, as in the warp and woof of *textiles*. *Bacon.*—The materials of them were not from any herb, as other *textiles*, but from a stone called amiantus. *Wilkins.*

TEXTMAN, *s.* A man ready in quotation of texts.—Men's daily occasions require the doing of a thousand things, which it would puzzle the best *textman* readily to bethink himself of a sentence in the Bible, clear enough to satisfy a scrupulous conscience of the lawfulness of. *Sanderson.*

TEXTORIAL, *adj.* [*textorius*, Lat.] Belonging to weaving.—From the cultivation of the *textorial* arts among the orientals came Darius's wonderful cloth. *Warton.*

TEXTURINE, *adj.* [*texturina*, Lat.] Relating to weaving.—It is a wonderful artifice how newly hatched maggots, not the parent animal, because she emits no web, nor hath any *texturine* art, can convolve the stubborn leaf, and bind it with the thread it weaves from its body. *Derham.*

TEXTUAL, *adj.* [*textuel*, Fr.] Contained in the text.—They seek to rout and disarray the wise and well-couched order of St. Paul's own words, using a certain *textual* riot to chop off the hands of the word presbytery. *Milton.*—Serving for texts.—Here shall your majestie find—speculation interchanged with experience, positive theology with polemical, *textual* with discursive. *Bp. Hall.*

TEXTUALIST, *s.* One ready in citing texts.—How nimble *textualists* and grammarians for the tongue the rabbins are, their comments can witness. But, as in Chaucer, "the greatest clerks are not the wisest men;" so, among them, these that are so great *textualists* are not best at the text. *Lightfoot.*

TEXTUARY, *adj.* Contained in the text.—He extends the exclusion unto twenty days, which in the *textuary* sense is fully accomplished in one. *Brown.*—Serving as a text; authoritative.—I see no ground why his reason should be *textuary* to ours, or that God intended him an universal headship. *Glanville.*

TEXTUARIST, or TEXTUARY, *s.* [*textuaire*, Fr.] One ready in the text of Scripture; a divine well versed in Scripture.—Common *textuaries* abolish laws, as the rabble demolish images; in the zeal of their hammers oft violating the sepulchres of good men. *Milton.*

TEXTUIST, *s.* One ready in quotation of texts.—I remember the little that our Saviour could prevail about this doctrine of charity against the crabbed *textuists* of his time. *Milton.*

TEXTURE, *s.* [*texture*, Fr., *Cotgrave*; *textus*, Lat.] The act of weaving.—Skins, although a natural habit unto all before the invention of *texture*, was something more unto Adam. *Brown.*—A web; a thing woven.

Others, far in the grassy dale,
Their humble *texture* weave.

Thomson.

Manner of weaving with respect either to form or matter.—A veil of richest *texture* wrought she wears. *Pope.*—Disposition of the parts of bodies; combination of parts.

Spirits—nor in their liquid *texture* mortal wound
Receive, no more than can the fluid air.

Milton.

TEXUPA, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Oaxaca, which contains 192 families of Indians, and some of Spaniards, mestizoes and mulattoes.

TEY, THEY, or TEISE, a small river of England, in Sussex, which runs into the Beala.

TEY, GREAT, a parish of England, in the county of Essex

Essex. Population 552; 3½ miles north-east-by-east of Great Coggeshall.

TEY, LITTLE, a hamlet in the foregoing parish.

TEY, MERKS, another parish in the same county, so called from the family name of Merks, its ancient proprietors; half a mile east of Little Tey.

TEYNHAM, a parish of England, in Kent; 4 miles east of Sittingbourn. Population 498.

TEYNYA, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the south-west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 52. N. long. 121. 40. E.

TEYSING, or TAUZIM, a small town of Bohemia; 25 miles north-north-west of Pilsen, and 60 west of Prague. Population 1300.

TEYUPA, a small river of South America, in Paraguay, which runs south-south-west, and enters the Yaquini.

TEZA, a town of Fez, in Africa, on the borders of the province of Rif; 50 miles north-north-east of Fez.

TEZCUCO, one of the five lakes in the valley of Mexico, at the extremity of which, about three miles distant, the city is placed.

TEZCUCO, a town of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico. It is situated on Lake Tezcuco. It contains 500 inhabitants, Spaniards and Indians. Lat. 19. 31. N. long. 98. 52. W.

TEZCUCA, a settlement of Mexico, in the district of Tezcuco, containing 186 Indian families.

TEZONTEPEC, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Oaxaca, containing 180 families of Indians.—There are two other inconsiderable settlements of this name in Mexico.

TEZONTLA, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Mexico, containing 116 families of Indians.

TEZYOUTE, an assemblage of magnificent ruins, in the southern part of the province of Constantina, in Algiers. Besides the splendid remains of the city gates, seven of which are still standing, there are the seats and upper part of an amphitheatre; the frontispiece of a beautiful Ionic temple, dedicated to Esculapius; a large oblong chamber, with a great gate on each side of it, intended perhaps for a triumphal arch; and the Cubbel Ar-rasah, that is, "the cupola of the bride," as the Arabs call a beautiful little mausoleum, built in the form of a dome, supported by Corinthian pillars; 70 miles south-south-west of Constantina. Lat. 35. 24. N. long. 5. 58. E.

TFENI, a village of Lower Egypt, on the Nile; 10 miles south-east of Rosetta.

THACK, *s.* [ðace, Sax.] Thatch: a common northern word, and old in our language. Hence also a *thackster*, a thatcher. *Prompt. Parv.*

They would in houses of *thacke*
Their lives leade.

Chaucer.

THADA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Choco.

THAHAR KIEMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary; 15 miles north-east of Teitchitar.

THAKEHAM, a parish of England, in Sussex; 6½ miles north-west of Steyning. Population 522.

THAL, a large village of the north-east of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall; 1 mile west-north-west of Rheineck.

THALAMA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Antioquia, on the shore of the river of its name.

THALAMEGUS, among the Ancients, a ship of pleasure, or yacht, used by princes. It was always provided with a good cabin, or bed-chamber.

THALAMI *Nervorum Opticorum*, in Anatomy, two eminences in the brain.

THALAMII, or THALAMITÆ, among the Ancients, those rowers who sat in the lowest part of the ship.

THALAMIUM, a port-hole, through which the oars of the rowers in the bottom of the ship went.

THALAMUS, in Botany, a term used to express that part of the flower in the capitated or flosculous-flowered plants, where the embryo fruits of every separate floscule are lodged, and where afterwards the seeds are contained. This is the

bottom of the cup, in the central part of which it adheres to the stalk.

THALE, a large village of Prussian Saxony, in the principality of Halberstadt. Population 1200.

THALERN, a large village of Lower Austria, on the Danube, near Mautern. In the neighbourhood there are some coal mines.

THALES, the founder of the Ionic school, and of the scientific method of philosophising among the Greeks, was born of Phœnician parents, at Miletus, in the first year of the 35th Olympiad, or about the year 580 B.C. He acquired wealth and distinction among his countrymen, and was employed at an early age in public affairs. In search of wisdom, he travelled to Crete, and afterwards to Egypt. From the priests at Memphis in the latter country, he is said by several writers to have gained his knowledge of philosophy and mathematics. Upon his return to Miletus, he was universally respected for his extraordinary wisdom and learning; and his acquaintance was eagerly courted by all who wished to improve in knowledge or to be ranked among philosophers. He was not prevented, however, by these engagements from prosecuting his mathematical, philosophical, and metaphysical studies. In this course of improvement and usefulness, and of imparting, as well as of acquiring knowledge, he protracted his life to the great age of ninety years, and died, through mere infirmity, whilst he was attending the Olympic games. Thales was ranked among the seven wise men of Greece, and might justly be reckoned one of this number, whether we consider his scientific attainments, or the moral maxims and aphorisms which are ascribed to him.

THALETAS of Crete, a famous lyric poet, celebrated by all antiquity as a *medical* musician, is said to have delivered the Lacedæmonians from the pestilence by the sweetness of his lyre.

THALGAU, a market town of upper Austria, in the circle of Salzburg, in the valley of the same name.

THALHEIM, a large village in the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, with 1100 inhabitants, all Protestants; 5 miles south of Heilbronn.

THALIA, [so named by Linnæus, in memory of John Thalius, a physician at Nordbuys], in Botany, a genus of the class monandria, order monogynia, natural order of scitaminae, cannæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, scales three, very small, ovate, ciliate, permanent, crowning the germ. Corolla: petals five, superior, shrivelling, in a double row; three outer longer, oblong, waved, connate at the base, spreading; two inner smaller, from erect spreading, oblong, connate with each other and the nectary at the base. Nectary petal-shaped, opposite to the smaller petals, lanceolate, acuminate, concave. Stamina: filament one, awl-shaped, inserted into the nectary; anther club-shaped. Pistil: germ turbinate, crowned with the calyx; style filiform, bent in; stigma leafy, bent in. Pericarp: drupe oblong, gibbous, one-celled. Seed one, awl-shaped, bent in.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three leaved. Corolla five petalled; two inner petals less. Nectary lanceolate, concave. Drupe with a one-celled nut.

1. *Thalia geniculata*.—Corollas five-petalled, nectary lanceolate. Leaves alternate, ovate oblong, with transverse parallel nerves. Stem taller than a man, quite simple. The American Indians use it for a dart wherewith to kill animals.

2. *Thalia cannæformis*.—Corollas six-petalled, nectary bifid, erect. Culm solid, round smooth, branched. Branches jointed, divaricating. Leaves on the stem, alternate, spreading.—Native of Mallicollo, one of the New Hebrides, in Australasia; and found in the Andaman isles, and at Rangoon.

THALICTRUM [of Pliny, from *Thallos* vireo: to flourish or look green], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order polyginia, natural order of multisiliquæ, ranunculaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx, none, unless the corolla be taken for it. Corolla: petals four, roundish, obtuse, concave, caducous. Stamina: filaments

very many, wider at top, compressed, longer than the corolla. Anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: styles very many, very short. Germs many, commonly pedicelled, roundish. Styles none. Stigmas thickish. Pericarp, none. Seeds many, grooved, ovate, tailless. *Thalictrum tuberosum* and *cornutum* have a five-petalled corolla.—*Thalictrum dioicum* has the sexes distinct. *Thalictrum aquilegifolium* and *contortum* have the seeds pedicelled, pendulous, and three-sided with wings. Number of stamens and pistils different in the several species.—*Essential Character.* Calyx none. Petals four or five. Seeds tailless.

1. *Thalictrum Alpinum*, or Alpine meadow rue.—Stem quite simple, almost naked; raceme simple terminating. The root consists of a few simple fibres, and creeps just below the surface by horizontal runners. It is a delicate little plant, scarcely a span high, and truly alpine.—Native of Lapland, Wales, and Scotland, in wet black mould in the clefts of rocks, or on the spongy margins of little rills on very high mountains, and not rare in such situations. It is perennial, and flowers early in summer.

2. *Thalictrum fetidum*, or fetid meadow rue.—Stem panicled, filiform very branching, leafy. Stem about six or seven inches high. Flowers in loose panicles, small, and of an herbaceous white colour.—Native of the South of France, Switzerland, the Valais and Piedmont.

3. *Thalictrum tuberosum*, or tuberous-rooted meadow rue.—Flowers five-petalled, root tuberous. This has knobbed roots.—Native of Spain.

4. *Thalictrum cornuti*, or Canadian meadow rue.—Flowers dioecious, leaflets ovate trifid, panicles terminating. Height three feet. Flowers in many pale-purple heads, five petalled, white. There is a variety of this, which is somewhat smaller, and has pale purple filaments, which in the other are white.—Native of North America.

5. *Thalictrum dioicum*, or dioecious meadow rue.—Flowers dioecious, leaves roundish cordate lobed, lobes obtuse, peduncles axillary shorter than the leaf. Height scarcely a foot. Stem straight.—Native of North America.

6. *Thalictrum elatum*, or tall meadow rue.—Leaflets ovate, subcordate, subtrifid; panicled terminating; flowers erect; stem roundish.—Native of Hungary.

7. *Thalictrum majus*, or great meadow rue.—Leaflets roundish, subcordate trifid, glaucous beneath; panicle leafy, flowers drooping.—Native of Austria and Hungary in woody places. It has been discovered in England, by Mr. Robson, on a bushy hill at Baysdale near Darlington, and also on the margin of Ullswater in Cumberland.

8. *Thalictrum medium*, or middle meadow rue.—Leaflets oblong, wedge-shaped, acute trifid, the uppermost undivided lanceolate, flowers nearly upright.—Native of Hungary on hills.

9. *Thalictrum minus*, or small meadow rue.—Leaves tripinnate, leaflets trifid glaucous, flowers panicled drooping. Root fibrous. Stem almost upright, a foot high, flexuose, grooved; glaucous with a blueish bloom, leafy panicled. Lower leaves very large, patulous, tripinnate almost from the base; leaflets cordate or wedge-shaped, trifid, sometimes gashed, smooth, glaucous. Panicle spreading, compound. Flowers pedicelled, drooping. Petals four, elliptic, glaucous-purple. Seeds grooved.—Native of many parts of Europe, in meadows. In Britain it occurs in various parts of the country in calcareous soils; but being found only in such, it is by no means a common plant.

10. *Thalictrum rugosum*, or rough meadow rue.—Stem striated, leaves wrinkled veined, lobules blunt.—Native of North America.

11. *Thalictrum Sibiricum*, or Siberian meadow rue.—Leaves three-parted, leaflets subreflexed, sharply cut, flowers drooping.—Native of Siberia and Armenia.

12. *Thalictrum squarrosum*.—Leaflets trifid and undivided, petioles embracing, membranaceous winged flowers drooping.—Native of Siberia.

13. *Thalictrum purpurascens*.—Leaves three-parted, stem twice as high as the leaves, flowers drooping.—Native of Canada.

14. *Thalictrum angustifolium*, or narrow-leaved meadow rue.—Leaflets lanceolate-linear, quite entire.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Carniola, and Italy.

15. *Thalictrum flavum*, or common meadow rue.—Leaves bipinnate, leaflets trifid, stem grooved, panicled branched very much, and contracted, flowers erect. Root yellow. Stem two or three feet high, upright, simple below, panicled above, smooth, so strongly furrowed, as to be almost angular, leafy. Leaves alternate, twice compounded in a ternate order; their common footstalk with a short sheathing base and a toothed intrafoliaceous stipule; leaflets somewhat wedge-shaped, commonly trifid, but sometimes undivided, entire, varying much in breadth and sharpness, veiny; glaucous beneath.—Native of Europe: frequent with us in wet meadows, and on the banks of rivers and ditches: flowering in June.

Thalictrum simplex. *Thalictrum lucidum.* *Thalictrum aquilegifolium.* *Thalictrum contortum.* *Thalictrum petaloideum.* *Thalictrum styloideum.* *Thalictrum Japonicum.*

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are generally propagated by parting their roots in September, when the leaves begin to decay, and they may take fresh root before frost comes on. They may be planted in almost any soil or situation, provided it be not very hot and dry; but they mostly prefer a fresh light soil, and a shady situation.

THALLITE, in Mineralogy. See MINERALOGY.

THALMESSINGEN, a petty town of the south-west of Germany, in Bavaria; 13 miles north of Eichstadt.

THALWEIL, a large village of Switzerland, in the canton of Zurich, on the west coast of the lake of Zurich, and 6 miles from that town.

THAME, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Oxford. It is situated on a river of the same name, which is navigable for barges, and runs into the Thames at Dorchester, in this county. The parish contains about 4600 acres of land, and is divided into six hamlets or liberties, termed Old Thame, New Thame, Priestend, Thame Park, Moreton, and North Weston. A school, once of much celebrity, and some alms-houses, were founded here by John, lord Williams. The school-house is a large and handsome building, situated near the church; and the school-room is of noble dimensions, and of very appropriate form.

During the civil wars of the 17th century, it was unhappily surrounded by garrisons of the contending parties, and experienced its full share of the miseries of the period. Antony Wood, the Oxford antiquary, who was at that time a student in the town, has left a minute account of several skirmishes, to which he was witness. The celebrated lord chief justice Holt was a native of this place. Market on Tuesday, and two annual fairs; 13 miles east of Oxford, and 45 north-west of London. Lat. 51. 45. N. long. 0. 59. W.

THAMES, one of the most noted rivers of Great Britain, whether we consider the length of its course, its body of water, or the vast commerce of which it is the centre. The source of this celebrated river has given rise to some dispute, its origin having been ascribed to different springs on the borders of Gloucestershire and Wiltshire; which form their union previous to their reaching Oxfordshire. Cricklade in Wiltshire is the central town of this district, and some will have the source of the Thames to be a clear fountain in its vicinity, while others again take the rivulets which advance from Swindon and Highworth in Wiltshire (one of which is called the Rey); and many argue for the Churn of Gloucestershire, which rises in the hilly track of the Cotteswold, encircling the vale of Cheltenham, and flows to the south-east, by Cirencester, and through the extensive woods of Lord Bathurst, to Cricklade. The dispute is not of consequence, as none of these fountains in their origin differ materially from a common rivulet. These inconsiderable streams unite near Lechlade, where the river becomes navigable for barges. About a mile below its source the river may properly be said to form a constant current; which, though not more than nine feet wide in the summer, yet, in the winter, becomes such a torrent, as to overflow the meadows for many miles round. But, in the summer,

summer, the Thames-head is so dry, as to appear nothing but a large dell, interspersed with stones and weeds. From Somerford the stream winds to Cricklade, where it unites with many other rivulets. Approaching Kemsford, it again enters its native county, dividing it from Berks, at Inglesham. It widens considerably in its way to Lechlade; and being there joined by the Lech and Coln, at the distance of 138 miles from London, it becomes navigable for vessels of 90 tons. After this junction the stream bears the classic name of the Isis. At Ensham, in its course north-east to Oxford, is the first bridge of stone, a handsome one of three arches. After receiving the Windrush and the Evenlode, the river passes by the ruins of Godstow nunnery, and reaches Oxford, turning round the city towards the north-east. It is here joined by the Charwell, which, flowing from the north by Banbury, and passing on the eastern side of Oxford, through the magnificent bridge of Magdalen, almost along with the Isis, insulates the city and university of Oxford. After its junction with the Charwell, it proceeds to Abingdon, and thence to Dorchester, where it receives the Thame. Continuing its course south-east by Wallingford to Reading, and forming a boundary to the counties of Berks, Bucks, Surrey, Middlesex, Essex, and Kent, it washes the towns of Henley, Marlow, Maidenhead, Windsor, Eton, Egham, Staines, Laleham, Chertsey, Weybridge, Shepperton, Walton, Sunbury, East and West Moulsey, Hampton, Thames-Ditton, Kingston, Teddington, Twickenham, Richmond, Isleworth, Brentford, Kew, Mortlake, Barnes, Chiswick, Hammersmith, Putney, Fulham, Wandsworth, Battersea, Chelsea, and Lambeth. Then, on the north bank of the river are Westminster and London; and, on the opposite side, Southwark; forming together one continued city, extending to Limehouse and Deptford; and hence the river proceeds to Greenwich, Erith, Greenhithe, Gray's-Thurrock, Gravesend, and Leigh, into the ocean. It receives, in its course from Dorchester, the rivers Kennet, Loddon, Coln, Wey, Mole, Wandle, Lea, Roding, Darent, and Medway.

The tide flows up the Thames as high as Richmond, which, following the winding of the river, is 70 miles from the ocean; a greater distance than the tide is carried by any other river in Europe. The water is esteemed extremely wholesome, and fit for use in long voyages, in which it will work itself perfectly fine.

THAMES, a river of New Zealand.

THAMES, a river of the United States, in Connecticut, which is formed by the Shetucket and Yantic, at Norwich, and flows south into Long Island sound, 2 miles below New London. It is navigable through its whole course.

THAMES, formerly called RIVERIE A LA FRANCHE, a river of Upper Canada, which rises in the interior, and after pursuing a serpentine course, in a direction nearly south-west, discharges itself into Lake St. Claire.

THAMESBRUCK, or THOMASBRUCK, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Erfurt, on the Unstrut; 11 miles east-south-east of Muhlhausen.

THAMMUZ, in Mythology, is a name under which the Phœnicians worshipped Adonis or Osiris.

THAMMUZ, in Chronology, a name given by the Jews to the tenth month of the civil year, containing twenty-nine days, and answering to our June.

THAMYRIS, in Mythology, called by Homer Κίθαριστής, one who plays on the cithara, was the son of Philammon. Plutarch, in his Dialogue on Music, tells us that Thamyris was born in Thrace, the country of Orpheus, and had the sweetest and most sonorous voice of any bard of his time. Homer, in his catalogue of ships, where he speaks of the cities under the dominion of Nestor, mentions Dorion as the place where Thamyris contended with the Muses, whom he had the arrogance to challenge to a trial of skill in poetry and music. The conditions and consequences of this contention are fully described by the poet.

“And Dorion, fan'd for Thamyris' disgrace,
Superior once of all the tuneful race,
Till, vain of mortals' empty praise, he strove
To match the seed of cloud-compelling Jove!”

Too daring bard! whose unsuccessful pride
Th' immortal Muses in their art defy'd:
Th' avenging Muses of the light of day
Depriv'd his eyes, and snatch'd his voice away;
No more his heav'nly voice was heard to sing,
His hand no more awak'd the silver string.” *Iliad.*

THAN, *conjunction*, [*than*, Goth.; *þanne*, Sax.] A particle placed in comparison after the comparative adjective or adverb, noting a less degree of the quality compared in the word that follows *than*: as, Monarchy is better than anarchy. The hawk flies more swiftly than the pigeon.

Were we not better to fall once with virtue,
Than draw a wretched and dishonour'd breath? *B. Jonson.*

THANE, *s.* [*þegn*, Sax.; meaning originally a *servant*. The (Anglo-Saxon) nobles were called *thanes* or *servants*, for “as it was honourable to be followed by a numerous train, so it was honourable in a secondary degree to be a follower of a man of consideration; and this honour was the greater in proportion to the quality of the chief, and to the nearness of the attendance upon his person.” *Burke, Abridg. Eng. Hist.*] An old title of honor, perhaps equivalent to baron.

By Sinel's death I know I'm *thane* of Glamis;
But how of Cawdor? the *thane* of Cawdor lives. *Shakspeare.*

Skene makes thane to have been a dignity equal with that of the son of an earl: Camden will have it, that thanes were only dignified by the offices which they bore.

There were two kinds or orders of thanes; the *king's* thanes, and the *ordinary* thanes. The first were those who attended our English-Saxon kings in their courts, and who held lands immediately of the king: whence, in Domesday-book, they are promiscuously called *thani*, and *servientes regni*. Soon after the Conquest this name was disused.

THANELANDS, *s.* Such lands as were granted by charters of the Saxon kings to their thanes with all immunities, except the threefold necessity of expedition, repair of castles, and mending of bridges. *Cowel.*

THANESHIP, *s.* [*þegen-jepe*, Sax.] The office and dignity of a thane; the seigniorship of a thane.—The *thaneship* of Glamis was the ancient inheritance of Macbeth's family. *Steevens.*

THANET, ISLE OF, a district of England, in the county of Kent, situated at the mouth of the Thames, and forming the north-eastern angle of the county. It is separated from the mainland by the river Stour on the south, which was at one time a wide estuary, and by a branch of it called the Nethergong on the west. It extends about nine miles from east to west, and eight from north to south. It contains within its limits 10 parishes, of which only seven of the churches now remain; also the towns of Ramsgate, Margate, and Broadstairs, all noted for sea-bathing. The island is divided into the manors of Minster and Monkton, by St. Mildred's Lynch, a narrow slip of land left unploughed, which extends across Thanet, from Westgate by Woodchurch and Cleve Court, and terminates at Sheriff's Court. The coast of this island terminating in a perpendicular cliff of chalk, the soil is dry, and the air remarkably pure and bracing. The name of Thanet is supposed by some to be derived from the British word Tene or Fire, on account of the beacons or fires which were here kept, to give notice of Danish or other pirates, from whose incursions the natives are said to have retired to the numerous caves that are still found along the sea-coast. Scarcely any ancient families are now resident in Thanet, most of their estates having been alienated from various causes, and their seats converted into farm-houses. Those of the inhabitants who reside near the sea, are chiefly employed in maritime operations, one principal branch of which consists in going off to ships with provisions, and assisting them when in distress, on which latter occasion they frequently evince undaunted courage, and are the means of preserving many valuable lives. In Camden's time, agricultural and sea-faring pursuits were united in the same persons, but are now, as in other places, generally separated. The chalk cliffs which surround the coast of the island,

island, abound in fossils, among which the Cornua Ammonis has been found measuring upwards of three feet in diameter.

To **THANK**, *v. a.* [*ðancian*, Sax.; *dancken*, Dutch; *thanken*, Germ.] To return acknowledgments for any favour or kindness.

For your stubborn answer
The king shall know it, and, no doubt, *thank you*.

Shakspeare.

It is used often in a contrary or ironical sense.

Ill fare our ancestor impure,
For this we may *thank Adam*.

Milton.

THANK, or **THANKS**, *s.* [*ðanc*, *ðancaf*, Sax.; *dancke*, Dutch.] Acknowledgment paid for favour or kindness; expression of gratitude. *Thanks* is commonly used of verbal acknowledgment; *gratitude*, of real repayment. It is seldom used in the singular.—The poorest service is repaid with *thanks*. *Shakspeare*.—Some embrace suits which never mean to deal effectually in them; but they will win a *thank*, or take a reward. *Bacon*.—The tiller shall root up all that burdens the soil without *thank* to your bondage. *Milton*.

THANKFUL, *adj.* [*ðancful*, Sax.] Full of gratitude; ready to acknowledge good received.—In favour, to use men with much difference is good; for it maketh the person preferred more *thankful*, and the rest more officious. *Bacon*.

THANKFULLY, *adv.* With lively and grateful sense of good received.—Here is better than the open air; take it *thankfully*. *Shakspeare*.

THANKFULNESS, *s.* Gratitude; lively sense or ready acknowledgment of good received.—Sweet prince, you learn me noble *thankfulness*. *Shakspeare*.

THANKLESS, *adj.* Unthankful; ungrateful; making no acknowledgment.

That she may feel
How sharper than a serpent's tooth it is,
To have a *thankless child*.

Shakspeare.

Not deserving, or not likely, to gain thanks.

Wage still their wars,
And bring home on thy breast more *thankless scars*.

Crashaw.

THANKLESSNESS, *s.* Ingratitude; failure to acknowledge good received.

Not t' have written then, seems little less
Than worst of civil vices, *thanklessness*.

Donne.

THANKOFFERING, *s.* Offering paid in acknowledgment of mercy.—A thousand *thankofferings* are due to that Providence which has delivered our nation from these absurd iniquities. *Watts*.

THANKOTE, a town of Hindostan, province of Nepaul. It is situated on an eminence, and is fortified. Lat. 27. 41. N. long. 84. 54. E.

To **THANKSGIVE**, *v. a.* To celebrate; to distinguish by solemn rites. *Not in use*.—To *thanksgive* or bless a thing in way to a sacred use, he took to be an offering of it unto God. *Mede*.

THANKSGIVER, *s.* A giver of thanks.—We find our never-to-be-forgotten example, the devout *thanksgiver*. David, continually declaring the great price he set upon the divine favours. *Barrow*.

THANKSGIVING, *s.* Celebration of mercy.—Of old there were songs of praise and *thanksgiving* unto God. *Neh.*

THANKWORTHY, *adj.* Deserving gratitude; meritorious.—This is *thankworthy*, if a man endure grief. 1 *Pet.*

THANN, a town in the north-east of France, in Alsace on the small river Thuron. It has 4200 inhabitants, and manufactures on a small scale, of linen, cotton, leather; also of iron. The neighbouring country admits of favourable situations for the culture of the vine; 22 miles south-west of Colmar.

THANNHAUSEN, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria, on the Mindel; 20 miles west-south-west of Augsburg, with 1500 inhabitants.

THANNHEIM, a large village in the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Ochsenhausen, with 1000 inhabitants.

THANNINGTON, a parish of England, in Kent, situated on the banks of the Stour; 1½ mile south-west-by-west of Canterbury.

THAPSIA [of Pliny. *Θαψια* of Dioscorides: from *Thapsus*, a town of Africa], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal, large, of about twenty rays, almost equal in length; partial of as many rays, almost equal. Involucre universal none; partial none. Perianth proper scarcely to be observed. Corolla universal uniform. Florets all fertile. Proper of five petals, lanceolate, curved in. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, length of the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ oblong, inferior. Styles two, short. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp none. Fruit oblong, girt longitudinally by a membrane, bipartite. Seeds two, very large, oblong, convex, acuminate at both ends, girt with a margin flat on both sides, entire and large, emarginate at top and bottom.—*Essential Character*. Fruit oblong, surrounded by a membrane.

1. *Thapsia villosa*—Leaflets toothed, villose, coadunate at the base. Roots thick, fleshy, in shape of a carrot, blackish on the outside, but white within, bitter and very acrid, with a little aromatic taste. Stem spongy, rising about two feet high, dividing upwards into two or three small branches, each terminated by a large umbel of yellow flowers.—Native of Spain, Portugal, the South of France, Italy and Algiers.

2. *Thapsia foetida*.—Leaflets multifid, narrowed at the base. The leaves of this sort are cut into many narrow segments, almost as small as those of the garden carrot, but rough and hairy.—Native of Spain and Italy.

3. *Thapsia asclepium*.—Leaves digitate; leaflets bipinnate, setaceous, multifid.—Native of Apulia and the Levant.

4. *Thapsia garganica*.—Leaves pinnate; leaflets pinnatifid; segments lanceolate.—Native of Barbary.

5. *Thapsia trifoliata*.—Leaves ternate, ovate.—Native of North America.

6. *Thapsia polygama*.—Leaves decomposed; leaflets acute; involucre pinnatifid at the tip; central flowers abortive.—Native of Barbary, near Bone by the sea coast.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are all propagated by seeds, which should be sown in autumn: for if they are kept out of the ground till spring, they often miscarry, or if they grow, they commonly lie a whole year in the ground before the plants come up; whereas those seeds which are sown in autumn, generally grow the following spring. These should be sown in drills, in the place where they are designed to remain.

THARANT, a small town of Saxony; 8 miles west-by-south of Dresden.

THARM, *s.* [*ðeapm*, Sax.; *darm*, Dutch, *the gut*.] Intestines twisted for several uses.

THARSTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 1 mile north-west of St. Mary Stratton. Population 369.

THASOS, **THASSUS**, or **TASSO**, an island in the north of Greece, in the gulf of Conessa, only 4 miles from the mainland, in lat. 40. 46. 40. N. long. 24. 39. 9. E. It is of an irregular shape, about 12 miles long and 8 broad.

THAT, *pronoun*, [*that*, *thata*, Gothic; *ðæt*, Sax.; *dat*, Dutch.] Not this, but the other.—He wins me by *that* means I told you. *Shakspeare*.—Which; relating to an antecedent thing.—The sinner makes an aberration from the scope or mark *that* is set before him. *Perkins*.

You'll rue the time
That clogs me with this answer.

Shakspeare.

Who; relating to an antecedent person. [In our management of the relatives *who*, *which*, *that*, it may be a good general rule to apply *who* to persons, *which* to things, and *that* to things chiefly. But when the antecedent is the second person, not only *that*, but *which*, is used for *who* by our best writers. And this use, which is enough authorised, may be worth retaining, not merely for the grace of variety, but for the convenience of pronunciation. *Bp. Hurd*.—It

is thou, O king, *that* art become strong. *Dan.*—It sometime serves to save the repetition of a word or words foregoing.—I'll know your business, *that* I will. *Shakspeare.*
—Opposed to *this*, as *the other* to *one*.

This is not fair; nor profitable *that*;
Nor t' other question proper for debate. *Dryden.*

When *this* and *that* relate to foregoing words, *this* is referred like *hic* or *ccci* to the latter, and *that* like *ille* or *cela* to the former.

In this scale gold, in t' other fame does lie,
The weight of *that* Mounts *this* so high. *Cowley.*

Such as.—By religion is meant a living up to those principles, *that* is, to act conformably to our best reason, and to live as becomes those who believe a God and a future state. *Tillotson.*—That which; what.

Sir, I think the meat wants *that* I have,
— Basting. *Shakspeare.*

The thing.—The Nazarite hath vowed, besides *that* that his hand shall get. *Numb.*—The thing which then was.

Secure proud Nabas slept,
And dreamt, vain man, of *that* day's barbarous sport. *Cowley.*

By way of eminence.
This is *that* Jonathan, the joy and grace,
That Jonathan in whom does mixt remain
All that fond mothers wish. *Cowley.*

In *THAT*. Because; in consequence of.—Things are preached not *in that* they are taught, but *in that* they are published. *Hooker.*

THAT, conjunction, [*thatei*, Goth.] Because.—Forgive me *that* I thus your patience wrong. *Cowley.*—Noting a consequence.

That he should dare to do me this disgrace,
Is fool or coward writ upon my face? *Dryden.*

Noting indication.—We answered, *that* we held it so agreeable, as we both forgot dangers past and fears to come, *that* we thought an hour spent with him was worth years of our former life. *Bacon.*—Noting a final end.

Treat it kindly, *that* it may
Wish at least with us to stay. *Cowley.*

THATCH, *s.* [*ðace*, Sax., *straw*, *Skinner*; from *ðac*, a roof. Formerly *thack*.] Straw laid upon the top of a house to keep out the weather.

Then came rosy Health from her cottage of *thatch*,
Where never physician had lifted the latch. *Smart.*

To *THATCH*, *v. a.* [*ðaccian*, Sax.] To cover as with straw.

Make false hair, and *thatch*
Your poor thin roofs with burthens of the dead. *Shakspeare.*

THATCHAM, a parish of England, formerly a market town, in Berkshire, with an endowed school, and containing 11,491 acres of land. Population 2104; 3 miles east of Newbury.

THATCHER, *s.* One whose trade is to cover houses with straw.

You merit new employments daily;
Our *thatcher*, ditcher, gard'ner, baily. *Swift.*

THATCHER'S ISLAND, a small island of the United States, on the coast of Massachusetts, about a mile east of Cape Ann.

THAU, a salt water lake in the south of France, on the coast of the department of the Herault, separated from the sea by a narrow tongue of land, but communicating with it by an inlet. It is about 35 miles long, and receives the waters of the great canal of Languedoc.

THAUMATURGICAL, *adj.* Exciting wonder.—Indian pictures made of feathers, China works, frames, *thaumaturgical* motions, exotic toys. *Burton.*

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THA'UMATURGY, *s.* [*Θαυμα, θαυματος*, Gr, a wonder, and *εργον*, a work.] Act of performing what may excite wonder.—This art, with others of the experimental kind, the philosophers of those times were fond of adapting to the purposes of *thaumaturgy*. *Warton.*

To *THAW*, *v. n.* [*θapan*, Sax.; *degen*, Dutch.] To grow liquid after congelation; to melt.

It on firm land
Thaws not, but gathers heap, and ruin seems
Of ancient pile; all else deep snow and ice. *Milton.*

To remit the cold which had caused frost.
To *THAW*, *v. a.* To melt what was congealed.
Bring me the fairest creature northward born,
Where Phœbus' fire scarce *thaws* the isicles. *Shakspeare.*

THAW, *s.* Liquefaction of any thing congealed.—A man of my kidney, that am as subject to heat as butter; a man of continual dissolution and *thaw*. *Shakspeare.*—Warmth such as liquifies congelation.—I was the prince's jester, and duller than a great *thaw*. *Shakspeare.*

THAXTED, a market town of England, in the county of Essex, situated near the source of the river Chelmer, in a dry gravelly soil. The town has but little trade, and is chiefly remarkable for its parish church; this is a very large and beautiful structure in the Gothic style. It appears, from the various arms and cognizances on its several parts, to have been built at different times in the 14th century. The market which had for a long period been discontinued, has of late years been revived, but is not much frequented. It appears to have been granted to Bartholomew lord Badlesmere, by Edward II. Market on Friday, and two annual fairs; 20 miles north-west of Chelmsford, and 43 north-east of London. Lat. 51. 56. N. long. 0. 18. E.

THE, article. [*ðe*, Sax., articulus. Præfigitur nomibus per omnes casus utriusque numeri, haud secus ac apud nos ipsa *the*; præsertim verò apud scriptores Normanno-Saxonicos. *Lye*, edit. Manning.] The article noting a particular thing.

Your son has paid a soldier's debt;
He only liv'd but till he was a man,
The which no sooner had his prowess confirm'd,
In *the* unshrinking station where he fought,
But like a man he died. *Shakspeare.*

Th' adoring thee with so much art
Is but a barb'rous skill,
'Tis like the pois'ning of a dart,
Too apt before to kill. *Cowley.*

It is used by way of consequential reference.—*The* longer sin hath kept possession of the heart, *the* harder it will be to drive it out. *Wh. Duty of Man.*—In the following passage *the* is used according to the French idiom. As all the considerable governments among the Alps are commonwealths, so it is a constitution *the* most adapted of any to the poverty of these countries. *Addison.*

THEA, [from *Teh* or *Theh* of the Chinese, or *Tsia* of the Japanese], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia trigynia, natural order of columifereæ, aurantia. (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Pericarp: five-parted, very small, flat, inferior, permanent; segments roundish, obtuse, equal. Corolla: petals three to nine, roundish, concave, large, of which two are exterior and a little smaller. Stamina: filaments numerous, (more than two hundred) filiform, shorter than the corolla, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers cordate, fastened by the back. Pistil: germ globular-trigonal. Styles three, united at the base, at bottom erect, closely approximating, and as it were united into one, above the stamens diverging, somewhat recurved at the top, after flowering separated to the very base, reflexed at the top. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule tricoccos, trilocular, gaping at the top, in three directions. Seeds solitary, globose, angular on the inward side.—The parts of the flower vary much in number, for sometimes the calyx is six-parted: the corolla has three petals or more as far as nine, of which the six inner ones are larger and equal, the three outer

outer a little smaller: stamens as far as two hundred and eighty. In *Thea Japonica*, the calyx is five-leaved, with ovate obtuse concave leaflets: the corolla six-petalled; petals ovate, very blunt, three lower ones smaller. Germ somewhat scaly: style filiform, erect, very short: stigmas three, filiform, erect, length of the filaments.—*Essential Character.* Corolla six or nine-petalled. Calyx five or six-leaved. Capsule tricocous.

1. *Thea*.—The tea tree is commonly about the height of a man. It is described indeed by different authors as varying much in size from that just mentioned to thirty and even two hundred feet. Probably it may attain the height of thirty feet or more when left to itself; but in general the trees are cut down periodically, that they may make stronger shoots, and therefore are seldom seen to be above five or six feet high. The trunk is branching and round: the branches alternate or vague, stiffish, inclining to an ash-colour, but reddish towards the end. Leaves alternate, elliptic, smooth, glossy, of a firm texture, bluntly serrate except near the base, blunt and for the most part slightly emarginate at the end, veined on the under side; on very short petioles, round and gibbous beneath, flattish and slightly channelled above. Stipules to the leaves none. Peduncles axillary, alternate, single, curved, one-flowered, incassate, having at the base a single stipule or bracte, which is awl-shaped, erect, elliptic, obtusely serrate, with the edges between the teeth recurved. Corolla white, varying in the number and size of the petals. Stamens, according to Loureiro, inserted rather into the base of the corolla than into the receptacle. There are two varieties: *Thea viridis*, and *Thea bohea*.

The distinctions chiefly regarded in Europe are the following:—

Green Teas.—1. Bing, imperial or bloom tea, with a large loose leaf, of a light green colour, and a faint delicate smell.

2. Hy-tiann, hikiong, hayssuen or heechun, known to us by the name of hyson tea: the leaves are closely curled and small, of a green colour verging towards blue. Another hyson tea, with narrow short leaves, is called hyson-utchin. There is also a green tea named globe, with long narrow leaves.

3. Song-lo or singlo, which name it receives, like several others, from the place where it is cultivated.

Bohea Teas.—1. Soo-chuen, sut-chong, sou-chong, or su-chong, called by the Chinese saa-tyang, and fact-chaon or sy-tyann, is a superior kind of cong-fou tea. It imparts a yellowish-green colour by infusion, and has its name from a place or province in China. Padre sutchong has a finer taste and smell; the leaves are large and yellowish, not rolled up, and packed in papers of half a pound each. It is generally conveyed by caravans into Russia: without much care it will be injured at sea. It is rarely to be met with in England.

2. Cam-ho, or soum-lo, called after the name of the place where it is gathered: a fragrant tea with a violet smell; its infusion is pale.

3. Cong-fou, congo, or bong-fo: this has a larger leaf than the following, and the infusion is a little deeper coloured. It resembles the common bohea in the colour of the leaf.

There is also a sort called lin-kisam, with narrow rough leaves. It is seldom used alone, but mixed with other kinds. By adding it to congo, the Chinese sometimes make a kind of Pekoe tea.

4. Pekao, pecko, or pekoe, by the Chinese called back-ho, or pack-ho: it is known by having the appearance of small white flowers intermixed with it.

5. Common bohea, or black tea, called moji or mo-ee by the Chinese, consists of leaves of one colour. The best is named Tao-kyon. An inferior kind is called An-kai, from a place of that name. In the district of Honam, near Canton, the tea is very coarse, the leaves yellow or brownish, and the taste the least agreeable of any. By the Chinese it is named honam-te, or kuli-te.

But besides these, tea, both bohea and green, is sometimes imported in balls, from two ounces to the size of a nutmeg

and of peas. The Chinese call it poncul-teha. The smallest in this form is well known under the name of gunpowder tea.

And sometimes the succulent leaves are twisted like pack-thread, an inch and a half, or two inches long; three of these are usually tied together at the ends by different coloured silk threads. Both green and bohea teas are prepared in this manner.

THEAKIKI, the east head-quarter of Illinois river, which has its rise in Canada.

THEAKSTON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles south-east-by-east of Bedale.

THEALBY, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; 10½ miles west-by-south of Barton-upon-Humber.

THEALE, a township of England, in Berkshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Reading.

THEANTHROPOS, [*Θεανθρωπος*, Gr.] thus formed from *Θεος*, *God*, and *ανθρωπος*, *man*, and was sometimes used in the schools to signify Jesus Christ, who was regarded as God-man.

THEARNE, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 3½ miles south-east-by-east of Beverley.

THE'ATIN, *s.* [French.] One of an order of priests among the catholics, so called from a superior of their order, who was archbishop of Chieti in Naples, anciently *Theate*.—The *Theatins* [were] a sect of priests in credit about pope Clement the seventh's time, and of more antiquity by some few years than the Jesuits. *Cotgrave*.

THE'ATINE, *s.* One of an order of nuns conforming to the rules of the Theatins.

THE'ATRAL, *adj.* [*theatralis*, Lat.] Belonging to a theatre.—In *theatral* actions he personates Herod in his majesty. *Comment. on Chaucer*.

THE'ATRE, *s.* [*theatrum*, Lat.] A place in which shews are exhibited; a playhouse.

This wise and universal *theatre*,
Presents more woful pageants than the scene
Wherein we play.

Shakspeare.

A place rising by steps or gradations like a theatre.

Shade above shade, a woody *theatre*
Of stateliest view.

Milton.

THE'ATRIC, or THE'ATRICAL, *adj.* [*theatrum*, Lat.] Scenic; suiting a theatre; pertaining to a theatre.

Load some vain church with old *theatrical* state,
Turn arcs of triumph to a garden gate.

Pope.

THE'ATRICALLY, *adv.* In a manner suiting the stage.

Dauntless her look, her gesture proud,
Her voice *theatrically* loud.

Pope.

THEAVE, *s.* An ewe or sheep of three years old. *North.* Bailey says, of one year. *Pegge*.

THEBAID, the early name of Upper Egypt, for which that of Sahid or Said has long been substituted.

THEBEN, or DEVEN, a small town in the west of Hungary, at the confluence of the great rivers March and Danube; 6 miles above Presburg.

THEBERTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles east-south-east of Saxmundham. Population 440.

THEBES, RUINS OF, the remains of a great city, which at an early period was the capital of Egypt. There are not to be found in the world any monuments more remarkable, both by their stupendous magnitude, and by the high antiquity to which they ascend. The glory of Thebes belongs to a period prior to the commencement of authentic history. It is recorded only by the dim lights of poetry and tradition, which might be suspected of fable, did not such mighty witnesses remain to their truth. History has preserved no distinct record of those powerful and conquering sovereigns, who held their capital in Upper Egypt. See EGYPT.

THEDDINGWORTH, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4¼ miles west-by-south of Market Harborough.

THEDING-HAUSEN, a small town in the north of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick, and the chief place of a district

district situated in the province of Hoya, in Hanover, to the south of the Weser, at a great distance from any other part of the states of Brunswick. This petty place has 1500 inhabitants, and is 14 miles south-east of Bremen, and 59 north-west of Hanover.

THEDLETHORPE, EAST, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 9½ miles north-north-east of Alford.

THEDLETHORPE, WEST, another parish in the above county; about a mile distant from the foregoing.

THEE, the oblique singular of *thou*.

Poet and saint, to *thee* alone were given
The two most sacred names of earth and heaven. *Cowley*.

To **THEE**, *v. n.* [Goth. *theihan*; Sax. *ðean*.] To thrive; to prosper. *Obsolete*.—Faire mote he *thee*! *Spenser*.

THEFT, *s.* [δύπτει, Sax., from *thieve*.] The act of stealing.—*Theft* is an unlawful felonious taking away of another man's goods against the owner's knowledge or will. *Cowel*.

Their nurse Euriphile,
Whom for the *theft* I wedded, stole these children.
Shakspeare.

The thing stolen.—If the *theft* be certainly found in his hand alive, whether ox, ass, or sheep, he shall restore double. *Exod.*

THEFTBOTE, the receiving a man's goods again from a thief, or other amends, by way of composition, and to prevent prosecution, that the felon may escape unpunished; the punishment of which is fine and imprisonment.

THEGONEC, ST., a town in the north-west of France, department of Finisterre. Population 3300; 6 miles south-west of Morlaix, and 13 east-north-east of Landernau.

THEIR, *pron.* [ðeopa, of *them*, Sax.; *theirra*, Icel. *the same*.] Of them: the pronoun possessive, from *they*.

The round world should have shook
Lions into civil streets, and citizens into *their* dens.
Shakspeare.

Theirs is used when any thing comes in construction between the possessive and substantive.

The penalty to thy transgression due,
And due to *theirs* which out of thine will grow. *Milton*.

THEISM, *s.* [*theisme*, Fr.; from Θεός, Gr.] The acknowledgment of a God, as opposed to atheism; deism.—Having laid down in this manner the general principles of *theism*, he says nothing of the particular doctrines of Christianity except in one verse. *Lord Monbodo*.

THEISS, or **TISZA**, a large river of Hungary, which rises from two springs in the county of Marmaros, on the north-east frontier of the kingdom. The two streams called the Black and the White Theiss soon unite, and after flowing above 100 miles in a western direction, it turns to the south, and either touches or divides ten distinct counties or districts, before flowing into the Danube at Salankemen, below Titul.

THEIST, *s.* [*theiste*, Fr.] A deist.—The word deist, or *theist*, in its original signification, implies merely the belief of a God, being opposed to atheist; and so there may be deists of various kinds. *Waterland*.

THEISTIC, or **THEISTICAL**, *adj.* Belonging to theists; deistical, which see.—The *theistical* club have set this up as a principle. *Lestie*.—It must appear at first sight, that nothing could be more contradictory to the first principles of the Christian religion, than those of the atheistical or sceptical sects, which at that time prevailed very much both among the Greeks and the Romans; nor shall we find that the *theistical* sects were much less at enmity with it, when we consider the doctrines they held upon the nature of God and the soul. *Ld, Lyttleton*.

THELBRIDGE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 7 miles east-by-south of Chulmleigh.

THELEPHORA, a genus of Fungi. See **HELVELLI**.

THELNETHAM, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 14 miles north-east of Bury St. Edmund's. Population 445.

THELVERTON, or **THELTON**, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 1½ mile north-by-east of Scole.

THELWALL, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire, supposed to have been anciently a large town; 9½ miles north-west-by-north of Nether-Knutsford.

THELYGONUM [ἑργυ γονν, Gr., *genus femineum*.—It is a name from Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class monœcia, order polyandria, natural order of scabridæ, urticæ. (*Juss.*)—Generic Character.—Male flower. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, turbinate, semibifid, segments revolute. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments very many (twelve or more), erect, length of the corolla. Anthers simple.—Female flower on the same plant. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, very small, erect, bifid, permanent at the side of the germ. Corolla none. Pistil: germ globular. Style filiform, long. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule coriaceous, globular, one-celled. Seed one, globular, with a callous appendice.—*Essential Character*.—Male. Calyx bifid. Corolla none. Stamina commonly twelve.—Female. Calyx bifid. Corolla none. Pistil one. Capsule coriaceous, one-celled, one-seeded.

Thelygonum cynocrambe, purslain-leaved *thelygonum*, or dog's cabbage.—It is an annual plant, which decays as soon as the seeds are ripe. The stalks trail on the ground like those of chickweed; they grow about a foot long, their joints are pretty close, and have ovate acute-pointed leaves, on pretty long bordered foot-stalks. One of these leaves is placed at each joint, and from the same point come out several smaller leaves of the same shape, on shorter foot-stalks. Flowers axillary in clusters sitting very close, small, and of an herbaceous white colour, male and female from the same joint.—Native of the South of France, near Montpellier; Italy in the island of Caprea, county of Nice, &c., and Sicily.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in autumn, when the plants are to remain, for when sown in the spring, the plants rarely come up the same year. They require no culture but to be kept clean from weeds, and to be thinned where they are too close.

THEM, the oblique of *they*, [*thaim*, Goth.] The materials of *them* were not from any herb. *Wilkins*.

THEMAR, a small town in the central part of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Coburg, on the Werra, with 1100 inhabitants. It is the chief place of a bailiwick, which was long the common property of the houses of Saxe-Coburg and Saxe-Gotha; 11 miles south-east of Meinungen.

THEME, *s.* [*theme*, Fr.; from the Gr. θέμα.] A subject on which one speaks or writes.

Two truths are told,
As happy prologues to the swelling act
Of the imperial *theme*. *Shakspeare*.

A short dissertation written by boys on any topic.—Forcing the empty wits of children to compose *themes*, verses, and orations. *Milton*.—The original word whence others are derived.—Let scholars daily reduce the words to their original or *theme*, to the first case of nouns, or first tense of verbs. *Watts*.

THEMILTHORPE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles west-north-west of Reepham.

THEMIS, in Mythology, the daughter of Cœlum and Terra, or of Uranus and Titania, the eldest sister of Saturn, and aunt of Jupiter.

THEMISTIUS, surnamed **EUPHRADES**, or the fine speaker, an Eclectic philosopher, was born in an obscure village of Paphlagonia, about the year 317, and having fixed his residence at Constantinople, taught eloquence and philosophy with great reputation and success. His disciples, both Pagan and Christian, were numerous; to the former class belonged Libanius, and to the latter, Gregory Nazianzen. By the emperors he was highly esteemed, and they conferred upon him distinguished honours. In the year 355, Constantius admitted him into the senate; and in return for an eloquent eulogium,

eulogium, presented him with a brazen statue. Julian corresponded with him as a friend; and in 362, appointed him præfect of Constantinople. His character and eloquence induced other emperors to bestow upon him peculiar favours. When Jovian issued his edict of toleration, Themistius was deputed by the senate to express its loyalty; and on this occasion he expatiated with elegance and liberality on the rights of conscience, and the independence of the human mind. Of his candour and liberality, the following memorable instance is recorded by Socrates, Sozomen and other ecclesiastical historians. The emperor Valens, who favoured the Arian party, treated the Trinitarians with great severity. Themistius, disapproving the measures which the emperor pursued, addressed him in an eloquent speech, stating that the diversity of opinions among Christians was inconsiderable, compared with that of the Pagan philosophers; and urging upon his attention, that this diversity could not be displeasing to God, since it did not prevent men from worshipping him with true piety. By such arguments, Themistius, it is said, prevailed upon the emperor to treat the Trinitarians with greater lenity. What an example does this Pagan philosopher exhibit even to Christian divines! In the year 376, Themistius visited Rome, but though solicited to take up his abode there, he preferred returning to Constantinople. It redounds very much to the honour of this philosopher, and also to the liberal sentiments of Theodosius the Great, that during his visit to the Western empire, the emperor entrusted Themistius, notwithstanding difference of religion, with the care and education of his son Arcadius. After a long course of civil honours, he withdrew about the year 387, at an advanced age from public business; and soon after died. His "Orations," which were 36, and of which 33 are still remaining, are strongly marked with liberal characters. The best editions of his Orations are those of Petau, Gr. and Lat. Paris, 4to., 1618; and of Hardouin, Gr. and Lat. Paris, fol. 1684. *Fabr. Bib. Græc. Brucker by Enfield. Gibbon. Lardner's Works.*

THEMISTOCLES, an Athenian statesman and commander. See GREECE.

THEMSELVES, *s.* [See **THEY** and **SELF**.] These very persons: in this sense it is nominative.—Whatsoever evil befalleth in that, *themselves* have made themselves worthy to suffer it. *Hooker*.—The oblique case of *they* and *sees*.—*They* open to *themselves* at length the way. *Milton*.

THEN, *adv.* [*than*, Gothic; *ðan*, Sax.; *dan*, Dutch.] At that time.—*Then*, *then* a boy, within my arms I laid. *Dryden*.—Afterwards; immediately afterwards; soon afterwards.—If an herb be cut off from the roots in winter, and *then* the earth be trodden down hard, the roots will become very big in summer. *Bacon*.—In that case; in consequence.

Had not men been fated to be blind,
Then had our lances pierc'd the treach'rous wood. *Dryden*.

Therefore; for this reason.

If *then* his providence
Out of evil seek to bring forth good. *Milton*.

At another time: as *now* and *then*, at one time and other.—Now shaves with level wing the deep, *then* soars. *Milton*.—One while the master is not aware of what is done, and *then* in other cases it may fall out to be his own act. *L'Estrange*.—That time: it has here the effect of a noun.

Till *then* who knew
The force of those dire arms? *Milton*.

THENAR, in Anatomy. The eminence in the palm of the hand, formed by the muscles of the thumb, has been called thenar: and some of the muscles have been described under the same name.

The thenar of Riolan and Winslow includes the abductor pollicis brevis, and the opponens pollicis.

THENCE, *adv.* [contracted, according to Minshew, from *there hence*.] From that place.
Fast by the oracle of God; I *thence*
Invoke thy aid. *Milton*.

From that time.—There shall be no more *thence* an infant of days. *Isa*.—For that reason.

Not to sit idle with so great a gift
Useless, and *thence* ridiculous about him. *Milton*.

From *thence* is a barbarous expression, *thence* implying the same, yet it wants not good authorities.

From *thence*; from whom, whose daughter
His tears proclaim'd his parting with her; *thence*
We have cross'd. *Shakspeare*.

THE'NCEFORTH, *adv.* From that time.

Thenceforth this land was tributary made
T'ambitious Rome. *Spenser*.

From *thenceforth* is a barbarous corruption, though it has crept into books where it ought not to be found.

Avert

His holy eyes; resolving from *thenceforth*
To leave them to their own polluted ways. *Milton*.

THENCEFORWARD, *adv.* On from that time.—When he comes to the Lord's table, every communicant professes to repent, and promises to lead a new life *thenceforward*. *Kettlewell*.

THENCEFROM, *adv.* From that place. *Not in use, nor proper*.—In the space of an hundred years, or thereabout, all the living upon the face of the earth are driven *thencefrom* by the stroke of death. *Smith*.

THENEZAY; a small town in the west of France, department of the Two Seves, with 1500 inhabitants, employed partly in manufactures, partly in the cultivation of wine; 14 miles north-east of Parthenay, and 34 north-east of Niort.

THENFORD, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 5½ miles north-west-by-west of Brackley.

THENINGEN, a neat village in the south-west of Germany, in Baden, on the Elz, with 1100 inhabitants; 10 miles north-by-west of Freyburg.

THENON, a small town in the south of France, department of the Dordogne. Population 1400; 6 miles north-west of Montignac, and 20 east of Perigueux.

THENSA, among the Romans, a veil or canopy, used in the chariots of games; and likewise to cover a seat of state.

Thensæ could not be granted to any but by the express allowance of the senate. *Hist. Acad. Inscript.*

THEOBALD (Lewis), a professed writer, was the son of an eminent attorney at Sittingbourn, in the county of Kent, and is here noticed as one of the numerous editors of Shakspeare. Of his various works, critical, poetical, and dramatic, it is needless to give any account, as they have sunk into oblivion. He had the misfortune of becoming, to an undue degree, the object of Mr. Pope's contempt and satire, and of having the first place assigned him in the Dunciad, though he was afterwards superseded by Cibber. His edition of Shakspeare was preceded by a work entitled "Shakspeare Restored," and published in 1726; and also by that of Mr. Pope. It is thus characterised by Dr. Johnson: "Pope was succeeded by Theobald, a man of narrow comprehension and small acquisitions, with no native and intrinsic splendour of genius, with little of the artificial light of learning, but zealous for minute accuracy, and not negligent in pursuing it. He collated the ancient copies, and rectified many errors. A man so anxiously scrupulous might have been expected to do more; for what little he did was commonly right." Of the tragedy which he brought on the stage, and which is entitled "The Double Falsehood," the greater part is ascribed by him to Shakspeare; but Dr. Farmer has proved that this is a mistake.

THEOBALD'S, a hamlet of England, in Hertfordshire, situated on the New River, noted as the favourite residence of James I. who had here a magnificent seat, and gardens, originally built by lord treasurer Burleigh; 4 miles west-by-north of Chipping Barnet.

THEOBROMA [Θεων βρομα, Gr., *the food of the gods*], in Botany, a genus of the class polyadelphia, order decandria, natural order of columiferæ, malvaceæ. (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved; leaflets lanceolate,

lanceolate, acute, spreading, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, smaller than the calyx; claws wide, arched, concave like a helmet, emarginate at the tip, scored internally with a thick triple line, inserted into the nectary at the base; borders roundish, acuminate, spreading, each narrowed at the base into a small claw, which is from upright recurved, and fastened into the claw. Nectary a short little pitcher, putting forth five little horns, which are awl-shaped, long, erect, acuminate, bent in and converging, decurrent along the pitcher. Stamina: filaments five, filiform, erect, bent outwards at top, lying within the claws of the petals, growing externally to the nectary, alternate with and shorter than the horns. Anthers on each filament two (one on each side at the tip); vertical, one cell superior, the other inferior. Pistil: germ ovate. Style filiform, (striated, Aubl.) a little longer than the stamens. Stigma five-cleft. Pericarp: capsule oblong, coriaceous, unequal, five-cornered, five-celled, valvless, not opening. Seeds very many, subovate, nestling in a buttery pulp, fastened to a central columnar receptacle.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved. Petals five, arched. Nectary five-horned. Filaments five, within the calyx of the petals, growing externally to the nectary, having two anthers on each.

Theobroma cacao, or chocolate-nut tree.—The cacao or chocolate-nut tree grows in a very handsome form, to the height of twelve or sixteen feet: the trunk is upright and about as high as a man before the head spreads out: the wood is light and of a white colour, and the bark is brownish and even. Leaves lanceolate-oblong, bright green, quite entire, alternate, from nine to sixteen inches long, and three or four inches wide at most, on a petiole an inch in length, and thickened at both ends. Flowers small, reddish, inodorous. Fruits smooth, yellow, red, or of both colours, about three inches in diameter: rind fleshy, near half an inch in thickness, flesh-coloured within: pulp whiteish, the consistence of butter, separating from the rind in a state of ripeness, and adhering to it only by filaments, which penetrate it and reach to the seeds. Hence it is known when the seeds are ripe, by the rattling of the capsule when it is shaken. The pulp has a sweet and not unpleasant taste, with a slight acidity; it is sucked and eaten raw by the natives: it may be easily separated into as many parts as there are seeds, to which it adheres strongly, and they are wrapped up in it, so that each seed seems to have its own proper pulp. The seeds are about twenty-five in number: when fresh, they are of a flesh-colour: gathered before they are ripe, they preserve them in sugar, and thus they are very grateful to the palate: they quickly lose their power of vegetation, if taken out of the capsule, but kept in it, they preserve that power for a long time. The tree bears leaves, flowers and fruit all the year through; but the usual seasons for gathering the fruit, are June and December. In two years from the seed it is above three feet high, and spreads its branches, not more than five of which are suffered to remain: before its third year is complete, it shows for fruit. A tree yields from two to three pounds of seeds annually.

These seeds are remarkably nourishing, and agreeable to most people; which occasions them to be commonly kept in most houses in America, as a necessary part of the provisions of the family: they are generally ground or pounded very fine, and made into paste: they are much charged with oil, but mix well with milk or water. Chocolate is much esteemed in all the southern colonies of America; and well known to make the principal part of the nourishment of most old people in those parts, as well as of a great number of Jews. It was in use among the native Indians, before the arrival of the Spaniards.—Native of South America, and found in great plenty in several places between the tropics, but particularly at Caracca and Carthagena, on the river Amazons, the isthmus of Darien, at Honduras, Guatemala, and Nicaragua.

Propagation and Culture.—In order to cultivate this plant in Europe, by way of curiosity, it will be necessary to have the nuts planted into boxes of earth (in the countries

where they grow) soon after they are ripe; because if the nuts are sent over, they will lose their vegetative powers before they arrive. These boxes should be placed in a shady situation, and must be frequently watered, in order to forward the vegetation of the nuts.

When the plants arrive in England, they should be carefully taken out of the boxes, and each transplanted into a separate pot filled with light rich earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed of tanner's bark. When the trees are obtained, they may be increased by cuttings, in the same manner as the gardenia.

THEOCATAGNOSTÆ, formed from the Gr. Θεός, *God*, and καταγιγνώσκω, *I judge*, or *condemn*, a sect of heretics who found fault with certain words and actions of God, and to blame many things in the Scriptures.

THEOCRACY, *s.* [*theocratic*, Fr.; Θεός and κρατος, Gr.] Government immediately superintended by God.—A quiet calm subordination of saints and angels under that great *theocracy*. *Hammond.*—The characters of the reign of Christ are chiefly justice, peace, and divine presence or conduct, which is called *theocracy*. *Burnet.*

THEOCRATIC, or THEOCRATICAL, *adj.* [*theocratique*, Fr.] Relating to government administered by God.—The government is neither human nor angelical, but peculiarly *theocratical*. *Burnet.*

THEOCRITUS, a Greek poet, esteemed as the model of pastoral poetry, was a native of Syracuse, and the son of Praxagoras and Philina. The time in which he flourished is ascertained by two of his poems, one addressed to Hiero, king of Syracuse, who began his reign about the year B. C. 265, and the other to Ptolemy Philadelphus, whose reign comprehended the interval between 281 and 246 B. C. Although Hiero is reported to have been a patron of literature, persons of rank, as we may infer from Theocritus's poem, did not follow his example, at least in granting encouragement to poets; and therefore Theocritus left Sicily, and visited the court of Ptolemy Philadelphus at Alexandria, on whom he pronounces a splendid eulogy. The compositions of this poet are denominated "Idylls;" they are written in the Doric or rustic dialect, and few of them are pastorals, though most of them relate to rural life and manners. The purely pastoral are distinguished by the truth and simplicity of the manners, descending sometimes even to coarseness, and the pleasing description of natural objects, drawn from the life. To those who have a taste for genuine simplicity, and the beauties of nature, the poetry of Theocritus is highly agreeable. The most esteemed editions of his works, are D. Heinsius's 4to. Commel. 1604; R. West's, Oxon. 8vo. 1699; Th. Warton's, Oxon. 2 vols. 4to. 1770; Valkenaer's, cum Bione et Moscho, Lugd. Bat. 8vo. 1779. *Suidas. Vossius. Gen. Biog.*

THEO'DOLITE, *s.* [*theodolite*, Fr.] A mathematical instrument for taking heights and distances by measuring horizontal and vertical angles.

THEODORE (Lascaris), a Greek emperor, the son-in-law of Alexius Angelus. See *ROME*.

THEODORE, bishop of Mopsuestia in Cilicia, was priest, and probably native, of Antioch, a disciple of Diodorus, and an intimate friend of John Chrysostom. He was ordained bishop in 392 or 394, and died in 428 or 429. He wrote commentaries probably upon all the books of the Old and New Testament, though two or three of them are not particularly mentioned: and in these commentaries, as Photius says, he avoided all allegorical interpretations, and confined himself to the historical and literal sense. He defended this mode in a work concerning allgory and history against Origen. Some have charged him with treating the book of Job, the Canticles, and the Psalms, with disrespect. The book of Job he is said to have represented as written in a fabulous manner, though founded on truth; the Canticles he is said to have considered as a nuptial poem, and the Psalms as chiefly referring to the history of the times. Most of Theodore's works are now lost, but some fragments of them may be found, chiefly in Latin, and perhaps not fairly represented, in the Acts of the second general council of Constantinople.

tinople, or the fifth general council, held in 553, and also in Facundus, and in the Greek Chains. Fabricius assures us, that his commentary upon the Twelve Prophets is still extant in manuscript in the emperor's library at Vienna; and Montfaucon speaks of its being in the library of St. Mark at Venice, as well as in the library at Vienna, and in the Vatican. Some learned moderns have charged Theodore with adopting sentiments concerning the person of Christ similar to those of the present Unitarians; but of this fact there is no satisfactory evidence. *Mosheim. Lardner.*

THEODORE of Tarsus, a monk of that city, was ordained bishop by pope Vitalian, and being sent into England in the year 668, at the desire of king Egbert, was appointed to govern the church of Canterbury. With a view to the restoration of the neglected discipline of penance, he published a book of canons, under the title of "Penitential." In this book, sins were distributed into various classes, according to their respective nature and aggravation; and various kinds of penance were assigned to them; forms of consolation, exhortation, and absolution were prescribed, and other such matters respecting discipline were regulated. It is still extant, in an imperfect state; and an edition of it was published at Paris by Petit, in 1679, 4to., with notes and dissertations. *Dupin.*

THEODORET, a learned prelate of the Greek church, was born at Antioch about the year 386. Theodoret bears a high rank among the ancients, as a commentator on the scriptures, for the purity of his Attic style, and the clearness and good sense of his explanations. He wrote commentaries upon most parts of the sacred scriptures. His "Ecclesiastical History," comprised in five books, may be considered as a supplement to those of Socrates and Sozomen; beginning where that of Eusebius ends, at the rise of Arianism in 322 or 323, and terminating in 428. Its style, according to Photius, is clear and sublime, but too much abounding in metaphors. His "Philotheus," or treatise on the monastic life, the genuineness of which some have questioned without sufficient reason, relates the actions and extols the piety of the Eastern monks, and abounds with instances of the credulity and superstition of the times. In his work entitled "Of Heretical Fables," in five books, he distributes the different heresies into classes, and concludes with a statement of the faith of the Catholic church. "The Cure of the false Opinions of the Heathens," in twelve discourses, is a learned and valuable apology for Christianity. Lardner has given copious extracts from this performance, which merit high commendation.

THEODORIC. See **ROME** and **GOTHS.**

THEODOSIA, Sr., a small island in the North Pacific Ocean. Lat. 62. 20. N. long. 192. 0. E.

THEODOSIUS. See **ROME.**

THEODOSIUS, an eminent mathematician, was born at Tripoli, and flourished about the second or third century. On the doctrine of the Sphere, he wrote three books, containing a considerable number of propositions, demonstrated in the pure geometrical manner of the ancients, and establishing the geometrical principles of astronomy. Ptolemy and succeeding writers availed themselves of these books, which were translated by the Arabians from the original Greek into their own language. They were afterwards translated from the Arabic into Latin, and printed at Venice; but the defects of the Arabic version were supplied in a more complete edition, published in Greek and Latin, at Paris, in 1556, 4to., by John Pena, regius professor of astronomy. *Montucla Hist. des Mathem.*

THEOGAMIA [*Θεογαμία*, Gr.], in Antiquity, a Sicilian festival, in honour of Proserpine, which seems to have been instituted in memory of her marriage with Pluto.

THEOGNIS, a Greek poet, was a native of Megara, in Attica, and flourished about the year B. C. 546. He has been denominated "Gnomologus," or the writer of sentence: and we have extant a work written by him, without orders, consisting of moral maxims or precepts, simply expressed and destitute of poetical ornaments, versified, probably, for assisting the memory. Athenæus reckons him

among the advocates for licentious pleasures; and Suidas refers to a work of his composition, entitled "Exhortations" or "Admonitions," which contained various impurities. In the verses that now remain, nothing of this kind appears. "The Sentences of Theognis" have been often printed by themselves, and with the works of other minor Greek poets. Among the best editions, are those of Camerarius and Sylburgius. *Gen. Biog.*

THEOGONY [formed from the Gr. *Θεός*, God, and *γονή*, geniture, seed, offspring], that branch of the heathen theology which taught the genealogy of their gods.

Hesiod gives us the ancient theogony, in a poem under that title. See **POETRY** and **HESIOD.**

THEO'GONY, s. [*theogonie*, Fr.; *Θεογονία*, Gr.] The generation of the gods. *Cockeram.*—The *theogony* of the heathens could admit of such different turns and figurative expressions, as suited the fancy and judgment of each philosopher or poet. *Id. Shaftesbury.*

THEO'LOGASTER, s. A kind of quack in divinity, as a medicaster in physic; a low writer or student in divinity.—*Theologasters* are not contented to see the sun and moon, measure their site and biggest distance in a glass, calculate their motions, or visit the moon in a poetical fiction; but will transcend spheres, soar higher yet, and see what God himself doth. The Jewish thalmudists take upon them to determine how God spends his whole time. *Burton.*

THEO'LOGER, or THEOLO'GIAN, s. [*theologicus*, Fr.; *theologus*, Lat.] A divine; a professor of divinity.

They to their viands fell: nor seemingly
The angel, nor in mist, the common gloss
Of *theologians*, but with keen dispatch
Of real hunger.

Milton.

THEOLO'GIC, or THEOLO'GICAL, adj. [*theologicus*, Fr.; *theologia*, Lat.] Relating to the science of divinity.—Although some pens have only symbolized the same from the mystery of its colours, yet are there other affections might admit of *theological* allusions. *Brown.*

THEOLO'GICALLY, adv. According to the principles of theology.—Such things as exceed the faculty and possibility of nature, are properly and *theologically* miracles. *Dr. Westfeild.*

THEO'LOGIST, or THE'OLOGUE, s. [*theologus*, Lat.] A divine; one studious in the science of divinity.—The cardinals of Rome, which are *theologues*, friars, and schoolmen, call all temporal business, of wars, embassages, shirery, which is under-sheriffies. *Bacon.*

A *theologue* more by need than genial bent;
Int'rest in all his actions was discern'd.

Dryden.

THEOLOGIUM [formed from the Gr. *θεός*, and *λόγος*, speech, or discourse], in the ancient theatre, was a place, or little stage, above that on which the ordinary actors appeared. It was the place where their gods appeared: thus there was a theologium required for the representation of the Ajax of Sophocles, and the Hippolitus of Euripides. *Scal. Poet.*

To **THEO'LOGIZE, v. a.** To render theological.—School-divinity was but Aristotle's philosophy *theologized*. *Glanville.*

THEO'LOGY, s. [*theologic*, Fr.; *θεολογία*, Gr.] Divinity.—The whole drift of the Scripture of God, what is it but only to teach *theology*? *Theology*, what is it but the science of things divine? *Hooker.*

THEO'MACHIST, s. One who fights against the gods. *Bailey.*

THEO'MACHY, s. [*θεός* and *μαχή*, Gr.] The fight against the gods by the giants. It is used also for opposition to the divine will.—To have all men happy or unhappy as they were our friends or enemies, and to give form to the world according to our own humours, is the true *theomachy*. *Bacon.*

THEON, a mathematician of the Platonic school, was a native of Smyrna, and flourished under the emperors Trajan and Adrian. His mathematical treatises are said to have

been

been written for the purpose of elucidating the philosophy of Plato; and his discourses, treating of geometry, arithmetic, music, astronomy, and the harmony of the universe, may serve to throw some light upon the Pythagorean system. Part only of his work, "De iis quæ Mathematicis ad Platonis lectionem utilia sunt," or that which relates to arithmetic and music, has been published. The remainder, which pertained to astronomy and geometry, is said to have been preserved in the Ambrosian library, at Milan. Ptolemy refers to his astronomical observations. *Brucker by Enfield. Montucla Hist. des Math.*

Another mathematician of the same name belonged to the Alexandrian school, and flourished about A. D. 365.

THEOPHANES, a Greek historian and poet. About the commencement of the Mithridatic war, he is supposed to have come to Rome in his youth; and when Pompey was appointed to the chief command against Mithridates, he took Theophanes with him to record his exploits. The most important of his writings, was a "History of the Wars of the Romans, in different Countries under the Command of Pompey." Of this work there remain only five fragments, quoted by Strabo, Plutarch, and Stobæus; but Plutarch is supposed to have made great use of his authority in his life of Pompey, though he does not speak favourably of his character. Of the poetry of Theophanes, which was celebrated in his time, there remain only two epigrams, inserted in the *Anthologia Vossius*.

THEOPHANES (George), a Constantinopolitan Greek, of a rich and noble family, married young, but from superstitious motives lived in a state of celibacy. He afterwards became a monk. At the general council held in 787, he was present, and was treated with respect. When Nicephorus, patriarch of Constantinople, was exiled by the emperor Leo the Armenian, Theophanes paid him extraordinary honours, and was himself banished to the isle of Samothrace, where he died in 818. His chronicle, commencing where that of Syncellus terminated, was extended to the commencement of the reign of Michael Curopalata. This was printed at Paris, with the Latin version and notes of F. Goar, under the care of Combèsis, in 1665, fol. It is valuable for its facts, but displays the credulity and weak judgment of a superstitious mind. *Vossius*.

THEOPHANES (Prokopovitch), the son of Procopius, archbishop of Novogorod, a learned Russian historian, and miscellaneous writer, was born at Koif in the year 1681, and having studied under his uncle Theophanes at the Bratskoi convent in Kiof, travelled into Italy in his eighteenth year. His works were sermons and theological tracts, a treatise on rhetoric, and rules for composing Latin and Slavonian poetry, Latin verses, and more especially the Life of Peter the Great, terminating with his battle of Pultawa. *Coxe's Travels in Russia*.

THEOPHANIA [Θεοφανεία, formed from the Gr. Θεός, God, and φανω, I appear], in Antiquity, a festival observed by the Delphians upon the day on which Apollo first manifested himself to them.

THEOPHILUS, emperor of Constantinople, was the son of Michael the Stammerer, and succeeded his father in 829. See **ROME**.

THEOPHRASTA [so named in honour of the celebrated Grecian philosopher and botanist, Theophrastus Eresius], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of apocineæ, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-parted, permanent; segments oblong, ciliate at the edge. Corolla one-petalled, permanent; tube length of the calyx, bell-shaped; segments oblong, erect, spreading. Stamina: filaments five, below the middle of the tube, inserted into a membrane which surrounds the bottom internally, shorter than the corolla. Anthers acuminate. Pistil: germ roundish. Style length of the stamens, thick. Stigma blunt, perforated. Pericarp: fruit large, roundish, corticose, one-celled, many-seeded. Seeds oblong, shining, fastened to a fleshy juicy receptacle which is situated at the base.—*Essential Character*. Co-

rolla bell-shaped, with oblong, erect, spreading segments. Fruit one-celled, very large, roundish, many-seeded.

1. **Theophrasta Americana**.—Leaves repand-toothed, sharpish. Stem frutescent, one or two feet high, erect, leafy from the middle to the top. Racemes short, terminating, from the middle of the terminating leaves, many-flowered; peduncles numerous, curved, short, one-flowered. Seeds black, hard, fastened at the base but free above.—Native of South America; in dry coppices of Hispaniola.

2. **Theophrasta longifolia**.—Leaves mucronate-toothed, acuminate.—This is very like the preceding, but yet it is distinct, in having the leaves attenuated at both ends, with the teeth acute and mucronate.—Native of America, at the Caraccas.

THEOPHRASTICS, a name given to the followers of Paracelsus, from his name Theophrastus.

THEOPHRASTUS, a distinguished Greek philosopher, the favourite pupil of Aristotle, and nominated by him as his successor in the school of the Lyceum, was born at Eresium, a maritime town of Lesbos, in the second year of the 102d Olympiad, B. C. 371. His first rudiments of education were received under Alcippus in his own country, and being sent by his father to Athens, he became first a disciple of Plato and afterwards of Aristotle. After he undertook the Peripatetic school in the year B. C. 323, his reputation was so distinguished, that the number of his scholars was about 2000. His erudition and engaging manners recommended him to the notice of Cassander and Ptolemy: by the former he was invited to Macedon, and by the latter to Egypt; and among the Athenians he was so great a favourite, that, when he was accused by one of his enemies of teaching impious doctrines, the accuser could not without difficulty escape the punishment which he endeavoured to bring upon Theophrastus. Theophrastus is no less highly celebrated for his generosity and public spirit, than for his industry, learning, and eloquence. He is said to have twice saved his country from the oppression of tyrants; and he contributed liberally towards defraying the expence of public meetings held by philosophers for learned and ingenious conversation. In the public schools he appeared, after the manner of Aristotle, in an elegant dress, and was very attentive to the graces of elocution: and hence it is said he obtained the appellation of Theophrastus, the divine speaker. Towards the close of life, which was prolonged to the age of 85 years, he became very infirm, and was conveyed to the school in a carriage. In contemplating the shortness of life, he expressed great regret; complaining that long life was granted to stags and crows, to whom it was of little value, but was denied to man, who, if it were of longer duration, might attain the summit of science: whereas now, as soon as he arrives within sight of it, he is taken away. His last advice to his disciples was, that since it is the lot of man to die as soon as he begins to live, they should take greater pains to enjoy life as it passes, than to acquire posthumous fame.

Few of his works, of which Diogenes Laertius enumerates more than 200, have reached our time: of these, the most famous is entitled "Characters," describing different moral classes of men, such as the flatterer, the impudent, the discontented, the garrulous, the superstitious, &c.; so distinguished and described, as to shew great knowledge of mankind. Of his other works on natural history, the principal are his "History of Plants," in nine books, which Haller has particularly recommended to the notice of botanical students; "On the Causes of Plants," relating chiefly to the natural and artificial means of bringing them to maturity; to agriculture and horticulture; to the tastes and odours of vegetables; "On Stones;" "On Winds;" "On Fire;" "On Honey;" "On the Signs of Fair Weather, and of Tempests and Rain;" "On Animals which change their Colour;" "On Animals which are born suddenly;" "On Fish which live out of Water." Theophrastus ranks amongst the most distinguished of the ancients for comprehensive genius and diligent inquiry into nature. The last edition of the

the whole extant works of Theophrastus, is that of Dan. Heinsius, Greek and Latin, fol. Lugd. Bat. 1613. Of his "History of Plants," the most complete is that of Budæus, Greek and Latin, fol. Amst. 1644. Among the most esteemed editions of his "Characters," which are numerous, we may reckon those of Is. Casaubon, of Needham, with the notes of Duport, Cantab. 1712, and of I. Fr. Fischer, Coburg. 1763. *Diog. Laert. Brucker by Enfield.*

THEOPHYLACT, named **SIMOCATTA**, a Greek historian, a native of Greece, but of Egyptian origin, flourished about A. D. 612. His history of the reign of the emperor Maurice is comprehended in eight books, and terminates with the massacre of this prince and his children by Phocas. Casaubon reckons Simocatta one of the best of the later Greek historians. The work just mentioned was printed at the Louvre, in 1647, fol. and forms a part of the Byzantine historians.

THEOPNEUSTÆ [Θεοπνευσται, formed from the Gr. of Θεος, *God*, and πνευα, *I breathe*], an epithet given to enthusiastic divines.

THEOPOLIS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Gallia Narbonnensis, belonging to the Aventici, north-east of Forum Novum.

THEOPROPRIA [Θεοπροπρια, formed from the Gr. of Θεος, *God*, and προπρια, *I conceal*], a designation given to oracles.

THEORBO, *s.* [*tiórba*, Italian; *tuorbe*, Fr.] A large lute for playing a thorough bass, used by the Italians. *Bailcy.*
He wanted nothing but a song,
And a well tun'd *thorbo* hung
Upon a bough, to ease the pain
His tugg'd ears suffer'd with a strain. *Butler.*

THEOREM, *s.* [*thorcmc*, Fr.; Θεωρημα, Gr.] A position laid down as an acknowledged truth.—Having found this the head *theorem* of all their discourses, who plead for the change of ecclesiastical government in England, we hold it necessary that the proofs thereof be weighed. *Hooker.*—A position proposed to be demonstrated. It is used by mathematicians in this sense as well as the other. *Malone.*

THEOREMATICAL, **THEOREMAT'IC**, or **THEOREM'IC**, *adj.* Comprised in theorems; consisting in theorems.—*Theoremic* truth, or that which lies in the conceptions we have of things, is negative or positive. *Grew.*

THEORETICAL, **THEORET'IC**, **THEORICAL**, or **THEORIC**, *adj.* [*thorctique*, French; from Θεωρητικός, Gr.; *thorrique*, Fr., from Θεωρια, Gr.] Speculative; depending on theory or speculation; terminating in theory or speculation; not practical.—For *theoretical* learning and sciences there is nothing yet complete. *Burnet.*—The *theoretical* part of the inquiry being interwoven with the historical conjectures the philosophy of colours will be promoted by indisputable experiments. *Boyle.*—Admirably well turned, not only for the *theoretic*, but also the practical behaviour of cunning fellows. *Tatler.*

THEORETICALLY, or **THEORICALLY**, *adv.* Speculatively; not practically.—Able to discourse *theoretically* of the dimensions, situation, and motion, of the whole terrestrial globe. *Boyle.*

THEORIA [Θεωρια, Gr.], a solemn annual voyage to Apollo's temple in the island of Delos, performed by the Athenians always in the same ship in which Theseus went. For the particularities of this naval procession, see *Potter's Archæol. Græc.* lib. ii.

THEORIC, *s.* Speculation, not practice.

The bookish *thorick*,
Wherein the toged consuls can propose
As masterly as he; meer prattle, without practice,
Is all his soldieryship. *Shakspeare.*

THEORIC MONEY was what was raised, by way of tax on the people, to defray the expences of theatrical representations, and other spectacles. By a law of Eubulus it was

made a capital crime to pervert the theoric money to any other use; even to employ it in the occasions of war.

THEORIST, *s.* A speculatist; one given to speculation.—The greatest *theorists* have given the preference to such a government as that which obtains in this kingdom *Addison.*

THEORY, *s.* [*thorie*, Fr.; Θεωρια, Gr.] Speculation; not practice; scheme; plan or system yet subsisting only in the mind.—If they had been themselves to execute their own *theory* in this church, they would have seen, being nearer. *Hooker.*

THEORY, *Atomic*, in Chemistry, the means of explaining the composition and decomposition of chemical bodies, by considering their ultimate atoms or particles as peculiar and distinct elementary solids, never changing in their figure, weight, or volume, under any circumstances.

It would be difficult to conceive the existence of any compound without supposing it to have originated by union, in some way or other, of particles of its elementary constituents; but the prevalence of a doctrine, which has been generally advanced by mathematicians, viz., the infinite divisibility of matter, has never allowed philosophers to conclude that the circumstance of compounds being made up of particles, must necessarily limit the proportions in which the elements combine. If the elementary bodies be conceived infinitely divisible, the molecules, or compound particles, may be conceived infinitely small, and the number of mean compounds existing between any two given extremes may be also considered infinite.

If such were the nature of elementary matter, and no other causes interferred, there could be no limitation to the proportions in which simple matter would combine. This, however, is contrary to fact; as it is a fact known from the earliest dawnings of chemical knowledge, that bodies are limited in the proportions of their elements; the most striking of these facts being the mutual saturation which takes place between an acid and an alkali, and the uniform proportions afforded in the analysis of many native compounds.

Philosophers were always satisfied to consider this fact of the limitation of the proportions of bodies as one of the hidden secrets of nature, as difficult to conceive as the nature of the attraction by which their elements were held together. Berthollet appears to have been the first to attempt this arduous task, in his ingenious work, entitled "Chemical Statics." He supposes that the particles of bodies, when brought within the sphere of attraction, combine without controul till the compound assumes some definite form, by which it is withdrawn from the situation in which it was formed. He supposes the chemical affinity of bodies to be distinct from that power on which their cohesion depends, and also that power by which they tend to an elastic state.

Hence he concludes, that every solid compound is determined by the cohesion which takes place at some limit in the proportion of its elements; such he supposes to be the case with salts and other crystallizable compounds. On the other hand, he supposes the limitations of the proportions of the elements of gaseous compounds to arise from the elastic form which they assume in certain stages of combination. This hypothesis was supported by so many striking facts, that it was thought by some to explain in general the cause of limited proportions. All agreed, that whatever might be the true theory, the causes pointed out by Berthollet had considerable influence in the composition and decomposition of bodies, but they saw at the same time numerous cases in which this hypothesis failed to explain the facts.

Chemists have, from the earliest times, been acquainted with those points of limitation which we call mutual saturation, and have been long familiar with those limited augmentations of their proportions, called by some doses and by others particles. Among the oxyds of metals, which had been little examined before the time of Lavoisier, it was found, that instead of having an infinite number of means between the lowest and highest stages of oxydation, only a certain

certain number of oxyds of each metal could be formed, in which the ratio of the metal to the oxygen is uniform. Many of the salts in the same way are formed by limited doses of acid. Some of the facts in the latter have been explained on Berthollett's hypothesis, while its application to the former facts is totally insufficient. Long previous to the true cause of these limited doses, the facts were so conspicuous, that a decided nomenclature was adopted for the purpose of expressing these different stages of combination. The oxyds have been distinguished by the Greek numerals *prot, deut, trit, &c.* The salts containing two doses of acid have been called *super-salts*; and those containing an extra dose of base, have been called *sub-salts*.

Although chemists have frequently used a language which appeared to shew their acquaintance with the real cause of the definite proportions, such as one compound being forced by one proportion, dose, or particle of one of its elements, and another with two proportions, doses, or particles: on the other hand, we find expressions which would favour the idea of indefinite proportions; such as bodies losing a small portion of their oxygen, or absorbing a little oxygen from the atmosphere. Salts are sometimes said to contain a slight excess of acid, or a small excess of base.

The most decided language used in any chemical work before the discoveries of Mr. John Dalton, giving any idea that the doses are limited by distinct atoms, will be found in a work by Mr. Higgins, entitled "A Comparative View of the Phlogistic and Antiphlogistic Theories."

This work was written for the express purpose of combatting the phlogistic theory, and principally, in answer to Mr. Kirwan's treatise of phlogiston. In order to shew the contradictions and absurdities of the phlogistic doctrine, which, under the name of phlogiston, confounded a number of bodies which were very different, he exhibited by diagrams a number of chemical operations, in which he supposed the elementary bodies concerned to be ultimate particles, and their immediate compounds molecules. He in the same diagrams also used numbers, which he supposed to be estimates of the strength of affinity of the combining particles. By this means he very successfully shewed many of the inconsistencies which must be admitted to explain the phenomena on the phlogistic theory. In this mode of proceeding, however, the numbers expressing the relative attractions, served his purpose much more than the consideration of the proportions being caused by distinct atoms; and the language which would induce the belief that he had such a conception of the nature of elementary matter, occurs only in a very few parts of his work.

After concluding that it is unnecessary to admit the existence of the imaginary substance of phlogiston in sulphur, he concludes, in page 36, that sulphurous acid is compounded of one ultimate particle of sulphur with one of oxygen, and that sulphuric acid consists of one of sulphur and two of oxygen.

In the same page he also observes, that water is formed by one ultimate particle of water united to one of oxygen.

In page 81, he supposes sulphuretted hydrogen to consist of nine ultimate particles of sulphur with five of hydrogen. Previous, however, to this conclusion, he believes that the sulphur and hydrogen are not chemically combined, but that the sulphur is dissolved in hydrogen, as a salt dissolves in water.

After using arguments to shew, in answer to Mr. Kirwan, that the nitric acid does not contain what was thought to be phlogiston, he concludes, in page 132, with giving what he conceives to be its constituents, *viz.*, that the nitrous oxyd consists of one ultimate particle of azote and one of oxygen; nitrous gas, of one of azote and two of oxygen; red nitrous vapour, one of azote and three of oxygen; straw-coloured nitrous acid, one of azote to four of oxygen; and lastly, that the nitric acid is constituted by one of azote and five of oxygen. These facts are certainly very remarkable, as they agree with the conclusions in the present time, and give a strong proof of Mr. Higgins's genius at the time he wrote.

He does not, however, lay any stress upon these remarks, and was not probably aware that they would be confirmed by future research. We are induced to think so, from the manner in which he expresses himself in other parts of his work, in which he frequently speaks of the absorption of small portions of oxygen, and of bodies having a small portion of oxygen more than they can retain. This vague manner of speaking is sufficient to shew that Mr. Higgins had no fixed notions of the cause of definite proportions, and that the language in which he has used the words ultimate particles and molecules, was employed rather with a view to illustrate his examples, than to broach any new theory to explain indefinite proportions. Indeed it would have been inconsistent to have treated two subjects, so very different in their objects, in their same pages.

It was not enough to know that compound bodies were formed of particles, to enable us to explain the cause of definite proportions; and we want no greater proof of this, than the fact of the true cause not being known till twenty-eight years after Mr. Higgins had told us that one particle of sulphur and one of oxygen formed sulphurous acid, and that one to two formed sulphuric acid. These loose expressions were but a small step indeed towards the discovery of the atomic theory in its present form, which has placed chemistry on the same ground with that on which the discovery of the laws of gravity placed the science of astronomy.

We are inclined to believe that the first step towards this important discovery was given by Richter. He found, in the double decomposition of salts, that the acid of one salt was always just sufficient to saturate the base of the other, and *vice versa*. He also ascertained, that when one metal was precipitated by another, the oxygen of the precipitated metal was just what was required by the precipitating metal.

The inference to be drawn from these facts was, that if A combine with x to saturation, and B with y to the same; then, if A should be found to saturate y , B would also saturate x . This inference may be still further extended; for if A be a body capable of combining with B, they will mutually saturate each other.

It is the means of drawing these inferences arising from the mutual fitness of those parts of bodies which combine, that constitutes the importance of the atomic theory, and it is for the establishment of this new principle that we are indebted to Mr. John Dalton.

When Mr. Dalton's book was first before the public, very few chemists understood the true spirit of the atomic theory; and those who conceived they did understand it, in general discarded it. All knew that he considered compounds to be formed of atoms united 1 to 1, 1 to 2, 1 to 3, &c.; but it was not till the reciprocal fitness of these atoms with each other was found to agree with analysis, that it was generally received. When they saw that the numbers, which Dalton called the weights of the atoms, expressed the simple proportions in which bodies combine, they knew it could not be the effect of chance, and have willingly joined in the research. It is for this part of the discovery that Mr. Dalton justly merits the fame he has acquired.

The French chemists have adopted the atomic theory under another form, which will be found to agree with the language given by Berzelius, who uses the word *volume* for atom.

Gay Lussac several years ago published a new law respecting the combination of gaseous bodies. He held that gases which combine chemically, either unite in equal volumes, or 1 to 2, or some multiple of 1, by a whole number. Although a number of facts seemed to agree with this law, the truth of it was doubted by some chemists, and principally because no apparent reason appeared for such a law.

There is a curious coincidence between the specific gravity, and the weight of atoms of the gases, which has since been taken notice of by Dr. Prout in Dr. Thompson's Annals. In order that the weights of the atoms may be equal to their specific gravities, it is there stated, that the number of particles in equal volumes of all gases must be equal, and the distance between

between the centres of the particles of all gases the same, so that the weights of equal volumes of different gases, would be as the weights of the atoms.

This would also require, that the attraction between the particles should either be the same in all, or that it should be nothing; and the distance of the particles be at points where the repulsion of the calorific atmosphere is balanced by the incumbent pressure.

The state here supposed, however, is not the case, since we find that the weights of the atoms of the gases generally are not equal to the specific gravity, when reduced to the same standard, although it is strictly the case with a great proportion of them. And in those cases where they are not equal, the one is said to be some multiple of the other, by a whole number.

This circumstance favours the hope that some general law exists, by which the weights of the atoms of bodies are intimately connected with their specific gravities in the elastic form. When the specific gravity is double the weight of the atom, as is the case with oxygen, we have to suppose, that the particles are nearer each other in the proportion of 2 to 1, or that two particles come together, and are surrounded by the calorific, which belongs to one of them in their single state.

It would appear that the oxygen puts on this single state of existence in the formation of carbonic oxyd, because that gaseous body contains only one atom of oxygen; hence its specific gravity is the same as if it were formed from a gaseous oxygen of half the real specific gravity united to an atom of carbon without any change of volume, the same as takes place when sulphur or carbon is burned in oxygen gas. Hence we may explain the great tendency that oxygen has to combine in double doses with bodies, as is the case with carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, iron, and many other bodies.

We have also an instance of a compound gaseous body becoming of double the specific gravity which would be expected in olefacient gas, which is composed of an atom of carbon and an atom of hydrogen. The specific gravity (hydrogen being 1) ought to be $1 + 5.4 = 6.4$; but in fact it is about the double of this. Hence we should conclude, that the repulsion between the particles is halved, or that the compound atoms have united in pairs, by which the density is doubled.

THEOSO'PHICAL, or **THEOSO'PHIC**, *adj.* [$\Theta\epsilon\omicron\varsigma$ and $\sigma\phi\omicron\varsigma$. Gr.] Divinely wise. *Coles.*—There is a various intertexture of *theosophical* and philosophical truths. *More.*

THEOSOPHISTS, the denomination of a class of philosophers, who professed to derive their knowledge of nature from divine revelation.

THEOXENIA [$\Theta\epsilon\omicron\zeta\epsilon\nu\alpha$, Gr.], in Antiquity, a festival in honour of all the gods, and celebrated in many cities of Greece, but especially Athens.

THERAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, and district of Khakreze. It is a large open town, and subject to a Hindoo chief called Zalim Sing. Lat. 24. 30. N. long. 71. 57. E.

THERAPEUTÆ, $\theta\epsilon\rho\alpha\pi\epsilon\upsilon\tau\alpha\iota$, a Greek term signifying servants, more especially those employed in the service of God. The Greeks gave the appellation *therapeutæ* to such as applied themselves to a contemplative life, whether it were from the great concern they had for their souls, or from the particular mode and manner of their religion; the word $\theta\epsilon\rho\alpha\pi\epsilon\upsilon\epsilon\upsilon$, whence *therapeutæ*, signifying the care a physician takes of his patient, or the service any one renders another.

THERAPEUTICAL, or **THERAPE'UTIC**, *adj.* [*theραπευτικη*, Fr.; $\theta\epsilon\rho\alpha\pi\epsilon\upsilon\tau\iota\omicron\varsigma$, Greek.] Curative; teaching or endeavouring the cure of diseases.—This remedy, in my opinion, should rather be prophylactical, for prevention of the disease, than *therapeutical*, for the cure of it. *Ferrand.*

THERAPHIM, or **TERAPHIM**, an Hebrew term, which has given great exercise to the critics. We meet with it thirteen or fourteen times in Scripture, where it is commonly interpreted *idols*; but the rabbins are not contented to have it simply signify idols, but will have it denote a peculiar

sort of idols or images intended for the knowledge of futurity, i. e. oracles.

THERAUD, an extensive district of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, of which it forms the north-west frontier. It contains 32 villages; but as water is very scarce, there not being a river in the whole district, the cultivation is but scanty.

THERAUD, the capital of the above mentioned district, and residence of the chief. Lat. 24. 37. N. long. 71. 58. E.

THERE, *adv.* [*thar*, Gothic; $\zeta\alpha\rho$, Saxon; *daer*, Dutch; *der*, Danish.] In that place.

If they come to sojourn at my house,
I'll not be *there*.

Shakspeare.

It is opposed to *here*.—To see thee fight, to see thee traverse, to see thee *here*, to see thee *there*.

Shakspeare.

An exclamation directing something at a distance.

Your fury hardens me.

A guard *there*; seize her.

Dryden.

It is used at the beginning of a sentence with the appearance of a nominative case, but serves only to throw the nominative behind the verb: as, a man came, or, *there* came a man. It adds however some emphasis, which, like many other idioms in every language, must be learned by custom, and can hardly be explained. It cannot always be omitted without harshness: as, in old times *there* was a great king.—Wherever *there* is sense or perception, there some idea is actually produced. *Locke.*—In composition it means *that*: as *thereby*, *by that*.

THEREABOUT, or **THEREABOUTS**, *adv.* [*Lye*, with *Hickes*, considers *there*, in composition, as the genitive dative, and ablative, of the Sax. article $\delta\alpha\rho$; and thus explain *thereafter* by *post hoc, hæc*, vel *ea*; *thereof*, by *de vel ex eo, ea, iis*, &c. thus excluding the adverb, strictly speaking, from the several combinations. *Thereabouts* is therefore less proper.] Near that place.—One speech I lov'd; 'twas Æneas's tale to Dido; and *thereabout* of it especially where he speaks of Priam's slaughter. *Shakspeare.*—Nearly; near that number, quantity, or state. Find a house to lodge a hundred and fifty persons, whereof twenty or *thereabouts* may be attendants. *Milton.*—Concerning that matter.—As they were much perplexed *thereabout*, two men stood by. *St. Luke.*

THEREAFTER, *adv.* According to that; accordingly.

If food were now before thee set,
Would'st thou not eat? *thereafter* as I like
The giver.

Milton.

After that. [$\delta\alpha\rho$ - $\alpha\epsilon\tau\epsilon\rho$, Sax., *post hoc*.]
Herself then tooke he by the slender wast
In vaine loud crying, and into the flood
Over the castle walle adowne her cast,
And there her drowned in the dirty mud.—
Thereafter all that mucky pelfe he tooke,
The spoile of people's evil gotten good,
The which her sire had scrap'd by hooke and crooke.

Spenser.

THEREA'T, *adv.* At that; on that account.—Every error, is a stain to the beauty of nature; for which cause it bluseth *thereat* but glorieth in the contrary. *Hooker.*—At that place.—Wide is the gate and broad is the way that leadeth to destruction, and many go in *thereat*. *St. Matt.*

THEREBY, *adv.* By that; by means of that; in consequence of that.—Some parts of our liturgy consist in the reading of the word of God, and the proclaiming of his law, that the people may *thereby* learn what their duties are towards him. *Hooker.*—Near or by that place.

There was an holy chappell edifyde,
Wherein the hermite dewly went to say
His holy things each morne and eventyde:
Thereby a christall streame did gently play,
Which from a sacred fountaine welled forth alway. *Spenser.*

THE'REFORE,

THE'REFORE, *adv.* Formerly accented indifferently on either syllable.—For that; for this; for this reason.

This is the latest parley we will admit;
Therefore to our best mercy give yourselves. *Shakspeare.*

Consequently.—He blushes; *therefore* he is guilty. *Spec-tator.*—In return for this; in recompence for this or for that.—We have forsaken all and followed thee, what shall we have *therefore*. *St. Matt.*—For that purpose. *Not in use.*

So to his steed he got, and gan to ride
As one unfit *therefore*, that all might see
He had not trayned bene in chivalree. *Spenser.*

THEREFRO'M, *adv.* From that; from this.—The leaves that spring *therefrom* grow white. *Mortimer.*

THEREIN, *adv.* In that; in this.—*Therein* our let-ters do not well agree. *Shakspeare.*

THEREINTO, *adv.* Into that.—Though we shall have occasion to speak of this, we will now make some entrance *thereinto*. *Bacon.*

THEREOF, *adv.* Of that; of this.—I shall begin with Greece, where my observations shall be confined to Athens, though several instances might be brought from other states *thereof*. *Swift.*

THEREO'N, *adv.* On that.
You shall bereave yourself
Of my good purposes, and put your children
To that destruction which I'll guard them from,
If *thereon* you rely. *Shakspeare.*

THEREO'UT, *adv.* Out of that.
Thereout a strange beast with seven heads arose,
That towns and castles under her breast did cour. *Spenser.*

THERESE, *Str.* ISLE OF, an island in the St. Lawrence, formed by the confluence of the Rivieres des Prairies, which bounds the northern shore of the island of Montreal.

THERESIENFELD, a small town of Lower Austria, to the south of Vienna.

THERESIENSTADT, or **MARIEN THERESIENSTADT**, a large town of the south of Hungary, in the palatinate of Bacs. This, like Debreczin, is an assemblage of villages, or rather one vast overgrown village, consisting of 3000 cottages, inhabited by 22,000 inmates, partly of Servian, partly of Rascian descent. Lat. 46. 5. 46. N. long. 19. 40. 42. E.

THERESIENSTADT, a fortified place of the north of Bohemia, situated in the angle formed by the Elbe and the Egra, at their junction; 31 miles north-north-west of Prague, and 1 south-east of Leutmeritz.

THERESIOPEL, a small town in the south of Hungary, a little to the north of Temesvar, inhabited by a Bulgarian colony.

THERETO', or **THEREUNTO'**, *adv.* To that.—Next *thereunto* did grow a goodly tree. *Spenser.*

THEREUNDER, *adv.* Under that.—Those which come nearer unto reason, find paradise under the equinoctial line, judging that *thereunder* might be found most pleasure and the greatest fertility. *Raleigh.*

THEREUPON, *adv.* Upon that; in consequence of that.

He hopes to find you forward,
And *thereupon* he sends you this good news. *Shakspeare.*
Immediately.

THEREWHILE, *adv.* At the same time. *Not in use.*
—Of this bodily reverence of God in his church, the govern-ment is moderate; God grant it be not loose *therewhile*.
Abp. Laud.

THEREWI' TH, *adv.* With that.
Therewith at last he forc'd him to untie
One of his grasping feet, him to defend thereby. *Spenser.*
Immediately.

THEREWI' TH' AL, *adv.* Over and above.
Therewithal the execrable act
On their late murther'd king they aggravate. *Daniel.*

At the same time.

Well, give her that ring, and give *therewithal*
That letter. *Shakspeare.*

With that.

His hideous tail then hurled he about,
And *therewithal* enwrapt the nimble thighs
Of his froth-foamy steed. *Spenser.*

The compounds of *there* meaning *that*, and of *here* meaning *this*, have been for some time passing out of use, and are no longer found in elegant writings, which is to be regretted, seeing their great utility and euphony.

THERF-BREAD, *s.* [vet. Angl. Boreal. *derf-brode*; ðæpp vel ðeopp, Sax., *panis azymus*. Lye.] Unleavened bread. *Obsolete.*—The fest of *therf-loaves*. *Wicliffe.*

THERFIELD, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 2½ miles south-west-by-south of Royston. Population 692.

THER'RIAC, *s.* [from *θηριακα*, Gr., various compositions esteemed good against poisons.] A remedy against poisons; treacle.—When the disease was young, it was mitigated with rob of elder; with crabs-eyes; spirits of hartshorn; *theriac* and vinegar. *The Student.*

THERIACA [*θηριακα*, Gr., *treacle*], in Medicine, a name given by the ancients to various compositions esteemed good against poisons; but afterwards chiefly restrained to what, by way of distinction, has been called *theriaca Andromachi*, or *Venice treacle*: but now altogether out of use.

This was a compound of no less than sixty-four drugs, prepared, pulverized, and reduced, by means of honey, into an electuary. The basis or foundation of the composition was viper's flesh. M. Charas has written a particular history of the animals, plants, and minerals, which entered the composition of this famed remedy.

THERI'ACAL, *adj.* [*θηριακα*, Gr.; *theriaca*, Lat.] Medicinal; physical.—The virtuous bezoar is taken from the beast that feedeth upon the mountains, where there are *theriacal* herbs. *Bacon.*

THERIOMA [from the Gr. *θησιω*, *to rage*], in Surgery, a malignant ulcer.

THERMÆ [*θερμαι*, Gr.], in Architecture, ancient build-ings, furnished with baths, especially of the hot kind.

Among the noblest monuments of ancient Rome, are reckoned the thermæ, or baths of Dioclesian.

THERMAL, *adj.* [*thermal*, Fr., from *θερμος*, Gr. *warm*.] Relating to warm baths, natural or artificial; as *thermal* waters.

THERMIA, a small island of European Turkey, in the Archipelago, belonging to the Cyclades, and situated about 40 miles north-west of the island of Faros, and 25 south-south-east of Cape Colonna, the southern point of Attica. Lat. 37. 20. N. long. 24. 32. E.

THERMO'METER, *s.* [*thermometric*, Fr.; *θερμος* and *μετρον*, Gr.] An instrument for measuring the heat of the air, or of any matter.—The greatest heat is about two in the afternoon, when the sun is past the meridian, as is evident from the *thermometer*, or observations of the weather-glass. *Brown.*

THERMOME'TRICAL, *adj.* Relating to the measure of heat.—His heat raises the liquor in the *thermometrical* tubes. *Cheyne.*

THERMOPYLÆ, a pass in the north-east of Greece, at the base of Mount Oeta, famous for the fate of Leonidas and his 300 Spartans. It consists of a narrow passage, between high cliffs on one side, and on the other the sea, or an impassable marsh, formed by alluvial deposits. It is of great length, extending on the whole not less than five miles; but the breadth of the passable ground, only 50 or 60 paces in the time of the ancient Greeks, is now nearly double, from the retiring of the sea and the deposit of farther alluvial soil.

THERMOP'SIS. See **SOPHORA**.

THERMOSCOPE, *s.* [*thermoscope*, Fr.; *θερμος* and *σκοπεω*, Gr.] An instrument by which the degrees of heat are discovered; a thermometer.—By the trial of the *thermo-scope*, fishes have more heat than the element which they swim in. *Arbuthnot.*

THEROUENE,

THEROUENNE, a petty town in the north of France, department of the Pas de Calais. It was in ancient times the capital of the Morini, and was a fortress so lately as 1553, when it was taken by the Austrians, and demolished.

THESE, *pron.*, the plural of *this*. [*ῥα*, Sax.; *desc.* Dutch; *thesser*, Icel. Lye.] Opposed to *those*, or to some others.

Did we for *these* barbarians plant and sow
On *these*, on *these* our happy fields bestow?

Dryden.

These relates to the persons or things last mentioned; and *those* to the first.—More rain falls in June and July than in December and January; but it makes a much greater shew upon the earth in *these* months than in *those*, because it lies longer upon it. *Woodward.*

THE'SIS, *s.* [*these*, Fr.; *ῥεσις*, Gr.] A position; something laid down, affirmatively or negatively.

The truth of what you here lay down,
By some example should be shewn.
An honest, but a simple pair,
May serve to make this *thesis* clear.

Prior.

THESIUM [of Pliny. Derivation unknown], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of vepreculæ, elæagni (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, turbinate, permanent, half-five-cleft; segments half-lanceolate, erect, obtuse. Corolla none, unless the calyx internally coloured may be regarded as such. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, inserted into the base of the calycine segments, shorter than the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ inferior, growing upon the base of the calyx. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma thickish, obtuse. Pericarp none. The calyx contains the seed in its bottom, and does not open. Seed one, roundish, covered.—*Essential Character.* Calyx: one-leafed, into which the stamens are inserted. Nut inferior, one-seeded.

1. Thesium linophyllum, flax-leaved thesium, or bastard toad-flax.—Spike branched; bracts in threes; leaves linear-lanceolate; calyx-tube very short. Root woody, branched, crooked, whitish, perennial. Flowers in spikes. It has several varieties.—Native of Europe, Siberia and Barbary, chiefly in a calcareous soil: it flowers in July.

2. Thesium Alpinum, or Alpine thesium.—Raceme leafed, leaves linear. Root perennial, fibrous, of a dirty white colour.—Native of the mountains of Italy, Germany, Austria, Switzerland, the South of France, Mount Atlas and Siberia.

3. Thesium humile, or dwarf thesium.—Leaves linear, somewhat fleshy; flowers axillary, sessile, five-cleft.—Native of the kingdom of Tunis.

4. Thesiumlineatum.—Leaves linear; stem round, angular, leafless below; branches erect, divaricating; flowers axillary, peduncled.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. Thesium squarrosum.—Leaves linear, subulate, recurved and reflexed; stem round; flowers axillary, sessile.—Found at the Cape.

6. Thesium frisea.—Flowers subspliked, directed one way, ciliate-woolly; leaves awl-shaped.—Found at the Cape.

Thesium funale. Thesium spicatum. Thesium capitatum. Thesium strictum. Thesium umbellatum. Thesium fragile. Thesium scabrum. Thesium paniculatum. Thesium amplexicaule. Thesium triflorum. Thesium euphorbioides. Thesium colpoon. Thesium spinosum.

THE'SMOTHETE, *s.* [*thesmothete*, Fr.; *ῥεσμοθητης*, and *ῥεσμος τιθεμι*, Gr.] A lawgiver.

THESPIS, the supposed inventor of tragedy, flourished 580 B. C. See the article **POETRY**.

THESSALONICA. See **SALONICHI**.

THESSALY, an extensive province in the north of Greece, extending in an oblong form from north to south, and bounded on the east by the part of the Ægean which forms the gulf of Salonica; on the west by high mountains of the Pindus range. By the Turkish division of Greece, it is comprehended in the sandjiaçat or government of Tricala, an inland town situated to the west. It is one of the finest provinces of Greece, containing fertile plains, watered by streams

descending from the mountains in the west, and flowing into the Ægean.

THETA, Θ, one of the Greek letters. It was used as a mark on the ballots of judges, by which they condemned the person to death, it being the first letter of the word *Θάνατος*, death. Whence it had the epithet of *niger* and *infelix*, thus:—

“O multum ante alias infelix litera theta.”

THETFORD, a market town of England, in the county of Norfolk, situated in a pleasant open country, on the river Ouse, at its confluence with the Thet, which runs through it. The greater part of the town is in Norfolk, but part of it is also in Suffolk. The Suffolk side contains now only a few houses, but on the Norfolk side there are several streets of considerable extent; and of late years the town is much improved in its general appearance. Thetford is a very ancient burgh; but its charter of incorporation, by which it is still governed, was granted by queen Elizabeth in the year 1573. The corporation consists of a mayor, 10 aldermen, 20 common-councilmen, a recorder, town-clerk, sword-bearer, and two serjeants-at-mace. It sends two members to parliament. The town has been honoured with the presence of many of our sovereigns, particularly Henry I. and Henry II. Several charters granted by the former monarch bear date at Thetford. In 1821, Thetford contained 402 houses, and 2922 inhabitants. Market on Saturday, and two annual fairs; 29 miles south-west of Norwich, and 80 north-north-east of London. Lat. 52. 25. N. long. 0. 43. E.

THETFORD, a hamlet of England, in Cambridgeshire; 2 miles south-hy-west of Ely.

THETFORD, a township of Lower Canada, in the county of Buckingham.

THETICAL, *adj.* Laid down.—This law—was merely *thetical* or positive, not indispensable and natural. *More.*

THETTAU, a village of Bavarian Franconia, in the principality of Bamberg, near Lauenstein, with 800 inhabitants.

THEVENOT (John), a traveller in the Levant, was born in Lorraine, and after repeated journies, died in Persia, in 1667. He is said to have introduced the use of coffee into France. His “Voyage in Asia” was published in 1664, which is a work considerably esteemed, and has been often re-edited. The Amsterdam edition in 12mo., 1727, is comprised in 5 vols. *Novv. Dict. Histor.*

THEVENOT (Nicholas Melchisedec), a writer of travels, was born in 1621, probably at Paris, and having finished his studies, indulged his propensity for visiting foreign countries, confining himself chiefly to various parts of Europe. The result of his observations and inquiries was published in a “Collection of Voyages and Travels,” comprised in 4 vols. fol. from 1663 to 1672. From various MSS. in the royal library, he compiled “The Works of Ancient Mathematicians,” an edition of which was published after his death. *Moreri.*

THEVET (Andrew), a traveller and writer, was born at Angouleme in 1502; and being desirous of visiting foreign countries, he obtained, by the interest of the cardinal of Lorraine, an opportunity of going to Jerusalem. His travels in the Levant occupied him from 1549 to 1554; and after his return to France, he accompanied the sieur de Villegaignon, in 1555, to found a colony in Brazil. In 1556 he took the habit of an ecclesiastic, and was appointed almoner to queen Catharine de Medicis. He also obtained the titles of historiographer and cosmographer royal, and died at Paris in 1590, at the advanced age of 88 years. Besides other works, he published “Cosmographie du Levant,” 1554, 4to.; “Les Singularités de la France Antarctique,” 1588, 4to.; and “Cosmographie Universelle,” 2 vols. fol. 1575; but unfortunately his veracity is questionable. *Moreri.*

THEURGICAL, or **THEUR'GIC**, *adj.* [*theurgique*, Fr.] Relating to theurgy. See **THEURGY**.—All his endeavour to purge his soul by these *theurgic* consecrations was frustrated. *Hallywell.*

THE'URGIST, *s.* One who is addicted to theurgy.—
More

More refined necromancers or magicians call themselves *theurgists*; thinking to have to do only with good spirits. *Hallywell.*

THE'URGY, *s.* [*θεουργία*, Gr.; *thurgic*, Fr.] The power of doing supernatural things by lawful means, as by prayer to God. Also it is a species of magic, in old times, which was employed in the worship of angels for their assistance to effect wonderful things.—Porphyry and some others did distinguish these two sorts, so as to condemn indeed the grosser, which they called magic or goety; but allowed the other, which they termed *theurgy*, as laudable and honourable, and as an art by which they received angels, and had communion with the gods. Yet St. Austin assures us, they are both damnable. *Hallywell.*

THEUX, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Liege, with 3100 inhabitants; 4 miles north-north-west of Spa, and 13 east-south-east of Liege.

THEW, *s.* [ðeap, Sax.] Quality; manners; customs; habits of life; form of behaviour. *Obsolete.*

From mother's pap I taken was unfit,
And streight deliver'd to a fairy knight,
To be upbrought in gentle *thewes* and martial might.

Spenser.

In Shakspeare it seems to signify brawn, or bulk, from the Saxon ðeop, *the thigh*, or some such meaning.

Nature crescent does not grow alone
In *thews* and bulk; but, as this temple waxes,
The inward service of the mind and soul
Grows wide withal.

Shakspeare.

THE'WED, *adj.* Educated; habituated; accustomed. *Obsolete.*—*Thewed*, in our northern dialect, is docile, towardsly. *Ray, Lye, and Grose.*

But he was wise and wary of her will,
And ever held his hand upon his heart;
Yet would not seem so rude, and *thewed* ill,
As to despise so courteous seeming part.

Spenser.

THEY, *pron.*, in the oblique case *them*, the plural of *he* or *she*. [*thai*, Goth.; *hi*, Saxon.] The men, the women; the persons.—*They* are in a most warlike preparation. *Shakspeare.*—Those men; those women: opposed to some others.

Only *they*

That come to hear a merry play,
Will be deceiv'd.

Shakspeare.

It is used indefinitely; as the French *on dit*.

There, as *they* say, perpetual night is found
In silence brooding on th' unhappy ground.

Dryden.

[The plural of *this*, *that*, or *it*.] The things.

Why do you keep alone?

Of sorriest fancies your companions making,
Using those thoughts, which should indeed have died
With them *they* think on.

Shakspeare.

THEYA, a small town of Lower Austria, on the river Theya; 69 miles west north-west of Vienna, and 3 north of Waidhoven.

THEYA, or **TAJA**, a river of Germany, which consists at first of two branches, the Moravian Theya, which rises near Teltsch, in the circle of Iglau, and the German, which rises in Upper Austria. The two unite near Raps in that province, and they fall into the great absorbent of the rivers of this country, the Morawa.

THEYDON, or **THOYDON**, **BOIS**, a parish of England, in Essex: 14 miles from London.

THEYDON, **GARNON**, another parish in the same county, half a mile distant from the foregoing. Population 612.

THEYDON, **MOUNT**, also a parish in Essex, about three quarters of a mile from the preceding one.

THEYS, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Isere, on the Theys. Population 1800.

THIAGUR, or **TIAGUR**, a celebrated fortress of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. It is situated on a mountain. Vol. XXIII. No. 1619.

tain, and consists of two fortifications and a town. Lat. 11. 45. N. long. 79. 12. E.

THIACOURT, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Meurthe, on the small river Madive. Population 1100; 25 miles north-west of Nancy.

THIBAULT VI., count of Champagne and king of Navarre, deserves to be recorded as one of the earliest French song-writers. In 1234 he succeeded to the crown of Navarre, on the death of his maternal uncle. Upon his return from the East, whither he went as one of the crusaders, he cultivated literature, and particularly poetry. He died at Pampelona in 1253, having acquired the somewhat inconsistent titles of the Great and the Song-maker. Under the latter character he obtained permanent reputation, degraded, however, by the occasional licentiousness of his imagery. He was the first, it is said, who blended masculine with feminine rhymes:—a capital invention in French versification. *Moreri.*

The songs of this prince are placed by some at the head of those that have been preserved in the French language, as those by Guillaume IX., duke of Aquitaine, are in that of Provence. There were indeed songs written in both languages before these princes had done poetry the honour to make it their favourite amusement; but the chief part of those of higher antiquity than the time of these patriarchs of Provençal and French versification are either lost, or thought of little value.

THIBERVILLE, a petty town in the north of France, department of the Eure, on the small river Arve. Population 1200; 11 miles east of Lisieux.

TH'BLE, *s.* A slice; a scummer; a spatula. *Ainsworth.*

THICK, *adj.* [ðicce, Sax.; *dick*, Dutch; *dyck*, Dan.; *thickr*, Icel.] Not thin; dense; not rare; gross; crass.—God caused the wind to blow, to dry up the abundant slime of the earth, make the land more firm, and cleanse the air of *thick* vapours and unwholesome mists. *Raleigh.*—Not clear; not transparent; muddy; feculent.

Why hast thou lost the fresh blood in thy cheeks,
And given my treasures and my rights of thee,
To *thick* ey'd musing and curs'd melancholy? *Shakspeare.*
Encumber'd in the mud, their oars divide
With heavy strokes the *thick* unwieldy tide.

Addison.

Great in circumference; not slender.—My little finger shall be *thicker* than his loins. 1 *Kings.*—Deep; noting the third dimension: as, a plank four feet long, two feet broad, and five inches *thick*. Noting comparative bulk: as, the door was three inches *thick*. Frequent; in quick succession; with little intermission.

Not *thicker* billows beat the Lybian main,
Not *thicker* harvests on rich Hermus rise,
Than stand these troops.

Dryden.

Close; not divided by much space; crowded.

Conquests he strew'd where'er he came,
Thick as the galaxy with stars is sown.

Dryden.

Not easily pervious; set with things close to each other.

He through a little window cast his sight,
Though *thick* of bars that gave a scanty light.

Dryden.

Coarse; not thin.—It tasteth a little of the wax, which in a pomegranate, or some such *thick*-coated fruit, it would not. *Bacon.*—Without proper intervals of articulation.

Speaking *thick*, which nature made his blemish,
Became the accents of the valiant,
To seem like him.

Shakspeare.

Stupid.—Gross-headed, *thick*-witted, illiterate, shallow. *Milton.*—Dull; not quick: as, *thick* of hearing: a colloquial expression. Intimate; familiar: a *vulgarism*.

THICK, *s.* The thickest part, or time when any thing is thickest. A thicket; a place full of bushes.

Mists and rotten fogs
Hang in the gloomy *thicks*, and make unsteadfast bogs.

Drayton.

THICK

THICK and *thin*. Whatever is in the way.

Through perils both of wind and limb,
Through *thick* and *thin* she followed him. *Hudibras*.

THICK, *adv.* [It is not always easy to distinguish the adverb from the adjective.] Frequently; fast.

'Tis some disaster,
Or else he would not send so *thick*. *Denham*.
Closely.

The neighbouring plain with arms is cover'd o'er;
The vale an iron harvest seems to yield,
Of *thick* sprung lances in a waving field. *Dryden*.

To a great depth.—If you apply it *thick* spread, it will eat to the bone. *Wiseman*.

THICK and *threefold*. In quick succession; in great numbers.—They came *thick* and *threefold* for a time, till one experienced stager discovered the plot. *L'Estrange*.

To **THICK**, *v. n.* To grow dense.

But see, the welkin *thicks* apace,
And stooping Phœbus steeps his face:
It's time to haste us homeward. *Spenser*.

To **THICKEN**, *v. a.* [ðiccian, Sax.] To make thick. To make close; to fill up interstices.—Waters evaporated and mounted up into the air, *thicken* and cool it. *Woodward*.—To condense; to make to concrete.—The white of an egg gradually dissolves by heat, exceeding a little the heat of a human body; a greater degree of heat will *thicken* it into a white, dark-coloured, dry, viscous mass. *Arbuthnot*.—To strengthen; to confirm.

'Tis a shrewd doubt, though it be but a dream;
And this may help to *thicken* other proofs,
That do demonstrate thinly. *Shakespeare*.

To make frequent. To make close or numerous; as, to *thicken* the ranks.

To **THICKEN**, *v. n.* To grow thick. To grow dense or muddy.

Thy lustre *thickens*
When he shines by. *Shakespeare*.

To concrete; to be consolidated.

Water stopt gives birth
To grass and plants, and *thickens* into earth. *Prior*.

To grow close or numerous.

The press of people *thickens* to the court,
The impatient crowd devouring the report. *Dryden*.

To grow quick.

The combat *thickens*, like the storm that flies
From westward when the showery scuds arise,
Or pattering hail comes pouring on the main,
When Jupiter descends in harden'd rain. *Dryden*.

THICKET, *s.* [ðicceƿe, Saxon.] A close knot or tuft of trees; a close wood or copse.

I drew you hither,
Into the chiefest *thicket* of the park. *Shakespeare*.

THICKLEY, a hamlet of England, in the county of Durham; 4 miles south-east of Bishops Auckland.

THICKLY, *adv.* [ðiclice, Sax.] Deeply; to a great quantity.—Mending cracked receivers, having *thickly* overlaid them with diachylon, we could not perceive leaks. *Boyle*.—Closely; in quick succession.

THICKNESS, *s.* The state of being thick; density. Quantity of matter interposed; space taken up by matter interposed.—In the darkened room, against the hole at which the light entered, I could easily see through the whole *thickness* of my hand the motions of a body placed beyond it. *Boyle*.—Quantity laid on quantity to some considerable depth.—Poll a tree, and cover it some *thickness* with clay on the top, and see what it will put forth. *Bacon*.—Consistence; grossness; not rareness; spissitude.—Nitre mingled with water to the *thickness* of honey, and anointed on the

bud after the vine is cut, it will sprout forth. *Bacon*.—Imperviousness; closeness.—The banks of the river and the *thickness* of the shades drew into them all the birds of the country. *Addison*.—Want of sharpness; want of quickness.—A person found in himself, being at some times subject to a *thickness* of hearing, the like effect. *Holder*.—What you write is printed in large letters; otherwise between the weakness of my eyes and *thickness* of hearing, I should lose the greatest pleasure. *Swift*.

THICKSCULL, *s.* A dolt; a blockhead. *Johnson*.

THICKSCULLED, *adj.* Dull; stupid.

They're pleas'd to hear their *thickscull'd* judges cry.
Well mov'd! oh finely said! *Dryden*.

THICKSET, *adj.* Close planted.

His eye-balls glare with fire, suffus'd with blood,
His neck shoots up a *thickset* thorny wood;
His bristled back a trench impal'd appears,
And stands erected, like a field of spears. *Dryden*.

THICKSKIN, *s.* A coarse gross man, a numscull.

The shallowest *thickskin* of that barren sort,
Who Pyramus presented in their sport,
Forsook his scene and euter'd in a brake. *Shakespeare*.

THICKTHORN, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Hetherset, Norfolk.

THIEF, *s.* [thiubs, Goth.; ðief, ðeor, Saxon; dief, Dutch. It was anciently written *thiof*, and so appear-eth to have been of two syllables; *thie* was wont to be taken for *thrift*, so that *thie of* is he that takes of or from a man his *thie*, that is, his *thrift* or *means* whereby he *thrives*. *Dr. Johnson*.—Wachter and Serenius derive it from the Goth. *thiwe*, or *thive*, a servant; and illustrate this derivation by the analogy of the Latin *fur*, which meant a servant before it meant a thief. The Germ. *dieb* is both a male or female servant, and a thief. The reason, Wachter says, of transferring the sense, was because, in ancient times, servants were generally thieves.] One who takes what belongs to another: *the thief* steals by secrecy, and *the robber* by violence; but these senses are often confounded.—Take heed, have open eye; for *thieves* do foot by night. *Shakespeare*.—An excrescence in the snuff of a candle.—Where you see a *thief* in the candle, call presently for an extinguisher. *Bp. Hall*.

THIEF-CATCHER, **THIEF-LEADER**, or **THIEF-TAKER**, *s.* One whose business is to detect thieves, and bring them to justice.—A wolf passed by as the *thief-leaders* were dragging a fox to execution. *L'Estrange*.

THIEL, a neat little town of the Netherlands, the capital of a district in the province of Gelderland, situated in a fertile country, near the great river Waal. It has 4100 inhabitants, employed partly in manufactures, partly in a traffic in corn and provisions; 18 miles west of Nimeguen, and 20 south-east of Utrecht.

THIELT, a considerable town of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders, situated at the foot of an eminence, with a castle, and 9800 inhabitants; 18 miles west-south-west of Ghent.

THIEMENDORF, a large village of Prussian Silesia, near Lowenberg, with 1200 inhabitants.

THIENGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, formerly the capital of the district called the Clettgau. Population 900; 18 miles west of Schaffhausen, and 3 east of Waldshut.

THIERS, a considerable town of France, in Auvergne, in the department of the Puy de Dome, situated on the declivity of a hill, watered by the small river Durolle. It has a population of 10,600. The buildings in the outskirts of the town have a pleasing appearance, being painted in fresco in the Italian style; but the interior presents nothing but dark, crowded, and winding streets, bordered with gloomy and ill built houses; 22 miles east of Riom, and 25 east-by-north of Clermont. Lat. 45. 52. N. long. 3. 38. E.

THIERSTEIN, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria, principality

principality of Bareith; 20 miles south-south east of Hof, and 75 north of Ratisbon.

TO THIEVE, *v. n.* [ðeoƿian, Sax.] To steal; to practise theft.

THIEVERY, *s.* The practice of stealing; theft.

Do villainy, do, since you profess to do't,
Like workmen; I'll example you with *thievery*. *Shakspeare.*

THIEVISH, *adj.* Given to stealing; practising theft.

What, would'st thou have me go and beg my food?
Or with a base and boisterous sword enforce
A *thievish* living on the common road. *Shakspeare.*

Secret; sly; acting by stealth.

Four-and-twenty times the pilot's glass
Hath told the *thievish* minutes how they pass. *Shakspeare.*

Relating to what is stolen.—By astrology he resolved *thievish* questions with great success; that was his utmost sole practice. *Lilly.*

THIEVISHLY, *adv.* Like a thief.

They lay not to live by their worke,
But *thievishly* loiter and lurke. *Tusser.*

THIEVISHNESS, *s.* Disposition to steal; habit of stealing.

THIGH, *s.* [ðeoh, Sax.; *thio*, Icel.; *die*, Dutch.] The *thigh* includes all between the buttocks and the knee. The *thigh-bone* is the longest of all the bones in the body: its fibres are close and hard: it has a cavity in the middle: it is a little convex and round on its foreside, but a little hollow, with a long and small ridge on its backside. *Quincy.*—He touched the hollow of his *thigh*, and it was out of joint. *Genesis.*

THILK, *pron.* [ðilc, ðýlc, ðýllc, i. e. ðý he, *the like*. *Lye.*] That same. *Obsolete.*

I love *thilk* lass: alas, why do I love!
She deigns not my good will, but doth reprove,
And of my rural music holdeth scorn. *Spenser.*

THILL, *s.* [ðille, Saxon, a piece of timber cut.] The shafts of a waggon; the arms of wood between which the last horse is placed.—More easily a waggon may be drawn in rough ways if the fore wheels were as high as the hinder wheels, and if the *thills* were fixed under the axis. *Mortimer.*

THILL-HORSE, or **THILLER**, *s.* The last horse; the horse that goes between the shafts.—What a beard hast thou got! thou hast got more hair on thy chin, than Dobbin, my *thill-horse*, has on his tail. *Shakspeare.*

THIMBLE, *s.* [This is supposed by Minsheu to be corrupted from *thumb bell*.] A metal cover by which women secure their fingers from the needle when they sew.

Your ladies and pale-visag'd maids,
Like Amazons, come tripping after drums;
Their *thimbles* into armed gantlets change,
Their needles to lances. *Shakspeare.*

THIMBLE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 1½ mile north-west of Horncastle.

THIMBLE ISLANDS, small islands of the United States, near the coast of Connecticut. Lat. 41. 11. N. long. 72. 42. W.

THIMBLEBY, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles east-north-east of Northallerton.

THIMBRIC-KOUY, a village of Asiatic Turkey, in Anatolia, on the site of the ancient Thymbra, some considerable ruins of which are still found, particularly of a temple of Apollo.

THIME, *s.* [*thymus*, Lat.; *thym*, Fr.] A fragrant herb from which the bees are supposed to draw honey. This should be written *thyme*.—Fair marigolds, and bees' alluring *thyme*. *Spenser.*

THIN, *adj.* [ðinn, Sax.; *thunnr*; Icel.; *dunn*, Dutch.] Not thick.—Beat gold into *thin* plates, and cut it into wires. *Exod.*—Rare; not dense.

Understand the same
Of fish within their watery residence;

Not hither summon'd, since they cannot change
Their element, to draw the *thinner* air. *Milton.*

Northward, beyond the mountains we will go,
Where rocks lie cover'd with eternal snow,
Thin herbage in the plains, and fruitless fields,
The sand no gold, the mine no silver yields. *Dryden.*

Not closely compacted or accumulated.—Seven *thin* ears blasted with the east wind sprung up. *Gen.*—Exile; small.

I hear the groans of ghosts;
Thin, hollow sounds, and lamentable screams. *Dryden.*

Not coarse; not gross in substance: as, a *thin* veil.—Not abounding.—Ferrara is very large, but extremely *thin* of people. *Addison.*—Not fat; not bulky; lean; slim; slender.—A slim *thin*-gutt'd fox made a hard shift to wriggle his body into a hen-roost, and when he had stuffed his guts well, the hole was too little to get out again. *L'Estrange.*—Slight; unsubstantial: we apply it, in colloquial language, to a person of weak mind.—A *thin* suspicion. *Chaucer.*

THIN, *adv.* Not thickly.
Fame is the spur that the clear spirit doth raise,
That last infirmity of noble mind,
To scorn delights, and live laborious days;
But the fair guerdon when we hope to find,
And think to burst out into sudden blaze,
Comes the blind fury with th' abhorred sheers,
And slits the *thin*-spun life. *Milton.*

TO THIN, *v. a.* [from the adjective; Sax. ðinnian.] To make thin or rare; to make less thick. *Pr. Parv.*—The serum of the blood is neither acid nor alkaline; oil of vitriol thickens, and oil of tartar *thins* it a little. *Arbuthnot.*—To make less close or numerous.

T' unload the branches, or the leaves to *thin*,
That suck the vital moisture of the vine. *Dryden.*

To attenuate.
The vapours by the solar heat
Thinn'd and exhal'd rise to their airy seat. *Blackmore.*

THINE, *pronoun.* [*theiu*, Gothic; ðin, Saxon; *dijn*, Dutch.] Belonging or relating to thee; the pronoun possessive of *thou*. It is used for *thy* when the substantive is divided from it: as, this is *thy* house; *thine* is this house; this house is *thine*.

Thou hast her, France; let her be *thine*, for we
Have no such daughter. *Shakspeare.*

THING, *s.* [ðing, Saxon; *ding*, Dutch and German; deduced from *thun*, facere, to make.] Whatever is; not a person. *A general word.*

Do not you chide; I have a *thing* for you.
— You have a *thing* for me?
It is a common *thing* —
— Ha?
— To have a foolish wife. *Shakspeare.*

It is used in contempt.—I have a *thing* in prose, begun above twenty-eight years ago, and almost finished; it will make a four-shilling volume. *Swift.*—It is used of a person in contempt, or sometimes with pity.

See, sons, what *things* you are! how quickly nature
Falls to revolt, when gold becomes her object!
For this the foolish over-careful fathers
Have broke their sleeps with thought, their brains with care. *Shakspeare.*

It is used by Shakspeare in a sense of honor.
I lov'd the maid I married; never man
Sigh'd truer breath; but that I see thee here,
Thou noble *thing*! more dances my wrapt heart. *Shakspeare.*

THINGHILL, GREAT and LITTLE, hamlets of England, in the parish of Withington, Herefordshire.

THINGWALL, a village of England, in Cheshire; 5½ miles north-by-west of Great Neston.

TO THINK, *v. n.* preter. *thought*. [*thankgan*, Goth.; ðencean,

Dencean, Dincan, Sax.; *dencken*, Dutch.] To have ideas; to compare terms or things; to reason; to cogitate; to perform any mental operation, whether of apprehension, or judgment.

What am I? or from whence? for that I am
I know, because I *think*; but whence I came,
Or how this frame of mine began to be,
What other being can disclose to me?

Dryden.

To judge; to conclude; to determine.—Can it be *thought* that I have kept the gospel terms of salvation, without ever so much as intending, in any serious and deliberate manner, either to know them or keep them? *Law*.—To intend.

Thou *thought'st* to help me, and such thanks I give,
As one near death to those that wish him life. *Shakspeare.*

To imagine; to fancy.

Something since his coming forth is *thought* of, which
Imports the kingdom so much fear and danger,
That his return was most requir'd. *Shakspeare.*

To muse; to meditate.

You pine, you languish, love to be alone,
Think much, speak little, and in speaking sigh. *Dryden.*

To recollect; to observe.

We are come to have the warrant.
— Well *thought* upon; I have it here about me.

Shakspeare.

To judge; to be of opinion.—If your general acquaintance be among ladies, provided they have no ill reputation, you *think* you are safe. *Swift*.—To consider; to doubt; to deliberate.—Any one may *think* with himself, how then can any thing live in Mercury and Saturn. *Bentley.*

To THINK on. To contrive; to light upon by meditation. Still the work was not complete,
When Venus *thought* on a deceit. *Swift.*

To THINK of. To estimate.—The opinions of others whom we know and *think* well of, are no ground of assent. *Locke.*

To THINK *v. a.* To imagine; to image in the mind; to conceive.—*Think* nought a trifle, though it small appear. *Young*.—To believe; to esteem.—Nor *think* superfluous others' aid. *Milton.*

To THINK much. To grudge.—He *thought* not much to clothe his enemies. *Milton.*

To THINK scorn. To disdain. He *thought* scorn to lay hands on Mordecai alone. *Esth.*

Me THINKETH. It seems to me. Me THOUGHT. It appeared to me.—These are anomalous phrases of long continuance and great authority, but not easily reconciled to grammar. In *me thinketh*, the verb being of the third person, seems to be referred not to the thing, and is therefore either active, as signifying *to cause to think*; or has the sense of *seems, me thinks it seems to me*.—*Me thought* I saw the grave where Laura lay. *Sidney.*

THINKER, *s.* One who thinks in a certain manner.—If a man had an ill-favoured nose, deep *thinkers* would impute the cause to the prejudice of his education. *Swift.*

THINKING, *s.* Imagination; cogitation; judgment.—He put it by once; but, to my *thinking*, he would have fain have had it. *Shakspeare.*

If we did think

His contemplations were above the earth,
And fix'd on spiritual objects, he should still
Dwell in his musings; but I am afraid
His *thinkings* are below the moon, nor worth
His serious considering. *Shakspeare.*

THINLY, *adv.* Not thickly.

The wide domain
Now green with grass, now gilt with grain,
In russet robes of clover deep,
Or *thinly* veil'd, and white with sheep.

Shenstone.

Not closely; not numerously.

Our walls are *thinly* mann'd, our best men slain:
The rest an heartless number, spent with watching. *Dryden.*

THUNNESS, *s.* [ðinneſſe, Saxon.] The contrary to thickness; exility; tenuity.—Tickling is most in the soles, arm-holes and sides, because of the *thinness* of the skin. *Bacon*.—Paucity; scarcity.

The buzzard

Invites the feather'd Nimrod of his race
To hide the *thinness* of their flock from sight,
And all together make a seeming goodly flight. *Dryden.*

Rareness; not spissitude.—Those pleasures that spring from honour the mind can nauseate, and quickly feel the *thinness* of a popular breath. *South.*

THIONVILLE, a town in the north-east of France, the capital of an arrondissement, and situated on the Moselle, over which it has a fine wooden bridge, defended by a horn-work; 17 miles north of Metz, and 22 south of Luxemburg.

THIRD, *adj.* [ðriðða, Saxon.] The first after the second; the ordinal of three.—This is the *third* time; I hope good luck lies in odd numbers. *Shakspeare.*

THIRD, *s.* The third part.

To thee and thine hereditary ever,
Remain this ample *third* of our fair kingdom. *Shakspeare.*

The protestant subjects of the abbey make up a *third* of its people. *Addison*.—The sixtieth part of a second.—Divide the natural day into twenty-four equal parts, an hour into sixty minutes, a minute into sixty seconds, a second into sixty *thirds*. *Holder.*

THIRD, POINT, a cape on the east coast of Sumatra, in the straits of Banca. Lat. 2. 24. S. long. 105. 39. E.

THIRDBOROUGH, *s.* An under-constable.

All the wise of the hundred;
Old Rasi' Clench of Hamstead, petty constable;
In-and-In Medley, cooper of Islington,
And headborough, with loud To-Pan the tinker
Or metal-man of Belsie, the *thirdborough*. *B. Jonson.*

THIRDLY, *adv.* In the third place.—First, metals are more durable than plants; secondly, they are more solid; *thirdly*, they are wholly subterranean. *Bacon.*

THIRKLEBY, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles east-by-south of New Malton.

THIRKLEBY, another township in the same Riding; 5½ miles north-east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

THIRKLEBY, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-east of Thirsk.

To THIRL, *v. a.* [ðirliæn, Saxon.] To pierce; to perforate. It is now pronounced and written *thrill*. *Dr. Johnson*.—Not universally: *thirl* is still a northern word, in this sense.

THIRLBY, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles east-north-east of Thirsk.

THIRLWALL, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland, near the borders of Cumberland, where the Picts' wall passed the river Tippil, near the Irthing.

THIRNE, or THORNE, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles south-west-by-west of Bedale.

THIRSK, a market town and borough of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire. It is a pleasant and well built town, and is agreeably situated in a plain, almost surrounded with hills, on the banks of a brook called Coatbeck, over which there are two small but substantial stone bridges. Old Thirsk is a borough by prescription, and returns two members to parliament. The right of election is vested in the burgage tenements, now only 50 in number, of which 49 belong to Sir Thomas Frankland, baronet. Market on Monday, and eight annual fairs. Contains 743 houses, and 2155 inhabitants; 20 miles north-west of York, and 220 north-by-west of London. Lat. 54. 14. N. long. 1. 20. W.

THIRST, *s.* [ðyprst, Saxon; *dorst*, Dutch.] See *To THIRST*.—The pain suffered for want of drink; want of drink.

Thus accurs'd,
In midst of water I complain of *thirst*. *Dryden.*
Eagerness;

Eagerness; vehement desire: with *of*, *for*, or *after*.—Thou hast allay'd the *thirst* I had *of* knowledge. *Milton*.—*Draught*.

The rapid current,—through veins
Of porous earth with kindly *thirst* up drawn,
Rose a fresh fountain. *Milton*.

To THIRST, *v. n.* [δύψρον, Saxon; *dersten*, Dutch; *thaurusjan*, Goth.; from *thaurusus*, aridus, dry. *Serenius*.] To feel want of drink; to be thirsty or athirst: with *for*.—They, as they *thirsted*, scoop the brimming stream. *Milton*.—To have a vehement desire for any thing: with *for* or *after*.

But furious *thirsting* thus *for* gore,
The sons of men shall ne'er approach thy shore. *Pope*.

To THIRST, *v. a.* To want to drink. This structure is not usual.

Untam'd and fierce the tyger still remains:
For the kind gifts of water and of food,
He seeks his keeper's flesh, and *thirsts* his blood. *Prior*.

THIRSTINESS, *s.* The state of being thirsty.—Next they will want a sucking and soaking *thirstiness*, or a fiery appetite to drink in the lime. *Wootton*.—A vehement desire for any thing.—Carried and transported with an over-desire and *thirstiness* after fame. *Naunton*.

THIRSTON, EAST and WEST, hamlets of England, in Northumberland; 9 miles south of Alwicks.

THIRSTONLAND, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles from Huddersfield. Population 868.

THIRSTY, *adj.* [δύψρηξ, Saxon.] Suffering want of drink; pained for want of drink.

Thy brother's blood the *thirsty* earth hath drank,
Broach'd with the steely point of Clifford's lance.
Shakspeare.

Possessed with any vehement desire: as, blood *thirsty*.

THIRSTY SOUND, an inlet or bay on the east coast of New Holland, so called by Captain Cook, from its want of fresh water. It is exposed to the north-east and east winds. Lat. 22. 6. 53. S. long. of the northernmost, 150. 0. 10. E.

THIRTEEN, *adj.* [δρεοιτνε, Saxon.] Ten and three.—Speaking at the one end, I heard it return the voice *thirteen* times. *Bacon*.

THIRTEEN ISLANDS, a cluster of small isles in the North Pacific Ocean.

THIRTEENTH, *adj.* [δρεοτεοδα, Sax.] The third after the tenth.

If she could prove a *thirteenth* task for him
Who twelve achiev'd, the work would me beseeem.

Beaumont.

THURTIETH, *adj.* [δμυτεροδα, Saxon.] The ten thrice told; the ordinal of thirty.—Henry shall espouse the lady Margaret ere the *thirtieth* of May next ensuing. *Shakspeare*.

THIRTY, *adj.* [δμυτιξ, Saxon.] Thrice ten.
I have slept fifteen years.

—Ay, and the time seems *thirty* unto me. *Shakspeare*.

THIRTY MILE, or DEAD RIVER, a river of the United States, in Maine, which joins the Androscoggin, in Livermore.

THIS, *pronoun*. [διξ, Saxon.] That which is present; what is now mentioned.—Must I endure all *this*? *Shakspeare*.—The next future.—Let not the Lord be angry, and I will speak but yet *this* once: peradventure ten shall be found there. *Gen*.—*This* is used for *this time*.—By *this* the vessel half her course had run. *Dryden*.—The last past.

I have not wept *this* forty years; but now
My mother comes afresh into my eyes. *Dryden*.

It is often opposed to *that*.

As when two winds with rival force contend,
This way and *that*, the wavering sails they bend,
While freezing Boreas and black Eurus blow,
Now here, now there, the reeling vessel throw. *Popc*.

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When *this* and *that* respect a former sentence, *this* relates to the latter, *that* to the former member. See THOSE.—Their judgment in *this* we may not, and in *that* we need not follow. *Hooker*.—Sometimes it is opposed to *the other*.

With endless pain *this* man pursues
What if he gain'd he could not use:
And *t'other* fondly hopes to see
What never was, nor e'er shall be. *Prior*.

THISTLE, *s.* [διξελ, Saxon; *diestel*, Dutch; *carduus*, Lat.] A prickly weed growing in fields.—Thorns also, and *thistles* it shall bring thee forth. *Milton*.

THISTLE GOLDEN, *s.* A plant. *Miller*.

THISTLE'S ISLAND, an island on the south coast of New Holland, at the mouth of Spencer's Gulf. Lat. 34. 56. S. long. of the north end, 136. 3½. E.

THISTLE-TAKE, a custom in the hundred of Halton, in the county of Chester, whereby, if in driving beasts over the common, the driver permits them to graze, or take but a thistle, he shall pay a half-penny a beast to the lord of the fee.

At Fiskerton, in Nottinghamshire, by ancient custom, if a native, or cottager, killed a swine above a year old, he paid the lord one penny, which was also called thistletake.

THISTLETON, a hamlet of England, in Lancashire; 4½ miles north-north-west of Kirkham.

THISTLETON, a village of England, in Rutlandshire; 8 miles north-east of Oakham.

THISTLY, *adj.* Overgrown with thistles.

Wide o'er the *thistly* lawn as swells the breeze,
A whitening shower of vegetable down
Amusive floats. *Thomson*.

THITHER, *adv.* [διδειρ, Saxon.] To that place: it is opposed to hither.—We're coming *thither*. *Shakspeare*.—To that end; to that point.

THITHERTO, *adv.* To that end; so far.

THITHERWARD, *adv.* [διδειρπειρδ, Sax.] Towards that place.

Madam, he's gone to serve the duke of Florence:
We met him *thitherward*, for thence we came. *Shakspeare*.

THIVA, or STIBES, the ancient *Thebes*, a well known city of ancient Greece, which, in its days of prosperity, contained 40,000 inhabitants.

THIVIERS, a small town in the south of France, department of the Dordogne, with 1600 inhabitants, and some manufactures of paper, leather, and stone-ware; 20 miles north-west of Perigueux.

THIXENDALE, or THISTENDALE, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 8½ miles south-south-east of New Malton.

THIZY, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Rhone, situated on an eminence. Population 1000. It has some manufactures of cotton and linen; 20 miles west-by-north of Villefranche.

THLASIAS, a term used by the ancients to express an enuch made by a compression or contusion of the testicles, not by the cutting them out.

THLASIS, a word used by the ancients to express either a contusion without a wound, or a wound made by some blunt instrument, which contused the parts.

THLASMA, a word sometimes used like *thlasis*, to express a contusion either with or without a wound; sometimes applied particularly to a recess of the cranium inward without a fracture, an accident principally affecting children.

THLASPI [of Pliny. Θλασπι of Dioscorides, perhaps from *θλαω*, comprimo. The seed vessel being compressed or flatted], in Botany, a genus of the class tetradynamia, order siliculosa, natural order of siliquosa or cruciformes, crucifera (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved; leaflets ovate, concave, from erect patulous, deciduous. Corolla four-petalled, cruciform; petals obovate, twice as long as the calyx, with narrow claws. Stamina: filaments six, shorter by half than the corolla. Anthers acuminate. Pistil: germ roundish, compressed, emarginate. Style

simple, length of the stamens. Stigma obtuse. Pericarp: silicle compressed, obcordate, emarginate, with the style the length of the notch, two-celled; partition lanceolate; valves boat-shaped, margined and keeled. Seeds several, nodding, fastened to the sutures.—*Essential Character*. Silicle emarginate, obcordate, many-seeded; valves boat-shaped, margined, and keeled.

1. *Thlaspi peregrinum*, or foreign bastard cress.—Silicles suborbiculate; leaves lanceolate, quite entire. Stems a span high; flowers small, red, with ovate entire petals.—Native of Carniola.

2. *Thlaspi Arabicum*, or Arabian bastard cress.—Silicles oval styled; lower leaves wedge-shaped; upper cordate, oblong, embracing. Stems herbaceous.

3. *Thlaspi arvense*, field bastard cress, penny cress, or smooth mithridate mustard.—Silicles orbicular, compressed, even; leaves oblong, toothed, smooth. Root annual, small. Herb smooth. Stem a foot or more in height, having a few branches at top. Flowers small, in racemes. Peduncles alternate, nearly horizontal, one-flowered. Petals white.—Native of Europe and Japan, in corn-fields.

4. *Thlaspi alliaceum*, or garlic bastard cress.—Silicles subovate, ventricose; leaves oblong, obtuse, toothed, smooth.—Native of Austria and Germany.

5. *Thlaspi Psychine*, or long-styled bastard cress.—Silicles obovate-deltoid, styled; leaves lanceolate, cordate, toothed, embracing, pubescent.—Native of Barbary, near Mayane, on the borders of fields.

6. *Thlaspi saxatile*, or rock bastard cress.—Silicles roundish; leaves lanceolate-linear, obtuse, fleshy.—Native of the south of Europe.

7. *Thlaspi hirtum*, or hairy bastard cress.—Silicles elliptic-oblong, hairy, undotted, margined above; stem-leaves sagittate, villose.—Native of Italy, the south of France, and Austria.

8. *Thlaspi campestre*, wild bastard cress or common mithridate mustard.—Silicles roundish, glandular, dotted, margined above; leaves sagittate, toothed, hoary.—Native of Europe and Barbary, in corn-fields; it has two varieties.

9. *Thlaspi montanum*, or mountain bastard cress.—Silicles obcordate; leaves smooth; root-leaves somewhat fleshy, obovate, quite entire; stem-leaves oblong, embracing, subsagittate; corollas larger than the calyx.—Native of Germany, Austria, the south of France, and Italy.

10. *Thlaspi alpinum*, or alpine bastard cress.—Silicles obcordate; stem-leaves cordate, smooth, quite entire; petals twice as long as the calyx, stem simple.

11. *Thlaspi perfoliatum*, perfoliate bastard cress, or shepherd's purse.—Silicles obcordate; stem-leaves sagittate-cordate, embracing; stem branched; style very short.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, the south of France, Italy, and England.

12. *Thlaspi alpestre*, dwarf bastard cress, or shepherd's purse.—Silicles obovate, retuse, many-seeded; stem-leaves sagittate; stems simple; style stretched out.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, the south of France, Italy, and England.

13. *Thlaspi bursa pastoris*, common shepherd's purse, or pouch.—Hirsute; silicles deltoid-obcordate; root-leaves pinnatifid. Root annual, fibrous. Stem about a foot high, upright, round, branched, leafy, rough, pinnatifid, the segments varying much in form. Stem-leaves oblong, embracing, toothed. All more or less hairy. Flowers in corymbs, lengthening out into racemes.—This plant, which grows naturally in most parts of the world, is a strong instance of the influence of soil and situation; sometimes not being more than two or three inches high, when it flowers and perfects its seeds, whilst in other situations it attains the height of as many feet. On walls and in dry situations the root-leaves are more deeply divided, and the segments become much narrower; in cultivated ground they are broader and less jagged; in a dry barren chalk the plant becomes very small with a single undivided stem, and the leaves all entire.

14. *Thlaspi ceratocarpon*, or Siberian bastard cress.—Very smooth; stem grooved; leaves sagittate, lanceolate, subseriate; silicles two-lobed.—Native of the salt plains of Siberia.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds where the plants are to remain, either in spring or autumn; but the latter season is to be preferred. When the plants come up, thin them where they are too close, and keep them clean from weeds.

Shepherd's purse is a common weed every where. It increases so fast by seeds, that a garden is not easily cleared of it, when they are permitted to shed.

THLIBIÆ, a kind of Eunuchs. See THLASIAS.

THLIPSIS, [θλίσις, Gr.] is used by anatomists, for the compression of any vessel or aperture, by which its cavity is lessened.

THNETOPSYCHITES, composed of θνήτος, *mortal*, and ψυχή, *soul*, in Ecclesiastical History; a sect in the ancient church, who believed the soul of man perfectly like that of brutes; and taught that it died with the body.

THO, *adv.* [ða, Saxon; tha, Icel.] Then.—*Tho* to a hill his fainting flock he led. *Spenser*—*Tho* contracted for *though*.

THOA, in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order polyandria, natural order of urticæ (*Juss.*)—*Generic Character*.—Male: flowers in spikes.—Calyx none. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments at the top of each joint in the spike, numerous, short. Anthers very small.—Female: flowers, at the base of the spike, one on each side sessile.—Calyx none. Corolla none. Pistil: germ ovate. Style scarcely any. Stigma three or four-cleft, very small. Pericarp oblong, brittle, one-celled. Seed one, oblong, in a brittle shell, covered with very small rigid pungent bristles, weaved into a sort of dry aril.—*Essential Character*. Calyx and corolla none.—Male: stamens numerous, at the joints of the spike. Female: germs two, at the base of the male spike, one on each side sessile.—Stigma three or four-cleft. Seed in a brittle shell, covered with a bristly web.

Thoa urens.—This is a shrub, rising with a tortuous stem to about the length of ten feet, and emitting several twisted and climbing branches upon the neighbouring trees; the bark is rough and greyish; the wood white and spongy; the leaves opposite, smooth, green, entire, and oval, terminating in a sharp point; the largest are about five inches and a half long, and about three inches wide; the spikes of male flowers spring from the bosoms of the leaves and the tips of the branches, and on each side the base of the male flowers is a female one. The native name of the plant is thoa, found in Guiana.

THOARD, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Lower Alps, near the small river Raduge. Population 1000; 6 miles north-west of Digne.

THOCKRINGTON, or TOCKERINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 10½ miles north-by-east of Hexham.

THOGRAL, a Persian of Ispahan, who was grand vizier to the sultan Malich Mashud, is celebrated for his poetical talents, a specimen of which is given by Poccocke; and for a commentary upon the republic of Plato, to whom the Saracens paid little attention. After a strange reverse of fortune, Thograi was put to death by order of the sultan, in the year 1121.

THOISSEY, a small town in the east of France, department of the Ain, on the small river Chalaronne. Population 1400; 11 miles south of Macon.

THOKES, in our old writers, fish with broken bellies, forbid by statute to be mixed or packed with tale-fish. 22 Ed. IV. cap. 2.

To THOLE, *v. a.* [*thulan*, Goth.; ðolian Sax.] To bear; to endure; to undergo.—So mochel woe as I have with you *tholed*. *Chaucer*.

To THOLE, *v. n.* [*tola*, Su. Goth.] To wait a while: a *northern expression*.

THOLE, *s.* [*tholus*, Lat.] The roof of a temple.—Let altars smoke, and *tholes* expect our spoils. *Fuimus*.—See THOWL.

THOLEN, or TER THOLEN, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of Zealand, in the island of Tholen; 4 miles north-west of Bergen-op-Zoom, and 22 north-north-west of Antwerp.

THOLEN, a small island of the Netherlands, near the mouth of the Scheldt, belonging to the province of Zealand; it is about 12 miles long and 6 broad.

THOLES, denote small pins driven perpendicularly into the

the upper edge of a boat. In rowing, the oar passes between the two tholes, in the space called the row-lock.

THOLIMAN, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Queretaro, containing 132 families of Indians.

THOLTHORPE, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles west-south-west of Easingwold.

THOMÆANS, THOMEANS, or THOMITES, a people of the East Indies, in Cochin, and upon the coast of Malabar and Coromandel, who, according to tradition, received the Gospel from the apostle St. Thomas.

THOMAR, a town in the central part of Portugal, in Estremadura, near the river Nabao. It is regularly built, contains 5000 inhabitants, and has an establishment for spinning cotton, some soap-works, and a little trade in olive oil; 17 miles north-north-west of Abrantes.

THOMAS (Antony Leonard), a distinguished French writer, was born in the diocese of Clermont, in Auvergne, in the year 1732, and designed for the profession of the law; but his attachment to literature, induced him to prefer a professorship in the college of Beauvais. His career as a writer commenced in 1756, by "Reflections, historical and literary, on Voltaire's poem on Natural Religion." His eulogies, particularly those on Descartes and Marcus Aurelius, were highly commended. His "Essai sur les Caractères, les Mœurs, et l'Esprit des Femmes," 1772, is a sprightly performance, in which fine writing and philosophical observation are combined. As a poet he appears to advantage in his "Épître au Peuple," his "Ode sur les Temps," and his "Poème de Jumonville." His epic poem, entitled "Le Pétreide," the hero of which was czar Peter, was left unfinished. His death took place in September, 1785, at the age of 53. His works, in prose and verse, were published at Paris, in 7 vols. 8vo. *Gen. Biog.*

THOMAS (Christian), an eclectic philosopher of the German schools, who deserves notice on account of the boldness with which he threw off the yoke of human authority, and the perseverance with which, against much opposition, and in many vicissitudes of fortune, he maintained and exercised the right of free inquiry. He was born at Leipsic, in the year 1655, and finished his course of education in the university of his native city. Upon a perusal of Puffendorf's Apology for rejecting the scholastic principles of morals and law, he renounced implicit deference to all ancient dogmas; and engaged in reading lectures on the subject of natural law, first from the text of Grotius, and afterwards from that of Puffendorf, in the full exercise of his own judgment, with prudent caution while his father lived, but after his death with a boldness which incurred the violent resentment of theologians and professors. In 1687, he published an "Introduction to Puffendorf," in which he deduced the obligation of morality from natural principles, and thus gave great offence. In the following year he became still more unpopular, by commencing a monthly literary journal, entitled "Free Thoughts; or, Monthly Dialogues on various Books, chiefly new;" containing a severe attack upon many of his contemporaries. Soon after he published another satirical work, "On the Divine Right of Kings," "A Defence of the Sect of the Pictists," and some other eccentric works of the same general character, for which he was threatened with imprisonment; but obtaining permission from the elector of Brandenburg to retire, he became a voluntary exile from Leipsic; and soon after was appointed public professor of jurisprudence, first in Berlin, and afterwards at Halle. In these situations he indulged his satirical humour, and his inclination for controversy, as long as he lived; persevering in his endeavours to correct and subdue the prejudices of mankind, and to improve the state of philosophy. He died at Halle, in the year 1728. His principal philosophical works are, "An Introduction to Aulic Philosophy; or Outlines of the Art of Thinking and Reasoning," Leips. 1688; "Introduction to Rational Philosophy;" "A Logical Praxis," Hal. 1691; "Introduction to Moral Philosophy," 1692; "A Cure for irregular Passions, and the Doctrine of Self-knowledge," 1696; "The new Art of discovering the secret Thoughts of

Men;" "Divine Jurisprudence;" "Foundations of the Law of Nature and Nations;" "Dissertation on the Crime of Magic;" "Essay on the Nature and Essence of Spirit, or Principles of Natural and Moral Science," 1699; and "History of Wisdom and Folly."

THOMAS CREEK, a river of the United States, in South Carolina, which runs into the Great Pedee.

THOMAS, ST., THE APOSTLE, a parish of England, in the vicinity of Exeter. Population 2538.

THOMAS, ST., STREET, a hamlet of England, in Cornwall, on the south-east side of the borough of Launceston.

THOMAS, ST., a pretty considerable island in the Gulf of Guinea, off the coast of Africa, being about 100 miles west from the mouth of the Rio Gabon. It appears to be about 40 miles in length, and 30 in breadth. This island is situated immediately under the line. Lat. 0. 5. to 0. 50. N. long. 6. 25. E.

THOMAS, ST., a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid, containing 593 families of Indians.—2d. A settlement of New Granada, in the province of Cartagena, on the shore of the river Magdalena.—It is the name of several other inconsiderable settlements in Spanish America.

THOMAS, ST., the principal of the Virgin islands, in the West Indies, about 18 miles in circumference, belonging to the Brandenburgers and Danes, the former under protection of the latter. It abounds with potatoes, millet, manioc, and most sorts of fruits and herbage, especially sugar and tobacco. The value of its exports, when in possession of the British, amounted to above £800,000, and its imports to above £300,000. Lat. 18. 22. N. long. 64. 50. W.

THOMAS, ST., a small village of Mexico, in America, situated on the Rio del Norte.

THOMAS, ST., a village of Lower Canada, delightfully situated on the southern bank of the St. Lawrence, where it is joined by the Riviere du Sud.

THOMAS, ST., a parish of the United States, in Charleston district, South Carolina.

THOMAS'S BAY, on the west coast of the island of Antigua. It affords some shelter from the south and south-east winds.

THOMAS'S ISLAND, an island on the west coast of Mexico. Lat. 20. 10. N.

THOMAS'S, ST., LAKE, a lake of Canada; 96 miles west of Quebec. Lat. 47. 10. N. long. 73. 35. W.

THOMAS, PORT ST., a harbour of the bay of Honduras, on the Spanish Main, which is very secure, and much frequented.

THOMAS, SAN, a city of Guiana, situated on the right bank of the river Orinoco, about 244 miles west of its mouth. It is of a hot temperature, and very unhealthy, from the damps arising from the stagnant waters left by the floodings of the Orinoco. Lat. 8. 7. N. long. 63. 55. W.

THOMASIIUS (Jacobus), a writer in history and philosophy, professor of eloquence in the university of Leipsic, and chiefly distinguished as the preceptor of the illustrious Leibnitz, was born at Leipsic, in the year 1622. Among his numerous works, the principal are "Antiquities of Philosophical and Ecclesiastical History;" "Dissertations on the Stoical Philosophy, and on other subjects relating to the History of Philosophy;" and "A Dissertation on Literary Plagiarism, with a List of 100 Plagiaries," all in Latin. He died in the year 1684. *Brucker. Moreri.*

THOMASIIUS (Christian), son of the preceding, an eminent jurist, was born at Leipsic, in 1655. Having studied the law at Francfort on the Oder, he was made a doctor in that faculty in 1679; and returning to his native city, he attended the bar, and wrote some treatises on the law. He was the friend of Puffendorf. By opposing the scholastic philosophy in a German journal, commenced in 1688, he excited opposition, and raised against himself many enemies. He died in 1728. Mosheim has given this character of Thomasius. "His views were vast; he aimed at the reformation of philosophy in general, and of the Peripatetic system in particular; and he assiduously employed both the power of exhortation and the influence of example, in order to persuade the Saxons to reject the Aristotelian system, which he had

had never read, and which most certainly he did not understand. The scheme of philosophy which he substituted in its place was received with little applause, and soon sunk into oblivion; but his attempt to overturn the system of the Peripatetics, and to restore the freedom of philosophical inquiry, was attended with remarkable success, made in a little time the most rapid progress, and produced such admirable effects, that Thomasius is looked upon to this day, as the chief of those bold spirits who pulled down philosophical tyranny from its throne in Germany, and gave a mortal blow to what was called the Sectarian philosophy in that country."

THOMASTOWN, a town of Ireland, in the county of Kilkenny, pleasantly situated on the river Nore, over which a beautiful bridge is constructed. It was a borough previous to the union of Ireland with Great Britain; 8 miles south east of Kilkenny.

THOMASTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Lincoln county, Maine, on the east side of the river St. George, and on the west side of Penobscot bay. It is a flourishing township, and contains two churches, one for Congregationalists, and one for Baptists; 7 miles south of Camden, and 190 north-east of Boston. Population 2100.

THOME, Sr., a settlement on a plain of the island of St. Domingo, not far from the source of the river Antibonito.

THOME, Sr., a river of Brazil, which turns south-south-west, and enters the Uruguay near its source.

THOMIST, s. A schoolman following the opinion of *Thomas Aquinas*, in opposition to the Scotists. See **SCOTIST**.—The university was filled with the jargon and disputes of the Scotists and *Thomists*. *Warton*.

THOMPSON (Sir Benjamin), Count of Rumford, distinguished by his assiduity and zeal in the promotion of science, and in devising and executing schemes of public utility, was born at the village of Rumford, in New England, in the year 1752; and with the assistance afforded him by a professor of natural philosophy in the American university of Cambridge, acquired in early life such a degree of knowledge, as enabled him to give instruction to others. By an advantageous marriage, while he was young, his advancement was accelerated, so that he obtained the rank of a major in the militia of his native district. When the war broke out between the mother-country and her colonies, he took part with the former, and by means of his local knowledge, he rendered himself useful to the British generals in America. In process of time he repaired to England, and recommending himself to lord George Germaine, the chief minister in the American department, he obtained a place in his office. Towards the close of the war, the same nobleman, with a view of securing for him a permanent provision, sent him to New York, where he raised a regiment of dragoons, and by being appointed lieutenant-colonel, became entitled to half-pay. Upon his return to England, his Majesty, in 1784, conferred upon him the honour of knighthood; and for some time he occupied the post of one of the under-secretaries of state. Soon after he made a tour to the continent, and being warmly recommended by the prince of Deux-Ponts, afterwards king of Bavaria, to his relation the reigning elector palatine, and duke of Bavaria, he was admitted into his service, and occupied an eminent station. He had thus an opportunity of effecting many important and useful reforms in the departments of the state, both civil and military, especially in the suppression of mendicity, which prevailed not only at Munich, the capital, but through the whole country, to an alarming extent. For his services, Sir Benjamin was decorated by the Bavarian sovereign with several orders, promoted to the rank of lieutenant-general, and created a count by the title of his native place, Rumford. During his abode at Munich, he commenced his experiments upon the improvement of fire-places, with respect to the economy of fuel, and the convenience of cooking; and also his plans for a cheaper and more nutritive mode of feeding the poor, which gave him peculiar celebrity. Having quitted Bavaria in 1799, he resided for some time in this country, pursuing a variety of experiments on the nature and applica-

tion of heat, and the construction of chimneys, grates, and fire-places. He also promoted science both by his own researches and experiments, and by liberally exciting emulation in others upon a more enlarged plan. For the latter purpose, he transferred, on an occasional visit to this country in 1796, to the Royal Society of London, of which he was a member, 1000*l.* 3 per cent. stock, the interest of which was to be applied every second year as a premium to the author of the most important discovery on the subjects of heat and light in any part of Europe during the two preceding years; the preference to be always given to such discoveries as, in the opinion of the president and council, tend most to the benefit of mankind; which indeed was the leading object of all his researches. He also suggested the plan, and assisted in the formation of the Royal Institution.

In the year 1802, he left England for Paris, which became his fixed residence; and he obtained permission from the king of Bavaria to continue in France, and to enjoy his pension of 1200*l.* a-year. He lived in a state of retirement, until an attack of low fever carried him off in August, 1814, in his 63d year. By his first wife he had one daughter.

Although Count Rumford was not a learned man, he acquired by his knowledge of the French and German languages, and by his extensive acquaintance, and frequent conversation with literary men, a large stock of literature and science. The papers which he communicated both to the Royal Society and French Institute, and which are published in their Transactions and Memoirs, are numerous. The only separate publication of Count Rumford was a series of "Essays, Experimental, Political, Economical, and Philosophical," commencing with the year 1796, and continued to 18 in number, and occupying 4 vols. 8vo. *Gent. Mag.*

THOMPSON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles south-by-east of Watton. Population 366.

THOMPSON, WINTERRORNE, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 7 miles south-by-east of Blandford Forum.

THOMPSON, a post township of the United States, in Windham county, Connecticut, in the north-east corner of the state; 51 miles south-west of Boston. Population 2467.

THOMPSON, a post township of the United States, and capital of Sullivan county, New York. It is watered by the Neversink, and contains the villages of Thompson, Monticello, and Bridgeville. The county buildings are at Monticello; 83 miles west of Newburgh. Population 1290.

THOMPSON'S CREEK, a river of North America, which runs into the Missouri, 148 miles below the Great Falls.

THOMPSON'S CREEK, a river of the United States, in South Carolina, which runs south-east into the Great Pedee, below Chatham.

THOMPSON'S CREEK, a river of the United States, in Mississippi, which runs into the Mississippi. Lat. 30.59. N. long. 91.30. W.

THOMPSON'S HARBOUR, in Hudson's Bay. Lat. 60.20. N. long. 78. W.

THOMPSON'S ISLAND, a small island of Upper Canada, at the entrance of the river St. Claire.

THOMPSONTOWN, a township of the United States, in Oxford county, Maine.

THOMPSONTOWN, a post township of the United States, in Mifflin county, Pennsylvania.

THOMSON (James), a popular English poet, was born at Ednam, near Kelso, in Scotland, in the year 1700, being one of the nine children of the minister of that place. Whilst he was at school at Jedburgh, he manifested no powers superior to those of other boys, except in a taste for poetry, which he betimes indulged, and which introduced him, during his vacations, to the society of some neighbouring gentlemen. Of his productions, however, he thought so humbly, that on New-year's day he committed to the flames those of each preceding year. From Jedburgh he was removed to the university of Edinburgh, where he persevered in the cultivation and exercise of his poetical talents; and after spending some time as private tutor in the family of lord Binning, he determined, at the suggestion of a lady, who was his mother's friend, to try his fortune in London.

In 1725 he came to London, and meeting with his college acquaintance, Mallet, he shewed him his poem of "Winter," in an imperfect state; who advised him to finish and publish it. Mr. Millar, a well-known London bookseller, bought it for a small sum, and published it in 1726. At first it attracted little attention; but Mr. Whately, a gentleman of acknowledged taste, giving a favourable account of it, brought the poem and its author into notice. The author was introduced to Pope, and recommended by bishop Rundle to lord chancellor Talbot. In 1727 he published his "Summer," and in the same year "A Poem sacred to the Memory of Sir Isaac Newton," just deceased, and also his "Britannia." His "Spring" was published in 1728; and in 1730 the Seasons were completed by "Autumn," and published collectively. In 1721 Thomson, aspiring to the popularity and emolument of dramatic composition, succeeded in introducing upon the stage of Drury-lane his tragedy of "Sophonisba." Its reception, however, was not very flattering. Soon after he was appointed, by the recommendation of Dr. Rundle, travelling companion to the Hon. Mr. Talbot, the eldest son of the chancellor, and had an opportunity of visiting most of the courts and countries of the European continent. During this tour, the idea of his poem on "Liberty" was suggested to him, and he employed two years in completing it. In consequence of this excursion, he obtained, by the interest of Mr. Talbot, the place of secretary of the briefs, which, being almost a sinecure, afforded him leisure for his private literary pursuits. His poem on "Liberty" was more coolly received than the nature of the subject led him to expect. When lord Hardwick succeeded the lord chancellor Talbot, Thomson lost his place; but upon being questioned by the prince of Wales, to whom he was introduced by Mr. (afterwards lord) Lyttleton, as to his circumstances, a pension of 100*l.* a-year was granted to him.

Upon the introduction of his second tragedy, "Agamemnon," to Drury-lane, in 1738, he was so anxious concerning its success, that he is said to have been thrown into a copious perspiration. His "Edward and Eleonora" was prevented from appearing by the interference of the lord chamberlain.

The "Masque of Alfred," performed before the prince at Cliefden-house, in 1740, was the joint production of himself and Mallet; and in this piece was introduced the famous song of "Rule Britannia," the production of one or other of these two persons. The most successful of Thomson's dramatic pieces was his "Tancred and Sigismunda," which appeared at Drury-lane in 1745; but his "crowning performance," as one of his biographers calls it, was "The Castle of Indolence," published in 1746. Our poet was now rendered independent by the interest of Mr. Lyttleton, who obtained for him the office of surveyor-general of the Leeward islands, which, after payment of a deputy, yielded him about 300*l.* a-year. Death, however, in consequence of a fever occasioned by a cold, deprived him, in August, 1748, of the comparative affluence derived from this appointment. His remains were interred in Richmond church, without any memorial; but in 1762 a monument was erected in Westminster Abbey, the expense of which was defrayed out of the profits of an edition of his works, published by Mr. Millar. His "Coriolanus" was brought on the stage by his executors, in 1749, for the benefit of the surviving branches of his family. The prologue, composed by Lyttleton, was very feelingly delivered by Quin, the intimate friend of Thomson.

Thomson's person was large and awkward, and his countenance unanimated; nor did his appearance or manners indicate genius or refinement. He was indolent and self-indulgent in his habits; yet, as his biographer says, "no one has deserved more praise for the moral tenor of his writings. Unbounded philanthropy, enlarged ideas of the dignity of man, and of his rights, love of virtue, public and private, and a devotional spirit, narrowed by no views of sect or party, give soul to his verse when not merely descriptive.

THONE, a river of England, in Somersetshire, which passes by Taunton.

THONES, a small town of the Sardinian states, in Savoy, province of Genevois, on the river Fier. It has 2200 inhabitants.

bitants, and some manufactures of silk and leather; 10 miles east of Annecy, and 22 south-south-east of Geneva.

THONG, *s.* [ðpɑŋ, ðpɔŋ, Saxon; *thweing*, Icel. *thwong*, old Engl.] A strap, or string of leather.

The tuscan king

Laid by the lance, and took him to the sling;

Thrice whirl'd the *thong* about his head, and threw

The heated lead half melted as it flew.

Dryden.

THONG, NETHER, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Huddersfield. Population 787.

THONG, UPPER, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6½ miles south south-west of Huddersfield. Population 1015.

THONON, a small town of Savoy, district of Chablais, situated on a hill on the Lake of Geneva; 20 miles east-north-east of Geneva.

THOPHAIL (Abu Giafer), a celebrated Peripatetic philosopher and physician, was a native of Seville, in Spain, and preceptor to Maimonides and Averroes. This philosopher applied the Aristotelian doctrine to the purposes of enthusiasm, in the elegant tale still extant of "Hai Ebr Yockdan;" a youth who, having been exposed when an infant on the sea-coast, was nourished by a hind, and grew up in the woods, without any intercourse with human beings; and and who, by the unaided exertions of his own powers, attained to the knowledge of things natural and supernatural, and arrived at the felicity of an intuitive intercourse with the divine mind. This piece is written with such elegance of language and vigour of imagination, that, notwithstanding the improbability of the story, it has been universally admired. It exhibits a favourable specimen of Peripatetic philosophy, as it was taught among the Saracens; and, at the same time, affords a memorable example of the unnatural alliance which was now so generally established between philosophy and fanaticism. This work was translated by Edward Pococke, jun. from the Arabic into Latin, under the title of "Philosophus Autodidactus," and printed in 4to., at Oxford, in 1700. It was also translated into English by S. Hoadley, professor of Arabic in Cambridge, ed. Lond. 1711, 8vo., and also into Dutch. Thophail is said to have written several other works, and died at Seville in 1175. *Brucker by Enfield.*

THOR, in Mythology, a deity worshipped by the ancient inhabitants of the northern nations; particularly by the ancient Scandinavians and Celts. The authority of this deity extended over the winds and seasons, and particularly over thunder and lightning: and in the Icelandic mythology, he is considered as the defender and avenger of the gods. He always carried a mace, or club, which as often as he discharged it returned to his hand of itself; he grasped it with gauntlets of iron, and was possessed of a girdle which had the virtue to renew his strength as often as was needful. With these formidable arms he overthrew the monsters and giants, when the gods sent him to oppose their enemies.

There was a day consecrated to Thor, which still retains his name in the Danish, Swedish, English, and Low Dutch languages, viz., *Thursday.*

THOR, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Vaucluse, situated in a plain near the river Sorgues; 9 miles east-by south of Avignon. Population 1800.

THOR, DAS HOHE, *i. e.* the *High Gate*, a high mountain of Upper Austria, in the circle of Salzburg, 7720 feet above the level of the sea.

THORACIC, *adj.* Belonging to the breast.—The chyle grows grey in the *thoracick* duct. *Arbuthnot.*

THORAL, *adj.* [from *thorus*, Lat.] Relating to the bed.—The punishment of adultery, according to the Roman law, was sometimes made by a *thoral* separation. *Ayliffe.*

THORALBY, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 9 miles west-by-south of Middleham.

THORAME, or TORAME, UPPER, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Lower Alps, on the

small river Verden. Quantities of fruit are produced here and exported; 13 miles east of Digne.

THORAX, *s.* [Latin.] The breast; the chest.—Besides those remote helpers, the *thorax*, the muscles, the nerves, &c., there are three several kinds of organs that do more immediately, and yet distinctly and gradually conduce to the production of vocal music. *Smith.*

THORDA, or **THORENBURG**, a county of Transylvania, in the province belonging to the Magyars or Hungarians.

THORDA, or **THORENBURG**, the capital of the above county, is a considerable town, situated near the river Aranjós, and divided by a smaller stream, called the Salz-bach, into two parts, called Old and New Thorda. The Hungarian language is spoken here in great purity; 17 miles south-south-east of Clausenburg. Lat. 46. 31. 58. N. long. 23. 48. 17. E.

THORDO (Diaconus or Legifer), descended from an ancient family, was provincial judge in North Jutland, and flourished in the time of Waldemar III., or about the year 1350. He was the author of the following work; "Constitutio Voldemari Regis, per Thordonem Legiferum, &c." Ripis, 1504, et Havn. 1508, 4to.; translated into Latin, together with Waldemar's Jutland Laws, and afterwards published in Ludewig's "Reliquiæ MSS." tom. xii. and also in German by Eric Krabbe, in "Westphal's Monuments." *Gen. Biog.*

THORSEN, (or **THRODORI STURLA**, called also *Frode* or *Polyhistor*), was born in Iceland, about the beginning of the 13th century. His father was Thordor Sturluson, brother to the celebrated Snorro. He is represented to be one of the greatest Icelandic poets of his time, as well as an eminent lawyer and historian. His talents excited enemies, so that he was forcibly carried away from the island in 1263, and conveyed to Norway, where he was favourably received by the king Magnus Lagebæter, admitted into his council, and appointed his historian and dapifer, one of the highest offices at the Norwegian court. Afterwards, however, he returned to Iceland, and having been chief justice of the country for many years, died in 1284. His works are "Landnama Saga," or "Liber Originum Islandiæ," published entire by bishop Thordur Thorlaksen, Skalholt, 1688, 4to., and by J. Finnæus, Havn. 1774, 4to. :—A continuation of "Sturlunga Saga," or the history of the Sturla family, and almost the whole of Iceland, during his time, which was begun by the learned bishop Brand. "The History of king Haager Haagensen," published at the expence of the crown-prince Frederick :—"The History of king Magnus Lagebæter," compiled from the public records of the kingdom, the greater part of which has been lost. *Gen. Biog.*

THORESBY, **NORTH**, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 9 miles north-by-west of Louth. Population 342.

THORESBY, **SOUTH**, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3½ miles west-by-north of Alford.

THORSTHORPE, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; about a mile north-east of Alford.

THORESWAY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles south-east of Caistor.

THORGANBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles east-south-east of Caistor.

THORGANBY, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles south-east-by-south of York.

THORIGNY, a small town in the north-west of France, department of La Manche, near the river Vire; 9 miles south-east of St. Lo.

THORLBY, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles north-west of Skipton.

THORLEY, or **THORNLEY**, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 2 miles south-west-by-south of Bishop's Stortford.

THORLEY, a parish of England, in the Isle of Wight; 1 mile east-south-east of Yarmouth.

THORMANBY, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-west-by-north of Easingwold.

THORN, a considerable town of West Prussia, in the government of Marienwerder, pleasantly situated on the

Vistula, about 90 miles from the mouth of the river, over which it has a wooden bridge of uncommon length. The well-known Copernicus was born at Thorn, in 1472; 92 miles south of Dantzic, and 113 west north-west of Warsaw. Lat. 53. 1. N. long. 23. 48. E.

THORN, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Limburg, formerly the seat of a richly endowed abbey; 7 miles south-south-west of Ruremonde.

THORN, *s.* [*thaurns*, Goth. *ðorn*, Sax. *doorne*, Dutch.] A prickly tree of several kinds.—*Thorns* and thistles shall it bring forth. *Gen.*—A prickly growing on the thorn bush.—Flowers of all hue, and with *thorn* the rose. *Milton.*—Any thing troublesome.

The guilt of empire; all its *thorns* and cares
Be only mine.

Southern.

THORNABY, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east of Yarm.

THORNAGE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2½ miles south-west of Holt.

THORNAPPLE, *s.* A plant. *Mortimer.*

THORNBAC, *s.* [*raia clavata*, Lat.] A sea fish.—The *thornback*, when dried, tastes of sal ammoniac, *Arbutus*.—See **RAIA CLAVATA**.

THORNBOROUGH, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 3½ miles east of Buckinghamshire. Population 539.

THORNBOROUGH, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland, near Corbridge.

THORNBOROUGH, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles north-north-east of Thirsk.

THORNBURY, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Gloucester, situated in the vale of Gloucester, near the Severn, on a rivulet that runs into it. The situation is low, but healthy. The town consists chiefly of three streets, disposed in the form of the Roman letter Y. The houses are mostly old. The church, dedicated to the Virgin, is spacious and handsome. The tower is lofty, and ornamented with rich open work battlements, and also with pinnacles. Here are, besides, a free school, and four almshouses. Thornbury is a borough by prescription, and is governed by a mayor and 12 aldermen; but the power of these officers is much limited by disuse. Market on Saturday, and three annual fairs; 24 miles south-south-west of Gloucester, and 121 west of London.

THORNBURY, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles north-east-by-east of Holsworthy. Population 383.

THORNBURY, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 4 miles north-north-west of Bromyard.

THORNBUT, *s.* [*rhombus aculeatus*, Lat.] A sort of sea fish, Ainsworth; which he distinguishes from thornback.]—A birt or turbot.

THORNB, or **THURNBY**, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 11½ miles north-north-west of Northampton.

THORNCOMBE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 8 miles west-by-north of Beamister. Population 1189.

THORNCOT, a hamlet of England, in Bedfordshire; 3 miles north-west of Biggleswade.

THORNDON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles south-by-west of Eye. Population 580.

THORNDON, a hamlet of England, in Kent; 3 miles from Canterbury.

THORNE, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It is situated about a quarter of a mile from the south bank of the river Don, within the district called Marshland island, a track encompassed by the rivers Don, Aire, Ouse, and another small river which divides it from the isle of Axholm, in Lincolnshire. These marshes have of late years been greatly improved by draining, and the fen commons inclosed; 31 miles south of York, and 166 north of London. Lat. 53. 37. N. long. 0. 59. W.

THORNE FALCON, or **THORNE PARVA**, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3½ miles east-by-south of Taunton.

THORNE,

THORNE, GRAFTON, a township of England, in Northumberland; 10 miles west-by-north of Hexham.

THORNE, ST. MARGARET'S, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3 miles west of Wellington.

THORNER, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6½ miles south-by-west of Wetherby. Population 621.

THORNEY, a parish of England, in the county of Cambridge; 10 miles north-by-west of March.

THORNEY, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 8½ miles east-by-north of Tuxford.

THORNEY, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Kingsbury Episcopi, Somersetshire.

THORNEY, WEST, a parish of England, in Sussex; 7 miles west-by-south of Chichester.

THORNEY-BURN, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Simonburn, Northumberland.

THORNFORD, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 3½ miles south-west-by-south of Sherborne.

THORN-GREEN, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 2½ miles north-west-by-north of Dunstable.

THORN-GUMBOLD, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles east-by-south of Kingston-upon-Hull.

THORNHAM, GREAT and LITTLE, adjoining parishes of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles west-by-south of Eye.

THORNHAM, a parish of England, in Kent; 4 miles north-east-by-north of Maidstone. Population 406.

THORNHAM, a township of England, in Lancashire; 3½ miles south of Rochdale. Population 1098.

THORNHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles west-by-north of Burnham Westgate. Population 483.

THORNHAUGH, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 1 mile north-west of Wandsford.

THORNHILL (Sir James), may be called the father of historic painting in England. He was the son of a gentleman of an ancient family in Dorsetshire, and was born at Weymouth in 1676. His family having fallen in fortune, he was obliged to resort to some profession for support, and guided by an early taste for painting, fixed upon that art as a base on which to raise a fortune and a name. He came to London, and was assisted by the celebrated physician Sydenham, who placed him under the tuition of an artist of little note, whose name is not known, and to whom, from the state of the art at the time, he must have been far less indebted for the progress he made, than to his own ingenuity and industry. After having practised for a while with some celebrity, he travelled to Holland and to Flanders; and thence visited France, but did not proceed to Italy. Most probably his object in this journey was only to acquire a knowledge of colouring; and he might have satisfied his mind on composition and form, by having spent three years in copying the cartoons of Raphael, which he was permitted to do by the favour of the earl of Halifax. These copies are in oil, and were bought after his death by the then duke of Bedford; and by his grace's successor, the late duke, were presented to the Royal Academy. They are wrought with care, but lack the delicacy of character and feeling observable in the originals. On his return to England, his reputation was increased, and honour and employment accompanied it. Queen Anne commissioned him to paint the interior of the cupola of St. Paul's, which he did in eight compartments. The subject assigned him was the history of St. Paul; and he treated it with considerable grandeur of style, both as to composition and execution; but his design wanted chastity and simplicity, and the heads of his figures have not sufficient refinement of expression. It was, however, the first attempt by an Englishman of the kind, and fully justified the preference given to him over La Guerre and La Pousse, who were then painting the halls and staircases of our nobility. He was afterwards employed to decorate an apartment at Hampton Court, with emblematical allusions to the history of the queen, and her union with her consort, George, prince of Denmark. But his grand work is the great hall at Greenwich Hospital, where he has painted naval trophies and

allegorical figures in great profusion; and if much praise cannot be given to the purity of the design, it ought not to be withheld from the brilliancy and vigour of the execution. Altogether, it is a work unrivalled in its kind here, and well entitled him to the honour of knighthood, which George I. soon after conferred upon him. This was some compensation to him for the mortification of having his demand for these paintings contested, and being in the end paid only at the labourer's rate of so much per square yard, (40s.)

He had the honour of so far re-establishing his family influence as could be effected by being chosen to represent his native town in parliament; but he did not enjoy his honours long, as he died at the early age of 57, leaving a son, named also James, for whom he had procured the appointment of serjeant-painter to the king, and a daughter married to Hogarth.

THORNHILL, a village of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, in the parish of Morton. It is pleasantly situated on a dry rising ground, half a mile east from the river Nith; 14 miles north of Dumfries, 8 east of Minniehive, 12 south-by-east of Sanquhar, and 61 south-west of Edinburgh.

THORNHILL, a village of Scotland, in Perthshire, joined to the village of Norriestown; 10 miles west of Stirling. Population of both, 626.

THORNHILL, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 6½ miles north-east-by-north of Tideswell.

THORNHILL, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles west-by-south of Wakefield. Population 4705.

THORNHOLME, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south-west-by-west of Bridlington.

THORNLEY, a hamlet of England, county of Durham; 5½ miles south-east-by-east of Durham.

THORNLEY, a township of England, in Lancashire; 8 miles west-by-south of Clitheroe. Population 433.

THORNIE BANK, a manufacturing village of Scotland, in Renfrewshire, in the parish of Eastwood, about 5 miles south from Glasgow, where calico printing is carried on to a great extent.

THORNSBURG, a post township of the United States, in Spotsylvania county, Virginia, on the Mattapony; 18 miles south of Fredericksburg.

THORNSCOE, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles from Doncaster.

THORNSETT, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 5½ miles north-west-by-north of Chapel-in-le-Frith.

THORNSHIP, or **THORN SHAP**, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 5½ miles north-west of Orton.

THORNTON, a village of England, in the county of Lincoln; 3 miles south-east of Barton-upon-Humber.—2. A parish of England in Buckinghamshire; 4½ miles east north-east of Buckingham.—3. A township of England, in Durham; 4½ miles south-west of Berwick-upon-Tweed.—4. A township of England, in Lancashire, 1½ mile north-by-east of Poulton. Population 739.—5. Another township in the above county; 7 miles north-by-west of Liverpool.—6. A parish of England, in Leicestershire; 5½ miles north-east of Market Bosworth.—7. A parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 1½ mile west of Horncastle.—8. A parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles south-west of Pocklington.—9. A township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles west of Bradford. Population 3016.

THORNTON, BAXBY, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-by-east of Easingwold.—2. **THORNTON IN THE BEANS**, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3½ miles south-east-by-east of Northallerton.—3. **THORNTON, Bishop's**, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles south-west-by-south of Rippon. Population 1546.—4. **THORNTON BRIDGE**, or **Thornton-upon-Swale**, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east-by-north of Boroughbridge.—5. **THORNTON, Childer**, a township of England, in Cheshire; 8 miles north-north-west of Chester.—6. **THORNTON-UPON-CLAY**, a township of England, North

North Riding of Yorkshire; 11½ miles north-north-east of York.—7. THORNTON IN CRAVEN, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles west-south-west of Skip-ton.—8. THORNTON DALE, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles east-by-south of Pickering. Population 1171.—9. THORNTON, *East*, a township of England, in Northumberland; 7 miles west of Morpeth.—10. THORNTON IN LONSDALE, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 12 miles north-west of Settle. Population 1152.—11. THORNTON, *Mayow*, a township of England, in Cheshire; 2½ miles north-north-east of Great Neston.—12. THORNTON IN THE MOOR, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles north-west-by-north of Thirsk.—13. THORNTON IN THE MOORS, a township of England, in Cheshire; 5½ miles west-south-west of Frodsham.—14. THORNTON LE MOOR, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles west-south-west of Caistor.—15. THORNTON, *Rust*, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 11 miles west-by-north of Middleham.—16. THORNTON STEWARD, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-by-south of Middleham.—17. THORNTON IN THE STREET, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-north-west of Thirsk.—18. THORNTON WATLAS, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles south-west of Bedale.—19. THORNTON, *West*, a township of England, in Northumberland; 7 miles west-by-north of Morpeth.—20. THORNTON, a post township of the United States, in Grafton county, New Hampshire; 11 miles north of Plymouth.—21. THORNTON'S GAP, a post village of the United States, in Culpeper county, Virginia.

THORNVILLE, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south by-east of Boroughbridge.

THORNWAITE, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 12 miles west-by-north of Knaresborough.

THORNWOOD, a hamlet of England, in Essex; 2½ miles north-north-east of Epping.

THORNY, *adj.* Full of thorns; spiny; rough; prickly.

They on the bleaky top
Of rugged hills, the *thorny* bramble crop. *Dryden.*

Pricking; vexatious.

No dislike against the person
Of our good queen, but the sharp *thorny* points
Of my alleged reasons drive this forward. *Shakespeare.*

Difficult; perplexing.—By how many *thorny* and hard
ways they are come thereunto, by how many civil broils.
Spenser.

THOROTON, a village of England, in Nottinghamshire; 8 miles south-south-west of Newark.

THO'ROUGH, *prepos.* [The word *through* extended into two syllables. *Dr. Johnson.*—Saxon, *ðupuh*, as well as *ðuph, per.* See also THROUGH.] By way of making passage or penetration.—By means of.

Mark Antony will follow
Through the hazards of this untrod state,
With all true faith. *Shakespeare.*

THO'ROUGH, *adj.* [The adjective is always written *through*, the preposition commonly *through*.] Complete; full; perfect.—A *through* translator must be a *through* poet. *Dryden.*—Passing through.—Let all three sides be a double house, without *through* lights on the sides. *Bacon.*

THO'ROUGHFARE, *s.* A passage through; a passage without any stop or let.

Th' Hyrcanian deserts are as *throughfares* now
For princes to come view fair Portia. *Shakespeare.*

Power of passing.
Hell, and this world, one realm, one continent
Of easy *throughfare*. *Milton.*

THO'ROUGHLY, *adv.* Completely; fully.—Look into this business *throughly*. *Shakespeare.*

THO'ROUGH PACED, *adj.* Perfect in what is undertaken; complete; thoroughsped. *Generally in a bad sense.*

—When it was proposed to repeal the test clause, the ablest of those who were reckoned the most staunch and *thorough*, *paced* Whigs fell off at the first mention of it. *Swift.*

THO'ROUGHSPED, *adj.* Finished in principles; thoroughpaced: commonly, finished in ill.—Our *thoroughsped* republic of Whigs, which contains the bulk of all hoppers, pretenders, and professors, are most highly useful to princes. *Swift.*

THO'ROUGHSTITCH, *adj.* Completely; fully. *A low word.*—Perseverance alone can carry us *thoroughstitch*. *L'Estrange.*

THOROUT, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders; 11 miles south-south-west of Bruges, and 12 south-east of Ostend.

THOROZKO, or TAROCZKO, a small town of Transylvania, in the county of Thorda, the chief place of a mining district.

THORP, *s.* [See also DORP.] *Thorp, throp, threp, trep, trop,* are all from the Saxon *þopp*, which signifies a village. *Gibson.*—Within a little *thorp* I stay'd. *Fairfax.*

THORPE, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 3 miles north-west-by-north of Ashborne.—2. A parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6½ miles south-east-by-east of Spilsby.—3. A parish of England, in Norfolk; 2½ miles east-by-south of Norwich. Population 452.—4. A parish of England, in Norfolk; 9½ miles south-west of Great Yarmouth.—5. A hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 1½ mile north-by-east of Howden.—6. A parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 3 miles south-west of Newark.—7. A parish of England, in Surrey; 2 miles north-west-by-north of Chertsey. Population 523.—8. A township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 1½ mile north-east of Greta Bridge.—9. A township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 12 miles from Settle.—10. A parish of England, in Suffolk; 5½ miles west-by-south of Framlingham.—11. A hamlet of England, in the parish of Rippon, West Riding of Yorkshire.

THORPE, ABBOTS, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles east-by-north of Scole.—2. THORPE ACRE, a hamlet of England, in Leicestershire; 1 mile west-north-west of Loughborough.—3. THORPE ARCH, a parish of England, East-Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles south-east-by-east of Wetherby.—4. THORPE, *Arnold*, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 1½ mile east-north-east of Melton Mowbray.—5. THORPE, *Audling*, a township of England, West-Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-south-east of Pontefract.—6. THORPE IN BALNE, a township of England, West-Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles north-by-east of Doncaster.—7. THORPE, *Basset*, a parish of England, East-Riding of Yorkshire; 5½ miles east-by-north of New Malton.—8. THORPE, *Bochart*, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 10 miles south-by-east of Nottingham.—9. THORPE, *Brantingham*, a township of England, East-Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles south-south-west of North Cave.—10. THORPE, *Bulmer*, a township of England, in Durham; 12½ miles north-by-east of Stockton-upon-Tees.—11. THORPE, *Constantine*, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 4 miles north-east of Tamworth.—12. THORPE, *East*, a hamlet of England, East-Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles north-by-east of Market Weighton.—13. THORPE-ON-THE-HILL, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6½ miles south-west-by-west of Lincoln.—14. THORPE-ON-THE-HILL, a township of England, West-Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-by-west of Wakefield.—15. THORPE, *Little*, a parish of England, in Norfolk.—16. THORPE, *Malsor*, or *Malsoveres*, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2 miles west-by-north of Kettering.—17. THORPE, *Mandeville*, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 7 miles north-west-by-north of Brackley.—18. THORPE, *Market*; a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles north-west-by-north of North Walsham.—19. THORPE, *Moricur*, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles north-west of Bildeston.—20. THORPE-UNDER-THE-MOUNTAIN, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire,

shire; $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-by-east by Skipton.—21. **THORPE, Sacheville**, a township of England, in Leicestershire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-west of Melton Mowbray.—22. **THORPE, Salvin**, a parish of England, West-Riding of Yorkshire; 13 miles south-west of Bawtry.—23. **THORPE-LE-SOKEN**, a parish of England, in the county of Essex. Population 1033; 8 miles south-east-by-east of Manningtree.—24. **THORPE-IN-THE-STREET**, a township of England, East-Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles north-west-by-west of Market Weighton.—25. **THORPE, Thewles**, a township of England, in Durham; 6 miles north-west of Stockton-upon-Tees.—26. **THORPE, Tinley**, a township of England, in Lincolnshire; 7 miles north-north-east of Sleaford.—27. **THORPE, Underwood**, a hamlet of England, in Northamptonshire; 5 miles west-north-west of Kettering.—28. **THORPE-UNDER-WOODS**, a township of England, West-Riding of Yorkshire; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Aldborough.—29. **THORPE-BY-WATER**, a township of England, in Rutlandshire; 5 miles south-east-by-south of Uppingham.—30. **THORPE, Waterville**, a township of England, in Northamptonshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-east of Thrapston.—31. **THORPE, West**, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-west-by-north of Lincoln.—32. **THORPE, Willoughby**, a township of England, West-Riding of Yorkshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-south-west of Selby.

THORRINGTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles south-east of Halesworth.

THORRINGTON, a parish of England, in Essex; 8 miles south-east-by-east of Colchester.

THORSHAVEN, a petty town of the Faroe Islands, in Stromoe, the largest of the group. It is built on a tongue of land, the water on each side of which affords anchorage for vessels, by the aid of large iron ranges fixed in the rocks. The inhabitants, only 600 in number, obtain their subsistence by fishing. Their houses are of wood, roofed with birch bark and turf, and arranged in no regular plan.

THORVERTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles east-by-north of Crediton. Population 1248.

THOSE, *pronoun*. The plural of *that*.

Make all our trumpets speak, give them all breath,
Those clamorous harbingers of blood and death.

Shakspeare.

Those refers to the former, *these* to the latter noun.

Neither their sighs nor tears are true,

Those idly blow, *these* idly fall,

Nothing like to ours at all,

But sighs and tears have sexes too.

Cowley.

THOU, *pron.* [Thu, Saxon; du, Dutch; in the oblique cases singular *thee*, ðe, Saxon; in the plural *ye*, ze, Saxon; in the oblique cases plural *you*, eop, Saxon.] *You* is now commonly used for the nominative plural.—The second pronoun personal.

Is this a dagger which I see before me,
The handle tow'rd my hand? Come let me clutch *thee*.
I have *thee* not, and yet I see *thee* still.
Art *thou* not, fatal vision, sensible
To feeling as to sight?

Shakspeare.

It is used only in very familiar or very solemn language. When we speak to equals or superiors, we say *you*; but in solemn language, and in addresses of worship, we say *thou*. [Familiar:—Here's to *thee* Dick. *Cowley*.—[Solemn]:—

For though in dreadful whirls we hung

High on the broken wave,

I know *thou* wert not slow to hear,

Not impotent to save.

Addison.

To **THOU**, *v. a.* To treat with familiarity; to address in a kind of contempt.

Avaunt, catyfe, dost *thou* me?

I am come of good kynne.

Old Morality.

THOU, James Augustus de, (Thuanus,) an eminent magistrate and historian, was the son of Christopher de Thou, president of the parliament of Paris, distinguished for

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integrity and patriotism, and born at Paris in the year 1553. In the college of Burgundy, where he was placed at the age of ten years, his education was interrupted by a fever, which seemed for some time to have proved fatal to him; but upon his recovery he studied the civil law, first at Orleans, and afterwards at Valence, under the celebrated Cujacius, in which latter place he commenced an intimate acquaintance with Joseph Scaliger, which was continued through life. Upon his return to Paris in 1572, he witnessed the horrors of the massacre of St. Bartholomew, and this scene impressed him with an eternal detestation of bigotry and intolerance. He was originally destined for the church, with the prospect of valuable preferments, which his uncle, the bishop of Chartres, intended to resign to him. In the mean while he travelled to Italy, the Low Countries, and Germany; but upon the death of his brother, his views were changed, and the law became his destined profession. After the death of his father, whose memory he held in high veneration, he was made master of requests in 1584; and in 1587, he married Marie Barbanson, a lady of a noble family. Upon the revolt of Paris, on occasion of the league, in 1586, he repaired to Henry III. at Chartres, and was deputed by him to confirm the province of Normandy in its allegiance. On the assassination of the duke of Guise, his family at Paris received public insults, which made it necessary for his wife to make her escape in disguise, and he went to the king at Blois, who was almost deserted, and induced him to form a coalition with Henry, king of Navarre. Being at Venice, he was informed of the assassination of Henry III., after which he immediately joined the legitimate successor to the crown, Henry IV., at Chateaudun. The king, fully apprized of his excellent qualities, reposed confidence in him, and employed him in many interesting negotiations. On the death of Amyot, the king's principal librarian, De Thou was nominated his successor; and in 1594 he succeeded his uncle as "president à mortier." He officiated as one of the Catholic commissioners at the theological conference of Fontainebleau between Du Perron and Du Plessis Mornai; and in the regency of Mary de Medicis, he was one of the directors-general of the finances. At the conference of Loudun, he acquired distinguished reputation by his virtue and ability; and he was joined with cardinal Du Perron in a commission for the reform of the university of Paris, and the construction of the college-royal, the edifice of which was begun under his superintendance. The work which has established his permanent fame, is "The History of his own Times," the first part of which appeared in 1604. The condemnation of this interesting work reflects indelible discredit on Henry IV. and his court. De Thou has annexed "Commentaries or Memoirs of his own Life."

Having lost his first wife in 1601, whose virtues he celebrated in a Latin poem; and having no issue, he married, in 1603, a second wife, of a noble family, by whom he had three sons and three daughters, and she died in 1616. This loss, and the calamities that befel his country on the murder of Henry IV., are supposed to have hastened his own death, which happened in 1617, at the age of 64 years. His library, which was very valuable, and which by his will was to have been kept undivided in his family, was nevertheless sold after the death of one of his sons. The most complete edition of De Thou's History is that published at London in 1733, by Buckley, in 7 vols. fol. with memoirs of his life, and other pieces not before published.

THOUARCE, small town in the west of France, department of the Maine and Loire, on the river Thouaret. Population 1500; 14 miles south of Angers.

THOUARS, a small town in the west of France, the capital of an arrondissement in the department of the Two Sevres, on the river Thouet; 40 miles north-west of Poitiers.

THOUGH, *conjunction*. [ðeah, Saxon; tho, Icel. and old Swed. Mr. Tooke pronounces *though* the imperative of the Sax. verb ðapian, ðapgian, to allow. Dr. Jamieson, however, observes that there is not the same evidence here as with respect to some other conjunctions illustrated by this acute and ingenious writer; and that it certainly is no in-

considerable objection to this hypothesis, that it is not supported by analogy in the other northern languages. *Jamieson*, in *V. ALLTHOCHTE*.] Notwithstanding that; although.—Not that I so affirm, *though* so it seem. *Milton*.

As THOUGH. As if; like as if.—In the vine were three branches; and it was *as though* it budded. *Gen*.—It is used in the end of a sentence in familiar language: however; yet.

You shall not quit Cydaria for me:

'Tis dangerous *though* to treat me in this sort,
And to refuse my offers, *though* in sport.

Dryden.

THOUGHT, the *pret.* and *part. pass.* of *think*. [ðohʧe. Sax.; *thahita*, M. Goth.] I told him what I *thought*.

THOUGHT, *s.* [from the preterite of *to think*; Sax. ðeahʧ.] The operation of the mind; the act of thinking, And cards are dealt, and chessboards brought,
To ease the pain of coward *thought*.

Prior.

Idea; image formed in the mind.

For our instruction to impart
Things above earthly *thought*.

Milton.

Sentiment; fancy; imagery; conceit.—*Thought*, if translated truly, cannot be lost in another language; but the words that convey it to our apprehension, which are the image and ornament of that *thought*, may be so ill chosen as to make it appear unhandsome. *Dryden*.—Reflection; particular consideration.

Why do you keep alone?

Of sorriest fancies your companions making,
Using those *thoughts* which should indeed have died
With them they think on.

Shakespeare.

Conception; preconceived notion.

Things to their *thought*
So unimaginable as hate in heaven.

Milton.

Opinion; judgment.—They communicated their *thoughts* on this subject to each other; and therefore their reasons are little different. *Dryden*.—Meditation; serious consideration.

Pride, of all others the most dangerous fault,
Proceeds from want of sense or want of *thought*.

Roscommon.

Design; purpose.—Nor was godhead from her *thought*.
Milton.—Silent contemplation.

Who is so gross
That cannot see this palpable device?
Yet who so bold, but says, he sees it not?
Bad is the world; and all will come to nought,
When such ill dealings must be seen in *thought*.

Shakespeare.

Solicitude; care; concern.—Adam took no *thought*, eating his fill. *Milton*.—Expectation.

The main descry
Stands on the hourly *thought*.

Shakespeare.

A small degree; a small quantity. *It seems a loose term, but is used by good writers*.—My giddiness seized me, and though I now totter, yet I think I am a *thought* better. *Swift*.

THOUGHTFUL, *adj.* Contemplative; full of reflection; full of meditation.

On these he mus'd within his *thoughtful* mind,
And then resolv'd what Faunus had divin'd.

Dryden.

Attentive; careful.

Thoughtful of thy gain, I all the live-long day
Consume in meditation deep.

Philips.

Promoting meditation; favourable to musing.
War, horrid war, your *thoughtful* walks invades,
And steel now glitters in the muses' shades.

Pope.

Anxious; solicitous.

In awful pomp, and melancholy state,
See settled reason on the judgment-seat;

Around her crowd distrust, and doubt, and fear,

And *thoughtful* foresight, and tormenting care. *Prior*.

THOUGHTFULLY, *adv.* With thought or consideration; with solicitude.

THOUGHTFULNESS, *s.* Deep meditation. Suitable to the gravity of a Spaniard, or the silence and *thoughtfulness* of an Italian. *Swift*.—Anxiety; solicitude.

THOUGHTLESS, *adj.* Airy; gay; dissipated; negligent; careless.—It is something peculiarly shocking to see gray hairs without remorse for the past, and *thoughtless* of the future. *Rogers*.—Stupid; dull.

His goodly fabric fills the eye,
And seems design'd for *thoughtless* majesty;
Thoughtless as monarch oaks that shade the plain,
And spread in solemn state supinely reign.

Dryden.

THOUGHTLESSLY, *adv.* Without thought; carelessly; stupidly.

In restless hurries *thoughtlessly* they live,
At substance oft unmov'd, for shadows grieve.

Garth.

THOUGHTLESSNESS, *s.* Want of thought; absence of thought.—What is called absence, is a *thoughtlessness* and want of attention about what is doing. *Ld. Chesterfield*.

THOUGHTSICK, *adj.* Uneasy with reflection.

Heaven's face doth glow
With tristful visage; and, as 'gainst the doom,
Is *thoughtsick* at the act.

Shakespeare.

THOUINIA [so named by Dr. Smith, in honour of Mons. André Thouin, fellow of the National Institute, and Professor of Horticulture in the French Museum], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of convolvuli (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx five-leaved, permanent; leaflets roundish, three outer thicker wrinkled, naked, two inner membranaceous at the edge, silky at the back. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped, plaited, twice as long as the calyx, five-cleft; the segments very blunt, hispid on the outside, with very frequent rigid, fulgid bristles; within and along the edge between the plaits smooth, tomentose-ciliate at the top. Stamina: filaments five, round, naked, twice as long as the corolla, declining. Anthers biggish, cordate, two-lobed, smooth. Pistil: germ ovate, very hairy, superior. Style: length, form and situation of the stamens. Stigma simple, obtuse. Pericarp: drupe globular, size of a plum, supported by the permanent calyx.—*Essential Character*. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped, inferior, hispid on the outside. Style simple.

Thouinia spectabilis.—This is a tree with a hard wrinkled bark: the branches are round, silky towards the top, terminated by leaves and flowers in bundles. Leaves scattered, obovate-lanceolate, smooth, with a stout midrib; petioles short, channelled, when young silky. Stipules none. Flowers axillary, solitary, large and handsome, nodding a little, on roundish peduncles thickened at the top, silky towards the base, having in the middle two small acute silky opposite bractes.—Native of Madagascar.

THOURG, a small town in the north of France, department of the Eure and Loir, with 1100 inhabitants, and manufacturers of cotton, caps, stockings, and gloves; 3 miles east of Janville.

THOUSAND, *adj.* or *s.* [ðyʊənd, Saxon; *thusund*, Icel. from *tiu*, Icel. ten, and *hund*, M. Goth. hundred. *Serenius*.] The number of ten hundred.—About three *thousand* years ago, navigation of the world for remote voyages was greater than at this day *Bacon*.—Proverbially, a great number.

For harbour at a *thousand* doors they knock'd,
Not one of all the *thousand* but was lock'd.

Dryden.

Search the herald's roll,
Where thou shalt find thy famous pedigree,
Drawn from the root of some old Tuscan tree,
And thou, a *thousand* off, a fool of long degree.

Dryden.

THOUSAND ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the Straits of Sunda. Lat. 5. 33. S. long. 106. 33. E.

THOUSAND

THOUSAND ISLANDS, a number of small islands in the river St. Lawrence, a little below Lake Ontario; the part of the river being called Thousand Island Lake.

THOUSAND LAKES, a name given to a number of small lakes in America, near the river Mississippi; 60 miles above St. Anthony's Falls.

THOUSAND ROCKS, rocks on the river St. Lawrence; 72 miles south-west of Montreal.

THOUSANDTH, *adj.* The hundredth ten times told; the ordinal of a thousand: proverbially, very numerous.—He that will divide a minute into a thousand parts, and break but a part of a *thousandth* part in the affairs of love, it may be said of him, that Cupid hath clapt him o' th' shoulder, but I'll warrant him heart whole. *Shakspeare.*

THOWL, *s.* [ðol, Saxon, "scalnus á quo pendet remus." Lye.] One of two small sticks or wooden pins, driven into the edge of a boat, by which oars are kept in their places when rowing. *Ainsworth.*

THOYDON, **BOIS**, a parish of England, in Essex; 3 miles south of Epping.

THOYDON, **GARNON**, a parish of England, in Essex; 2 miles south-south-east of Epping. Population 612.

THOYDON, **MOUNT**, another parish in the above county; 3½ miles south-east of Epping.

THOYNARD (Nicholas), a native of Orleans, was born in 1629, and at an early age a proficient in the learned languages, and in medallist science. His own original works were few, but he was liberal in the assistance he afforded to other writers. He published two short Latin dissertations on particular medals, and notes upon "Lactantius de Mortibus Persecutorum," and also a Critique on R. Simon's translation of the New Testament; but his principal performance was "A Concord of the Four Evangelists," in Greek and Latin, which was printing at the time of his death at Paris, in 1706, and appeared in 1707, with learned notes, chronological and historical. In this work he maintains that St. Matthew, of all the evangelists, paid the least regard in his narrative to the order of time. This work was printed at considerable expense, and is now rare. *Moreri.*

To THRACK, *v. a.* [*tracht*, a load, German; from *tragen*, to carry] To load; to burthen.—Certainly we shall one day find, that the strait gate is too narrow for any man to come bustling in, *thrack'd* with great possessions and greater corruptions. *South.*

THRAEVE, or **THRIVE**, a small island of Scotland, in Kirkcudbright shire, formed by the river Dee, on which is situated the stately castle of the same name, formerly the residence of the lords of Galloway.

THRALL, *s.* [ðræl, ðpall, Sax. *thrael*, Icel. a bond-servant, Mr. Ellis considers it is derived from the Saxon ðrullian, to bore; and refers to Exod. xxi. vi. ðrulle hiþ eape miþ auum æle, "drill his ear with an awl; a custom retained by our forefathers, and executed on their slaves at the church door." *Specimens of the early Engl. Poets*, vol. i. p. 20.] A slave; one who is in the power of another. *Not much in use.*—Look gracious on thy prostrate *thrall*, *Shakspeare.*—Bondage; state of slavery or confinement.

Her men took land,
And first brought forth Ulysses, bed, and all
That richly furnish'd it; he still in *thrall*
Of all subduing sleep.

Chapman.

THRALL, *adj.* Bond; subject.

Withstood

The fiend that you would maken *thrall* and bond.

Chaucer.

To THRALL, *v. a.* To enslave; to bring into the power of another. *Out of use.*

Let me be a slave t' atchieve the maid,
Whose sudden sight hath *thrall'd* my wounded eye.

Shakspeare.

The author of nature is not *thrall'd* to the laws of nature.
Drummond.

THRALDOM, *s.* Slavery; servitude.—How far am I inferior to thee in the state of the mind? and yet know I

that all the Heavens cannot bring me to such *thraldom*.
Sidney.

He swore with sobs,
That he would labour my delivery.
—Why, so he doth, when he delivers you
From this earth's *thraldom* to the joys of Heaven.

Shakspeare.

THRANDESTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles north-west-by-north of Eye.

THRANG. See **THRONG**.

THRANITÆ, in the Roman Trireme-gallies, or those which had three benches, the rowers of the upper row were called by this name, the second the *zygitæ*, and the lowest the *thalamitæ*.

THRA'PPLE, *s.* The wind pipe of any animal. They still retain it in the Scottish dialect; we say rather *throttle*.

THRAPSTON, a market town of England, in the county of Northampton, situated in a pleasant valley on the southern bank of the river Nen, over which there is a handsome bridge of several arches. The situation is extremely pleasant, and the surrounding country possesses all the advantages of a country retirement; 18 miles north-east of Northampton, and 75 north-north-west of London.

To THRASH, *v. a.* [ðæpʃan, Saxon; *derschen*, Dutch; *therskia*, Icel. Our word is written *thrash* or *thresh*; but according to the etymology, *thresh* is most correct.] To beat corn to free it from the chaff.—First *thrash* the corn, then after burn the straw. *Shakspeare.*—To beat; to drub.—Thou scurvy valiant ass; thou art here but to *thrash* Trojans, and thou art bought and sold among those of any wit like a Barbarian slave. *Shakspeare.*

To THRASH, *v. n.* To labour; to drudge.

I rather wou'd be Mævius, *thresh* for rhimes
Like his, the scorn and scandal of the times,
Than that Philippick fatally dvine,
Which is inscrib'd the second, should be mine. *Dryden.*

THRA'SHER, *s.* One who thrashes corn.

Our soldiers, like a lazy *thrasher* with a flail,
Fell gently down, as if they struck their friends. *Shakspeare.*

THRA'SHINGFLOOR, *s.* An area on which corn is beaten.

In vain the hinds the *thrashing-floor* prepare,
And exercise their flails in empty air. *Dryden.*

THRASIMENE, or **THRASYMENE**, the ancient name of a lake in the central part of Italy, now called the lake of Perugia, and famous for the victory gained by Hannibal, over the Romans under Flaminius.

THRASO'NICAL, *adj.* [from *Thraso*, a boaster in old comedy.] Boastful; bragging.—His humour is lofty, his general behaviour, vain, ridiculous, and *thrasonical*. *Shakspeare.*

THRASO'NICALLY, *adv.* Boastfully.—To brag *thrasonically*, to boast like Rodomonte. *Johnson.*

THRAVE, or **THREAVE**, *s.* [ðraf, Sax. *trafwe*, Su. Goth. *trava*, low Lat. *thrave*, Norm. Fr.] A herd; a drove; a heap. In some parts of England applied to twenty-four sheaves of corn; in others to a certain quantity of straw.

They come

In *threaves* to frolic with him.

B. Jonson.

THREAD, *s.* [ðræð, Saxon; from ðrapan, *tothrow*, *to twist*.] A small line; a small twist; the rudiment of cloth.

Let not Bardolph's vital *thread* be cut
With edge of penny cord and vile reproach. *Shakspeare.*

Any thing continued in a course; uniform tenor.—The eagerness and trembling of the fancy doth not always regularly follow the same even *thread* of discourse, but strikes upon some other thing that hath relation to it. *Burnet.*

To THREAD, *v. a.* To pass through with a thread.—The largest crooked needle, with a ligature of the size of that I have *threaded* it with in taking up the spermatic vessels.

vessels. *Sharp*.—To pass through; to pierce through.—Thus out of season *threading* dark-ey'd night. *Shakspeare*.

THRE'ADBARE, *adj.* Deprived of the nap; wore to the naked threads.—The clothier means to dress the Commonwealth, and set a new nap upon it; so he had need; for 'tis *threadbare*. *Shakspeare*.—Worn out; trite.

A hungry lean-fac'd villain,
A mere anatomy, a mountebank,
A *threadbare* juggler, and a fortune-teller. *Shakspeare*.

THRE'ADBARENESS, *s.* State of being threadbare.—There was much significance in his look with regard to the coat; it spoke of the sleekness of folly, and the *threadbareness* of wisdom. *Man of Feeling*.

THRE'ADEN, *adj.* Made of thread.

Behold the *threaden* sails,
Borne with the invisible and creeping wind,
Draw the huge bottoms through the furrow'd sea.
Shakspeare.

THRE'ADY, *adj.* Like thread; slender.—Branches like the small and *threddie* roots of a tree. *Granger*.—Containing thread.

From hand to hand
The *theady* shuttle glides along the lines. *Dyer*.

THREALS, a township of England, in Lancashire, adjoining to Kirkham. Population 671.

To **THREAP**, *v. a.* [Sax. *þreapian*.] To argue; to contend; still a northern word.—Some crye upon God, some other *threpe* that he hathe forgotten theym. *Bp. Fisher*.

To **THREAT**, or **THREATEN**, *v. a.* [ðreatian Saxon: *threat* is seldom used but in poetry.] To menace; to denounce evil.

Death to be wish'd
Though *threaten'd*, which no worse than this can bring.
Milton.

To menace; to terrify, or attempt to terrify, by shewing or denouncing evil. It has *with* before the thing threatened, if a noun; *to*, if a verb.

What *threat* you me *with* telling of the king?
Tell him and spare not. *Shakspeare*.

To menace by action.

Void of fear,
He *threaten'd* with his long pretended spear. *Dryden*.

THREAT, *s.* Menace; denunciation of ill.—There is no terror, Cassius, in your *threats*. *Shakspeare*.

THRE'ATENER, *s.* [formerly *threater*. Prompt. Parv.] Menacer; one that threatens.

Be stirring as the time; be fire with fire;
Threaten the *threatener*, and outface the brow
Of bragging honour. *Shakspeare*.

The fruit, it gives you life
To knowledge by the *threat'ner*. *Milton*.

THRE'ATENING, *s.* A menace; a denunciation of evil.

Æneas their assault undaunted did abide,
And thus to Lausus, loud with friendly *threat'ning*, cry'd.
Dryden.

THRE'ATENINGLY, *adv.* With menace; in a threatening manner.

The honour that thus flames in your fair eyes,
Before I speak, too *threat'ningly* replies. . . . *Shakspeare*.

THRE'ATFUL, *adj.* Full of threats; minacious.
Like as a warlike brigandine applide
To fight, lays forth her *threatful* pikes afore,
The engines which in them sad death do hide. *Spenser*.

THRECKINGHAM, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2 miles north of Folkingham.

THREE, *adj.* [ðre, ðre, Sax.; *dry*, Dutch; *tri*, Welsh and Erse; *tres*, Lat.] Two and one.

Prove this a prosperous day, the *three-nook'd* world
Shall bear the olive freely. *Shakspeare*.

Proverbially a small number.—Away, thou *three-inch'd* fool; I am no beast. *Shakspeare*.

THREE BRETHREN, a hill of Scotland, in the parish and county of Selkirk, elevated 1978 feet above the level of the sea.

THREE BROTHERS, three small islands on the coast of Guiana, in the mouth of the Essequibo.—2. Three small islands in the Atlantic, near Prince's island. Lat. 1. 32. N. long. 7. E.—3. Three hills on the north-east coast of Terra del Fuego; 9 miles west of Cape Diego.—4. Three islands on the Spanish Main, near the Mosquito shore. Lat. 11. N. long. 82. 52. W.—5. Three islands in the Indian Ocean. Lat. 3. 44. S. long. 62. 25. E.—6. Three islands in the Eastern seas. Lat. 10. 42. N. long. 108. E.—7. Three small islands in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Madagascar. Lat. 13. 20. S. long. 51. 10. N.—8. Three small islands in the Eastern seas. Lat. 5. 30. S. long. 132. 15. E.—9. Three small islands in the Eastern seas, near the west coast of Amboyna. Lat. 3. 39. S. long. 128. 18. E.—10. Small islands in the Eastern seas, near the south-west coast of Celebes. Lat. 5. 25. S. long. 119. 38. E.—11. Small islands in the bay of Gunong Tellu, on the coast of Celebes. Lat. 1. S. long. 120. 27. E.—12. Small islands in the Eastern seas. Lat. 6. S. long. 71. 36. E.—13. Three hills on the east coast of New Holland, so called by Captain Cook. The northernmost is visible 50 miles from a ship's deck at sea, and is in lat. 31. 43. S. long. 152. 45. E.

THREE CREEK RUN, a river of Virginia, which runs into the Nottoway. Lat. 36. 36. N. long. 77. 12. W.

THRE'EFOLD, *adj.* [ðreofeald, Sax.] Thrice repeated; consisting of three.

A *threefold* off'ring to his altar bring,
A bull, a ram, a boar. *Pope*.

THREE HILLS ISLAND, one of the New Hebrides, in the South Pacific Ocean, about 12 miles in circumference. Lat. 17. 7. S. long. 168. 35. E.

THREE HUMMOCK ISLAND, a small island on the east coast of New Holland, separated by a channel two miles wide.

THREE HUMMOCK ISLAND, an island on the north coast of Van Diemen's Land. Lat. 40. 45. S. long. 145. E.

THREE ISLANDS, small islands in the Eastern seas, near the east coast of Bintag. Lat. 1. 10. S. long. 105. 2. E.

THREE ISLANDS, a name given to some small islands in the Indian Ocean, near the eastern coast of Africa. Lat. 4. 50. S.

THREE ISLANDS BAY, or **HARBOUR**, a bay on the east coast of the island of St. Lucia.

THREE ISLAND HARBOUR, a bay on the coast of Patagonia, in the straits of Magellan; 8 miles north-north-west of Batchelor's river.

THREE KINGS, three small islands in the South Pacific Ocean, near the north coast of New Zealand, discovered by Tasman. A singular circumstance respecting these little islands is, that they abound in the centipede, which reptile is entirely unknown in New Zealand, though only 15 miles distant. Lat. 34. 13. S. long. 172. 12. E.

THRE'EPENCE, *s.* A small silver coin, valued at thrice a penny.

A *threepence* bow'd would hire me,
Old as I am to queen it. *Shakspeare*.

THRE'EPENNY, *adj.* [*triobolaris*, Lat.] Vulgar; mean.

THRE'EPILE, *s.* An old name for good velvet.
THRE'EPILED, *adj.* Set with a thick pile; in another place it seems to mean piled one on another.—Thou art good velvet; thou'rt a *threepil'd* piece: I had as lief be English kersey, as be pil'd as thou art. *Shakspeare*.

THREE POINTS CAPE, the north head of the entrance into Broken Bay, on the east coast of New Holland. Lat. 33. 32½. S. long. 151. 23½. E.

THREE POINTS CAPE, on the east coast of America, in the bay of Honduras. Lat. 15. 56. N. long. 90. 16. W.

THREE POINTS CAPE, a cape on the north coast of South America. Lat. 10. 40. N. long. 62. 56. W.

THREE POINTS CAPE, a cape on the east coast of Patagonia. Lat. 46. 50. S.

THREE RIVERS, DISTRICT OF, one of the divisions of Lower Canada.

THREE RIVERS, a town of Lower Canada, situated on the north-west side of the river St. Maurice, at its confluence with the St. Lawrence. It derives its name from the entrance into the former river being separated by two islands lying at the mouth, into three channels. Three Rivers ranks as the third town in the province; but compared with either of the others, it is small indeed, containing only about 320 houses, with a population not much exceeding 2500 souls. It sends two members to the provincial parliament.

THREE RIVERS HARBOUR, a bay on the east coast of the island of St. John, in the gulf of St. Lawrence. Lat. 46. 8. N. long. 62. 10. W.

THREESCORE, *adj.* Thrice twenty; sixty.—*Threescore* and ten I can remember well. *Shakspeare.*

THREE SISTERS, three small islands on the west side of Chesapeak bay, north of Parker's island.

THREE SISTERS, small islands in the Eastern seas. Lat. 5. 42 N. long. 105. 42. E.

THREAPLAND, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 6 miles north-by-east of Cockermouth.

THRELKELD, a township of England, in Cumberland; 4 miles east-north-east of Keswick.

THRENE, *s.* [*ἄρνος*, Gr.] Lamentation; complaint. *Obsolete.*

It made this *threne*

To the phenix and the dove,
As chorus to their tragic scene.

Shakspeare.

THRE'NODY, *s.* [*ἄρνοδια*, Gr.] A song of lamentation.—They carry the body to the grave;—and for seven days the next of kin watch, to keep, if possible, the evil angel from his grave; incessantly warbling out elegiac *threnodies*, as the last expression of love they can shew. *Sir T. Herbert.*

To THRESH, *v. a.* [*ῥῆσαν*, *ῥῆσαν*, Sax. See *To THRASH.*] To beat corn to free it from the chaff.—Gideon was taken from *threshing*, as well as Cincinnatus from the plough, to command armies. *Locke.*

THRE'SHER, *s.* [*ῥῆρσεpe*, Sax.] One who threshes corn.

Here too the *thresher* brandishing his flail,
Bespeaks a master.

Dodsley.

A fish; the sea-fox.—The flail-finn'd *thresher*, and steel-beak'd swordfish. *Donne.*

THRESHFIELD, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the river Wharfe; 9½ miles north of Skipton.

THRESHINGFLOOR, *s.* An area on which corn is beaten.

The careful ploughman doubting stands,
Lest on the *threshing-floor* his sheaves prove chaff. *Milton.*

THRE'SHOLD, *s.* [*ῥῆρσαλδ*, Sax.] The ground or step under the door; entrance; gate; door.

Many men, that stumble at the *threshold*,
Are well foretold that danger lurks within. *Shakspeare.*

THRESTON, EAST and WEST, two hamlets of England, in Northumberland; 9 miles from Morpeth.

THREW, preterite of *throw*.

A broken rock the force of Pyrrhus *threw*;
Full on his ankle fell the pond'rous stone,
Burst the strong nerves, and crash'd the solid bone. *Pope.*

THREXTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2½ miles west-by-south of Watton.

THREZTJAN, a village in Transylvania, on the south-east point of the county of Sarand, with a considerable gold mine.

THRICE, *adv.* Three times.

Thrice within this hour

I saw him down; *thrice* up again and fighting. *Shakspeare.*

A word of amplification.

Thrice noble lord, let me intreat of you

To pardon me.

Shakspeare.

To THRID, *v. a.* [this is corrupted from *thread*; in French *enfiler*.] To slide through a narrow passage.

Some *thrid* the mazy ringlets of her hair,

Some hang upon the pendants of her ear.

Pope.

THRID, *s.* Thread.

Sad Clotho held the rocke the whiles the *thrid*

By griesly Lachesis was spun with paine,

That cruell Atropos eftsoones undid,

With cursed knife cutting the twist in twaine;

Most wretched men whose dayes depend on *thrids* so vaine.

Spenser.

THRIFT, *s.* Profit; gain; riches gotten; state of prospering.

You some permit

To second ills with ills, each worse than other,

And make them dreaded to the doer's *thrif*. *Shakspeare.*

Had I but the means

To hold a rival place with one of them,

I have a mind presages me such *thrif*,

That I should be fortunate.

Shakspeare.

Parsimony; frugality; good husbandry.

Thus Heaven, though all-sufficient, shows a *thrif*

In his oeconomy, and bounds his gift.

Dryden.

A plant.

The marygold above, to adorn the arched bar;

The double daysie, *thrif*, the button-bachelor. *Drayton.*

THRIFTILY, *adv.* Frugally; parsimoniously; carefully; with good husbandry.—Preserve it tenderly and *thriftily*; fence it against sun, dust, air, and fire. *Bp. Taylor.*—Cromartie after fourscore went to his country-house to live *thriftily*, and save up money to spend at London. *Swift.*

THRIFTINESS, *s.* Frugality; husbandry.

If any other place you have,

Which asks small pains but *thriftness* to save. *Spenser.*

THRIFTLESS, *adj.* Profuse; extravagant.

He shall spend mine honour with his shame,

As *thrifless* sons their scraping father's gold. *Shakspeare.*

THRIFTY, *adj.* Frugal; sparing; not profuse; not lavish.

Nature never lends

The smallest scruple of her excellence,

But like a *thrifty* goddess she determines

Herself the glory of a creditor,

Thanks and use.

Shakspeare.

Well-husbanded.

I have five hundred crowns,

The *thrifty* hire I sav'd under your father. *Shakspeare.*

THRIGBY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles west-by-north of Caister.

To THRILL, *v. a.* [*ῥύπλιαν*, Sax.; *drilla*, Swedish.]

To pierce; to bore; to penetrate; to drill.

A servant that he bred, *thrill'd* with remorse,

Oppos'd against the act; bending his sword

To his great master.

Shakspeare.

To THRILL, *v. n.* To have the quality of piercing.

The knight this *thrilliant* spear again assay'd,

In his brass-plated body to emboss.

Spenser.

To pierce or wound the ear with a sharp sound.

The piteous maiden, careful, comfotless,

Does throw out *thrilling* shrieks, and shrieking cries.

Spenser.

To

To feel a sharp tingling sensation.

To seek sweet safety out,
In vaults and prisons; and to *thrill* and shake,
Ev'n at the crying of our nation's crow,
Thinking his voice an armed Englishman. *Shakspeare.*

To pass with a tingling sensation.

A faint cold fear *thrills* through my veins,
That almost freezes up the heat of life. *Shakspeare.*

THRILL, *s.* The breathing place or hole.—The bill of the dodo hooks and bends downwards; the *thrill* or breathing-place is in the midst. *Sir T. Herbert.*—A piercing sound.

THRIMBY, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-west of Orton.

THRIMSA, in Antiquity, a silver coin, the value of which has occasioned a variety of conjectures. Lambard, who gave the first estimate of it, makes it a *three-shilling* piece, in which opinion he is followed by Sir Henry Spelman. Bishop Nicholson apprehends, that it was the name of their common coin, and that the thrimsa sceata, and penny, were all of them the same. Somner, from the import of the word, and the value given to the thrimsa in the Saxon laws, rates it at *three-pence*. Selden, Brady, and Hickes, are of opinion, that this coin was either the last remissis of the Franks and Germans, and consequently *four-pence*, or the third part of the Saxon shilling, i. e. three half-pence and one-third of a halfpenny in their money.

THRIN, a river of England, in Norfolk, which runs into the sea, near Yarmouth.

THRINAX [$\Theta\rho\rho\nu\nu\alpha\zeta$ or $\tau\rho\rho\nu\nu\alpha\zeta$, Gr., a *trident* or *three-tined fork*, from $\tau\rho\rho\epsilon\iota\varsigma$, *three*], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order of palms.—Generic Character. Calyx: spathe universal, compound. Spadix simply branched, imbricate with proper spathes, in decussated spikes. Perianth minute, six-toothed. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments six, short, filiform, inserted into the base of the germ. Anthers large (larger than the pistil), erect, bifid at the base and top. Pistil: germ half-inferior, ovate, surrounded by the calyx. Style thickish, short. Stigma wideish, compressed, retrue, emarginate. Pericarp: berry one-celled, naked. Seed a single kernel covered with a bony shell.—*Essential Character*. Calyx six-toothed. Corolla none. Stigma funnel-form, oblique. Berry one-seeded.

Thrinax parviflora, palmeto royal, or palmeto thatch.—Trunk from ten to twenty feet high, swelling at the base, unarmed. Fronds terminating, palmate-plaited, from one to two feet long; divisions lanceolate, nerved and marked with lines, rigid, almost equal. Flowers pedicelled, opposite or in threes, placed on the rachis; small, hermaphrodite. Berry roundish, the size of a small pea, almost juiceless. Kernel white within, red in the middle.—Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola, on the coast and in dry places.

To **THRING**, *v. a.* [$\delta\rho\rho\nu\nu\alpha\zeta$, Sax.] To press; to thrust. still used in some parts of the north. It is, in fact, no other than *throng*; and in our old language, is both active and neuter.

There was many a birde singing,
Throughout the yerde al *thringing*. *Chaucer.*

THRINGSTONE, a township of England, in Leicester; 5 miles east of Ashby-de-la-Zouch. Population 948.

THRINTOFT, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles west-by south of Northallerton.

THRIPLOW, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-east of Royston. Population 319.

THRIPS, a name used among the ancients to express a sort of worm hatched from the egg of a beetle.

THRIPS, a genus of the order of Hemiptera, the characters of which are, that the rostrum is obsolete, being hidden within the mouth; the antennæ filiform, and as long as the thorax: the body slender, and of equal thickness; the abdomen reflexible, and often bent upwards; the four wings extended, incumbent, narrow, and crossing one another at

some distance from their base. The thrips has six feet, and the tarsus of each foot has only two articulations. Gmelin enumerates the following eleven species.

1. *Thrips paradoxa*.—Brown, with abbreviated wings, and antennæ pectinate, fissile and filiform.—Found in China, but Gmelin doubts whether it be of this genus.

2. *Thrips physapus*.—With glaucous elytra or shell-wings, and black body.—Found frequently on flowers in Europe.

3. *Thrips minutissima*.—With glaucous elytra and body, and brown eyes.—Found as the former.

4. *Thrips juniperina*.—With snowy elytra and brown body.—Found in the galls of the juniper.

5. *Thrips ulmi*.—Black, with snowy ciliated wings, and acuminate anus.—Found gregarious on the bark of the elm.

6. *Thrips urticae*.—Yellow, with whitish elytra.—Found solitary on the leaves of the nettle, vine, and hazle.

7. *Thrips fasciata*.—With elytra banded with white and black, and brown body.—Found on flowers in Europe.

8. *Thrips fusca*.—Blackish, with glaucous elytra.—Found in Denmark: the female probably fasciated?

9. *Thrips obscura*.—Yellowish, with palish elytra, and eyes and wings of the abdomen black.—Found in Denmark.

10. *Thrips rufa*.—Red.—Found on the spikes of wheat; if it be not the larva of the minutissima.

11. *Thrips variegata*.—Variegated.—Found on flax.

The thrips is highly injurious and destructive to many sorts of fine fruited trees, but particularly so to those of the grape or vine kind. The best and most effectual means of preventing its mischievous effects, in such cases, is probably that of frequent good washing of the trees with common water, by the engine or otherwise. It has lately been advised that this should be done every evening, as, when performed in the heat of the sun, the vines are materially injured. Indeed all such trees should, it is supposed, be well washed every evening, until the berries begin to colour, whether infested with insects or not, but especially in the former state; after which it is to be wholly discontinued.

Where there is a neglect of washing the trees in this or some other way, the thrips, for the most part, makes its appearance. In such cases, these insects may without much difficulty be destroyed by the fumigation of tobacco and damp hay; the plants or trees being well washed after it by pure water.

The white bug is another insect which is often very hurtful to peach-trees and vines in forcing-houses; and the cause of which is believed to be much owing to the trees not being daily properly washed in the above manner. Each of these sorts of trees stand in need of particular management in clearing them of this insect.

The brown-bug too occasionally makes its appearance on, and is hurtful to peach-trees in such situations, especially when they are shaded, or approach near the flues of the houses. Proper washing of the trees, in these cases, with lime-water, in the winter season; and syringing them with it as soon as the leaves have fallen off, are often very effectual in removing such insects.

The green-fly is also very destructive to peach-trees, especially when in the forcing state. These are the most effectually destroyed by means of well washing the trees daily in a regular manner, after the work of forcing is begun. It is the common practice of most gardeners to discontinue such washings as soon as the flowers begin to make their appearance, but others have lately continued them with supposed advantage, and not found to prevent the fruit from setting. If any flies of this sort present themselves, they may be kept under by proper watering or washing, as above, and by carefully picking off the first buds on which they appear, which is found to prevent them from breeding, and to render the use of tobacco-smoke unnecessary. Fumigations of this substance are, however, sometimes beneficial in these cases in removing the vermin.

This and the blue-fly too are often very injurious to plum-trees, especially after they have been affected with the honey-dew. The manner of getting rid of them in such cases,

cases, which has lately been recommended, is that of watering the trees in a plentiful manner two or three times a week, if the weather be dry; and during the continuance of the above sort of dew upon the trees, preparing the water with a little common salt and the fluid part of a good portion of broom that has been boiled. This mixture, it is said, effectually kills the flies, while it does no injury to the trees, if care has been taken not to use too large a proportion of salt. This practice also tends to make the trees shoot stronger, and to hinder such insects from breeding.

There is another insect which has lately been found to be greatly injurious to apple and other fruit trees, but which is yet only little known to gardeners. It is the Tortrix wæberana, which may be seen well described in the second volume of the "Transactions of the Horticultural Society of London." It is there stated to be occasionally very hurtful to such trees, not only in the larva state, but others; and that its attacks are by no means confined to the diseased parts of such trees. The insect, in its perfect state, is a small moth, which is very abundant in gardens and fruit grounds.

In what regards the means of removing and destroying such insects when their attacks become injurious, the hints given below are thrown out. The first and most essential process evidently is, it is thought, to cut away the edges of the cankerly parts where they are chiefly found, making the wound smooth, and covering it with any composition likely to prevent the moth from depositing her ova or eggs there again. One precaution is necessary, which is to put into boiling-water, or to bury at a considerable depth, the cut-out pieces of decayed bark containing the larvæ; which, if left near the tree, would soon crawl from their holes or other places, and remount it; thus defeating the labour of the horticulturalist, who often, from neglecting a slight additional trouble, loses the benefit of more painful exertions. Where the larvæ are found to have insinuated themselves generally into the rough bark of old trees, it would probably, it is thought, be advisable to scrape off the whole of the lifeless bark, and such portions of the alburnum as are injured, as suggested by Mr. Knight on another occasion; a process which, there can be no doubt, it is said, would be advantageous to the tree in other respects, as pointed out by the above writer. And where projecting saw-dust-like masses shew that the larvæ has attacked even smooth-barked trees, the insertion of a blunt pricker into the hole would probably, in most cases, suffice to destroy it, and do less injury to the tree than suffering it to attain its growth. But the mode which is most to be recommended is this, as in the case of almost all insects hurtful to fruit or other trees, is, it is said, to destroy the moths themselves, by collecting them from off the trees, or other places, during the summer months, which might be done by children properly directed and provided with suitable means for the purpose, or in other ways. The destruction of every female moth, before the deposition of its eggs, may, it is said, be fairly calculated to prevent the existence of some hundreds of larvæ; and thus, in any garden or fruit-ground not in the neighbourhood of others, where the same methods are neglected, the whole race might, it is supposed, be extirpated in a few years.

To THRIVE, v. n. pret. *throve*, and sometimes less properly *thrived*, part. *thriven*. [Of this word there is found no satisfactory etymology: in the northern dialect they use *throdde*, to make grow; perhaps *throve* was the original word, from *throa*, Icelandic, to encrease.] To prosper; to grow rich; to advance in any thing desired.

If lord Percy *thrive* not, ere the king
Dismiss his power he means to visit us. *Shakspeare.*

THRIVER, s. One that prospers; one that grows rich.—He had so well improved that little stock his father left, as he was like to prove a *thrifer* in the end. *Hayward.*

THRIVINGLY, adv. In a prosperous way.

THRIVING, or THRIVINGNESS, s. Growth; increase.—A careful shepherd not only turns his flock into a common pasture, but with particular advertence observes the *thriving* of every one. *Dec.*

THRO', contracted by barbarians from *through*.
What thanks can wretched fugitives return,
Who scatter'd *thro'* the world in exile mourn. *Dryden.*

THROAPHAM, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles south-west-by-west of Bawtry.

THROAT, s. [ἄροτε, ἄροτα, Sax.] The forepart of the neck; the passages of nutriment and breath.

Wherefore could I not pronounce, amen?
I had most need of blessing, and amen
Stuck in my *throat*. *Shakspeare.*

The main road of any place.
Her honour and her courage try'd,
Calm and intrepid in the very *throat*
Of sulphureous war, on Teniers dreadful field. *Thomson.*

To cut the THROAT. To murder; to kill by violence.—These bred up amongst the Englishmen, when they become kern, are made more fit to cut their throats. *Spenser.*

THRO'ATPIPE, s. The weasand; the windpipe.
THROATWORT, s. A plant. *Dr. Johnson.*—The right botanical name is *trachelium*: it is also called *flos cardinalis*. *Mason.*

My muse grows hoarse, and can no longer sing,
But *throatwort* haste her kind relief to bring:
The colleges with dignity enstal
This flower, at Rome he is a cardinal. *Tate's Cowley.*

THROATY, adj. Guttural. The conclusion of this rambling letter shall be a rhyme of certain hard *throaty* words. *Howell.*

To THROB, v. n. [from ἄροβειν, Gr.] Minshew and Junius; formed in imitation of the sound, Skinner; perhaps contracted from *throw up*.—To heave; to beat; to rise as the breast with sorrow or distress.—Here may his head live on my *throbbing* breast. *Shakspeare.*

My heart *throbs* to know one thing:
Shall Banquo's issue ever reign? *Shakspeare.*

—To beat; to palpitate.—In the depending orifice there was a *throbbing* of the arterial blood, as in an aneurism, the blood being choked in by the contused flesh. *Wiseman.*

THROB, s. Heave; beat; stroke of palpitation.
Thou talk'st like one who never felt
Th' impatient *throbs* and longings of a soul,
That pants and reaches after distant good. *Addison.*

THROCKING, or THORRING, a parish of England; in Hertfordshire; 2 miles west-north-west of Buntingford.

THROCKINGTON, a village of England, in Northumberland; 9 miles from Corbridge.

THROCKLEY, a township of England, in Northumberland; 6½ miles west-north-west of Newcastle-upon-Tyne.

THROCKMORTON, a hamlet of England, in Worcestershire; 3 miles north-east of Pershore.

To THRODDEN, v. n. To grow; to thrive; to encrease. North. Grose. See *To THRIVE*.

THROE, s. [from ἄροπιαν, Saxon, to suffer.] The pain of travail; the anguish of bringing children: it is likewise written *throw*.

Lucina lent not me her bed,
But took me in my *throws*. *Shakspeare.*

Any extreme agony; the final and mortal struggle.
O man! have mind of that most bitter *throë*,
For as the tree does fall so lies it ever low. *Spenser.*

To THROE, v. a. To put in agonies.
The setting of thine eye and cheek proclaim a birth,
Which *throcs* thee much to yield. *Shakspeare.*

THROGGY, a river of England, in Monmouthshire, which falls into the Severn, at Trinity Chapel; about 4 miles south-west of Chepstow.

THROMBUS [from ἄρομπος, Gr. *coagulated blood*], a clot of blood, or *echymosis*.

THRONE, s. [*throne*, old French; *thronus*, Lat., ἄρονος, Gr.]—A royal seat; the seat of a king.

Boundless intemperance hath been
Th' untimely emptying of the happy *throne*,
And fall of many kings. *Shakspeare.*

The seat of a bishop.—Bishops preached on the steps of
the altar standing, having not as yet assumed the state of a
throne. *Ayliffe.*

One highly exalted; spoken of angelical beings.

Hear, all ye angels, progeny of light,
Thrones, dominations, principedoms, virtues, powers. *Milton.*

To *THRONE*, *v. a.* To enthrone; to set on a royal seat.

They have, as who have not, whom their great stars
Thron'd and set high? *Shakspeare.*

THRONG, *s.* [ðpanʒ, Saxon, from ðpanʒan, *to press*.]—
A crowd; a multitude pressing against each other.

Let us on heaps go offer up our lives:
We are enow yet living on the field,
To smother up the English in our *throngs*. *Shakspeare.*

THRONG, *adj.* Much occupied; very busy; a northern
expression, sometimes spoken *thrang*.

To *THRONG*, *v. n.* To crowd; to come in tumultuous
multitudes.

I have seen
The dumb men *throng* to see him, and the blind
To hear him speak. *Shakspeare.*

To *THRONG*, *v. a.* To oppress or incommode with
crowds or tumults.

I'll say, thou hast gold:
Thou wilt be *throng'd* too shortly. *Shakspeare.*

THRONGLY, *adv.* In crowds; in multitudes.—God
had so contrived, by his infinite wisdom, that matter, thus or
thus prepared, should by a vital congruity attract propor-
tional forms from the world of life, which is every where
nigh at hand, and does very *throngly* inequitate the moist
and unctuous air. *More.*

THROPPLE, a township of England, in Northumber-
land; 5 miles west-by-north of Morpeth.

THROPTON, a township of England, in Northumber-
land; 13 miles south-west-by-west of Alnwick.

THROSTLE, *s.* [ðpɒɹtʃle, Saxon.] The thrush; a sing-
ing bird.

The *throstle* with his note so true,
The wren with little quill. *Shakspeare.*

THROSTON, a hamlet of England, in Durham; 11½
miles north-north-east of Stockton-upon-Tees.

THROTTLE, *s.* The windpipe; the larinx.—At the
upper extreme it hath no larinx or *throttle* to qualify the
sound. *Brown.*

To *THROTTLE*, *v. a.* To choak; to suffocate; to kill
by stopping the breath.

I have seen them shiver and look pale,
Make periods in the midst of sentences,
Throttle their practis'd accents in their fears,
And, in conclusion, dumbly have broke off. *Shakspeare.*

THROVE, the preterite of *thrive*.—England never *throve*
so well, nor was there ever brought into England so great
an increase of wealth since. *Locke.*

THROUGH, *prep.* [ðʊph, Saxon; *door*, Dutch; *durch*
German; *thairh*, Goth. Dicitur de transitu per locum in
omnibus dialectis. Wachter. Mr. Tooke derives it from
the Goth. substantive *dauro*, (Teut. *thuruh*, the same,) a
door, gate, passage.] From end to end of; along the whole
mass or compass.—Noting passage.

Through the gate of ivory he dismiss'd
His valiant offspring. *Dryden.*

By transmission.—*Through* these hands this science has
passed with great applause. *Temple*.—By means of; by
agency of; in consequence of.—The strong *through* plea-
sure soonest falls, the weak *through* smart. *Spenser.*

THROUGH, *adv.* From one end or side to the other.

You'd be so lean, that blasts of January
Would blow you *through* and *through*. *Shakspeare.*

To the end of any thing; to the ultimate purpose; to the
final conclusion.—Every man brings such a degree of this
light into the world with him, that though it cannot bring
him to heaven, yet it will carry him so far, that if he follows
it faithfully he shall meet with another light, which shall
carry him quite *through*. *South.*

THROUGHBRED, *adj.* [commonly *throughbred*.]
Completely educated; completely taught.—A *through-
bred* soldier weighs all present circumstances, and all
possible contingents. *Grew.*

THROUGHLIGHTED, *adj.* Lighted on both sides.—
That the best pieces be placed where are the fewest lights;
therefore not only rooms windowed on both ends, called
throughlighted, but with two or more windows on the
same side, are enemies to this art. *Wotton.*

THROUGHLY, *adv.* It is commonly written *thorough-
ly*, as coming from *thorough*.—Completely; fully; en-
tirely; wholly.

The sight so *thoroughly* him dismay'd,
That nought but death before his eyes he saw. *Spenser.*

No less wisdom than what made the world can *thoroughly*
understand so vast a design. *Tillotson*.—Without reserve;
sincerely.—Though it be somewhat singular for men truly
and *thoroughly* to live up to the principles of their religion,
yet singularity in this is a singular commendation. *Tillotson.*

THROUGHOUT, *prep.* Quite through; in every part of.

O for a clap of thunder, as loud
As to be heard *throughout* the universe,
To tell the world the fact, and to applaud it. *B. Jonson.*

THROUGHOUT, *adv.* Every where; in every part.
Subdue it, and *throughout* dominion hold
Over fish of the sea and fowl of the air. *Milton.*

THROUGH PACED, *adj.* Perfect; complete.—He is
very dextrous in puzzling others, if they be not *throughpaced*
speculators in those great theories. *More.*

To *THROW*, *v. a.* preter. *threw*, part. pass. *thrown*.
[ðpʌpən, Saxon.] To fling; to cast; to send to a distant
place by any projectile force.

He fell
From Heaven, they fabled, *thrown* by angry Jove
Sheer o'er the crystal battlements. *Milton.*

To toss; to put with any violence or tumult. It always
comprises the idea of haste, force, or negligence.
To threats the stubborn sinner oft is hard,
Wrapp'd in his crimes against the storm prepar'd;
But when the milder beams of mercy play,
He melts, and *throws* his cumb'rous cloak away. *Dryden.*

To lay carelessly, or in haste.—His majesty departed
to his chamber, and *threw* himself upon his bed, lamenting
with much passion, and abundance of tears, the loss of an
excellent servant. *Clarendon.*

At th' approach of night,
On the first friendly bank he *throws* him down,
Or rests his head upon a rock till morn. *Addison.*

To venture at dice.
Learn more than thou trowest,
Set less than thou *throwest*. *Shakspeare.*

To cast; to strip; to put off.
There the snake *throws* the enamell'd skin,
Weed wide enough to wrap a fairy in. *Shakspeare.*

To emit in any careless or vehement manner.
To arms; for I have *thrown*
A brave defiance in king Henry's teeth. *Shakspeare.*

To spread in haste.
O'er his fair limbs a flow'ry vest he *threw*,
And issu'd like a god to mortal view. *Pope.*

To overturn in wrestling.—If the sinner shall not only
wrestle

wrestle with this angel, but *throw* him too, and win so complete a victory over his conscience, that all these considerations shall be able to strike no terror into his mind, he is too strong for grace. *South*.—To drive; to send by force.

Myself distrest, an exile, and unknown,
Debarr'd from Europe, and from Asia *thrown*,
In Libyan deserts wander thus alone.

Dryden.

To make to act at a distance.

Throw out our eyes for brave Othello,
Even till we make th' aerial blue
An indistinct regard.

Shakspeare.

To repose.—In time of temptation be not busy to dispute, but rely upon the conclusion, and *throw* yourself upon God, and contend not with him but in prayer. *Bp. Taylor*.—To change by any kind of violence.—A new title, or an unsuspected success, *throws* us out of ourselves, and in a manner destroys our identity. *Addison*.—To turn. [*tornare*, Lat.] As, balls *thrown* in a lathe. *Ainsworth*.

To *THROW away*. To lose; to spend in vain.

The next in place and punishment are they
Who prodigally *throw* their souls *away*,
Fools who, repining at their wretched state,
And loathing anxious life, suborn'd their fate.

Dryden.

To *THROW away*. To reject.—He that will *throw away* a good book because not gilded, is more curious to please his eye than understanding. *Bp. Taylor*.

To *THROW by*. To reject; to lay aside as of no use.

It can but shew

Like one of Juno's disguises; and
When things succeed, be *thrown by*, or let fall. *B. Jonson*.

To *THROW down*. To subvert; to overturn.

Must one rash word, the infirmity of age,
Throw down the merit of my better years;
This the reward of a whole life of service.

Addison.

To *THROW off*. To expel.

To *THROW off*. To reject; to discard: as to *throw off* an acquaintance.

'Twould be better

Could you provoke him to give you th' occasion,
And then to *throw* him *off*.

Dryden.

To *THROW out*. To exert; to bring forth into act.—She *throws out* thrilling shrieks and shrieking cries. *Spenser*.

To *THROW out*. To distance; to leave behind.

When e'er did Juba, or did Portius, show

A virtue that has cast me at a distance,
And *thrown* me out in the pursuits of honour.

Addison.

To *THROW out*. To eject; to expel.—The other two whom they had *thrown out*, they were content should enjoy their exile. *Swift*.

To *THROW out*. To reject; to exclude.—The oddness of the proposition taught others to reflect a little; and the bill was *thrown out*. *Swift*.

To *THROW up*. To resign angrily.

Bad games are *thrown up* too soon,
Until they're never to be won.

Hudibras.

To *THROW up*. To emit; to eject; to bring up.—Judge of the cause by the substances the patient *throws up*. *Arbutnot*.—This is one of the words which is used with great latitude; but in all its uses, whether literal or figurative, it retains from its primitive meaning some notion of haste or violence.

To *THROW*, *v. n.* To perform the act of casting: To cast dice.

To *THROW about*. To cast about; to try expedients.

Now unto despair, I 'gin to grow,
And mean for better wind *about* to *throw*.

Spenser.

THROW, *s.* A cast; the act of casting or throwing.

He heav'd a stone, and rising to the *throw*,
He sent it in a whirlwind at the foe;

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A tower assaulted by so rude a stroke,
With all its lofty battlements had shook.

Addison.

A cast of dice; the manner in which the dice fall when they are cast.

If Hercules and Lichas play at dice
Which is the better man, the greater *throw*
May turn by fortune from the weaker hand;
So is Alcides beaten by his page.

Shakspeare.

The space to which any thing is thrown.

Like to a bowl upon a subtle ground
I've tumbled past the *throw*, and in his praise
Have almost stamp'd the leasing.

Shakspeare.

A short space of time; a little while. [ðpah, Sax.]—They danced but a little *throw*. *Chaucer*.

Down himself he lay'd

Upon the grassy ground to sleepe a *throw*.

Spenser.

Stroke; blow.

So fierce he laid about him, and dealt blows
On either side, that neither mail could hold,
Ne shield defend the thunder of his *throws*.

Spenser.

Effort; violent sally.

Your youth admires

The *throws* and swellings of a Roman soul;
Cato's bold flights, the extravagance of virtue.

Addison.

The agony of child-birth: in this sense it is written *throce*. See *THROE*.

But when the mother's *throws* begin to come,
The creature, pent within the narrow room,
Breaks his blind prison.

Dryden.

THROWER, *s.* One that throws.

Fate, against thy better disposition,
Hath made thy person for the *thrower* out
Of my poor babe.

Shakspeare.

A throwster; which see,

THROWLEY, a parish of England, in Kent; 4 miles south-west-by-south of Feversham.

T-RROWLEY, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 6½ miles east-south-east of Oakhampton.

THROWLEY, a township of England, in Staffordshire, near Waterfall, where the river Manifold receives the Hanse out of the ground.

THROWSTER, *s.* One whose business is to prepare silk for the weaver, by cleansing and twisting it.—*Throwsters* is written *throwsters* in the charter of incorporation of the silk *throwsters*. *Pegge*.

THROXENBY, or *THRISTONBY*, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 2½ miles west of Scarborough.

THRUM, *s.* [*thraum*, Icelandic, the ends of any thing; *thrommes*, Norm. Fr. thrums of woollen yarn.] The ends of weavers' threads.—Any coarse yarn.

O fates, come, come,

Cut thread and *thrum*,

Quail, crush, conclude and quell.

Shakspeare.

To *THRUM*, *v. a.* To weave; to knot; to twist; to fringe.—There's her *thrumm'd* hat and her muffler too. *Shakspeare*.

To *THRUM*, *v. a.* [probably from *To drum*, which is used in the sense of to tinkle.] To grate; to play coarsely.—Blunderbusses planted in every loop hole, go off constantly at the squeaking of a fiddle and the *thrumming* of a guitar. *Dryden*.

THRUM CAP ISLAND, a small circular island in the South Pacific ocean, not more than one mile in circumference. Lat. 18. 35. S. long. 139. 48. W.

THRUMPTON, a township of England, in Nottinghamshire; 7 miles south-west of Nottingham.

THRUPP, a village of England, in Oxfordshire; 2 miles north of Great Faringdon.

THRUPWICH, or **THORPE-WICK**, a village of England, in Berkshire; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile east of Abingdon.

THRUSH, *s.* [θρῦς, Saxon; *turdus*, Latin.] A small singing bird.—Pain, and a fine *thrush*, have been severally endeavouring to call off my attention; but both in vain. *Pope*.—A disease, indicated by small red eruptions, especially in the mouth, which is named from the Fr. *rouge*, red, prefixing the English *the*, hence *thrush*.

THRUSHEL, a river of England, in Devonshire, which runs into the Tamar, opposite Launceston.

THRUSHELTON, a hamlet of England, in Devonshire; 10 miles south-west-by-west of Oakhampton. Population 385.

THRUSSINGTON, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 8 miles north-north-east of Leicester.

To **THRUST**, *v. a.* [*trusito*, Lat.; *thrijsta*, *trudere*; *Serenius*; Old Eng. *threst*. "This lettre down she *threst*, under his pillow." *Chaucer*.] To push any thing into matter, or between close bodies.—*Thrust* in thy sickle and reap. *Rev.*—To push; to move with violence; to drive. It is used of persons or things.

Lock up my doors; and when you hear the drum,
Clamber not you up to the casements then,
Nor *thrust* your head into the public streets. *Shakspeare*.

To stab.—Phineas *thrust* both of them through. *Numb*.—To compress.—He *thrust* the fleece together, and wringing the dew out of it. *Judg.*—To impel; to urge.—We make guilty of our disasters the sun, the moon, and stars, as if we were villains on necessity, and all that we are evil in, by a divine *thrusting* on. *Shakspeare*.—To obtrude; to intrude.

Who's there, I say? How dare you *thrust* yourselves
Into my private meditations. *Shakspeare*.

To **THRUST**, *v. n.* To make a hostile push; to attack with a pointed weapon.—To squeeze in; to put himself into any place by violence.

I'll be a Spartan while I live on earth;
But when in heaven, I'll stand next Hercules,
And *thrust* between my father and the god. *Dryden*.

To intrude.
Not all,
Who like intruders *thrust* into their service,
Participate their sacred influence. *Rowe*.

To push forwards; come violently; to throng; to press.

Young, old, *thrust* there,
In mighty concourse. *Chapman*.

THRUST, *s.* Hostile attack with any pointed weapon. That *thrust* had been mine enemy indeed,
But that my coat is better than thou know'st. *Shakspeare*.

Assault; attack.—There is one *thrust* at your pure, pretended mechanism. *More*.

THRU'STER, *s.* He that thrusts.

THRU'STLE, *s.* Thrush; throstle.

No *thrustles* shrill the bramble-bush forsake;
No chirping lark the welkin sheen invokes. *Gay*.

THRUXTON, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-west-by-west of Hereford.

THRUXTON, a parish of England, in the Isle of Wight, Southamptonshire; 6 miles west of Andover.

THRYALLIS [Θρυαλλίς, *elychnium*, a *wick*: hence a plant so named, because the leaves are fit to make wicks for lamps], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of tricocœæ, *acera* (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted; segments lanceolate, erect, permanent. Corolla: petals five, roundish, spreading. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, longer than the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ obtuse. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule three-sided, triangular, obtuse, tripartite; cells opening by the exterior angle. Seeds solitary, very smooth, obovate, obtuse at the base, mucronate and

curved inwards.—*Essential Character*. Calyx five-parted. Petals five. Capsule tricoccos.

Thryallis Brasiliensis.—This is a little shrub, with round jointed branches. Leaves opposite, petioled, ovate, entire, Stipules bristle-shaped. Raceme terminating, from the fork of the branches, simple, a foot long: with very short bristle-shaped bractes; and filiform pedicels, longer than the flower. Flowers small, yellow. Fruits tricoccos or three-grained.—Native of Brasil.

THRYBERGH, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-east of Rotherham.

To **THRYFA'LLOW**, *v. a.* To give the third plowing in summer.

Thryfallow betime for destroying of weed,
Lest thistles and docke fal a blooming and seed. *Tusser*.

THUCYDIDES, a celebrated Greek historian, was born in the 77th Olympiad, about 470 B. C. The name of his father was Olorus, or Orolus, that of a Thracian prince, indicating a connection with Thrace, in which he seems to have possessed gold-mines, and to have had influence over its chiefs. He belonged to one of the principal families at Athens, and was related to that of Miltiades. His education was that which distinguished Athenians of rank: Antiphon being his preceptor in rhetoric, and Anaxagoras in philosophy. When he heard Herodotus recite his history at the Olympic festival, he is said to have shed tears; and Herodotus observing it, congratulated Olorus on his son's disposition. At the commencement of the Peloponnesian war he was at Athens, and shared in the calamity of pestilence that then occurred; and in the eighth year of that war he had a command in Thrace, and was opposed to the Spartan general Brasidas, who surprised the town of Amphipolis, for the loss of which Thucydides was punished by banishment, though it does not appear that he could have prevented it. During the twenty years of his exile, he devoted himself to literary researches and observations through different parts of Greece, and thus collected materials for the history which he was projecting. He resided for a considerable time in Thrace, but the place and the time of his death are not ascertained. Dodwell conjectures that he passed his 80th year, and died in Thrace. His history comprehends the transactions of the first twenty years of the Peloponnesian war, disposed in eight books; more limited in its compass than that of Herodotus, but not merely rivalling but surpassing it in historical merit, more especially if we admit what a modern writer says of it, "that the first page of Thucydides is the commencement of real history." The distinguishing characteristics of this historian are diligence of research, and the selection of the best authorities, and perfect impartiality. To these qualities we may add sagacity in investigating causes and effects, and a philosophical spirit in forming a discriminating judgment of human affairs. His narration is occasionally very interesting, and indicates the writer of genius. His style, which has undergone much criticism, is of that kind which the ancients termed the austere, aiming at force and brevity rather than harmony, elegance, or perspicuity. Its conciseness and frequent transpositions render it frequently obscure, nor is this defect compensated by its energy and elevation. The most valued editions of this work are Hudson's, Oxon. 1696; Wasse and Ducker's, Amst. fol. 1731; and the Leipzig, 2 vols. 4to. 1790—1804. *Voss, Hist. Græc. Gen. Biog.*

THUEITS, a small town in the south of France; 11 miles north-west of Argentiere, and 20 west-south-west of Privas.

THUIN, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, on the Sambre. Population 3000; 8 miles south-west of Charleroi, and 16 east-south-east of Mons.

THUIN, an old mining town of Germany, in Saxony, on a hill; 40 miles west-south-west of Dresden and 9 south of Chemnitz. Population 1400.

THUIN, a small town of the Austrian states, in Croatia, near the river Ostorie, and the great road called the Josephinerstrasse. In the neighbourhood is a large and remarkable cave; 19 miles south-south-west of Carlstadt.

THUIR,

THUIR, a small town in the south of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees, on the small river Canal. Population 1500; 9 miles south-west of Perpignan.

THUJA [corrupted from *Thuja* of Theophrastus, *Thya* of Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order monadelphia, natural order of coniferæ.—Generic Character. Male flower—Calyx: ament ovate, composed of a common rachis, on which opposite flowers are placed in a triple opposition. Each flower has for its base a subovate, concave, obtuse scale. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments (in each floret) four, scarcely manifest. Anthers as many, fastened to the base of the calycine scale. Female flower on the same plant—Calyx: strobile common, subovate, surrounded with opposite florets; composed of two-flowered, ovate, convex scales, converging longitudinally. Corolla none. Pistil: germ very small. Style awl-shaped. Stigma simple. Pericarp: strobile ovate-oblong, obtuse, opening longitudinally with oblong scales, almost equal, convex outwardly, obtuse. Seeds: oblong, girt longitudinally with a membranaceous wing, emarginate.—*Essential Character*. Male—Calyx, scale of an ament. Corolla none. Stamina four. Female—Calyx, of a strobile with a two-flowered scale. Corolla none. Pistil one. Nut one, girt with a membranaceous wing.

1. *Thuja occidentalis*, or American arbor-vitæ.—Strobiles smooth with blunt scales, branches spreading. The common arbor-vitæ has a strong woody trunk, which rises to the height of forty feet or more; the bark, while young, is smooth and of a dark brown colour, but as the trees advance, the bark becomes cracked and rough; the branches are produced irregularly on every side, standing almost horizontal, and the young slender shoots frequently hang down. The young branches are flat, and the small leaves are placed over each other like the scales of fish. The flowers are produced from the side of the young branches, pretty near to the foot-stalk: the males grow in oblong catkins, and between these the females are collected in form of cones. When the former have shed their farina, they soon drop off; but the latter are succeeded by oblong cones or strobiles, having obtuse smooth scales, containing one or two oblong seeds. Being reckoned the most durable wood in Canada, inclosures of all kinds are scarcely made with any other wood; especially the posts which are driven into the ground. The palisades round the forts are made of this wood. It furnishes planks or boards for houses. The thin narrow pieces which form the ribs and bottom of the bark-boats commonly used in Canada are taken from this tree, because it is pliant enough for the purpose, especially whilst it is fresh, and because it is very light. It is reckoned one of the best woods for the use of the lime-kilns. The branches are used all over Canada for besoms, which the Indians bring to the towns for sale. The fresh branches have a peculiar agreeable scent, which is perceived strongly in houses where such besoms are used.

2. *Thuja orientalis*, or Chinese arbor-vitæ.—Strobiles squarrose with sharp scales, branches erect. The branches of the Chinese arbor-vitæ grow closer together, and being much more adorned with leaves, which are of a brighter green colour, make a much better appearance than the former. The branches cross each other at right angles. The leaves are flat, but the single divisions are slender, and the scales are smaller, and lie closer over each other than those of the first sort. The cones (strobiles) are also much larger, of a beautiful gray colour, and their scales end in acute reflexed points.—Native of China and Japan.

3. *Thuja articulata*, or African arbor-vitæ.—Strobiles four-cornered, four-valved, fronds compressed, jointed, leafless. Height from two to six feet, in a dry soil a low shrub.—Native of Mount Atlas, and barren hills in Barbary.

4. *Thuja dolabrata*, or Japanese arbor-vitæ.—Strobiles squarrose, leaves imbricate three ways, beneath excavated and snow white. This is a very large and lofty tree, and the handsomest of all the evergreens. Branches and branchlets alternate, compressed, covered with imbricate leaves, which are disposed by threes; they are ovate, obtuse, entire,

compressed, above shining green and smooth, convex with a groove in the middle, beneath concave, margined, snow white.—Native of Japan.

Propagation and Culture.—These trees may be propagated by seeds, layers, or cuttings.

THULDEN (Theodore Van), was one of the most distinguished among the pupils of Rubens, whom he assisted in forwarding the pictures of the Luxembourg gallery. He was born at Bois-le-Duc, in 1607. He painted a considerable number of large works for the churches and public buildings of the principal towns and cities in Flanders; some of which have been honoured by being considered as from the hand of Rubens. Among the best of them are the Martyrdom of St. Sebastian, at Mechlin; the Martyrdom of St. Adrian, at Ghent; and the Assumption of the Virgin, formerly in the church of the Jesuits, at Bruges. He was engaged at Paris, which he visited in 1633, to paint a series of pictures of the life of the patron saint of the Mathurins, St. John of Matha, which he afterwards etched and published in twenty-four plates. He is also the author of several other etchings from his own works and those of others; particularly of 58 plates of the life of Ulysses, from pictures painted at Fontainebleau by Primaticcio, of most of which there is now no other remembrancer than his etchings. He died in 1676, at the age of 69.

THULE, a river of Wales, in Glamorganshire, which runs into the Llogher, near its mouth.

THULE, a name given by the ancients to the most northern part of Europe.

THULE, SOUTHERN, a part of Sandwich Land, in the South Atlantic ocean, and the most southerly land yet discovered. Lat. 59. 34. S. long. 27. 45. W.

THUM, a small town of the central part of Germany, in Saxony, with 1350 inhabitants; 40 miles west-south-west of Dresden.

THUMB, *s.* [ðuma, Saxon.] The short strong finger answering to the other four.

Here I have a pilot's thumb,
Wreck'd as homeward he did come. *Shakspeare.*

To **THUMB**, *v. a.* To handle awkwardly. To soil with the thumb.—A treatise that shall make a very comely figure on a bookseller's shelf;—never to be *thumb'd* or *greas'd* by students. *Swift.*

THUMB-BAND, *s.* A twist of any materials made thick as a man's thumb.—Tie *thumb-bands* of hay round them. *Mortimer.*

THUMBED, *adj.* Having thumbs.—Fingered and *thumbed*. *Skelton.*

THUMB-RING, *s.* A ring worn on the thumb.—I could have crept into an alderman's *thumb-ring*. *Shakspeare.*

THUMBSTALL, *s.* A thimble; a sheath of leather to put on the thumb.—Gloves cut into *thumb-stalls*. *Gayton.*

THUMP, *s.* [*thombo*, Ital.] A hard, heavy, dead, dull blow with something blunt.

Before, behind, the blows are dealt; around
Their hollow sides the rattling *thumps* resound. *Dryden.*

To **THUMP**, *v. a.* To beat with dull heavy blows.

Those bastard Britons whom our fathers
Have in their own land beaten, *bobb'd* and *thump'd*.
Shakspeare.

To **THUMP**, *v. n.* To fall or strike with a dull heavy blow.—A watchman at midnight *thumps* with his pole. *Swift.*

THUMPER, *s.* The person or thing that thumps.—Any thing wond'rous great: *a cant expression.*

Let me ring the fore bell;
And here are *thumpers*, chequins, golden rogues.
Beaum. and Fl.

THUMPING, *adj.* Great; huge: a *thumping* boy, *i. e.* a large child. Exm. and different counties. *Grose. It is a low word.*

THUN, a small town of Switzerland, situated on both sides

sides of the Aar, near its influx into the lake of Thun. Population 1200; 16 miles south-south-east of Berne.

THUN, a lake of Switzerland, which separates the Oberland, or mountainous part of the canton of Berne, from the middle and more fertile part. It is 12 miles long and 3 broad; and is joined to the lake of Brienz by the Aar.

THUNBERGIA [so named by Retzius, in honour of Charles Peter Thunberg, M. D., professor of botany in the university of Upsal], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personatæ, acanthi (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth double, outer two-leaved; leaflets ovate, obtuse, five-nerved, almost the length of the tube: inner one-leaved, many-parted; segments about twelve, awl-shaped, three times as short as the outer perianth. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped; tube widening gradually; border five-cleft; segments equal, ovate, very obtuse, three times as short as the tube. Stamina: filaments four, inserted into the tube above the base, unequal: the two lower shortest, the two upper shorter than the tube.—Anthers ovate, adnate. Pistil: germ superior. Style filiform, a little shorter than the tube, erect. Stigma two-lobed. Pericarp: capsule globular, beaked, smooth, two-celled, opening longitudinally; beak compressed, grooved, linear, obtuse; partition obovate, emarginate, perforated below the top, membranaceous at the sides, permanent. Seeds in each cell two, reniform, wrinkled, convex on one side, concave on the other with a longitudinal groove.—*Essential Character.* Calyx double; outer two-leaved; inner twelve-toothed. Corolla bell-shaped. Capsule beaked, two-celled.

1. *Thunbergia Capensis*.—Leaves ovate, obtuse; stem dif-fused.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

2. *Thunbergia fragrans*.—Leaves cordate, acuminate, somewhat angular-toothed at the base, stem scandent.—This plant is common in hedges, among bushes, on the banks of water-courses, about Samulcotah, in the East Indies.

THUNDER, *s.* [ðunðep, ðunop, Saxon; *dunder*, Swedish; *donder*, Dutch; *tonnere*, Fr.] *Thunder* is a most bright flame rising on a sudden, moving with great violence, and with a very rapid velocity, through the air, according to any determination, upwards from the earth, horizontally, obliquely, downwards, in a right line, or in several right lines, as it were in serpentine tracts, joined at various angles, and commonly ending with a loud noise or rattling. *Muschenbroek*.—In popular and poetic language, *thunder* is commonly the noise, and lightning the flash; though *thunder* is sometimes taken for both.

The *thunder*

Wing'd with red lightning and impetuous rage,
Perhaps hath spent his shafts, and ceases now
To bellow through the vast and boundless deep. *Milton.*

Any loud noise or tumultuous violence.

So fierce he laid about him, and dealt blows
On either side, that neither mail could hold
Ne shield defend the *thunder* of his throws. *Spenser.*

To THUNDER, *v. n.* To make thunder.

His nature is too noble for the world;
He would not flatter Neptune for his trident,
Nor Jove for's power to *thunder*. *Shakspeare.*

To make a loud or terrible noise.

His dreadful name late through all Spain did *thunder*,
And Hercules' two pillars standing near,
Did make to quake and fear. *Spenser.*

To THUNDER, *v. a.* To emit with noise and terror.

Oracles severe
Were daily *thunder'd* in our general's ear,
That by his daughter's blood we must appease
Diana's kindled wrath. *Dryden.*

To publish any denunciation or threat.—An archdeacon, as being a prelate, may *thunder* out an ecclesiastical censure. *Ayliffe*.—To urge violently; to inflict with vehemence.

Therewith they gan, both furious and fell,
To *thunder* blows, and fiercely to assaile
Each other, bent his enemy to quell. *Spenser.*

THUNDER BAY, a bay on the north part of Lake Superior.

THUNDER BAY, a bay on the west coast of Lake Huron, in Canada, which lies about half way between Sagana bay and the north-west corner of the lake. It is about 9 miles across either way, and is thus called, from the thunder frequently heard there.

THUNDER RIVER, a river of North America, which falls into Lake Huron, in Thunder Bay, about half way between Michilimackinac and the outlet of Lake Huron.

THUNDERBOLT, *s.* Lightning; the arrows of heaven.—If I had a *thunderbolt* in mine eye, I can tell who should down. *Shakspeare*.—Fulmination; denunciation, properly ecclesiastical.—He severely threatens such with the *thunderbolt* of excommunication. *Hakewill.*

THUNDERCLAP, *s.* Explosion of thunder.
When some dreadful *thunderclap* is nigh,
The winged fire shoots swiftly through the sky;
Strikes and consumes ere scarce it does appear,
And, by the sudden ill, prevents the fear. *Dryden.*

THUNDERER, *s.* The power that thunders.
How dare you, ghosts,
Accuse the *thunderer*, whose bolt you know,
Sky-planted, batters all rebelling coasts? *Shakspeare.*

When the bold Typhæus
Forced great Jove from his own heav'n to fly,
The lesser gods, that shar'd his prosp'rous state,
All suffer'd in the exil'd *thunderer's* fate. *Dryden.*

THUNDERING, *s.* The emission of thunder.—Entreat the Lord that there be no more mighty *thunderings* and hail. *Exod.*—The act of publishing any threat; any loud or violent noise.—That church shall always have enemies, and shall still be tormented in the sea of this world with the *thunderings* of Antichrist. *Bp. Hooper.*

THUNDEROUS, *adj.* Producing thunder.
Look in and see each blissful deity,
How he before the *thunderous* throne doth die. *Milton.*

THUNDERSHOWER, *s.* A rain accompanied with thunder.—The conceit is long in delivering, and at last it comes like a *thundershower*, full of sulphur and darkness, with a terrible crack. *Stillingfleet.*

THUNDERSLEY, a parish of England, in Essex; 2 miles south-west-by-west of Bayleigh.

THUNDERSTONE, *s.* A stone fabulously supposed to be emitted by thunder; thunderbolt.

Fear no more the lightning flash,
Nor th' all-dreaded *thunderstone*. *Shakspeare.*

To THUNDERSTRIKE, *v. a.* To blast or hurt with lightning.

The overthrown he rais'd, and as a herd
Of goats or timorous flock, together throng'd,
Drove them before him *thunderstruck*. *Milton.*

To astonish with any thing terrible.
Fears from our hearts took
The very life; to be so *thunderstrooke*
With such a voice. *Chapman.*

THUNDRIDGE, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire, on the river Rib; 2 miles north-by-east of Ware. Population 517.

THUNGEN, a petty town of Bavarian Franconia; 11 miles north of Wurzburg. Population 1000.

THUNGERSHEIM, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria, near Wurzburg. Population 1300.

THUNGFELD, a large village of Germany, in Bavaria, near Schlusselfeld.

THUNSTETTEN, a large village in the interior of Switzerland, in the canton of Berne.

THUR, a rapid river of Switzerland, which rises near the village

village of Wildenhaus, in the canton of St. Gall, and after flowing through the long valley of the Toggenburg, and the cantons of Thurgovia and Zurich, falls into the Rhine. Though its stream be large, it is not navigable.

THUR, a small town in the east of Hungary; 21 miles south-east of Szolnok, and 76 east-south-east of Pest.

THURCASTON, a parish of England, in Leicester; 3 miles south-by-west of Mount Sorrel.

THURGARTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles south-west-by-south of Cromer.

THURGARTON, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 3 miles south-by-west of Southwell.

THURGOLAND, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south-west-by-south of Barnsley. Population 652.

THURGOVIA, or THURGAU, a canton in the north-east of Switzerland, adjoining the lake of Constance and the course of the river Thur. Its extent is 350 square miles; its population 77,000, of whom one-fourth only are Catholics, the others Calvinists.

THURIA, an ancient town of the Morea, in Messenia, towards the eastern frontier, the ruins of which are still extensive, covering a hill at the foot of the ridge of Taygetus.

THUR'IBLE, *s.* [*turribulum*, low Lat.] A censor; a pan to burn incense in. *Cowel.*

THURIFEROUS, *adj.* [*thurifer*, Lat.] Bearing frankincense.

THURIFICATION, *s.* [*thuris* and *facio*, Latin.] The act of fuming with incense; the act of burning incense.

The way of *thurification*,

To make fumigation.

Skelton.

THURINGIA, the former name of an extensive track of country in the central part of Germany, in Saxony, having Franconia on the west, and the country of Meissen on the east.

THURINGIA, FOREST OF, a hilly and woody track of country in the interior of Germany, extending through a number of petty principalities, Eisenach, Gotha, Weimar, Coburg, &c.

THURLASTON, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire; 1 mile west of Dunchurch.

THURLBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10 miles south-west of Lincoln.

THURLBY, a hamlet in the same county; 2½ miles east of Alford.

THURLBY, another parish in the same county; 5 miles north-north-west of Market Deeping.

THURLEBEER, or THURLBURY, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3 miles south-east of Taunton.

THURLEIGH, or THURLEY, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 6 miles north of Bedford. Population 457.

THURLES, a large straggling town of Ireland, in the county of Tipperary, consisting of one long street, which is nearly divided into two equal portions by the river Suir; 70 miles south-west of Dublin.

THURLESTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2½ miles north-north-west of Ipswich.

THURLESTON, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Kingsbridge. Population 392.

THURLMERE, a river of England, in Cumberland, which runs from a lake of the same name into the Derwent, near Keswick.

THURLOE (John), secretary of state to the Protectorate, was born in 1616. He was brought up to the law, and in 1644-5, by the interest of Oliver St. John, was appointed one of the secretaries to the parliamentary commissioners at the treaty of Uxbridge. Advancing through other offices, he went as secretary to lord chief justice St. John, and Mr. Strickland, in their embassy to the States-General. In 1652, he rose to the office of secretary to the council of state; and when Cromwell, in 1653, assumed the protectorate, he was nominated his secretary, on whom he reposed peculiar confidence. In 1655, he was entrusted with the management of the post-office; and in 1656, he represented the isle of

Ely in parliament. On the death of Cromwell, he signed the order for proclaiming Richard, and in the following parliament was returned member for the university of Cambridge. He retained his office of secretary under Richard, and also under the parliament that deposed him. On the restoration, he was accused of high treason and examined, but soon set at liberty. He then retired to his seat in Oxfordshire, and visited London, at his chambers in Lincoln's Inn, in term-time. Charles II. often invited him to take a part in his administration: but he declined it, alleging that perhaps he should not be able to serve the king, as he had done the protector, in connection with men of different characters and principles; the protector, as he told his majesty, was used "to seek out men for places, and not places for men." The abilities of Thurloe for public life were distinguished, and his character in private life no less amiable. He died in Lincoln's Inn, where he was master of the bench, in 1667-8, and was interred in the chapel. His state papers formed a valuable historical collection, and were published by Dr. Birch, in 7 vols. fol. 1742. *Biog. Brit. Gen. Biog.*

THURLOW, GREAT and LITTLE, adjoining parishes of England, in Suffolk; 7 miles north-west-by-west of Clare.

THURLOW'S ISLAND, a narrow island in the Pacific ocean, near the coast of North America; about 24 miles in length from east to west. Lat. 50. 24. N. long. 233. 35. E.

THURLOXTON, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles south-south-west of Bridgewater.

THURLSTONE, a hamlet of England, in Leicester; 6 miles north-east-by-east of Hinckley.

THURLSTONE, a township of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire; 9½ miles west-by-south of Barnsley. Population 1282.

THURLTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 10 miles south-west-by-west of Great Yarmouth.

THURMASTON, NORTH and SOUTH, adjoining parishes of England, in Leicestershire; 3 miles north-north-east of Leicester. Population 842.

THURNAU, a small town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, and the chief place of a lordship consisting of 84 square miles, with 13,000 inhabitants. The town has a lyceum with three professors, a castle, and 1300 inhabitants; 6 miles south-west of Culmbach, and 12 north-west of Bareith.

THURNBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles east-by-south of Leicester.

THURNE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3½ miles north-by-east of Acle.

THURNHAM, a township of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles south-south-west of Lancaster. Population 403.

THURNING, a parish of England, in Huntingdon and Northampton shires; 7½ miles south-west-by-west of Stilton.

THURNING, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles north-by-west of Reepham.

THURNSCOE, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles east of Barnsley.

THURLOTZ, a palatinate in the north-west of Hungary, lying between those of Trentsin and Zolyom. It has a territorial extent of 440 square miles, with 40,000 inhabitants, chiefly Slovacs.

THURROCK, GRAY'S, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Essex, situated in a small creek of the Thames, which is navigable for boats and vessels of small burden. The town consists principally of one irregular street, in which is the market-place, and over it the room where the petty sessions are held. It contains 213 houses, and 1055 inhabitants. Market on Thursday, and a fair on the 23d May; 22 miles east of London.

THURROCK, LITTLE, or *East*, a parish of England, in Essex; 1 mile east-by-south of Gray's Thurrock.

THURROCK, WEST, another parish in the above county; 1 mile west of Gray's Thurrock. Population 785.

THURSBY, or THOR'S TOWN, a village of England, in Cumberland; 6½ miles south-west of Carlisle.

THURSCROSS, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 14 miles west-by-north of Knaresborough.

THURSDAY, *s.* [*thorsday*, Danish; from *thor*. *Thor*

was the son of Odin; yet, in some of the northern parts, they worshipped the Supreme Deity under his name, attributing the power over all things, even the inferior deities, to him. *Stillingfleet.*] The fifth day of the week

THURSFORD, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3½ miles south-east-by-east of Little Walsingham.

THURSLEY, a parish of England, in Surrey; 5½ miles south-west-by-west of Godalming. Population 564.

THURSO, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Caithness, which extends three miles round the town of Thurso, in every direction. Population of the town and parish, 3462.

THURSO, a town of Scotland, in the above parish; 20 miles north-west of Wick, 18 west of Johnny Groat's-house, and 290 north of Edinburgh, situated on the north coast of the county, at the head of a spacious bay at the estuary of the river Thurso. It contains 2225 inhabitants. Besides the parish church, there are Congregational, Antiburgher, and Baptist places of worship.

THURSO RIVER, a river of Scotland, in the county of Caithness, which rises from some springs on the borders of Sutherlandshire, passes through Loch More, and, after a rapid impetuous course over a rocky channel, through a fertile country, falls into the Pentland frith at the town of Thurso.

THURSTANTON, a parish of England, in Cheshire; 5 miles north-west-by-north of Great Neston.

THURSTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 5½ miles east-by-north of St. Edmund's Bury. Population 360.

THURSTON-MERE, a river of England, in Cumberland, and Lancashire, which runs into the Fosse, near Crakeford.

THURTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 8½ miles south-east of Norwich.

THURWASTON, a township of England, in Derbyshire; 7½ miles west-north-west of Derby.

THURY HARCOURT, a small town in the north of France, department of Calvados, on the river Orne. Population 1100; 15 miles south-south-west of Caen.

THUS, *adv.* [ðʊf, Saxon.] In this manner; in this wise. To be *thus* is nothing; But to be safely *thus*. *Shakspeare.*

To this degree; to this quantity.

THUSIS, or TOSSANA, a small town of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, near the confluence of the Albula and the Hinter Rhine; 10 miles south-south-west of Coire.

THUXTON, or THURSTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5½ miles south-east-by-south of East Dereham.

To THWACK, *v. a.* [ðaccian, Saxon.] The Saxon word was perhaps used ironically, otherwise its strict meaning was to touch lightly. To *thack* is the old English word: "This carter *thakketh* his horse upon the croupe." *Chaucer.* To strike with something blunt and heavy; to thresh; bang; to labour. *A ludicrous word.*

He shall not stay;

We'll *thwack* him hence with distaffs. *Shakspeare.*

THWACK, *s.* A heavy hard blow.

But Talgol first with hardy *thwack*
Twice bruis'd his head, and twice his back. *Hudibras.*

THWAITE, *s.* [Camden. *Twaite*, Norm. Fr.] Any plain parcel of ground, from which wood has been grubbed up, enclosed and converted into tillage: *a northern word.*—It being a stony and mountainous country, is not every where so fit for tillage or meadow; but in several parts and parcels, as they are marked by nature, differing in form and quality of soil, or otherwise enclosed by the inhabitants from the barren waste of the fells, such parts or parcels are now and were of old called *thwaits*, sometimes with the addition of their quality; as *Brachenthwaite*, of brackens or fern growing there; *Stonethwaite*, of rocks; and such like. *Nicholson and Burn, Hist. of Cumberland.*

THWAITE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles north-by-east of Aylesham.—2. Another parish in the same county; 12 miles south-east-by-south of Norwich.—3. A parish of England, in Suffolk; 4½ miles south-west-by south of Eye.

—4. A township of England, in Cumberland; 10 miles south-east of Ravenglass.

THWART, *adj.* [ðwǽrt, Saxon; *dwaers*, Teut. obliquus; *thwer*, Icel. transversus, oppositus. *Serenius.*] Transverse; cross to something else.

This else to several spheres thou must ascribe,
Mov'd contrary with *thwart* obliquities. *Milton.*

Perverse; inconvenient; mischievous. [*thairs*, Goth. iratus; *ðreop*, Sax.; *thwere*, Icel. contrarius, rebellis. *Serenius.*]

If she must teem,

Create her child of spleen; that it may live,
And be a *thwart* disnatur'd torment to her. *Shakspeare.*

THWART, *adv.* Obliquely.

Yet whether *thwart* or flatly it did lyte,
The tempred steele did not into his braynepan byte. *Spenser.*

To THWART, *v. a.* To cross; to lie or come cross any thing.

Swift as a shooting star

In autumn *thwarts* the night. *Milton.*

To cross; to oppose; to traverse; to contravene.

Some sixteen months and longer might have staid,
If crooked fortune had not *thwarted* me. *Shakspeare.*

To THWART, *v. n.* To be in opposition to.—It is easy to be imagined what reception any proposition shall find, that shall at all *thwart* with these internal oracles. *Locke.*

THWART THE WAY. See MIDDLE ISLAND.

THWARTER, TREMBLING, or *Leaping-Ill*, a disease in sheep, of the convulsive kind.

THWARTING, *s.* The act of crossing; the act of opposing.—Socrates knew before he married her, that his Xantippe was a scold insufferable; yet he wittingly did marry her, to exercise his patience, that, by the practice of enduring her shrewish heats, he might be able to brook all companies; the brawls, the scorns, the sophisms, and the petulancies of rude and unskilful men; the frettings, the *thwartings*, and the excruciations of life. *Feltham.*

THWARTINGLY, *adv.* Oppositely; with opposition.

THWARTNESS, *s.* Untowardness; perverseness.—Can any man be so unreasonable as to defend it lawful, upon some unkind usages or *thwartness* of disposition, for a parent to abandon and forsake his child, or the son to cast off his parent? much less therefore may it be thus betwixt an husband and wife: "They two are one flesh." *Bp. Hall.*

THWING, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 8½ miles west-north-west of Bridlington.

To THWITE, *v. a.* [ðwitan, Sax.] To cut, chip, or hack with a knife: used in the north, and is in the old dictionary of Huloet.

A bow—full even—

And it was painted well and *thwitten*. *Chaucer.*

THWITTLE, *s.* [hwitel, Sax. whence our *whittle*; but *thwittle* is the older English word. See To THWITE.] A kind of knife: *this is also a northern word.*—A Sheffield *thwitel* bare he in his hose. *Chaucer.*

THY, *pronoun.* [ðin, Saxon.] Of thee; belonging to thee; relating to thee: the possessive of *thou*. See THOU.—These are *thy* works, parent of good. *Milton.*

THYNE WOOD, *s.* A precious wood.—The merchandize of gold and all *thyne wood* are departed from thee. *Rev.*

THYLACION, a word used by the ancient medical writers, to express the bag formed by the membranes of the fetus at the orifice of the pudenda, before the birth.

THYMBRA, in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillatæ or labiatæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, subcylindrical, keeled at the sides, two-lipped at the mouth: upper lip wider, half-three-cleft, equal, converging; lower narrower, two-parted. Corolla ringent; tube subcylindrical; upper lip flat, straight, half-two-cleft, obtuse; lower three-cleft, almost equal, flat. Stamina: filaments four, filiform, approaching by pairs; the two lower ones shorter. Anthers two-lobed; lobes remote, under the upper lip of the corolla.

corolla. Pistil: germ four-cleft. Style filiform, half-two-cleft. Stigmas two, acute. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds four.—*Essential Character.* Calyx subcylindrical, two-lipped, scored on each side with a villose line. Style semibifid.

1. *Thymra spicata*, or spiked thymra.—Flowers in spikes. This is a low shrubby plant, like heath, branching out into slender woody stalks, which are six or eight inches long, covered with a brown bark, and garnished with narrow acute-pointed leaves about half an inch long, sitting close to the stalks opposite; they have an aromatic odour when bruised.—Native of Mount Libanus, Macedonia, Spain, and the county of Nice.

2. *Thymra verticillata*, or whorled thymra.—Flowers in whorls. This has a shrubby stalk which seldom rises much more than a foot high, putting out many small woody branches, which have narrow spear-shaped leaves, with many punctures; they stand opposite, and are of an aromatic flavour.—Native of Spain and Italy.

3. *Thymra ciliata*, or headed thymra.—Flowers in heads; leaves linear, ciliate. This is an elegant, upright and very branching shrub.—Native of Barbary, on dry barren hills near Mascar.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in the spring on a bed of light earth, and the plants will appear in six or eight weeks. Keep them clean from weeds, and remove them in July, some into small pots, and others into a warm dry border; shading them from the sun, and supplying them with water till they have taken new root. If the winter should prove very severe, cover the plants in the border with mats or other covering. The pots should be sheltered under a common frame in winter, where they may enjoy the free air in mild weather, and be protected from frost.

THYME, *s.* [*thymus*, Lat.] A plant.

No more, my goats, shall I behold you climb
The steepy cliffs, or crop the flow'ry thyme. *Dryden.*

THYMELEÆ, the twenty-fifth of Jussieu's Natural Orders, or the second of his sixth class, thus named from an ancient synonym of the genus *Daphne*, which makes a principal figure herein. See *DAPHNE*.

THYMELEICI, among the Romans, were musicians, who sung in the interludes, or who danced and kept time with their gestures. The place where they performed was called thymele, whence Juvenal, vi. 66.

"Attendit thymele, thymele nunc rustica discat."

THYMIAMATA, a kind of fumigations among the ancients, the ingredients of which were so various, that it appears the ancients always consulted utility as well as pleasure, in their composition of them.

THYMUS, in Anatomy, a glandular body, occupying the upper and anterior part of the chest, and neighbouring portion of the neck, very large in the fœtus, and diminished or nearly disappearing in the adult.

The thymus is large in the fœtus; nearly equal to the heart or one of the lungs. In a fœtus of six months, this gland was to the kidney as 4 to 6. It not only does not increase after birth, but it becomes less, contains less fluid, is harder, and is nearly lost in the surrounding fat. In the mature fœtus it weighed 160 and 180 grains; at twenty-eight years, 90 grains. In a calf it was 16 ounces; in a full-grown cow, 9 ounces.

It is of considerable size, even in the adult, in some animals, as the rat: the same may be observed of the Arctic bear. It is large in setaceous animals.

THYMUS [*Θυμος* of Theophrastus and Dioscorides. From *θυμος*, Gr.], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillatæ or labiatæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, half-five-cleft into two lips, permanent, having the throat closed with villose hairs: upper lip wider, flat, erect, three-toothed; lower lip two-bristled, of equal length. Corolla: one-petalled, ringent; tube length of the calyx;

throat small: upper lip shorter, flat, erect, emarginate, obtuse; lower lip longer, spreading, wider, trifid, obtuse; middle segment wider. Stamina: filaments four, curved in, two of which are longer. Anthers small. Pistil: germ four-parted. Style filiform. Stigma bifid, acute. Pericarp none. Calyx narrowed at the neck, cherishing the seeds in its bosom. Calyx small, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Throat of the two-lipped calyx closed with villose hairs.

1. *Thymus serpyllum*, or wild thyme.—Flowers in heads; stems decumbent; leaves flat, ovate, obtuse, ciliate at the base. Root woody, fibrous, brown, perennial.—Native of Europe, on heaths and dry downs, flowering in July and August.

The whole plant of wild thyme is fragrant, and yields an essential oil that is very heating. There are many varieties.

2. *Thymus lanuginosus*, or woolly wild thyme.—Flowers in heads; stems creeping, hirsute; leaves obtuse, villose.—It grows naturally in the forest of Fontainebleau.

3. *Thymus lævigatus*, or smooth thyme.—Flowers in heads; stems procumbent; leaves linear, obtuse, sessile, narrowed at the base.—Native of Arabia Felix, on mount Chadra.

4. *Thymus vulgaris*, or garden thyme.—Flowers whorl-spiked; stems erect; leaves ovate, rolled back. Garden thyme is more hoary, higher, harder and more woody than the serpyllum, or wild thyme; the leaves are whiter and narrower; and the flowers smaller.—Native of the South of Europe and Siberia; flowering from May to August.

5. *Thymus lanceolatus*, or lance-leaved thyme.—Flowers whorl-spiked; stem suffruticose, erect; leaves oblong, flat, pubescent.—Native of Mount Atlas, about Tlemsen.

6. *Thymus Numidicus*, or Barbary thyme.—Flowers in heads; calyxes hirsute; bractes ovate-lanceolate, ciliate; stem fruticulose, erect; leaves linear, patulous, smooth. This is a branching shrub.—Native of Barbary, near La Calle.

7. *Thymus zygis*, or linear-leaved thyme.—Flowers whorl-spiked; stem suffruticose, erect; leaves linear, very blunt, nerveless, rolled back at the edge; ciliate at the base.—Native of Spain.

8. *Thymus marschallianus*, or marshall's thyme.—Flowers whorl-spiked; stem suffruticose, erect; leaves linear-lanceolate, bluntish, flat, obscurely triple-nerved, ciliate at the base.—Found in Tauria.

9. *Thymus inodorus*, or scentless thyme.—Stem shrubby, very much branched; leaves needle-form, bundled, shorter than the flower.—Native of dry barren hills, near Algiers.

10. *Thymus acinos*, or basil thyme.—Whorls six-flowered; peduncles simple; stem ascending, branched; leaves acute, serrate; calyx gibbous. Root annual, simple, fibrous.—Native of Europe, in dry hilly fields, especially in a calcareous soil: flowering in July and August. There are, also, in this genus, as follows:—

Thymus patavinus, or great-flowered thyme. *Thymus Alpinus*, or Alpine thyme. *Thymus montanus*, or mountain thyme. *Thymus piperella*. *Thymus browni*, or Jamaica thyme. *Thymus filiformis*, or small-leaved thyme. *Thymus cephalotus*, or great-headed thyme. *Thymus striatus*, or striated thyme. *Thymus villosus*, or hairy thyme. *Thymus mastichina*, or mastic thyme. *Thymus tragoriganum*, or goat's-thyme. *Thymus Virginicus*, Virginian, or savory thyme.

Propagation and Culture.—The common mother of thyme, or wild thyme, is very frequent on dry pastures, and is very rarely admitted into gardens. Thyme may be propagated either by seeds or parting the roots; the season for either is in March or October.

THY'MY, *adj.* Abounding with thyme.

Guide my way

Through fair Lyceum's walk, the green retreats
Of Academus, and the *thymy* vale,
Where oft enchanted with Socratic sounds
Ilissus pure devolv'd his tuneful stream
In gentler murmurs.

Akenside.
THYNNIA,

THYNNIA [*Θυννια*, Gr.], a sacrifice offered to Neptune by the fishermen, after a plentiful draught. It comes from *Θυννος*, a *tunny*, that being the sacrifice offered.

THYNNUS, a genus of the Hymenoptera order of insects: the characters of which are, that the mouth is horny; the mandible bent, with a short jaw, straight; the lip larger than the jaws, with the apex membranaceous; trifid; the intermediate fringes emarginate; the tongue very short or folded; the four palpi filiform and equal; the antennæ filiform. Gmelin enumerates three species.

1. *Thynnus dentatus*.—With black abdomen; the second, third, and fourth segments marked with two white points.—Found in New Holland.

2. *Thynnus emarginatus*.—With black abdomen, the segments having a yellow interrupted band; the scutellum emarginate.—Found in New Holland.

3. *Thynnus integer*.—Black, with the segments of the abdomen villose-cinereous at the margin, and the anus entire.—Found in New Holland.

THYOS [*Θυος*, Gr.], an offering of fruits, leaves, or acorns, which were the only sacrifices at first in use.

THYROID [*thyroideus*, or more properly *thyreoides*, from the Gr. *θυρεοειδης*, compounded of *θυρεος*, a *shield*, and *ειδος*, *form*], a name given to one of the cartilages of the larynx; to a gland situated near that cartilage; and to the arteries and veins of the gland. See **ANATOMY**.

THYRSUS [*Θυρσος*, Gr.], the sceptre which the ancient poets put in the hands of Bacchus, and with which they furnished the Mænades in their Bacchanalia.

The thyrsus was originally a lance or spear, wrapped up in vine leaves; with which Bacchus is said to have armed himself and his soldiers in his Indian wars, to amuse and deceive the unpracticed Indians, and make them suspect no hostilities.

THYSANOTUS [*θυσανωτος*, Gr. *fringed*.] See **CHLAMYSPORUM**.

THYSANUS [from *θυσανος*, Gr. a *fringe*, because of the fringed tunic of the seed.] A genus introduced by Loureiro, very nearly related to the *Cnestis* of Jussieu and Willdenow; see that article.

THYSELF, *pronoun reciprocal*.—It is commonly used in the oblique cases, or following the verb.

Come high or low,
Thyself and office deftly show. *Shakspeare.*

In poetical or solemn language it is sometimes used in the nominative.—These goods *thyself* can on *thyself* bestow. *Dryden.*

THYSIUS, *Thys* (Antony), a philologist, was born at Leyden, in 1603, and became professor of eloquence and poetry in the university of his native city, and public librarian. Besides two or three works of his own, he was the editor of several editions of classics called "Variorum;" of which were "Valerius Paterculus," "Sallust," "Valerius Maximus," "Seneca, the Tragedian," "Lactantius," and "Aulus Gellius." He died in 1670.

THYSSAGETÆ, a people who inhabited the territory near the Sarmatæ, where was the source of the river Tanais. Ammianus Marcellinus says, that these people had their abode in large forests, and lived by the chase. Their wives and children they had, he says, in common. Herodotus says they were a numerous nation, and governed by their own laws. Hardouin, in his notes on Pliny, says, that they inhabited the banks of the Tanais, towards that bend of the river where it most nearly approaches the Wolga, and which is now the territory of Astrachan.

TIAHUANACU, or **TIAGUANUCO**, a territory of South America, to the south of Cuzco, and to the east of Lake Titicaca.

TIAMANCHU, a river of Quito, in the province of Moxos, which runs from south-west to north-east, and enters the Marmore, in lat. 14. 13. S.

TIAN, a river of Honduras, which runs north, and enters the Atlantic.

TIANGUISTENGO, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Mexico, which contains 249 families of Indians. There is another settlement of this name in Mexico, which contains 250 families of Indians.

TIAR, or **TIARA**, *s.* [*tiare*, Fr.; *tiara*, Lat. *Dr. Johnson.*—The Saxons had *tyr* in a similar sense; and *tiar* is much older than the time of Milton, *Dr. Johnson's* earliest authority.] A dress for the head; a diadem.

His back was turn'd, but not his brightness hid;
Of beaming sunny rays a golden *tiar*
Circled his head. *Milton.*

The tiara was at first an ornament, or habit, with which the ancient Persians covered their heads; and which the Armenians and kings of Pontus wear on medals: these last, because descended from the Persians.

Latin authors call it indifferently *tiara* and *cidaris*.

Strabo says, the tiara is in form of a tower; and the scholiast on Aristophanes's comedy, *Αχαρνες*, (act i. scene 2,) affirms, that it was adorned with peacock's feathers. Some moderns, however, fancy the scholiast is here speaking of the casque which the ancient Persians wore in war, rather than of the habit which they wore on the head in the city.

The kings of Persia alone had the right of wearing the tiara straight and erect; the priests and great lords wore it depressed or turned down on the fore-side. Xenophon, in his *Cyropædia*, says, that the tiara was sometimes encompassed with the diadem, at least in ceremonials; and had frequently the figure of a half-moon embroidered on it: others are of opinion that the diadem was in figure of a moon; and that it was hence the *tiara* was called *lunata*. Lastly, others think that the tiara itself was made sometimes in form of a half-moon. From what we have said, it appears that there were different forms of tiaras; and in effect, Paschalieri, De Coronis, distinguishes no less than five different kinds.

The ancient tiara of the popes was a round high cap.—Boniface VIII. first encompassed it with a crown. Benedict XII. added a second crown; and John XXIII. a third.

TIARELLA [Dimin. from *tiara*], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order digynia, natural order of succulentæ, saxifragæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-parted; segments ovate, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals five, oblong, permanent, entire, inserted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments ten, filiform, longer than the corolla; inserted into the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ bifid, ending in two very short styles. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule oblong, one-celled, two-valved; valves flattish, one twice as long as the other. Seeds numerous, ovate, shining.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-petalled, inserted into the calyx; petals entire. Capsule one-celled, two-valved, with one valve larger.

1. *Tiarella cordifolia*, or heart-leaved tiarella.—This has a perennial fibrous root, which creeps. Leaves of a light green colour, unequally indented on their edges, on slender foot-stalks, three inches long, arising immediately from the root. Flower-stalks slender, naked, about four inches long, arising also from the root between the leaves, and terminated by a loose spike of small herbaceous white flowers, which appear in May, but are seldom followed by seeds in England.—Native of North America.

2. *Tiarella trifoliata*, or three-leaved tiarella.—Leaves ternate. This also has a perennial fibrous root, from which spring up a few trifoliate petioled leaves, like those of the bilberry, but much smaller.—Native of the northern parts of Asia.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated by parting the roots, which spread in the ground, and shoot up heads, which may be taken off and transplanted in the autumn. They love a moist soil and a shady situation, and require no other care but to keep them clean from weeds.

TIARINI,

TIARINI (Alessandro), an historical painter, who was born at Bologna, in 1577. He was first a disciple of Prospero Fontana, but on the death of that master, he received instructions from Bartolomio Cesi, from whom, being obliged to leave Bologna on account of a quarrel, he went to study under Passignano at Florence. After some time, about seven years, as the influence of the circumstance which had driven him from his native city subsided, he ventured to return there, and became a pupil of the Caracci; and he principally attached himself to Ludovico, more for the improvement of his style, than for practice.

He had, during his residence at Florence, acquired considerable fame, and painted several pictures for churches and convents in places within and round about that city. On his return to Bologna, his talents acquired him considerable employment.

The colouring adopted by Tiarini in his best time, is clear and rich; his design tasteful and agreeable, though of a serious cast; and his expression just and natural: and there are not many artists who have done more credit to the Bolognese school. He died in 1668, at the advanced age of 91.

TIAUME, a river of Quito, in the province of Esmeraldas, which runs from south to north, and enters the river of Esmeraldas, near its mouth, in lat. 0. 56. N.

TIBACULI, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Panchcs, which contains 100 house-keepers, and 60 Indians; 30 miles west of Santa Fe.

TIBALDI (Pellegrino), was born at Bologna, in 1527. He was the pupil of Bagnacavallo, and copied with much attention the works of Vasari, in the refectory of S. Michele in Bosco. At the age of twenty, he went to Rome, chiefly to study the works of Michael Angelo. The pictures he produced at Rome obtained for him the patronage of the cardinal Poggi, who employed him in ornamenting his Vigna, near the Porto del Popolo, with works in fresco, and then sent him back to Bologna, to assist in the completion of his palace there, both as architect and painter; and in both characters it remains as the principal testimonial of his powers remaining in Italy. He also constructed and adorned a chapel for his patron in the church of S. Giacomo Maggiore. One of the paintings he executed there, was the Preaching of St. John, and another, the Last Judgment; where, in the opinion of the Caracci, he almost equalled the majesty of Michael Angelo, and it was preferred by them to all the other works of Pellegrino, and served them and their scholars as a model of study.

From Bologna, the cardinal sent him to Loretto, to superintend the erection of a chapel in the church of La Madonna, which he also ornamented with stuccoes and paintings of the Nativity, the Presentation in the Temple, the Transfiguration, and the Decollation of St. John. From thence he went to Ancona, where he wrought in the churches of S. Agostino and Ciriaco; and in the great hall of the merchants he painted one of his most celebrated pictures, the subject of which is Hercules overthrowing monsters. He also superintended, as military architect, the fortifications of the place, about the year 1560; and two years afterwards visited Pavia, where he constructed the palace of the Sapienza; he then went to Milan, and there built the temple of S. Fidele, and before the year 1570, was elected architect of the cathedral.

Here he disencumbered the dome of numerous Gothic monuments, sepulchral urns and trophies, and embellished it in their stead with various chapels and a majestic choir. He soon after received a commission from Philip II. to prepare designs and plans for adorning the Escorial, both architectural and pictorial. He followed them to Spain himself in 1586. There he superintended the work for nine years, painting a great number of pictures, particularly some in fresco in the lower cloister, whence he expunged the unsuccessful productions of F. Zucchero. The subjects were from scripture; the Purification; the Flight into Egypt; the Murder of the Innocents; Christ tempted in the Wilderness; the Election of the Apostles; the Resurrection of

Lazarus; the Expulsion of the Money Changers from the Temple; and the Resurrection of our Saviour. Besides these, he painted during his residence in Spain, several pictures for other places, particularly for the great church at Madrid, where there are five pictures by him. But his most renowned work, and which most contributed to establish his fame in Spain, was the ceiling of the library of the Escorial, where he appears to have rivalled the composition of the school of Athens by Raphael; with beautiful groups of children and figures supporting the cornices and festoons in great varieties, and foreshortenings worthy of an imitator of the style of Michael Angelo. For the extraordinary talents which he exhibited in these great works, Philip loaded him with riches and honours, and even gave him patents of nobility, creating him Marquis of Valdelsa; a district in which his father and his uncle had laboured in the humble capacity of masons. He lived to an advanced age, but the exact year of his death is not known, though it is thought to have been about 1600.

Pellegrini Tibaldi is considered, and with sufficient evidence from his works, as the greatest designer of the Bolognese and Lombard schools. He approaches the line of Michael Angelo nearer than all the rest of his imitators; but as he had decidedly adopted the technic without always penetrating the moral principles of his model, the manner of the master frequently became the style of the pupil; though it cannot be denied that he often united energy of attitude and grandeur of line, with sublimity of conception and dignity of motive. Of these he has given nowhere more signal proofs than in the ceilings and the compartments of the Academical Institute at Bologna. They represent various scenes from the Odyssey; among them, Polypheme waking under the pangs of the fiery point, though painted with a sentiment of original expression, is evidently imitated from the newly created figure of Adam in the Sistine; but the same Cyclops groping at the entrance of his cave to prevent the escape of Ulysses and his associates, is in conception of the whole, and in the detail of the parts, an original invention; a form, than which Michael Angelo himself never conceived one of greater energy, with expression, attitude, and limbs more in unison. With this may be placed that wonder of foreshortening, eccentricity, and rotundity, the figure of Elpenor, on one of the architraves of the Salotto, represented in the moment when, yet dreaming, he leaves his hold, and is precipitated from the roof. The air of originality which this figure in every view presents, and the elegance with which the imitator has reversed the figure in the Last Judgment of Michael Angelo, from which he borrowed the principal limbs of his own, place him on a level with the inventor.

It was, however, less for the powers exerted by Pellegrino, in the decorations of the Institute, than for the eclectic principle which they discovered in his subsequent works, that the Caracci gave him the epithet of *Michel Angelo riformato*, and commended

“Del Tibaldo il decoro e il fondamento.”

The compositions of the chapel Poggi, in St. Giacomo, where the imitation of Michael Angelo is blended with that of Raphael, Corregio, and D. da Volterra, contain the rudiments of their own system.

Pellegrino Tibaldi is more known by his works in fresco than by his pictures in oil, which are extremely scarce: one of the earliest is the Nativity, already mentioned, in the Palace Borghese, of which the cartoon still exists in a private collection of drawings. It is painted in a sober unaffected tone, and considered as the work of an artist jealous of his line, with great mellowness of touch. The figures of this are considerably less than the size of life; but there are pictures of his to be met with of diminutive dimensions, with all the finish of miniatures, though rich in figures, touched with great spirit and equal vivacity of colour: they are generally set off by backgrounds drawn from his favourite branch of art, architecture. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

TIBBERMUIK, or **TIPPEMUIR**, a parish of Scotland, in

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Perthshire,

Perthshire, about eight miles long, and from one to three broad. Population 1587.

TIBBERTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-east of Newent.—2. A parish of England, in Worcestershire; 4 miles east-north-east of Worcester.—3. A parish of England in Herefordshire; 10 miles west of Hereford.—4. A hamlet of England, in Salop; 4 miles west-by-north of Newport.

TIBBO, the name of a native African people inhabiting the vast desert tract which extends along the southern frontier of Fezzan, thence eastward towards Egypt, and along the north of Bornou. They are small in stature, have quick eyes, thick lips, a small turned-up nose, and well-shaped limbs. Their complexion is not perfectly black, and their hair is long, less curled than that of the negroes.

TIBENHAM, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 5 miles west-south-west of St. Mary Stratton. Population 512.

TIBER, a celebrated river of Italy, which rises in the Appennines, flows to the west and south, receives a number of smaller streams, passes by Rome, and falls into the Mediterranean about 15 miles below that city, in lat. 41. 47. N. long. 11. 8. E.

TIBER CREEK, a small stream in the United States, which runs south through the city of Washington, and falls into the Potomac.

TIBERIUS (Claudius Nero), a Roman emperor, born in the year B. C. 42. See **ROME**.

TIBERIUS (Constantine), emperor of the East, was a Thracian by birth, and by office captain of the guards to Justin II. By the recommendation of the empress Sophia, he was raised to the rank of Cæsar, A. D. 574, and in 578, when Justin died, succeeded to the imperial throne. See **ROME**.

TIBERON, or **TIBURON**, a bay and village on the south-west part of the island of St. Domingo. The bay is formed by the cape of its name on the north-west, and Point Burgau on the south-east, a league and three-fourths apart. The cape is in lat. 18. 20. 30. N. long. 64. 28. 40. W.

TIBESTI, the largest place belonging to the Rock Tibbo, situated in a mountainous country, which, though suffering from the want of rain, abounds in springs. The valleys, therefore, produce some corn, and excellent pasturage. Senna of superior quality is raised for the markets of Fezzan, and the camels are reckoned superior to any in Africa. The huts of the natives are circular, formed of stakes, covered with brush-wood.

TIBET, **TIBBET**, or **THIBET**, a country of Asia, and part of Independent Tartary, extending from the source of the Indus to the borders of China, and from Hindostan to the deserts of Cobi; in length, from east to west, about 1500 miles; the breadth is unequal, and in many parts not known. It is called by the natives *Puc*, or *Puekachim*; *Pue* signifying northern, and *Koachim*, snow; an appellation given on account of the coldness of the climate, by the teachers who went from India to preach among them. The distinguishing feature of this extensive country is its great and general elevation, being part of that track in which arise not only the great rivers of India and China, but those also of Siberia and Tartary.

Tibet strikes a traveller at first sight, as one of the least favoured countries under heaven, and appears to be in a great measure incapable of culture. It exhibits only low rocky hills, without any visible vegetation, or extensive arid plains, both of the most stern and stubborn aspect, promising full as little as they produce. The usual crops are wheat, peas, and barley; in many parts these grains never ripen, owing to the severity of the climate, but are cultivated as forage for cattle, when the plains become bare of grass, and they are hindered from going abroad during the depth of winter. The periodical rains give birth to a little herbage, whose growth stops immediately as they cease; from the extreme dryness of the air, the grass then begins to wither, and at this time it may be crumbled between the fingers into dust; yet large droves of cattle are fed in this neighbourhood; for though the pasture be short and dry, it is

esteemed singularly sweet and nutritive. Animals ranging in a state of nature are found to prefer it to the more exuberant herbage of milder climates. It is the practice of the cultivators in Tibet to flood the low lands on the approach of winter with water, which freezes and covers their surface with a sheet of ice, and thus prevents their being stripped of their scanty soil by violent winds.

The temperature and seasons which prevail in Tibet possess a remarkable uniformity, both in their periodical elevation, and in their return. The same division of them takes place here, as in the more southern region of Bengal. The spring is marked from March to May, by a variable atmosphere; heat, thunder-storms, and occasionally refreshing showers. From June to September is the season of humidity, when heavy and continued rains fill the rivers to their brim, which run off from hence with rapidity, to assist in inundating Bengal. From October to March, a clear and uniform sky succeeds, seldom obscured either by fogs or clouds. For three months of this season, a degree of cold is felt, far greater perhaps than is known to prevail in Europe. Its extreme severity is more particularly confined to the southern boundary of Tibet, near that elevated range of mountains which divides it from Assam, Bootan, and Nepal. The summits of these are covered all the year with snow, and their vicinity is remarkable, at all seasons, for the dryness of the winds. The range of these mountains is confined between the 26th and 27th degrees of north lat. From the severity of the cold, the inhabitants seek refuge in sheltered valleys and hollows, or amid the retreats among the rocks.

Tibet, though barren of vegetable produce, teems with animal life. The variety and abundance of wild fowl, game, and beasts of prey, flocks, droves, and herds, is astonishing; all of which are described under their several names.

In their domestic habits and life, the Tibetians are rude and ignorant, and, like all others in that situation, they are content with little. The peasant's house is of mean construction, and resembles a brick kiln in shape and size. It is built of rough stones, heaped upon each other without cement, and, on account of the strong winds that perpetually prevail here, it has never more than three or four small apertures to admit light. The roof is a flat terrace, surrounded with a parapet wall two or three feet high; on this are commonly placed piles of loose stones, intended to support a small flag, or the branch of a tree; or else as a fastening for a long line, with scraps of paper, or white rag, strung upon it like the tail of a kite. This being stretched from one house to another, is a charm against evil genii, as infallible in its efficacy as horse shoes nailed upon a threshold, or as straws thrown across the path of a reputed witch.

The knowledge of the Tibetians is, as may be supposed, very limited. It is asserted, however, that the art of printing has from a remote age been practised in Tibet, although limited in its use by the influence of superstition.

Tibet enjoys but the shadow of independence, being ruled by Chinese sovereigns, who obtained their ascendancy over it in 1720, by interfering in the intestine commotions, by which the country was agitated. In 1792 Tibet was invaded by the Nepaulese, who quickly overran the country, and appeared before Teshoo Loomboo so suddenly as scarcely to allow time for the escape of the lama and his gylongs across the Brahmapootra. The Nepaulese were pursued by the Chinese, who defeated them in several actions, and forced them to an ignominious peace. Since this period the influence of China over Tibet has increased. The Chinese maintain residents at the court of Lassa, who are invested with all the real power, and who keep up a constant communication with Pekin.

TIBIA, in Anatomy, the large bone of the leg.

TIBIÆ Pares et Impares, in the Dramatic Music of the Ancients. It has been long doubted, whether *pares* and *impares* meant double and single flutes, or equal and unequal in point of length and size. But though in preferring either of these acceptations, some sense and meaning is acquired, yet we should incline to the latter. For in none of the

the representations in ancient painting or sculpture, which we have yet seen, does it appear that the tibicen, either at sacrifices or in the theatre, plays on a single flute, though we as often see double flutes of different lengths in his hands, as of the same length; and as harmony, or music in different parts, does not appear to have been practised by the ancients, the flutes of equal length may naturally be supposed to imply unisons; and unequal, such as are octaves to each other.

TIBIALIA, among the Romans, a kind of swaths with which they used to cover their legs.

TIBIALIS, in Anatomy, a name applied to various organs situated in the neighbourhood of the tibia. There is an anterior and a posterior tibial artery, an anterior and posterior tibial nerve.

TIBIGI, a river of Brazil, in South America, which flows into the Parana. It is rich in diamonds.

TIBIQUARI, a river of Paraguay, in South America, which enters the Paraguay.

TIBIRITA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja. Population 100 housekeepers, and 60 Indians.

TIBSHELF, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 4 miles north-east-by-north of Alfreton. Population 705.

TIBTHORPE, a township of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles west-south-west of Great Driffeld.

TIBULLUS (Albius), a Roman poet of the Augustan age. For an account of his works, see **POETRY**.

TIBURON, an island in the Gulf of California, off the province of Sonora; about 60 miles in length.

TIBURON, a point of land on the coast of Brazil, in the province of Espiritu Santo.—There is also another of the same name in the province of Seara.

TIBURON, a point of the north coast of the province of Darien, forming the semicircle of the bay or great gulf of Uraba.

TIBURON, a small island in the Pacific ocean, discovered by Magellan in 1520. Lat. 9. 13. 14. 15. and 17. S.

TIBURON, CAPE, a cape on the coast of South America, at the entrance of the gulf of Darien. Lat. 9. 25. N. long. 77. 10. W.

TIBURON, CAPE, a cape on the south-west coast of the island of Hispaniola. Lat. 18. 21. N. long. 74. 29. W.

TIBURONES, or MAIN CAPE REEF, two small islands surrounded with rocks, near the coast of Honduras. Lat. 15. 10. N. long. 82. 8. W.

TICAO ISLE, one of the Philippine islands, situated due south of the large island of Luzon. Lat. 12. 36. N. long. 123. 40. E.

To TICE, *v. a.* [from *enticc*. *Dr. Johnson*.—This is an old English verb, and is also used in Scotland. Mr. Chalmers observes, that Dr. Johnson gives no derivation of *enticc*, to which he refers *tice*; and that the roots of both are probably *titcan*, Sax. *suadere*, *solicitare*. Dr. Jamieson notices this Saxon etymon, as also Fr. *attiser*, Ital. *tizzare*, *accendere*, together with the Arm. *tis*, a train, and Su. Goth. *tussa*, to incite. But it is, no doubt, merely an abbreviation of the old French *enticer*, which is the origin of our *enticc*. *Todd*.] To draw; to allure.—These two have *tic'd* me hither to this place. *Titus*.

TICEHURST, a parish of England, in Sussex; 4 miles east-south-east of Wadhurst.

TICEMENT, *s.* [*enticement*, old French.] Allurement. *Obsoléc. Hulcét.*

TICHBOURNE, a hamlet of England, in Southampton. Tichbourne-house, in the neighbourhood, is supposed to have been built in the reign of Henry II.; from which time a gift of 2*d.* in bread or money has been bestowed on Lady-day, on all who come; 2 miles south-west of New Alresford.

TICHFIELD, a market town of England, in the county of Southampton, pleasantly situated near the Tichfield river. The town is small, but inhabited by many respectable families. The church is a spacious fabric, the work of different ages. The north side is reported to have been built by William of Wyckham; the south side is more ancient. At a short distance from the town are the ruins of Tichfield-house,

the ancient seat of the Wriothesleys. It was erected by Sir Thomas, the first earl, on the site, and with the materials, of an abbey, founded in the year 1231, and of which the possessions were granted by Henry VIII. to his favourite secretary Wriothesley. The building is now in a very dilapidated state, the entrance gateway being the principal part left standing. In Tichfield-house Charles I. was concealed, after his escape from Hampton Court, in 1647, and previous to his again resigning himself to the power of Colonel Hammond, who conducted him to the Isle of Wight. Market on Saturday, and four annual fairs. Tichfield contains 553 houses, and 3227 inhabitants; 3 miles west of Fareham.

TICHFIELD, a town of Jamaica, on the north coast; 22 miles north-east of Kingston. Lat. 18. 12. N. long. 76. 10. W.

TICHVIN, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Novgorod, on the river Tichvinka; 107 miles east-by-south of Petersburg, and 104 north-north-east of Novgorod.

TICINETTO, a small town in the north of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Casale. Population 1000; 9 miles south-east of Casale.

TICINO, a considerable river of the north of Italy, which has its source in Switzerland, on Mount St. Gothard, and after traversing the canton of Ticino, flows into Lago Maggiore.

TICINO, or TESSIN, a considerable district in the south of Switzerland, situated between the central cantons and the frontier of Lombardy. Population of the whole canton, 89,000.

The area of the whole 1130 square miles, is equal to a middle sized English county. It lies on the south side of the Alpine chain, is watered in all its extent by the Ticino, and is extremely mountainous, the ramifications of the Alps dividing it into more than 20 distinct valleys. The soil is fertile, and the climate mild.

TICK, *s.* [This word seems contracted from *ticket*, the ancient word for trust, or score; which Mr. Malone considers to have been the token given by the creditor to the debtor, to ascertain the debt. "You may swim in twentie of their boates over the water upon *ticket*." *Dekker, Gull's Horn-booke*, 1609.] Score; trust.

If thou hast the heart to try't,
I'll lend thee back thyself awhile,
And once more for that carcase vile
Fight upon tick.

Hudibras.

[*Tique*, Fr., *teke*, Dutch.] The louse of dogs or sheep.—Would the fountain of your mind were clear again, that I might water an ass at it! I had rather be a *tick* in a sheep, than such a valiant ignorance. *Shakspeare*.—The case which holds the feathers of a bed.

To TICK, *v. n.* To run on score.—To trust; to score.—The money went to the lawyers; counsel won't *tick*. *Arbutnot*.

To TICK, *v. a.* [*tikken*, Dutch.] To note by regular vibration, as a watch or clock. I do not suppose that the ancient clocks *ticked* or noticed the seconds. *Tollet*.

TICK, *s.* The sound made in ticking.—Its noise is more agreeable to the leisurely and constant *tick* of the death-watch. *Ray*.

TICK, a nasty little animal of a livid colour, with a blunt and roundish tail, elevated antennæ, a globose-ovate form, and full of blood; which infests cows, swine, goats, sheep, and dogs. The tick or ricinus is, in the Linnean system, a species of *acarus* in the aptera order of insects.

It is stated in a paper in the third volume of the "Transactions of the Highland Society of Scotland," that the tick, or *acarus reduvius*, is a distinct species or sort of vermin of this kind from that of the kid, or *hippobosca ovina*, the former of which harasses the lambs and sheep in the spring season, while the latter molests all sorts and ages, but particularly hogs or young sheep, and chiefly such as are in a lean state. The former always adheres close to the bare spots of the shoulders, thighs, or ears, draining and drawing away

away the blood from them; and for the most part drops off about Midsummer: but the latter harbours in the wool, bite the sheep, and sucks their blood. Smearing with tar, it is said, expels it from the skin, and it soon afterwards drops from the wool. Tobacco-juice is fatal to it almost instantaneously, and mercurial ointment destroys it. The former, or tick, is removed by the same remedies as the kid, and it is wholly prevented by having the young sheep in good condition.

TICKARY, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar. Lat. 24. 58. N. long 84. 50. E.

TICKELL (Thomas), an English poet, was the son of a clergyman in Cumberland, and born at Bridekirk, near Carlisle, in the year 1686. He contributed to the periodical publications of the "Spectator" and "Guardian," in the latter of which, all the papers on pastoral poetry, except one by Pope, are ascribed to him. During the negotiations which terminated in the peace of Utrecht, he published a very popular poem, entitled "The Prospect of Peace," which was highly commended by Addison, in return for which commendation he wrote his lines on the "Cato" of that author. On the accession of the Hanover family, to which he was attached, he presented George I., on his arrival, with a piece called "The Royal Progress;" and he served the cause still more effectually by two satirical poems on the Jacobite party, viz., "An Imitation of the Prophecy of Nereus;" and "An Epistle from a Lady in England to a Gentleman at Avignon." Tickell accompanied Addison to Ireland, and was there initiated in public business with a view to future preferment. On occasion of Pope's publication of the first volume of his translation of Homer's Iliad, Tickell published a translation of the first book of that poem, which was patronised by Addison, so as to occasion an interruption of his friendship with Pope. When Addison was made secretary of state, Tickell was under-secretary, and continued in office under his successor Craggs. On the death of Addison, Tickell was entrusted with the charge of publishing his works, to which he prefixed a valuable life of the author. In 1725, he was appointed to the lucrative post of secretary to the lords-justices of Ireland, and retained it till his death, which happened at Bath in 1740. Tickell had been married and left a family.

Tickell is ranked by his biographers among English poets of the second order; equalled by few of his contemporaries in eloquence of diction and harmony of versification, and without lofty flights maintaining a decent elevation by a cultured style, and by just and ingenious thoughts. His funeral poem on Addison is pronounced by Dr. Johnson to be more sublime and elegant than any that is to be found in the whole compass of English literature. His "Ode to the Earl of Sunderland," and his "Colin and Lucy," are highly commended.

TICKEN or **TICKING**, *s.* The same with *tick*. A sort of strong linen for bedding. *Bailey*.—Dimitics, *tickens*, checks, and the like stuffs. *Guthrie*.

TICKENCOTE, a village and parish of England, in the county of Rutland; 2½ miles from Stamford, and within a quarter of a mile of the great north road.

TICKENHAM, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 9 miles west-by-south of Bristol.

TICKENHURST, a hamlet of England, in the parish of North-Bourne, Kent.

TICKET, *s.* [*etiquet*, Fr.] A token of any right or debt, upon the delivery of which admission is granted, or a claim acknowledged.

Let fops or fortune fly which way they will,
Disdains all loss of *tickets* or codille.

Pope.

To TICKET, *v. a.* [*etiqueté*, Fr. ticketed. *Cotgrave* and *Sherwood*.] To distinguish by a ticket.—In that lottery a few glittering prizes, 1000, 5000, 10,000 pounds among infinity of blanks, drew troops of adventurers; who, if the whole fund had been equally *ticketed*, would never have come in. *Bentley*.

TICKFAH, a river of the United States, which rises in Mississippi, enters Louisiana, and flows into Lake Maurepas; 4 miles north-east of the mouth of the Amite.

TICKHILL, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. A little to the west of the town, in a deep valley, are seen the ruins of an ancient priory of Augustins, founded in the reign of Henry III. Tickhill contains 286 houses, and 1508 inhabitants. Market on Friday, with a fair on the 21st August; 5 miles south of Doncaster, and 155 north-by-west of London.

To TICKLE, *v. a.* [*titillo*, Lat.] To affect with a prurient sensation by slight touches.

Dissembling courtesy! How fine this tyrant
Can *tickle* where she wounds.

Shakspeare.

To please by slight gratifications.

Such a nature

Tickled with good success, disdains the shadow
Which it treads on at noon.

Shakspeare.

To TICKLE, *v. n.* To feel titillation.

He with secret joy therefore

Did *tickle* inwardly in every vein,
And his false heart, fraught with all treason's store,
Was fill'd with hope, his purpose to obtain.

Spenser.

TICKLE, *adj.* [Etymology unknown.] Tottering; unfixed; unstable; uncertain; easily overthrown.—Thy head stands so *tickle* on thy shoulders, that a milk-maid, if she be in love, may sigh it off. *Shakspeare*.

TICKLE HARBOUR, a harbour on the east coast of Newfoundland.

TICKLE ME QUICKLY, a name given by the English to an excellent bay on the coast of the isthmus of Darien, situated amid high rocks, with a good anchorage and secure landing place, being guarded by rocks, and by the Samballas islands.

TICKLENESS, *s.* Unsteadiness; uncertainty.—Hoard hath hate; and climbing, *tickleness*. *Chaucer*.

TICKLER, *s.* One that tickles. *Scott*.

TICKLING, *s.* The act of affecting by slight touches; the act of pleasing by slight gratifications.

Aspiring sons,

Who with these hourly *ticklings* grow so pleas'd,
And wantonly conceited of themselves.

B. Jonson.

TICKLISH, *adj.* Sensible to titillation; easily tickled.—The palm of the hand, though it hath as thin a skin as the other parts, yet is not *ticklish*, because it is accustomed to be touched. *Bacon*.—Tottering; uncertain; unfixed.—Ireland was a *ticklish* and unsettled state, more easy to receive dis-temperers and mutations than England was. *Bacon*.—Difficult; nice.

How shall our author hope a gentle fate,
Who dares most impudently not translate;

It had been civil in these *ticklish* times,
To fetch his fools and knaves from foreign climes.

Swift.

TICKLISHNESS, *s.* The state of being ticklish.

TICKHALL, a parish of England in Derbyshire; 5½ miles north-by-west of Ashby-de-la-Zouch. Population 1166.

TICKTON, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles north-east of Beverley.

TICKTACK, *s.* [*trictac*, Fr.] A game at tables. See also **TICKTRACK**.—*Tick-tack* sets a man's intentions on their guard. Errors in this and war can be but once amended. *Hall*.

TICONDEROGA, a township of the United States, in Essex county, New York, on the west side of the south end of Lake Champlain, and at the north end of Lake George; 12 miles south of Crown Point, and 95 north of Albany. Population 958. It has a valuable mine of iron ore.

TICONDEROGA, a fort of the United States, built by the French, in 1756, in Essex county, New York, in the township of the same name.

TICOO,

TICOO, a cluster of small islands near the west coast of Sumatra. They are small and woody; about $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile distant from each other, and the innermost $1\frac{1}{2}$ from the main.

TICOPORO, a river of New Granada, in the province of Maracaibo, which enters the Apure.—There is a settlement of the same name on its banks.

TICOS, a small island in the Pacific ocean, near the east coast of the island of Luçon. Lat. 14. 10. N. long. 124. E.

TICUNAS, POISON OR, is an active poison prepared by the native Indians, on the borders of the river of the Amazons, in three or four degrees of south latitude, which together with that of Lamas, Pevas, and Yameos, is extracted by fire from plants, called by the French lianes, and used in poisoning their arrows. See an account of the nature and effects of these poisons by M. Herrissant, in Phil. Trans. vol. xlvi. art. 12., and by M. Fontana, in Phil. Trans. vol. lxx. part 1., Append. art. 2.; and also Fontana sur les Poisons, &c. Florence, 4to.

TID, *adj.* [τῆδης, Sax.] Tender; soft; nice.

TID, **St. MARY**, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 8 miles south-east of Holbeach. Population 629.

TID, **St. GILES**, a parish in the same county; $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile from the foregoing. Population 534.

TIDBIT, *s.* A dainty.

TIDCOMBE, a parish of England in Wiltshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles north-north-east of Ludgershall.

To **TIDDER**, or to **TIDDLER**, *v. a.* To use tenderly; to fondle.

TIDE, *s.* [τῆδ, τῆδ, Saxon; *tijd*, Dutch and Icelandic.] Time; season; while.

What hath this day deserv'd,
That it in golden letter should be set
Among the high *tides* in the kalendar. *Shakspeare.*

Alternate ebb and flow of the sea.—That motion of the water called *tides* is a rising and falling of the sea: the cause of this is the attraction of the moon, whereby the part of the water in the great ocean which is nearest the moon, being most strongly attracted, is raised higher than the rest; and the part opposite to it being least attracted, is also higher than the rest; and these two opposite rises of the surface of the water in the great ocean following the motion of the moon from east to west, and striking against the large coasts of the continents, from thence rebound back again, and so make floods and ebbs in narrow seas and rivers. *Locke.*—Commotion; violent confluence.—As in the *tides* of people once up there want not stirring winds to make them more rough, so this people did light upon two ringleaders. *Bacon.*—Stream; course.

Thou art the ruins of the noblest man,
That ever lived in the *tide* of times. *Shakspeare.*

When the motion of the water is against the wind, it is called a windward-tide; when wind and tide go in the same direction, leeward-tide; when it runs very strong, it is called a tide-gate.

When the moon is in the first and third quarter, i. e. when she is new and full, the tides are high and swift, and are called spring-tides; when she is in the second and last quarter, the tides are lower and slower, and called neap-tides. For the rationale of the tides, see **ASTRONOMY**.

To **TIDE**, *v. a.* To drive with the stream.

Their images, the relics of the wreck,
Torn from the naked poop, are *tided* back
By the wild waves, and rudely thrown ashore. *Dryden.*

To **TIDE**, *v. n.* To pour a flood; to be agitated by the tide.

When, from his dint, the foe still backward shrunk,
Wading within the Ouse, he dealt his blows,
And sent them, rolling, to the *tiding*-Humber. *Philips.*

TIDEGATE, *s.* A gate through which the tide passes into a bason. *Bailey.*

TIDENHAM, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2 miles north-east-by-north of Chepstow. Population 918.

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TIDESMAN, *s.* A tidewaiter or custom-house officer, who watches on board of merchant-ships till the duty of goods be paid and the ships unloaded. *Bailey.*

TIDESWELL, a market town of England, in the county of Derby, situated on a small clear stream which runs through the town. Tideswell contains 1219 inhabitants; 22 miles north-west of Derby, and 158 north-north-west of London.

TIDEWAITER, *s.* An officer who watches the landing of goods at the custom-house.—Employments will be in the hands of Englishmen; nothing left for Irishmen but vicarages and *tidewaiters'* places. *Swift.*

TIDI, a river of England, in the county of Cornwall, which rises near Leskeard, and passing St. Germans, joins the Lynker, and falls along with it into the Tamar.

TIDILY, *adv.* Neatly; readily.

TIDINESS, *s.* Neatness; readiness.

TIDINGS, *s.* [τίβαν, Saxon, *to happen, to betide; tidende*, Icelandic.] News; an account of something that has happened; incidents related.—I shall make my master glad with these *tidings*. *Shakspeare.*

TIDINGTON, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 2 miles north-north-west of Tetsworth.

TIDMARCH, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 6 miles west-north-west of Reading.

TIDMINGTON, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-by-east of Shipton-upon-Stour.

TIDONE, a small river of the north of Italy, in the Sardinian states, which falls into the Po, not far from Piacenza.

TIDORE, one of the Molucca islands, in the Eastern seas; about 21 miles in circumference. It is situated on the west coast of Gilolo, and is three leagues south from Ternate, from which it is separated by a safe channel, with good anchorage near the town, on the east side of the island. It is remarkably well watered by streams from the mountains, which are high, and generally covered with clouds. It is very populous. Lat. 0. 45. N. long. 127. 25. E.

TIDWEL, a hamlet of England, in Devonshire, noted for a warm spring of water, which continues bubbling when all the neighbouring ones are frozen.

TIDWORTH, **NORTH**, a parish of England, in Wiltshire, on the borders of Southamptonshire; $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-west-by-west of Ludgershall.

TIDWORTH, **SOUTH**, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire, adjoining to the foregoing.

TIDY, *adj.* [*tidt*, Icelandic, frequens. The primary sense is from the Sax. τῆδ, *tide, season*. Wicliffe uses *tideful* in this sense: "*tideful* fruit." *James.*—So *tydigh*, Teut. *tempestivus, maturus*.] Seasonable; timely.

What a hap had I,
And what a *tide* fortune, when my fate
Flung me upon this bear-whelp! *Beaum. and Fl.*

Neat; ready. [*tidig*, Su. Goth. decorus, decens.]

Whenever by you barley-mow I pass,
Before my eyes will trip the *tidy* lass. *Gay.*

It seems to be here put by mistake or irony for *untidy*. *Dr. Johnson.*—Rather perhaps by mistake for *tiny*. The word is applied to Falstaff. *Tidy* is used in the north, according to Grose, for *small*.—Thou whoreson *tidy* Bartholomew boar-pig, when wilt thou leave fighting? *Shakspeare.*

To **TIE**, *v. a.* [τῆαν, τῆαν, Sax.] To bind; to fasten with a knot.—Thousands of men and women, *tied* together in chains, were, by the cruel Turks, enforced to run as fast as their horses. *Knolles.*—To knit; to complicate.—We do not *tie* this knot with an intention to puzzle the argument; but the harder it is *tied*, we shall feel the pleasure more sensibly when we come to loose it. *Burnet.*—To hold; to fasten; to join so as not easily to be parted.

In bond of virtuous love together *tied*,
Together serv'd they, and together died. *Fairfax.*

To hinder; to obstruct: with *up*, intensive.
Death, that hath ta'en her hence to make me wail,
Ties up my tongue, and will not let me speak. *Shakspeare.*

To oblige; to constrain; to restrain; to confine.

It is the cowish terror of his spirit,
That dares not undertake; he'll not feel wrongs
Which *tie* him to an answer. *Shakspeare.*

It may be observed of *tie*, that it has often the particles *up* and *down* joined to it, which are, for the most part, little more than emphatical, and which, when united with this word, have at least consequentially the same meaning.

TIE, *s.* Knot; fastening. See TVE.—Bond; obligation.—The rebels that had shaken off the great yoke of obedience, had likewise cast away the lesser *tie* of respect. *Bacon.*—A knot of hair.

The well-sworn *ties* an equal homage claim,
And either shoulder has its share of fame. *Young.*

TIEDEMAN (Dieterich), a philosophical writer, was born April 1748, at Bremorvorde, in the duchy of Bremen, and educated in the school of his native place in the Greek and Latin languages, in which he made very considerable proficiency. Devoting himself to the church, he removed to the school of Verden, and from thence to the Athenæum at Bremen, where he formed an intimate friendship with Meiners, afterwards professor at Gottingen. In 1767, he settled at Gottingen, and here he renounced the study of theology, because he disapproved of the system there taught, and applied to mathematics, classical literature, and philosophy. His works were numerous, and relate chiefly to the history of philosophy, and its different systems. They afford ample evidence of his assiduity and labour. *Gen. Biog.*

TIEFFENBRUNN, a petty town of the south-west of Germany, in Baden; 7 miles south-east of Pfortzheim. Population 800.

TIEFKARTMANN-DORF, a small town of Prussia, in Silesia; 50 miles west-by-south of Breslau. Population 1400.

TIEGENHOF, a small town of West Prussia; 20 miles east-south-east of Dantzie, and 11 west-north-west of Elbing. Population 1800.

TIELLEN HARBOUR, a bay in Ireland, on the north side of Donegal bay; 7 miles east-south-east of Tiellen Head.

TIELLEN HEAD, a cape of Ireland, on the north side of the entrance into Donegal bay, and the south-west extremity of the county of Donegal; 25 miles west of Donegal. Lat. 54. 40. N. long. 8. 25. W.

TIEN, or LIEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Quangong. Lat. 24. 50. N. long. 111. 49. E.

TIEN, a city of China, of the second rank, in Kiangsee. Lat. 23. 46. N. long. 106. 19. E.

TIENNE, a small town of Austrian Italy; 9 miles north-west of Vicenza.

TIEN-TSIN-ONEI, a city of China, of the second rank, in Pe-che-lee; 63 miles south-east of Peking.

TIEPLO (Giovanni Batista), was one of the last of the eminent Venetian painters. He was born at Venice in 1697, and was a scholar of G. Lazzarini; but he afterwards studied the works of P. Veronese. He possessed a quick invention, and great freedom of hand, and was admirably qualified for the execution of large fresco works upon ceilings, &c.; where great facility of handling, and richness of colouring, will often apologize for the want of higher qualities, particularly in allegoric or grotesque subjects. Tieplo was employed in many of the palaces in Italy, but most honoured by the employment he received from the king of Spain, who engaged him to adorn his palace at Madrid. He died at Madrid in 1770, at the age of 73. He etched many of his own designs with great neatness and taste.

TIER, *s.* [*tiere, tieire*, old Fr.; *tuyer*, Dutch.] A row; a rank.—Fornovius, in his cholera, discharged a *tier* of great ordinance amongst the thickest of them. *Knolles.*

TIERCE, *s.* [*tiers, tiercier*, Fr.] A vessel holding the third part of a pipe.—Go now deny his *terce*. *B. Jonson.*

TIERCE, in Music, a 3d. The highest stop in an organ,

called the tierce, is a major 3d above the 15th, every sound being a 17th above the diapason.

TIERCE DE PICARDIE, the French Music, and indeed all choral music of old masters in a minor key, is terminated with a sharp 3d, which the French now call *terce de Picardie*, on account of the great number of cathedrals in that province, where it continues still in use.

TIERCE, in Fencing, the third position of defence, or that in which the point of the sword is raised and the nails turned down.

TIERCED, or TIBRCE, in Heraldry, denotes the shield to be divided by any of the partition lines into three equal parts, of different colours or metals.

TIERCET, *s.* [from *tiers*, Fr.] A triplet; three lines.

TIERMAS, a small town of Spain, in the province of Arragon, at the foot of the Pyrenees; remarkable for its warm springs.

TIERRA BOMBA, a small island near the coast of South America, at the entrance of the harbour of Carthagena, where, in 1741, the English erected a battery.

TIERRA LLANA, PUNTA DE, a cape on the east coast of Patagonia. Lat. 41. S.

TIE-TCHEOU, a town in the eastern part of Chinese Tartary, in the country of Kokonor. Lat. 33. 56. N. long. 102. 54. E.

TIETE, a river of Paraguay, which falls into the Parana, on the west side, about 12 miles above the mouth of the Securiu.

TIEZ, or TUEZNO, a small town of West Prussia; 12 miles west-south-west of Deutsche Kron, and 24 south of Tempelburg. Population 900.

TIFF, *s.* [*A low word*, I suppose without etymology.] Liquor; drink.

I, whom griping penury surrounds,
And hunger, sure attendant upon want,
With scanty offals, and small acid *tiff*,
Wretched repast! my meagre corps sustain. *Philips.*

A fit of peevishness or sullenness; a pet.

To TIFF, *v. n.* To be in a pet; to quarrel. *A low word.*

To TIFF, *v. a.* To dress; to deck.—Is the Miss under a force when she culls among her trinkets with curious toil to *tiff* herself out in the most engaging manner? *Search.*

TIFFANY, *s.* [*tiffer*, old Fr., *to dress up*.] *Skinnee.* Very thin silk.—The smoke of sulphur will not black a paper, and is commonly used by women to whiten *tiffanies*. *Brown.*

TIFFESH, or TIFAS, a town of Algiers, in the province of Constantina, the ancient *Theveste*.

TIFFIELD, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2½ miles north-by-east of Towcester.

TIFFLIN, a township of the United States, in Adam's county, Ohio. Population 1529.

TIFTALA, a small barren island, belonging to Orkney, in the Pentland frith, near which are several dangerous whirlpools.

TIG, *s.* [from *tekan*, Goth., *to touch*.] A play, in which children try to touch each other last.

TIGA, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the north-west coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 6. 25. N. long. 112. 14. E.

TIGAON, an island in the Indian sea, near the north-west coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 6. 10. N. long. 128. 48. E.

TIGE, *s.* The shaft of a column from the astragal to the capital. *Bailey.*

TIGELLIUS, a musician, born in Sardinia, in great favour at Rome in the time of Julius Cæsar. Horace has handed him down to posterity as a merciless spendthrift, and an egregious coxcomb.

“Ambubajaram collegia Pharmacopolæ
Mendici, Mimæ, Balatrones, hoc genus omne
Mæstum, ac sollicitum est cantoribus morte Tigelli:
Quippe benignus erat.”—*Sat.*

Tigellius

Tigellius was not only much in favour with Julius Cæsar, but afterwards with Cleopatra and Augustus: he was an able musician, an ingenious buffoon, and a subtle courtier.

TIGER, *s.* [*tigris*; Lat.] A fierce beast of the feline kind.

When the blast of war blows in your ear,
Then imitate the action of the *tiger*:
Stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood. *Shakspeare.*

TIGER or **TIGRIS**, in the Linnæan system of Zoology, is a species of **FELIS Tigris**; which see.

TIGER, an island of Guiana, at the mouth of the river Essequibo. It is in a high state of cultivation, and produces coffee and sugar.

TIGER, a small island in the Spanish Main, near the coast of Darien. Lat. 8. 35. N. long. 77. 30. W.

TIGER'S CREEK, a small stream of the United States, which enters the Ohio, in the territory of Kentucky.

TIGER'S VALLEY, a post village of the United States, in Harrison county, Ohio; 16 miles from Clarksburg.

TIGER VALLEY RIVER, the name by which the east branch of the Monongahela river, in the United States, is sometimes distinguished.

TIGHT, *adj.* [From the Sax. *sian*, to tie; or *bygan*, to bind.] Tense; close; not loose.—Every joint was well grooved; and the door did not move on hinges, but up and down like a sash, which kept my closet so *tight* that very little water came in. *Swift*.—Free from fluttering rags; less than neat.

O Thomas, I'll make a loving wife;
I'll spin and card, and keep our children *tight*. *Gay.*

Handy; adroit.

My queen's a squire
More *tight* at this than thou. *Shakspeare.*

TIGHT, *pret. of To tie.* *Obsolete.*

And thereunto a great long chaine he *tight*,
With which he drew him forth even in his own despight. *Spenser.*

To TIGHTEN, *v. a.* To straiten; to make close.

TIGHTER, *s.* A riband or string by which women straiten their cloaths.

TIGHTLY, *adv.* Closely; not loosely. Neatly; not idly; briskly; cleverly; adroitly.

Hold, sirrah, bear you these letters *tightly*:
Sail, like my pinnace, to these golden shores. *Shakspeare.*

TIGHTNESS, *s.* Closeness; not looseness.—The bones are inflexible, which arises from the greatness of the number of corpuscles that compose them, and the firmness and *tightness* of their union. *Woodward*.—Neatness.

TIGIOCA, a point on the coast of South America, which forms with the point of Maguari, in the island of Marajo, the second mouth of the great river Amazons.

TIGITAS, a small river of the Caraccas, in the province of Venezuella, which rises south of the town of La Conception de Pao, and unites itself with the Galamotel.

TIGLA, a river of the province of Darien, which enters the Tarena.

TIGLAGANTI, a river of the province of Darien, which enters the sea in the gulf of Atrato.

TIGLIOLE, a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont. Population 2600; 9 miles west-by-north of Asti.

TIGRANES, the Great, king of Armenia. See **ROME**.

TIGRE, a large and abundant river of New Granada, which rises in the province of Quixos and Macas. It is joined by the Nahuapo, and after running nine miles farther, it falls into the great river Amazons, in lat. 4. 53. S.

TIGRE, an extensive province of Abyssinia, which has now communicated its name to almost all the north-eastern districts of that great country. It is composed, in a great measure, of very steep and lofty mountains, interspersed, however, with fertile valleys and extensive plains.

TIGRE, a small island in the Pacific ocean, at the entrance into Amapalla bay. Lat. 13. 10. N. long. 88. 44. W.

TIGRE, a river of South America, in the government of the Caraccas, and province of Cumana, which falls into the Guarapiche.

TIGRE, a river of Quito, in the province of Chimbo, which runs very rapidly north, until it unites itself with the Tinto and the San Christoval, and enters the Ojiva. Lat. 1. 46. N.

TIGRE, a small island of the Pacific ocean, near the coast of the province and government of Nicaragua.

TIGRE, a small island of the Pacific ocean, in the gulf of Panama, near the island of Otoque.

TIGRESS, *s.* The female of the tiger.—It is reported of the *tigress*, that several spots rise in her skin when she is angry. *Addison*.

TIGRIS, a large and celebrated river of Western Asia, flowing along the boundaries of the Turkish and Persian empires. It rises in the mountains of Armenia, about 50 miles to the north of Diarbekir, and 15 to the east of the source of the Euphrates.

TIGRIS, or **BOCCA TIGRIS**, the name given to a branch of the river of Canton, formed by an island, near its junction with the sea. Canton itself lies on the Eastern side of this branch, to the entrance only of which European vessels are allowed to proceed.

TIGRISH, *adj.* Resembling a tiger.—Let this thought thy *tigrish* courage pass. *Sidney*.

TIGUA, a river of Quito, in the province of Esmeraldas, which runs north-west, and enters the Toachi, in lat. 19. S.

TIGUA, a point of land in New Granada, on the coast of the province of Carthagen.

TIGUARA, a river of Portuguese Guiana, which enters the Negro.

TIGUIL, a river of Kamtschatka, which rises in the district of Niznei Kamtschatka, and falls into the Penjinskaia gulf.

TIHANY, a small town of the south-west of Hungary, on a peninsula on the lake Balaton, with a fortified castle, and a Benedictine abbey; 12 miles south-by-west of Veszprim.

TIHARA, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, belonging to the Seiks. Lat. 30. 48. N. long. 75. 21. E.

TIHOE, a bay on the south coast of the island of Bourou. Lat. 3. 44. S. long. 126. 27. E.

TIIB, EL, a small town of Khusistan, in Persia, on the river Karoon; 140 miles south-east of Bagdad.

TIJELENKING, or **CHILLINGCHING**, a small Malay village in the island of Java, on the west coast, intersected by a river; 10 miles east of Batavia.

TIKE, *s.* [*tik*, Swedish; *teke*, Dutch; *tique*, Fr.] The louse of dogs or sheep. See **TICK**.—Lice and *tikes* are bred by the sweat close kept, and somewhat aerefyed by the hair. *Bacon*.—A dog; a cur. [*tijk*, Runic, a little or worthless dog.]

Avant, you curs!—

Hound or spaniel, brache or lym,
Or bobtail *tike*, or trundle-tail. *Shakspeare.*

A clown; a vulgar person; a blunt or queer fellow: a northern word.

If you can like
A Yorkshire *tike*.

H. Carey.

TIKITHOCKTHOCK, a settlement on the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 56. 15. N. long. 60. 5. W.

TIKOV, a town of Bengal, district of Ramghur. It is advantageously situated at the junction of four roads, and formerly possessed a small fort. Lat. 23. 29. N. long. 84. 85. E.

TIL, a village of Aderbijan, in Persia; 60 miles north-west of Tauris.

TILBROOK, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 14 miles north-by-east of Bedford.

TILBURG, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of North Brabant, with a large castle, and about 10,000

10,000 inhabitants; 14 miles east of Breda, and 15 south-west of Bois le Duc.

TILBURY, EAST, a village and parish of England, in the county of Essex. On the bank of the Thames, in this parish opposite Gravesend, is Tilbury fort, originally built as a kind of block-house by Henry VIII., but enlarged into a regular fortification by Charles II. in the year 1667, after the Dutch fleet had sailed up the river, and burned three English men of war at Chatham. At the place intended for the water bastion, which was never built, stands a high tower erected by queen Elizabeth, called the block-house. Various additions have been made to this fort, which is now mounted with a great number of guns, and strongly garrisoned; 22½ miles south-by-west of Chelmsford, and 28 east-by-south of London.

TILBURY, WEST, a parish adjoining to the above. It appears to have been an episcopal seat of Cedda, bishop of the East Saxons, who, some time in the 7th century, spread the Christian religion in this country, and built churches in several places.

TILBURY, a parish of England, in Essex; 4 miles north-north-west of Castle Hedingham.

TILCAXETE, a settlement of Mexico, in the intendency of Oaxaca, containing 260 Indian families.

TILDIZ DAGH, a mountain of Asiatic Turkey; 10 miles south of Tokat.

TILDSLEY, a township of England, in Lancashire; 8 miles north-east-by-east of Newton in Makersfield. Population 3492.

TILE, *s.* [tile, Saxon; *tegel*, Dutch; *tuile*, Fr.; *tegola*, Italian.] Thin plates of baked clay used to cover houses.—In at the window he climbs, or o'er the tiles. *Milton.*

To **TILE**, *v. a.* To cover with tiles.

Sonnets or elegies to Chloris

Might raise a house above two stories;

A lyric ode wou'd slate; a catch

Wou'd *tile*, an epigram wou'd thatch.

Swift.

To cover as tiles.

The rafters of my body, bone,
Being still with you, the muscle, sinew and vein,
Which *tile* this house, will come again.

Donne.

TILEHURST, a parish of England, in Berkshire; 2½ miles west of Reading. Population 1521.

TILE-KILN-GREEN, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Great Hallingbury, Essex.

TILER, *s.* [*tuilier*, Fr.] One whose trade is to cover houses with tiles.—A Flemish *tiler*, falling from the top of a house upon a Spaniard, killed him; the next of blood prosecuted his death, and when he was offered pecuniary recompence, nothing would serve him but *lex talionis*; whereupon the judge said to him, he should go up to the top of the house, and then fall down upon the *tiler*. *Bacon.*

TILEY, a hamlet of England, in the parish of Great Mintern, Dorsetshire.

TILGHMAN'S ISLAND, an island of the United States, in the Chesapeak, Maryland, at the mouth of the Choptank, containing about 1720 acres.

TILGUN, a village of Asiatic Turkey; 36 miles east-north-east of Akshehr.

TILIA [of Pliny, &c. Derivation uncertain], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of columniferae, tiliaceae (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, concave, coloured, almost the size of the corolla, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, oblong, obtuse, crenate at the tip. Stamina: filaments numerous (thirty and more), awl-shaped, length of the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma a blunt pentagon. Pericarp: capsule coriaceous, globular, five-celled, five-valved, opening at the base. Seeds solitary, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-petalled. Capsule coriaceous, globular, five-celled, five-valved, opening at the base, one-seeded.

1. *Tilia Europaea*, or European lime tree.—Flowers destitute of a nectary, leaves cordate, at the branches of the veins villose underneath. The lime or linden is a tall upright tree, with smooth spreading branches. There are six varieties.—Native of Europe.

Lime-tree wood is turned into light bowls and dishes, and into boxes for the apothecaries. With the twigs they make baskets and cradles. Formerly the bark was used for writing tablets. Shoemakers make dressers of the plank to cut leather on. The truncheons make a far better coal for gunpowder than that of alder itself; and also scribbles for painters' first draughts. The wood is soft, light and smooth, close grained, and not subject to the worm. The most elegant use to which it is applied, is for carving. Many of Gibbons's beautiful works in lime-tree are dispersed about the kingdom, in our churches and palaces; as in the choir of St. Paul's, the Duke of Devonshire's at Chatsworth, Trinity College Library at Cambridge, &c.

2. *Tilia Americana*, or broad-leaved American lime tree.—Flowers furnished with nectaries; leaves deeply cordate, sharply serrate, smooth. This was brought from New England by the name of black lime; the branches being covered with a dark brown bark.—Native of Virginia and Canada.

3. *Tilia pubescens*, or pubescent Carolina lime tree.—Flowers furnished with nectaries; leaves truncate at the base, oblique, toothlet-serrate, pubescent underneath. This tree seems to be of much smaller growth than either of the former; the branches spread more horizontally.—Native of Carolina.

4. *Tilia alba*, or white lime tree.—Leaves deeply cordate, subsinuate, toothed, tomentose underneath.—Native of North America.

Propagation and Culture.—All these trees are easily propagated by layers, which in one year will take good root, and may then be taken off, and planted in a nursery, at four feet distance row from row, and two feet asunder in the rows. The best time to lay them down and to remove them, is at Michaelmas, or soon after, when their leaves begin to fall, that they may take root before the frost comes on, though they may be laid and transplanted any time from September to March, in open weather; but if the soil is dry, it is much the better way to remove them in autumn, because it will save a great expense in watering them, especially if the spring should prove dry.

TILING, *s.* The roof covered with tiles.—They went upon the house-top, and let him down through the *tiling* with his couch before Jesus. *St. Luke.*

TILKERODE, a village of Germany, in the principality of Anhalt Bernburg, with large iron-works.

TILL, *s.* [*tul*, Pers. bursa sartorum; seu pera, in qua digitalia, acum, fila, conduit. *Lyc.*] A money-box in a shop; a tiller.

They break up counters, doors, and *tills*,
And leave the empty chests in view.

Swift.

TILL, *prep.* [til, Sax.] To the time of.

Unhappy slave, and pupil to a bell,

Unhappy *till* the last, the kind releasing knell.

Cowley.

To. North. *Ray, and Grose.*—She that buylded a college royall to the honour of the name of Crist Jhesu, and lefte *till* her executours another to be buylded to maynteyn his fayth and doctrine. *Bp. Fisher.*

TILL now. To the present time.—Pleasure not known *till now.* *Milton.*

TILL then. To that time.—The earth *till then* was desart. *Milton.*

TILL, conjunction. To the time when.

Woods and rocks had ears

To rapture, *till* the savage clamour drown'd
Both harp and voice.

Milton.

To the degree that.—Goddess, spread thy reign *till* Isis elders reel. *Pope.*

To **TILL**, *v. a.* [tilan, Saxon; *teelen*, Dutch.] To cultivate; to husband: commonly used of the husbandry of the plow.

This

This paradise I give thee, count it thine,
To *till*, and keep, and of the fruit to eat.
Send him from the garden forth, to *till*
The ground whence he was taken.

Milton.

Milton.

The husbandman *tilleth* the ground, is employed in an honest business that is necessary in life, and very capable of being made an acceptable service unto God. *Law*.—To procure; to prepare. [This is the primary meaning of the Sax. verb. *tilian*.]

Nor knows he how to digge a well,

Nor neatly dresse a spring :

Nor knows a trap or snare to *till*.

W. Browne.

TILL, a river of England, in the county of Northumberland, which rises among the Cheviot hills, runs southwards to Chillingham, and thence westwards, and falls into the Tweed; 2 miles below Coldstream.

TILLABLE, *adj.* Arable; fit for the plow.—The *tillable* fields are so hilly, that the oxen can hardly take sure footing. *Carew*.

TILLÆA [so named by Micheli, in honour of Michael Angelo Tilli, M.D. F.R.S., born 1653, professor of Botany at Pisa], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order tetragynia, natural order of succulentæ, sempervivæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-parted, flat; segments ovate, large. Corolla: petals four, ovate, acute, flat, commonly smaller than the calyx. Stamina: filaments four, simple, shorter than the corolla. Anthers small. Pistil: germs four. Styles simple. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: capsules four, oblong, acuminate, reflexed, length of the flower, opening longitudinally upwards. Seeds in pairs, ovate.—*Essential Character*. Calyx three or four-parted. Petals three or four, equal. Capsules three or four, many seeded.

1. *Tillæa aquatica*, or water tillæa.—Stem upright; leaves linear; flowers sessile. These plants are all annuals. The flowers are commonly four-cleft and four-stamened.—Native of Lapland, and very abundant near Upsal, where water stagnates on the mountains.

2. *Tillæa prostrata*, or prostrate tillæa.—Stem prostrate; leaves lanceolate; flowers peduncled; peduncles shorter than the leaf.—Native of Germany.

3. *Tillæa Vaillantii*, or Vaillant's tillæa.—Stem upright, dichotomous; leaves oblong, acute, shorter than the peduncled flower.—Native of France, in moist places.

4. *Tillæa Capensis*, or Cape tillæa.—Leaves somewhat oblong; flowers four-cleft.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. *Tillæa perfoliata*, or perfoliate tillæa.—This and two following are also natives of the Cape.

6. *Tillæa umbellata*, or umbelled tillæa.—Leaves subpetioled, ovate, obtuse, entire; stem capillary, upright; flowers umbelled.

7. *Tillæa decumbens*, or decumbent tillæa.—Decumbent; leaves awl-shaped; petals shorter than the calyx.

8. *Tillæa muscosa*, or mossy tillæa.—Stems procumbent; flowers sessile, mostly trifid.—Native of Italy, Sicily, France and England, in dry, barren, sandy and gravelly soil; flowering from the end of May to October.

Although this plant is commonly triandrous, yet as the other species of tillæa have four stamens, it must continue with them in the fourth class, where Linnæus has placed them.

TILLAGE, *s.* Husbandry; the act or practice of plowing or culture.—*Tillage* will enable the kingdom for corn for the natives, and to spare for exportation. *Bacon*.

Bid the laborious hind,

Whose harden'd hands did long in *tillage* toil,

Neglect the promis'd harvest of the soil.

Dryden.

TILLANDSIA [so named by Linnæus, in memory of Tillandsius, professor of physic at Abo], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria monogynia, natural order of corollariæ, bromeliæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, trifid, oblong, erect, permanent; segments oblong-lanceolate, acuminate. Corolla tubular, one-petalled; tube long, ventricose; border trifid, obtuse, erect, small. Stamina: filaments six, as long as the tube of the corolla. Anthers acute, in the neck of the corolla, incumbent. Pistil: germ oblong, acuminate both ways. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma trifid, obtuse. Pericarp: capsule long, obtusely three-cornered, acuminate, one or two-celled, three-valved. Seeds many, fastened to a very long capillary pappus.—*Essential Character*. Calyx trifid, permanent. Corolla trifid, bell-shaped. Capsules one-celled. Seeds comose.

1. *Tillandsia utriculata*, or bottle tillandsia.—Many brown fibrils encompass the arms, or take firm hold on the bark of the trunk of trees, not as misleto, entering the bark or wood to suck nourishment, but only weaving and matting themselves among one another, and thereby making to the plant a firm and strong foundation, whence rise several leaves on every side, like those of aloes or ananas, which has given occasion to its name of wild pine. They are folded or inclosed one within another, each three feet and a half long, and three inches broad at the base, but ending in a point, having a very hollow or concave inward side, and a round or convex outward one, forming a bason or cistern, containing about a quart of water, which in the rainy season falls upon the upper parts of the spreading leaves, and being conveyed down them by channels, lodges in the bottom as in a bottle; for the leaves having swelled out at the base, bend inwards close to the stalk, thus hindering the evaporation of the water by the heat of the sun. From the midst of the leaves rises a round, smooth, straight, green stalk, three or four feet high, having many branches, and when wounded yielding a clear white mucilaginous gum. The flowers come out here and there on the branches. Dampier says he has many times to his great relief stuck his knife into the leaves just above the roots, and let out the water into his hat.—Native of South America.

2. *Tillandsia serrata*, or serrate-leaved tillandsia.—Leaves serrate-spiny above; spike comose.—This is also a native of South America, and common in Jamaica.

3. *Tillandsia lingulata*, or tongue-leaved tillandsia.—Leaves lanceolate-tongue-shaped, quite entire, ventricose at the base.—Native of South America, Jamaica and Martinico, where it is called ananas-de bois, or wood pine-apple.

There are, besides, in this genus, the following:—*Tillandsia tenuifolia*. *Tillandsia flexuosa*. *Tillandsia setacea*. *Tillandsia paniculata*. *Tillandsia fasciculata*. *Tillandsia nutans*. *Tillandsia polystachya*. *Tillandsia monostachya*. *Tillandsia pruinosa*. *Tillandsia canescens*. *Tillandsia angustifolia*. *Tillandsia recurvata*. *Tillandsia usneoides*.

TILLE CHATEL, a small town in the east of France, in Burgundy, situated on a hill watered by the small rivers Tille and Ignon. Population 1000.

TILLEMANS (Peter), was born at Antwerp in 1684, and visited England in 1708, where he attracted attention by his excellent copies from the pictures of Bourgognone and Teniers, of whose works he preserved the freedom and spirit. He also painted landscapes, with small figures, views of gentlemen's seats, sea-ports, &c. and met with very considerable employment. The duke of Devonshire favoured him, and for him he painted a picture of Chatsworth, which gained him considerable eclat. He died here in 1734.

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